COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION

The methods mainly used by the British to administer their colonies were

1. Direct rule.
2. Indirect rule.

**Difference between direct rule and indirect rule.**

Indirect rule was a system under which the British recognized the existing African political system and used it to rule over the colonies.

Direct rule was a system where the Europeans/the British entrenched themselves in the direct administration of their colonies. Indigenous political and administrative institutions and leaders are replaced with European systems.

**Indirect rule**

This was a policy advanced by Fredrick Lugard, the British High Commissioner in the protectorate of Northern Nigeria from 1900 to 1906.

To Lugard, as summed up in his book, The Dual Mandate in the Tropical Africa (1922), “the resident acts as a sympathetic adviser to the native chief, on matters of general policy. But the native ruler issues his instructions to the subordinate chiefs and district heads, not as orders of the resident but as his own”.

Such a system was applied in Kenya and in West Africa.

**Why Britain used indirect rule in Kenya and Nigeria.**

a) Britain lacked enough manpower to handle all the administrative responsibilities in the colonies. For example, in the Nigerian protectorate, there were only 42 British officials by 1900.

b) Lack of adequate funds for colonial administration from the parent government made her use the existing traditional political system as a means of cutting down the administrative Costs.

c) The use of indirect rule was a means of diffusing the expected stiff resistance from the Africans. The traditional rulers were to be made to feel that they had lost no power.

d) The policy of administration had succeeded in India and Uganda, thus motivating them to apply it in Kenya and Nigeria.
British rule in Kenya.

In Kenya, the British lacked both funds and experienced personnel to facilitate their administration. Kenya also did not have a reference model of an administrative system –like that in Buganda Kingdom. It was only among the Wanga section of the Abaluhyia and the Maasai where traditional chiefs that were recognized by the British existed. Where the institution of chieftainship did not exist as the case of the Agikuyu, the British appointed chiefs (men with ability to communicate in Kiswahili and organize porters) like Kinyanjui wa Gathirimu in Kiambu, Karuri wa Gakure in Murang’a and Wang’ombe wa Ihura in Nyeri.

The passing of the Village Headman Act in 1902 gave the chiefs the responsibilities of maintaining public order, hearing of petty cases and clearing of roads and footpaths. The 1912 ordinance increased the powers of the chiefs and their assistants (headmen); they were now allowed to employ other persons to assist them, such as messengers and retainers. They were to assist the District officers in Tax collection and control brewing of illegal liquor and cultivation of poisonous plants like Cannabis sativa. They were to control carrying of weapons and mobilize African labour for public works.

The selected colonial chiefs however faced two problems;

a) Most of them lacked legitimacy and were therefore rejected not only by the African elders who regarded them as nonentities, but also by the young generation who saw them as tools of colonial oppression and exploitation.

b) Many of the colonial chiefs were young and inexperienced.

c) Many of the chiefs also became unpopular since they used their positions to amass riches in terms of large tracts of land, livestock and wives. E.g Chief Musau wa Mwanza and Nthiwa wa Tama acquired 8000 herds of cattle and 15 wives respectively in kambaland.

The structure of administration was as discussed earlier with governor being answerable to the colonial secretary in London. Below him were provincial commissioners, district commissioners, district Officers and Chiefs.

All the administrative positions above that of the chief were occupied by European personnel.

The British in Nigeria.
Nigeria comprised the Lagos colony and protectorate, the Southern Nigeria Protectorate and the Northern Nigeria Protectorate. These regions were later amalgamated into the Nigerian protectorate in 1914.

In Northern Nigeria, Fredrick Lugard employed indirect rule.

Reasons for the use of indirect rule by the British in northern Nigeria.

a) The system was cost-effective. There was need to reduce the administrative cost by using the local chiefs in administration while employing very few British officials.

b) Northern Nigeria had communities with a well-organized centralized system of government complete with Islamic sharia whose use provided a base to govern the protectorate. i.e. The Sokoto Caliphate

c) The vastness of the region coupled with the inadequate British administrative work force and Poor transport and communication network made it difficult for the British officials to effectively administer some parts of the region.

d) The system would help dilute African resistances since governance was by local rulers. The British were keen on guarding against the local resistance to their administration.

e) The method ensured smooth transition from African to British dominion. It was a way of deliberately preparing Africans for self-government.

f) Indirect rule had been tried successfully in Uganda and India.

Indirect administration as applied in northern Nigeria.

In Northern Nigeria, the existing emirates with centralized system of administration formed the basis of local governance. The Emirs were retained and were to rule under supervision of the British resident officials.

The British administration was based on the local customs and laws. Chiefs chosen by the British were to be acceptable by the local people. Local chiefs collected taxes and a portion of it was given to the Central Government.

Local Native Courts operated as per the laws of the land. The Emirs were allowed to try cases in their own Muslim courts.

The Emirs were mandated to maintain law and order. They possessed firearms.

In 1914, Northern and Southern Nigeria were Brought under one system of administration. However Lugard found it hard to apply indirect rule in Southern Nigeria.
Why indirect rule was not successful applied in southern Nigeria.

a) Southern Nigeria lacked a centralized indigenous system of administration, which would have been vital in the application of indirect rule.
b) The south had many ethnic groups, many languages and many disparities in customs, which denied it the homogeneity necessary for the application of indirect rule.
c) The southern people were infuriated by the British introduction of new concepts like forced labour and direct taxes.
d) The British did not give themselves time to understand the operation of the social, political and economic systems of the people of southern Nigeria.
e) The educated elites in the south felt left out of the administration of their own country in favour of the illiterate appointees of the British.
f) There existed communication barrier between the British supervisors, the warrant chiefs and the people, which sometimes led to misinterpretation and misunderstanding.
g) The warrant chiefs sometimes misused their powers in tax collection and molesting women sexually.
h) The brutish had used excessive force in dealing with any form of resistance and this made them unpopular

Problems associated with indirect rule as a system of government.

a) Indirect rule could only be applied where centralized government was present. Its application in stateless societies often faced difficulties.
b) Where chiefs were imposed, especially in the stateless societies, their authority lacked legitimacy and only resulted in suspicion and lack of confidence. This would lead to constant riots when they tried to exert their authority.
c) Local people even in the highly centralized states looked at indirect rule as curtailing the authority of their local rulers and hence resented it. E.g the Yoruba state in Nigeria.
d) Some inexperienced British officials tended to interfere too much with the vital African customs and practices e.g. among the Asante thus bringing further problems.
e) Different administrations had different views on the degree of indirect rule to be applied hence confusion was created. It was difficult to draw a boundary between the advisory and supervisory roles of colonial powers.
f) Language was a problem and there was need for interpreters. Communication was poor and made adaptation difficult.

g) Education of chiefs was necessary but even this took a long time and needed patience and skillful knowledge which the British did not have.

**Effects of indirect rule.**

a) The system led to transformation of the role of traditional African chiefs. They now began to recruit fellow Africans to provide labour to the colonial government and even fight in World War I. The chiefs thus became unpopular.

b) The indigenous system of administration was modernized by the British especially in northern Nigeria.

c) Many African chiefs used their positions to accumulate a lot of wealth at the expense of their people. Chiefs like Wang’ombe and Gakure in central Kenya acquired large tracts of land.

d) Indirect rule created suspicion and mistrust between the educated elites and the traditional chiefs who were given power in southern Nigeria. The elite reacted by forming political movements thus leading to growth of nationalism in Nigeria.

e) Indirect rule helped preserve African cultures, unlike assimilation which sought to replace them.

**DIRECT RULE.**

This system was mainly used in regions with large white settler population such as Algeria, south Nigeria and Zimbabwe.

**Direct rule in Zimbabwe**

Zimbabwe was colonized by the British South African Company under John Cecil Rhodes.

Key notes for the teacher and students

Rhodes used his resources to sponsor a group of South African Europeans who set out to establish in Southern Rhodesia, a satellite of South African System.

They began off by engaging the Ndebele in a series of wars from 1893 before finally occupying the fertile land in Mashonaland and Matabeleland.

**Characteristics of direct rule in Zimbabwe.**

a) Zimbabwe had a large number of European settlers with their population rising to 50,000 by
1931. The whites therefore maintained an advantaged position throughout their administration of Zimbabwe.

b) Many of the British settlers developed the attitude and consequently the belief that the territory was pre-ordained to be a white settler colony.

c) The territory was administered by a commercial company (B.S.A.C) for a long period (1890-1923)

d) An administrator below who was a long chain of European civil servants performing simple administrative duties headed BSAC.

e) Direct method of administration was applied to the Africans who had initially resisted the intrusion. New chiefs were appointed to dethrone the traditional leaders.

f) The Legislative Council that was begun in 1898 gave the European settlers political Rights to the extent that by 1923, they had attained some self-governance.

g) The system was characterized by massive alienation of African Land compelling Africans to provide labour to the new European settlers.

h) There was racial segregation which was effected through the Legislative Council. African communities suffered greatly in the hands of the settler regime.

**Reasons for use of direct rule by the British in Zimbabwe.**

a) The British desired to fully control the economy of Zimbabwe and maximize on profit generation through direct involvement in administration.

b) The Shona and Ndebele resistance against British intrusion made the them not to trust the Matabele chiefs nor use them as British agents

c) There was lack of reliable political system to be used in indirect administration of the region. The local political institutions based on the Induna system had been destroyed when the British conquered and occupied Zimbabwe.

d) Existence of enough B.S.A Co personnel on the spot who were familiar with the area as well as the British system of government.

e) Favourable climatic conditions and the expected rich mineral deposits attracted many settlers who later provided the necessary personnel.

f) There was a strong desire by the Europeans to be able to direct their own affairs and destiny without interference from within or without/The spirit nationalism

The BSAC administrative structure in Southern Rhodesia (1905-1923)
The government was headed by a resident Commissioner who was appointed by the Company stationed at Salisbury. Below him were various commissioners in charge of the Districts (all Europeans). Below them were African Chiefs whose duty included collecting tax, recruiting labour and maintaining law and order.

In 1898, a LEGCO was established – heavily dominated by the European settlers. An Executive Council, consisting of the Resident Commissioner and 4 nominees of BSA.Co was also established.

In 1902, a Native Affairs Department, headed by a European Native Commissioner was created thus entrenching the dominance of Europeans in Zimbabwe. The duty of the commissioner was to allocate land to Africans, collect taxes and recruit labour.

For lack of enough valuable minerals in Zimbabwe as expected, the Europeans compensated by acquiring large tracts of land from African communities with some having grants of upto 3000 acre pieces of land. (Europeans occupied 21 million acres while Africans despite their majority were confined to 24 million acre reserves.)

The Company relinquished control in 1923 to for Zimbabwe to become a crown colony.

Crown colony Rule (1923-1953)

**Why the settlers favored crown colony over merger with South Africa.**

- a) The merger would have led to domination by Afrikaners in their political matters.
- b) Their economic interests would have been neglected in favor of those of Afrikaners.

As a crown colony, a Governor was appointed in 1923 to represent the Queen of England. British government was empowered by the constitution to veto any legislation that would discriminate against Africans. This however never happened practically.

For example, the government formulated the Two-Pyramids Policy or parallel development policy characterized by discrimination against Africans. At the base of the pyramid was the majority Africans relegated to offering cheap labour for the white settlers. At the apex was the minority whites who took the highest positions in the economic and political system.

To legitimize the two pyramids policy were two Acts that were passed in 1930 and 1934.

- **a) Land Apportionment Act of 1930.**
  
  The Act introduced rigid territorial segregation with land being divided into white’s and Africans’ portions. No African was allowed to acquire land outside their segregated portion.
The minority whites acquired over half of the best arable land. Africans were given the semi-arid areas infested by mosquitoes.

**Land was categorized into four;**
1) **Native Reserve Area.** For Africans population. The Land was characterized with Congestion since it was inadequate.
2) **Native Purchase Area.** For Africans to buy. Such areas had harsh climatic conditions.
3) **European Area.** For Whites only.
4) **Unassigned Area.** For government expansion of buildings and other uses.

**Effects of the Land Apportionment Act on Africans.**
a) Many Africans became migrant laborers, moving to mines, towns and European farms to provide cheap labour since their land was unproductive.
b) Large tracts of African land were alienated and they were confined to only 29 million acres while only 50,000 whites occupied 49 million acres of land.
c) This exposed Africans to problems like overgrazing that further deteriorated their land.
d) There was widespread poverty among Africans. For those on the reserves, they faced starvation, those in towns faced slum life.
e) Africans suffered racial segregation in provision of social services in urban areas.
f) There was disruption of social roles as African men moved to towns and settler farms. Women took over men’s jobs in the reserves.
g) Land apportionment became the seedbed for the rise of African nationalism in Zimbabwe.
h) Africans were exposed to over taxation to compel them to provide labour to the Europeans.

b) **The Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934.**
The prime objective of the Act was to protect white workers from African competition. The government through the act prohibited Africans from setting up a trade union. Africans from beyond southern Rhodesia were imported to provide labour to the whites at low wages.

The act resulted in relegation of Africans to the lowest level while skilled jobs were set aside
for the Europeans.
The two acts resulted in the humiliating conditions for the Africans which resulted in the rise of
African Nationalism that continued more after the Second World War.
As an answer to African agitation, the government invited more white settlers giving them
more large tracts of land. The settlers also began to agitate for the formation of a federation of
the three central African territories (southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland)
In 1953, the British government gave approval for the formation of the federation of central
African countries.

**The Central African Federation.**
The federation was organized as follows;
1) Each territory had its own government responsible for local administration.
2) Each territorial government was responsible for all aspects of native affairs within its
   boundaries.
3) The British government was directly involved in the administration of the two northern
   protectorates.
4) An African Board was established to ensure that no racist legislation against the Africans
   was passed in the federation parliament.
5) The Federal Parliament was given powers to deal with all matters involving more than
   one territory and foreign affairs.

The first Prime Minister of the Federation, Garfield Todd, being sympathetic to African protests
over formation of the federation, legalized the formation of trade Unions and funded African
education and Agriculture.
Unfortunately when Todd was replaced in 1958, all his programmees were abandoned.
In 1963, the federation was dissolved and shortly afterwards Malawi and Zambia became
independent as southern Rhodesia remained a self -governing colony.

**The reign of Ian Smith.**
Ian Smith’s Rhodesian Front Party, controlled by the white extremists with no regards for
Africans, won the 1962 elections.
On 15 october 1965, Smith led the settlers to announce a Unilateral Declaration of
Independence (UDI) from Britain implying that political leadership was now fully in the hands of
the white rebel settlers.

This declaration provoked instant protest not only within Africa but also from the international community. UN declared sanctions against South Rhodesia though countries like South Africa and Portugal unfortunately continued to trade with her making the sanctions ineffective.

In 1970, UDI declared itself a republic under a new constitution that entrenched whites’

Key notes for the teacher and students position in Zimbabwe by spelling the following;

a) Voting qualifications for Africans were revised and were now based on income. This automatically disenfranchised the majority of Africans.

b) The land tenure system was revised to enable the Europeans to purchase land from the government.

Meanwhile the war of independence had began in 1966, provoked by the 1965 UDI declaration, with a patriotic front formed by Zimbabwe African National Union(ZANU) of Mugabe Robert and Zimbabwe African People’s Union(ZAPU) of Joshua Nkomo waging a guerilla warfare.

Zimbabwe became independent in 1980, with Robert Mugabe as the fits Prime Minister.

**Effects of British rule in Zimbabwe.**

a) It led to African land alienation by white settlers/ Africans were displaced from their ancestral lands.

b) The establishment of white settlement subjected Africans to abject poverty and suffering. Africans were subjected to intense economic exploitation through taxation and forced labour.

c) African traditional economy was undermined as many of the Africans were forced to work for the Europeans.

d) African interests were ignored in the day-to-day running of the colony.

e) African traditional rulers lost their autonomy and became mere puppets of British administration.

f) African cultures were undermined, for example through the separation of families as people sought alternative livelihood.

gh) The white settlers were to enhance the production of cash crops as transport, trade and industry were developed.

h) Africans were denied freedom of movement and confined I reserves.
i) Positively, it led to development of transport network the region.

j) It led to introduction of new crops in the region

k) It led to rise of nationalism as many Africans could no longer bear the burden of suffering in the hands of the whites.

ASSIMILATION

Definition.
This was a system of administration in which French colonies were given a culture and civilization similar to that of France. This system was influenced by the French revolution of 1789, which emphasized the equality of all men.

In Africa, it was perfected by Lewis Faidherbe in Senegal when he was governor from 1854 to 1865.

To many historians Assimilation was a deliberate French policy to help them destroy African Chieftaincies and Kingdoms that were thriving at the time of their arrival. Under the system, Africans had to;

~ Learn the French language.

~ Practice the French legal system.

~ Apply the French civil and political system.

~ Convert to Christianity and learn French mannerism including eating and dressing habits.

Later on assimilation evolved into association which had been first applied in Africa in central Key notes for the teacher and students Africa by Savorgnan de Brazza.

Association involved letting the subjects develop independently due to the belief that nonwesterners were racially inferior and would therefore never be accepted as equal to Europeans even when assimilated.

French administration in West Africa.

The French system of administration was highly centralized.

The eight French colonies were grouped into the confederation of French West Africa. They were governed from one capital, Dakar, Senegal.

The federation was headed by a Governor-General answerable to the French Minister for colonies in Paris. Each colony was headed by a lieutenant-Governor answerable to the
Governor-General in Dakar.

Each colony was divided into cercles (provinces), each headed by a commandant de cercle. Each cercle was further divided into small districts each headed by a chef de sub-division below whom were African chiefs (chefs de cantons in charge of locations). At the base were chefs de village in charge of the sub-locations.

All the French overseas colonies were seen as overseas provinces and each elected a deputy to the French Chamber of Deputies in Paris (lower House). However the French administrators appointed lacked high standards of education and some were military officers simply rewarded with senior administrative positions. This led to inefficiency.

French administration in Senegal.

In Senegal, the policy of assimilation was only applied in the four communes of St.Louis, Goree, Rufisque and Dakar. In the rest of the country, African chiefs who ruled were put into three grades namely;

a) Chefs de province: - equivalent of the paramount chiefs, they were usually successors of the pre-colonial chiefs.

b) Chefs de Canton: - these were ordinary people appointed by the French officials due to their ability, to be charge of locations. They kept register of taxpayers the location, helped the government in conscription of Africans into the army and assisted in mobilizing forced labour for road construction and other public works.

c) Chefs de village:- these were usually traditional heads of the community(village) who were given the responsibility of collecting taxes, maintenance of law and order, organizing relief during floods and locust invasion and maintaining roads in their areas.

The privileges which were enjoyed by assimilated Africans in the four communes of Senegal included;

Economic privileges

~ They were exempted from forced labour.
~ They were allowed to work in France.
~ They were exempted from paying taxes.
~ They were allowed trading rights like the French people.

Political privileges
They were allowed to send representatives to the French Chamber of Deputies.

They were enfranchised like the French people in France (right to vote)

They enjoyed the rights of the French Judicial System like the French.

They were allowed to operate Local Authority’ structures which were similar to those in France.

They were allowed to retain Muslim law.

They were exempted from arbitrary arrest/through the Indigenization policy.

**Characteristics of assimilation.**

a) Administrative assimilation. There was an administrative relationship between the French colonies and their mother country. Colonies were regarded as overseas provinces.

b) Political assimilation. The colonies were represented in the French chamber of deputies thus maintaining a close political identity.

c) Economic assimilation. The French currency was used in the colonies to enhance the economic relationship.

d) Personal assimilation. Africans in the Quatre communes were given French citizenship and other privileges enjoyed by French citizens.

**Reasons why assimilation was successful in the four communes.**

a) There was a high percentage of Mulatto population within the communes, who readily accepted the French culture making it easy for the French to apply assimilation.

b) Africans were familiar with Europeans and their culture due to long interaction with them through trade.

c) Many people had converted to Christianity and this made it possible for the French to apply their policy.

Factors that undermined the application of the French policy of assimilation in West Africa.

a) There was opposition by local people who did not want the French to interfere with their culture.

b) The Traditional African rulers resisted the policy since they did not want to lose their authority and influence over the assimilated people.

c) The French traders in West Africa also opposed the system they viewed assimilated Africans as a potential threat to their commercial monopoly in the region.
d) The policy of assimilation ran the risk of undermining the very foundation of French colonialism, as it was not possible to exploit Africans who had attained the assimilate status.

e) Missionary school system of education undermined the French policy of assimilation since there was segregation in provision of mission education.

f) Nationalism conflicted with the policy of assimilation.

g) Assimilation was becoming too expensive to the French government especially because West African colonies were not self-supporting yet.

h) The vastness of the French colonies made it difficult to supervise the implementation of the policy.

i) Muslims resisted fiercely the French attempt to convert them to Christianity.

j) Racial discrimination against the indigenous people also contributed to the failure of the system. This is because many Frenchmen never accepted assimilated Africans as their equals.

k) The French citizens in the motherland opposed the policy as they feared being outnumbered in the chamber of deputies.

Ways in which Nationalism undermined the policy of Assimilation in French West Africa.

a) It emphasized loyalty or devotion to one’s country and national independence or separatism, which were against the policy of assimilation.

b) Nationalists agitated for boycott of anything of French origin.

c) The nationalists created awareness on the value of African culture and systems; this encouraged Africans to condemn assimilation.

d) The nationalists created awareness on the importance of African unity which exposed the hypocrisy of assimilation

Consequences of assimilation in Senegal.

a) The policy of assimilation undermined African cultures, as many Africans embraced the French culture. For instance, the French language became the official language in the colony.

b) The authority of traditional African leaders was eroded and even many were replaced by the assimilated Africans.

c) The colony was incorporated into the French republic and regarded as an overseas province
of France.

d) Africans from Senegal were allowed to participate in the political matters of France. Some Senegalese like Blaise Diagne were elected as deputies in the French parliament.

e) The spread of Islam was greatly frustrated, especially in the four communes where Africans were converted to Christianity.

f) A great rift emerged between the assimilated Africans, who were regarded as French citizens and the rest of African communities, who were subjected to taxation and forced labour.

The policy of association.

Under this system, the French colonial government was to respect the cultures of her colonial peoples and allow them to develop independently rather than force them to adopt French civilization and culture.

Unlike the assimilated Africans, subjects retained their cultural practices e.g polygamy and Islam. The subject came under a system of law known as indigenat where the subject could suffer arbitrary arrest or be forced to serve a longer period in the army than assimilated citizens.

Why the French government replaced the policy of assimilation with that of association in 1945.

a) The French had realized that assimilation would lead to equality between them and the colonized people.

b) Assimilation was too expensive especially because West African colonies were not self-supporting yet.

c) The method clashed with the commercial interests. The French businesspersons and their friends in the colonial administration saw Africans as source of cheap labour. They therefore disapproved the idea of uplifting them.

d) The French had realized that not all the colonial people could be assimilated. Only the elite ones among them could. Association aimed at transforming the Native elites into Frenchmen while allowing the other masses to learn enough French for communication purposes.

e) They had realized that there was need to allow the colonies to enjoy the freedom of developing according to existing traditional political and social structure. / respect for the culture of her colonies.
The similarities between the French and the British colonial administrations

a) Both methods emphasized the superiority of the colonial master and his overlord ship in Africa. The Europeans were in charge and took all senior positions.
b) The administrative systems applied in both were meant to assist the colonial masters in controlling their territories in Africa.
c) Both systems led to massive economic exploitation of resources in Africa. E.g minerals, labour, market land etc.
d) In both Africans reacted to the systems in a hostile manner.
e) Both methods led to loss of independence and freedom for the African.
f) In both, every power trained a local army to maintain law and order.
g) In both, Africans were oppressed through taxation and forced labour.
h) In both, the position of chief was created where there was none. I.e. In Kenya, southern Nigeria and Somali.

Main differences between the French and the British colonial administrations.

a) The British were keen to appoint traditional rulers as chiefs. The French on the other hand were not keen to appoint traditional rulers but simply handpicked individuals who met their qualifications (those who embraced French culture and civilization).
b) The British gave the traditional rulers a lot of power, unlike the French – who undermined African chieftaincies.
c) The British colonies were administered separately by a governor accountable to Britain, unlike the French colonies which were governed as federations equated to provinces of France.
d) Most of the French administrators were military officers. The British used a mixture of amateurs and professionals.
e) Whereas the British applied mainly the policy of indirect rule, the French applied the policy of assimilation and later, association.
f) The French colonies elected their representatives to the Chamber of Deputies in France, while British colonies had legislative councils where policies were debated in the colonies.
g) Laws applied in the French colonies were legislated in France while in British colonies laws were enacted by the respective legislative assemblies.
h) In French colonies, assimilated Africans became French citizens with full rights, while the elite in the British colonies remained colonial subjects.

i) Indirect rule preserved African cultures while assimilation undermined them.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS DURING THE COLONIAL PERIOD IN KENYA.

The Uganda Railway

The railway was built between 1896 and 1901 with George Whitehouse as the Engineer. Work was mainly done by 32,000 Indian coolies and 5,000 clerks and craftsmen. The locals could not provide skilled labour. It costed the British taxpayers about 6 million sterling pounds.

Reasons for the construction of the Uganda railway line.

a) To promote trade with the outside world by encouraging the exploitation of available resources and enable the colony sustain itself
b) To link Uganda with the Coast so that the British can achieve their strategic interests.
c) To enable missionaries to go the interior to spread Christianity.

d) To help stop slave trade since slaves would no longer be needed to ferry goods to and from the coast.
e) To provide quick, safe and convenient means of transport for government administrators/troops
f) Open up Kenya for economic development/to stop slave trade/promote legitimate trade
g) To maintain law and order so that economic development could be achieved.
h) To make Africans more productive and able to generate revenue in form of tax to the colonial government.
i) To activate interior trade. To enable transportation of imported goods to the interior of the colony.

The construction.

The railway construction works commenced in Mombasa in 1896. By 1901, the railway had reached Kisumu (then Port Florence) passing through Nairobi in 1899.

Numerous feeder lines were later laid down as follows;
The Nairobi –Thika Branch(1914), Konza – Magadi (1915), Voi- Moshi(1918), Rongai- Solai
In 1948, the Kenya Uganda Railway had been linked with the Tanganyika network to become the East African Railways.

Problems experienced during the construction of the Uganda railway.

a) There was insufficient labour since African labour force was not forthcoming. In the case of the Akamba and the Maasai, they were forcefully recruited.
b) The climate of the interior was not suitable for the European labour force. The Europeans constantly fell ill, thus interfering with construction progress.
c) The Arab rebellion under Mbaruk Rashid between 1895–96 at the coast delayed the railway construction.
d) There was an additional expense of constructing special jetties since Mombasa port was not large enough.
e) The Man-eaters of Tsavo created danger and havoc to the construction works.
f) The rift valley terrain was difficult. It was rugged with many hills and escarpments thus causing difficulties in construction.
g) Hostility of some Kenyan communities to intruders e.g. the Nandi who vandalized the railway and telegraph lines.
h) Insufficient building material since most of them came from Europe and their delivery often delayed,

The effects of railway construction.

a) It led to development of European settler farming in order to make the railway pay for its construction.
b) There was rampant land alienation. The colonial government alienated African land for railway construction forcing communities like the Maasai and Nandi to move into reserves.
c) There was rise of wage labour for the railway and later for the settler farmers.
d) It led to growth of urban centres along the railway line e.g. Nairobi.
e) Railway construction promoted economic growth of the East African region. This is because farm produce and other commercial products could easily reach market.
f) It led to rise of large Asian settlement since many Indians were employed as railway
workers. This Asians boosted trade in east Africa.
g) It led to development of other forms of infrastructure like the roads and telecommunication lines. This stimulated trade development.
h) It led to transfer of the administrative capital from Mombasa in 1905 to Nairobi.
i) When the railway reached Kisumu in 1902, it led to major changes to the administrative boundaries within East African region. Initially, the western region up to Naivasha was part of Uganda.
j) The railway became a major revenue source for the colonial authorities.
k) It facilitated the establishment of colonial rule in Kenya since it was possible for rapid movement of troops.
l) It facilitated the cultural and social interaction among the different races.
m) The railway made rural-urban migration and the resultant enterprises such as hawking and charcoal-selling possible.
n) Other forms of transport and communication developed and expanded along the railway line. For example roads and telecommunications.
o) Christian missionaries were able to move into the interior, where they established mission schools.

SETTLER FARMING AND COLONIAL LAND POLICIES.
As a means of raising revenue to meet the cost of administering the Kenya colony and maintain the Uganda railway, the colonial government encouraged the influx of white settlers to the ‘white Highlands’.
The administration did this by;
a) providing efficient railway transport connecting the coast and the interior
b) Alienating of the white highlands for European settlement.
c) Advertising the availability of free land in foreign newspapers
d) Giving loan incentives
e) Providing security
The settlers however faced the initial challenges of crop and animal diseases, labour shortage, lack of inputs and African aggression.
Why the colonial government encouraged white settlement in Kenya.
The reasons why the colonial administration led by Sir Charles Eliot (1900-1904) and later Sir Edward Northey encouraged settler farming in the white highlands were;

a) They hoped that settler farming would meet the cost of administration and railway maintenance.

b) The British industries were also in need of cheaper raw materials in an increasingly Competitive European Market. These raw materials would be cheaply produced by the settlers.

c) The settlers would also help control the prevailing Asian immigration and influence in Kenya.

d) The colonial government wanted to make Kenya a white man’s country by encouraging white settlers to form the backbone of the economy.

e) Kenya Highlands had cool wet climate and fertile volcanic soils suitable for European settlement and agriculture.

f) There was need to get rid of social misfits in Europe and the landless who would be offered avenues in the Kenya colony.

g) Existence of already willing entrepreneurs like Lord Delamere and Captain Grogan who were ready to come to Kenya and engage in profitable agriculture.

Factors which promoted settler farming.

a) The land policies availed cheap African labour to settler farmers. The alienation of African land and Creation of African reserves forced Africans to work in the settler farms.

b) Africans in Kenya were not allowed to grow some cash crops in order to enable Europeans continue getting cheap African labour for their farms.

c) The government built and maintained various forms of transport. For example the railway, Bridges and roads which facilitated faster movement of produce and inputs.

d) The government Reduced freight charges in the importation and exportation of agricultural inputs and products.

e) The government encouraged formation of cooperatives to help in the processing and marketing of produce.

f) The establishment of financial institutions such as Agricultural Finance Corporation and Banks provided the settlers with credit facilities.
g) The government availed extension services for crops and animal farming through the establishment of the Department of Agriculture and research stations to improve the quality of crops and animals.

h) Trade tariffs were also removed and settlers were granted concessions.

**Problems experienced by settler farming.**

a) Inadequate labour as Africans refused to work. Bush clearance and preparation of land for cultivation was therefore a problem.

b) Constant raids by the local inhabitants such as the Nandi, Maasai and Agikuyu threatened their peace and security. Some communities even raided their dairy farms for cattle.

c) Some of the settlers lacked farming experience. Some of the settlers had not engaged in farming before and therefore lacked basic agricultural knowledge.

d) Inadequate capital often hindered procurement of farm inputs. Machinery, labour. Some settlers became bankrupt and could not meet the day to day operational costs on the farms.

e) Lack of proper knowledge on farming seasons hence crop failure. The climate and soils in the colony were alien to the settlers.

f) There was the problem of poor transport and communication as it had become difficult for the government to network all areas occupied by settlers with roads and communication lines.

g) Inadequate and unreliable market for their produce. They mainly relied on foreign market which could not serve in the case of perishable commodities.

h) Pests and diseases were prevalent in the white highlands. The settlers were assailed by various human, animal and crop disease.

**Settler Crop cultivation**

The main crops cultivated were coffee, wheat, tea and sisal.

1) **Coffee.**

Coffee was first introduced by the Roman Catholic Fathers of St. Austin’s Mission near Nairobi in 1889. It required plenty of farm inputs in terms of chemicals and labour. therefore was a preserve of wealthy European settlers.

Coffee Planters Corporation was founded in 1908 by Lord Delamere’s Efforts, and led to the
spread in the growing of coffee. By 1913, coffee had become the leading cash crop in Kenya grown mainly in Murang’ a, Thika and Kiambu.

Africans were unfortunately not allowed to grow coffee until 1937

**Reasons why Africans in Kenya were not allowed to grow coffee before 1937.**

a) Europeans wanted to continue getting cheap African labour for their farms. This could not be available if Africans were allowed to earn some money through growing of coffee.

b) European settlers did not want to compete with Africans in coffee growing. They feared that it would limit market for their produce.

c) The settlers claimed that Africans did not have knowledge of growing coffee. They claimed that African participation in cash crop growing would lead to low quality products.

d) They feared that diseases would spread from African farms to settler plantations.

e) European settlers claimed that African farmers would produce low quality coffee due to inadequate resources.

2) Wheat.

It was introduced in Kenya in 1903 by Lord Delamere who experimented on his Njoro farm. It was however until 1912, when a more resistant variety was developed, that wheat growing took root in Kenya.

In 1908, Lord Delamere set up Unga Ltd which boosted wheat farming in Kenya. It was grown in the Nakuru and Uasin Gishu areas.

Like coffee, wheat farming was the preserve of wealthy European settlers from Australia, Canada, Britain and South Africa. Africans began to grow wheat only after independence.

3) Sisal.

It was introduced in Kenya from Tanganyika in 1893 by Richard Hindorf, a German Doctor. Initially, it was cultivated around Thika in 1904. By 1920, it had become the second largest income-earning crop after coffee.

The main sisal growing areas included Baringo, Koibatek, Ol Donyo Sabuk, Ruiru, Thika, Voi, Taita and Taveta.

Africans began growing coffee in 1964 though its growth declined due to the competition it faced from synthetic fibre.

4) Tea.
Tea was introduced in Kenya in 1903 around Limuru by Messrs Caine Brothers. It was until 1925 when tea began being grown successful with large tea estates being established by tea companies like Brooke Bond and Africa Highland from India. The main tea growing areas were Nandi, Kericho, Sotik, Nakuru, Murang’a and Kiambu.

**Stock rearing.**

Lord Delamere carried out many experiments in sheep and cattle rearing at his Equator Ranch in Njoro though the Maasai raids in his farm and cattle diseases frustrated his efforts. After cross-breeding exotic types with local stock, he came up with more resistant variety

The government also set up an experimental livestock farm in Naivasha.

In 1925, the Kenya Cooperative Creameries was established due to Delamere’s efforts. Later, the Uplands Bacon Factory was established near Limuru to promote pig rearing.

In 1930, the Kenya Farmers Association (KFA) was established

**Colonial land policies in Kenya.**

To empower the settlers to take up more arable land in Kenya, the Legislative council passed the following Land Acts or Ordinances;

1) The Indian Acquisition Act (1896). It empowered the authorities to take over land for the railway, government construction and public utilities.

2) The Land Regulations Act (1897). It allowed the government to offer a certificate of occupation and a lease of 99 years. This Act encouraged settlers to take up land left vacant by the Agikuyu due to drought and famine.

3) The East African Land Order in Council (1901). It defined crown land as all public land which was not private. The government could take up any land at will, sell it or lease it for use by settlers.

4) The Crown Land Ordinance (1902). It allowed the government to sell or lease crown land to Europeans at 2 rupees per 100 acres or rent at 15 rupees per 100 acres annually.

5) The Maasai Agreement (1904). It led to creation of the Ngong and Laikipia reserves while the settlers took up Maasai land for livestock farming. For example Lord Delamere in Nakuru.

6) The Elgin Pledge of 1906. The government through the British Secretary of State, Lord Elgin confirmed that the Highlands were reserved for settlers. This barred the Asian attempts to
buy land in the highlands.

7) The second Maasai Agreement of 1911. The Maasai were pushed out of the fertile Laikipia reserve to pave way for more European settlement and large scale farming.

8) The Crown Land Ordinance (1915). This provided for land registration scheme for settlers. It defined crown land as land occupied by and reserved for Africans who could be evicted any time. Farm sizes were increased from 5,000 to 7,500 acres.

9) The Kenya Annexation Order in Council (1920). It announced that Africans were tenants of the crown even in the reserves.

10) The Land Commission (1924). It fixed boundaries of the reserves, which were later legalized in 1926.

11) The Native Trust Ordinance (1930). It stated that African reserves belonged to the Africans permanently.

12) The Carter Commission (1932). It fixed the boundaries of the white highlands, leading to population pressure in the African reserves. All Africans were removed from the highlands into the reserves.

13) The Kenya Highlands Order in Council (1939). It fixed boundaries of the white highlands and reserved them permanently and exclusively for Europeans.

**Effects of the colonial land policies.**

a) The displaced Africans were confined to native reserves thus leading to congestion/overuse of land. By 1914, settlers like Lord Delamere and Captain Crogan owned 100,000 and 220,000 acres of land, respectively, at the expense of African congestion in the reserves.

b) Africans who lost their land became poor. Many Africans became squatters and lived in misery and hopelessness.

c) The situation in the reserves and the landlessness forced to supply labour in settler farms for wages in order to pay taxes.

d) The displaced Africans moved to towns looking for employment. Their movement to towns led to growth of urban centres.

e) The traditional socio-economic set-up of the Africans was disrupted. Communities could no longer migrate in search of better lands and pasture. Family roles changed as women increasingly took over headship of families while men sought for paid employment.
f) The large European farms suffered acute shortage of labour as many Africans were unwilling to work on them.

g) It led to the introduction of the Kipande System enforced by the Native Registration Ordinances of 1915 and 1920, to prevent the African labourers from deserting their duties on European farms.

h) Taxes were imposed on Africans and were to be paid only in monetary form. This was meant to compel Africans seek for wage employment.

i) The reserving of the highlands for the whites only denied Indians access to agricultural land, compelling them to resort to businesses and residences in urban areas.

j) Loss of land led to bitterness and made Africans later to form political organizations to demand for their land/spread of nation

**THE DEVONSHIRE WHITE PAPER.**

The Mandate of the League of Nations compelled Britain, just like any other colonial authority to institute reforms that would involve addressing African grievances. Governor Edward Northey who had given many concessions to the settlers was recalled to Britain in 1922. Other reforms that were instituted were;

a) Abandonment of Racial segregation policy in Kenya except in the highlands.

b) Allowing Asians to elect four members to the Legco, which was initially settlerdominated. This however was not done until 1933.

In March 1923, settlers in a form of protest to these reforms sent a delegation to London to try to settle scores with the Secretary for Colonies, the Duke of Devonshire.

The fundamental set of principles that were issued in this meeting are what came to be known as the Devonshire White Paper.

**Factors that led to the issuing of the Devonshire white paper.**

a) The influence of “The Dual Mandate”. This was a book of the League of Nations that had regulations concerning colonial mandates. Britain was committed to the principle of trusteeship whereby she was interested on its African population than European settlement

b) The rise of race conflicts i.e. Africans versus European dominion and European versus Asian conflicts. The Indians were opposed to the privileged position of European settlers.

c) The banning of racial segregation .The decision by the colonial government to ban racial
segregation apart from the white highlands only, disappointed the settlers who wanted the ban lifted hence they sent a delegation to London to see the colonial secretary.

d) The African general resentment. Their resentment was on land alienation, forced labour, taxation system, kipande system, low wages and no political representation.

**Terms of the Devonshire White Paper.**

a) White highlands were reserved for European settlement only

b) Indians would be allowed to elect five members to LEGCO not on a common roll, but on a communal roll.

c) Racial segregation was abolished in all residential areas.

d) Restriction on Indian immigration was lifted

e) A nominated missionary was to represent African interests in the LEGCO.

f) The European Settlers’ demand for self government in Kenya was rejected.

g) African interests were declared paramount before those of immigrant races if there was a Conflict.

h) The settlers were to maintain their representation in the LEGCO.

i) The Colonial Secretary was given mandate to exercise strict control over the affairs of the colony.

**Implications of the Devonshire white paper.**

The issuance of the paper left the Settlers, Asians and Africans more dissatisfied than ever before as follows;

**On the part of the settlers;**

a) The Indian call for equality, to them, was unrealistic since they could not stomach the mixing of Oriental and Western cultures in Kenya.

b) Since European culture was superior, they felt that racial segregation was justified in all spheres.

c) To the settlers, instead of giving in the Indians’ grievances, they would rather give in to African demands since they had moral rights to protect African interests.

d) To them, the white highlands were primarily theirs and they had a legal claim over them.

**On the Asian part;**

a) They wanted equality of all races instead of settler dominance in Kenya especially
pertaining to settlement in the white highlands.
b) They opposed policies on residential segregation and restriction on their immigration.
The government was inviting more settlers to check Indian immigration into Kenya by this time.
c) They wanted direct and adequate representation in the Legco based on a common roll free election (not communal roll).
d) They objected separate taxation for Europeans and Indians and segregated education.
The Devonshire White paper was therefore viewed as the product of the struggle between the Asians and the Europeans. The paper made the Asians join their African comrades in the struggle for freedom, especially in the trade Union Movement.

Settler dominance In Kenyan affairs continued upto 1963 despite recommendations done in the white paper.

**Results of the Devonshire white paper.**
a) The Devonshire white paper saved Kenya from becoming another Rhodesia or South Africa. The European demand for self-government was rejected.
b) In theory, settler’s dominance was weakened but in practice, the white paper upheld the dominance of the settlers more than that of the Africans e.g. segregation in residential areas in towns continued, they dominated the economy because they retained the white highlands.
c) The paper did not satisfy the Asians since they did not gain access to the white highlands.
d) Although many Asians came to Kenya, the Asians did not achieve equality with Europeans through a Common Roll. The Indian congress refused to cooperate with the government; they declined to hold elections for the Legislative Council seats offered to them. No Asian seats, five in all were occupied until 1933.
e) Africans were to be represented by a nominated missionary, John Arthur, instead of representation by an African. For the first time, Africans were represented in the Legco.
f) The Devonshire White Paper Benefited the Africans by declaring/recognizing Kenya as an African country where African interests should be paramount
g) It failed to resolve African land and labour grievances.
h) It sensitized the Africans on their plight leading to formation of political parties.
URBANIZATION
Towns that were already in existence before the advent of colonialism include Mombasa, Lamu and Malindi. Many other towns in the interior grew during the colonial period.

Factors which led to the establishment of urban centres in Kenya during the colonial period.

a) Development of transport network. Construction of roads and the Uganda railway led to growth of some towns as transport terminus or along the transport lines e.g. Nairobi, Voi, Nakuru and Kisumu.

b) Growth of trade in the interior of Kenya. Most towns began as trading centres for Indian commercial entrepreneurs. E.g Machakos, Nakuru, Kisumu, Nairobi and Voi.

c) Development of administrative posts. The colonial government established administrative posts in various parts of the country. These posts later grew into urban centres. E.g Fort Hall, Embu, Kapsabet, Meru and Garissa.

d) Rural-urban migration. The movement to urban areas by African labourers from various parts of the country led to further growth of urban centres.

e) Development of agriculture. Settler farming led to growth of towns like Eldoret which began as agricultural collection centres.

f) Development of Agro-based industries like flour mills, meat-processing plants and sawmills which attracted labourers from all parts of the country to be transformed into urban centres.

g) Development of mining activities. This stimulated development of industries in the mining areas leading to urban growth. E.g. Kakamega, Athi River and Magadi.

Why Africans moved to urban areas in colonial Kenya.

a) The Urban centres had recreational facilities and social amenities which attracted the Africans, fed up with hardship conditions in the reserves.

b) The Africans expected Job opportunities with better wages in the towns where there were industries as compared to the rural areas.

c) Some Africans were escaping from forced labour and taxation.

d) The African entrepreneurs wanted to take advantage of the wider markets in the towns to escape poverty in the crowded reserves.

Ways through which the colonial government controlled Africans migration to urban centers.
a) Taking headcount of those who were supposed to live in urban centres
b) Enacting strict rules about migration into urban centre
c) Creation of African reserves
d) Ensuring that only those who had specific activities to undertake in the urban centres lived there
e) Introduction of kipande system.

**Positive effects of urbanization during the colonial period.**

a) It promoted interaction between people of diverse ethnic and racial backgrounds, who exchanged ideas and experiences. The centres became seedbeds of political activities that eventually culminated into the struggle for independence.
b) Urbanization promoted national integration and instilled a sense of nationhood among Kenyans as it watered down the differences and prejudices between communities.
c) The welfare associations formed by Africans in urban areas, like the Bara Association in Mombasa for all hinterland people, united them for a common cause by lessening ethnic hostilities.
d) Through sporting and cultural activities that took place in towns, relationships between different ethnic groups and races were cemented.
e) Many Africans benefitted from the numerous employment opportunities as shoe shiners and repairers, charcoal sellers, hawking in industries and in European homes.
f) Due to the Abundance of labour and raw materials, industries in urban areas expanded further.

**Negative effects of urbanization during the colonial period in Kenya.**

a) There were inadequate housing facilities to meet the demands of the people. This led to overcrowding especially in slums/shanties led to the outbreak of diseases. Lack of planning of housing led to poor drainage and sanitation facilities.
b) Africans in urban areas were subjected to racial discrimination. The social services provided to the Africans were inadequate and of poor quality. Even houses in towns were occupied According to the various racial groups, with Europeans enjoying the best facilities.
c) Increased population in urban centres led to serious water shortages.
d) Establishment of industries in urban centres led to pollution of the environment, which
affected the health of the inhabitants.
e) There was rampant unemployment as urban centres could not cope with the large influx of labourers and increased competition for the available jobs.
f) Many unemployed people in urban areas got involved in social vices / crimes such as drug abuse, alcoholism and promiscuity, due to desperation and poverty.
g) Africans working in urban centres received low wages with employers taking advantage of the high supply of labour, which affected their standards of living.
h) The mass rural-urban migration brought about intensification of migration regulations to control the numbers of African migrants. The Kipande system became stricter.
i) Economic activities in the rural areas were disrupted by the absence of men who had moved to urban areas. Women took up men’s roles.

EDUCATION AND HEALTH

Education.
Formal education in colonial Kenya was provided by four groups;
~ The Christian Missionaries.
~ The Colonial government through local councils.
~ The Africans themselves.
~ Community organizations(Asians)

Major milestones in the development of education in Kenya during the colonial period. Initially, the provision of education was the preserve of the missionaries. For example, the Church Missionary Society (CMS) pioneered by setting up a school at Rabai in 1844 and another in Mombasa in 1873.

Features of Missionary education
a) It was elementary. The subjects taught included religion, writing, reading, reading, hygiene and arithmetic.
b) It was industrial and technical in approach, aiming at training Africans to be carpenters, masons, agricultural assistants and shoe repairers.
c) It was denominational and aimed at inculcating doctrines of a particular church in the learners.

Objectives of Missionary education.
a) To impart in the Africans Agricultural Skills in order to promote settler farming.
b) To give the Africans basic technical skills to improve their industrial knowledge.
c) To train some Africans as Catechists to enhance the spread of Christianity.
d) To offer Africans basic literacy and numeracy to read the bible and do simple arithmetic.

**Education development in Kenya in the period between 1904 and 1963 was facilitated by the following factors:**

1) The WWI ex-soldiers experiences which convinced them of the advantage of higher education.
2) Increase in African nationalism that demanded for better education for Africans.
3) The need to produce better and more skilled manpower for the future independent Kenya.
4) Primary education had produced qualified children who needed higher education.

In 1911, the colonial government agreed to share the burden of providing education to Africans with the missionaries. In 1913, the first Government African School was started at Machakos. It became a centre for Technical and Teacher training.

In 1918, the education commission made the following far-reaching recommendations to the government in line with the Fraser Commission report of 1908 which had recommended a racially –segregated system of education;

a) Provision of technical education to Africans.
b) Maintenance of racially segregated Schools.
c) More cooperation between the colonial government and the missionaries.
d) Appeals for grants-in-aid for mission schools.

**In 1924, a commission came to Kenya (the Phelps –Stokes Commission) to look into the**
education situation. It recommended that Africans should receive Practical AgriculturalOriented Education suitable for rural areas. Other recommendations included;

a) That there should be a uniform system of education in all government and missionary schools.
b) That sufficient training for teachers and related personnel should be enhanced by establishing colleges.
c) That schools should be built in the rural areas. This was done through the education
ordinance of 1924.
Due to its recommendations, the Native Industrial Training Centre was built at Kabete in 1924 and Jeanes School, Kabete (1925) for offering technical and industrial education. Other schools were started later at Kapsabet, Kajiado, Tambach, Kitui, Kwale, Kabianga and Kapenguria.
The 1924 Education Ordinance created an advisory committee on African education. The representation to the committee was missionaries, colonial officials and settlers. The same year, more schools were built with the assistance of the newly formed Local Native Councils. In 1931, another Education Ordinance helped in the establishment of Kakamega GAS In 1932, Kisii GAS in 1934, and Kabianga. Finance for African education was to come from the colonial government.
From 1925, the missionaries began providing advanced level education to Africans. Initially secondary education was the preserve of the Europeans.
In 1926, the Alliance of protestant missionaries set up Alliance High School. Catholics established Kabaa in 1927 and Mang’u School in Thika in 1930 for Africans. In 1938 and 1939, Maseno and St. Mary’s Yala were started as secondary schools.

Achievements of missionaries in provision of education.

a) They designed a curriculum with emphasis on agriculture, tailoring, masonry and carpentry.
b) They established the first secondary schools for Africans such as Alliance (1926), Kabaa (1927), Maseno (1938 and Yala (1939).
c) They trained African teachers to man the ‘Bush Schools’ (schools found in remote areas consisting of mud huts with grass-thatched roofs) and teach in independent schools.
d) They offered the necessary financial and material support to make these schools operational.

Secondary schools for whites included Prince of Wales (Nairobi School), and Duke of York (Lenana School) for European boys, Kenya Girls High School (Kenya High) and Limuru Girls for European Girls.

Schools for Indians include the Asian Railway School (1904) and other schools developed by the government in Mombasa and Nairobi. Also community-based schools like Allidina Visram and the Arya Samaj Foundation.

Hospital School became the first multi-racial school in 1953.
In 1934, a District Education Board was created to plan education in districts, establish primary schools and manage the schools.

In 1949, the Beecher Committee was instituted to look into African education.

From 1961, Asian and African pupils begun to join European schools.

Provision of elementary education by Africans was pioneered by John Owalo of the Nomiya Luo Mission in 1910.

**University Education.**

Africans in Kenya got opportunity for university education at Makerere which was established in 1922 initially as a technical college and became an affiliate of the university of London on 1949..

In 1954, the Royal Technical College, Nairobi began to offer higher education and became an affiliate of the university of London in 1959 to offer the first degree courses in 1961 when it became known as the royal college.

**Community based education.**

This was done mainly by Asian families of Ismaili and Arya Samaj for the Indian traders in urban areas. Allidina Visram, A wealthy man, also established centres of higher education.

**African Role in educational provision.**

Africans began their own schools for the following reasons;

a) They wanted to protect certain cultural practices like feral circumcision and polygamy.

b) They wanted to access higher education, since the government and missionaries were only offering them technical and industrial education, so that to be able to compete for the white-collar jobs with other races.

c) They would also use the schools as a forum to air their grievances and to create political awareness in their community.

The Nomiya Luo Mission built several schools in Nyanza between 1908 and 1910. Other schools were built in Gem-Luanda region between 1913 and 1918 and in central Kenya in 1923 in Kiambu.

In 1934, the Kikuyu Independent Schools Association (KISA) and the Kikuyu Karinga Education Association founded more schools.

In 1938, Githunguri Teacher Training College had been established under Mbiyu Koinange.
Health.

**Developments in provision of health services in colonial Kenya.**

Initially, just like in the case of education, the Christian missionaries were concerned with provision of health services in colonial Kenya. The colonial government was majorly concerned with eradication of plague, malaria and sleeping disease which the Pioneer European settlers suffered from. Preventive medicine was later introduced to help stop various infections of killer diseases.

The Church of Scotland Mission and the Church Missionary Society soon opened medical facilities in Kikuyu (1902), Kaimosi (1903), Kaloleni (1904) and Maseno (1905).

Dr. Arthur, a missionary and pioneer doctor, put up the Thogoto Mission Hospital in 1907 and the facility exists prominently up to today as the Kikuyu Eye Unit Hospital and Kikuyu Rehabilitation Centre.

**Objectives of the Health centres.**

a) To eradicate diseases such as smallpox, malaria and sleeping sickness.

b) To train medical personnel to handle western medicine.

c) To improve health and hygiene for Africans and Asians in towns where they lived in overcrowded areas lacking in sanitary facilities.

Africans began being trained in the provision of emergency health services during the first war. (The East African Medical Corps was formed). Between 1919 –1922, missionaries began to train Africans as Medical Dressers and Dispensers.

After the opening of the Alliance medical college in 1920 and the establishment of a Medical training centre under the Nurses and Midwives Ordinance many African school leavers trained as laboratory and pharmacy assistants.

A Public Health Ordinance was passed in 1921 giving the Medical Department powers to institute measures for the control of malaria and prevent communicable diseases. As a follow up to the 1921 Ordinance, new health units were established in the four different African reserves.

The Rural Dispensary System was established to supplement the missionary efforts in provision of healthcare. Health centres were built in rural areas as part of the colonial government efforts to improve health facilities.
After 1945, the Development and Research Authority (DARA) gave 47,000 sterling pounds for health care and improvement of health services.

In 1949, the Bureau of Medical Research was set up as an agency of the East African High Commission.

In 1950 King George IV hospital (today the Kenyatta National Hospital) was started as a hospital for Africans and in 1951, it started training female nurses.

By 1962, there were over 100 rural health centres in the country.

**Role of Africans in Health Provision.**

Africans were more pre-occupied with superstitions and over-reliance on traditional medicine which negated their participation in provision healthcare.

The traditional medicinemen were dismissed by missionaries despite their wealthy knowledge on herbal Medicine. Today, many people rely on traditional herbalists to compliment healthcare provision.