

Noor Nieftagodien, 2011, "Clements Kadalie," in Emmanuel K. Akyeampong and Henry Louis Gates, Jr (eds.), *Oxford Dictionary of African Biography*, Oxford University Press.

to recapture Busongora. After a long series of wars, Kaboyo succeeded where his Bunyoro-Kitara rivals had failed and became the master of the salt mines that attracted many traders. Rather than rely on sales of slaves and ivory to Nyamwezi, Arab, and Swahili traders, Kaboyo instead had salt to trade, a rare and expensive resource in the east African interior. Toro thus could remain relatively insulated from the instability and violence associated with the rise of slave and ivory exports from Toro's neighbors Bunyoro-Kitara and Buganda.

Besides his efforts to expand his territory through war, Kaboyo crushed revolts by several of his sons, perhaps inspired by his own rebellion against his father. It is unclear when or how Kaboyo died, although historian Kenneth Ingham suggests it occurred sometime in the early 1860s. His sons almost immediately fought each other for the throne, which allowed Bunyoro-Kitara's ambitious king Kabarega to recapture Toro in the 1870s and 1880s. Kaboyo's dream of an independent state thus fell victim to the same generational conflicts that had allowed Toro to break away from Bunyoro-Kitara in the first place.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Ingham, Kenneth. *The Kingdom of Toro in Uganda*. London: Methuen and Company, 1975.
- Steinhart, Edward I. *Conflict and Collaboration: The Kingdoms of Western Uganda, 1890-1907*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1977.

JEREMY RICH

Kadalie, Clements (1896-1951), South African founder of the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICU), was born in April 1896 in Nyasaland (present-day Malawi), the grandson of the Tonga chief, Chiweyu. As a member of the elite, he was educated by missionaries of the Church of Scotland. He completed his teacher training in 1912, when he was only in his mid-teens, and taught at primary schools for a brief period. Clearly talented and ambitious, the young Kadalie would have found the local prospects for upward mobility limited and left the country in 1915 to make a new life in the southern colonies. The decades from the late nineteenth century to the early twentieth century were characterized by great mobility and migration of people—laborers and the petty bourgeoisie alike—in southern Africa, especially to the relatively prosperous South Africa, where opportunities for employment and social advancement seemed greater. Kadalie's journey saw him stay briefly in Mozambique before

living in Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) from 1915 to 1918, where he worked in various clerical posts. He then proceeded to Cape Town, where his life was completely transformed.

White-dominated South Africa deliberately undermined the advancement of the black elite. Education and talent mattered little. Despite his qualifications and teaching experience, Kadalie could only find menial jobs. This was a source of intense frustration for him, as it was for the educated black elite in general, and caused a radicalization in their ranks. The years following the war also witnessed an upsurge in militancy among urban black workers whose livelihoods came under pressure from high inflation, low wages, and a lack of housing. Key examples of struggles were the strike by Johannesburg's black sanitary workers (so-called "bucket boys") and the 1920 strike by seventy thousand black miners. The African National Congress (ANC) also organized an anti-pass campaign (in reaction to the government's pass laws, which required black South Africans to carry passes with them at all times; failure to do so could result in imprisonment).

Within a year of his arrival, Kadalie was at the center of workers' action in Cape Town. In January 1919 he was instrumental in the formation of the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICU), a local union for dockworkers and arguably the most significant black political movement in South Africa before World War II. The ICU was a movement of its time, reflecting the complex and contradictory experiences of black people who were being subjected to the dual processes of an increasingly coercive segregationist state, and the mounting dominance of the capitalist system.

Later that year, the new union led three thousand workers on a successful strike that lasted nearly two weeks, effectively bringing operations at the country's main harbor to a standstill. Kadalie immediately made his mark on the political scene as a militant and populist union leader and was suspected by the authorities of being a communist, partly because of an early association with Arthur Batty, a member of the International Socialist League (the forerunner of the Communist Party of South Africa). The state attempted to deport him in November 1920. However, Kadalie successfully challenged this move, further enhancing his reputation as someone who was prepared to fight the authorities.

Over the next few years Kadalie became one of the key figures in efforts to establish a national

union, the idea for which came out of his collaboration with H. Selby Msimang, who had been organizing workers in the Bloemfontein area. The founding conference of the new union took place in July 1920 and included delegates from a number of small unions, the ICU, and the Bantu Women's League of South Africa. Delegates resolved to demand, among other concessions, a minimum wage for urban unskilled workers of eight shillings for an eight-hour day. They also agreed to amalgamate the existing unions and to "to form one great union of skilled and unskilled workers of South Africa, south of the Zambezi," the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union of Africa (ICWU). It was an objective inspired by the popular Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) policy of creating "one big union" and Pan-Africanism. Although a keen proponent of these ideas, Kadalie's own ideology was more fluid: he was certainly not socialist and only intermittently articulated a Pan-Africanist vision, although he nurtured the prospects of linking up with the African American elite.

Kadalie was deeply disappointed by the proceedings and outcomes of the conference. Msimang dominated the meeting and was elected president, while Kadalie's candidature for general secretary was rejected because he could not speak any indigenous African languages. Annoyed by his exclusion from key positions, Kadalie returned to his stronghold in Cape Town where his union threatened to organize a strike, a tactic that extracted a wage increase from the employers. In the years following the conference, he was embroiled in a tussle with Msimang over the leadership of the union. By forging a relationship with Samuel Masabalala, a union leader from Port Elizabeth, Kadalie was able to reestablish control of the ICU within a couple of years. Despite persistent leadership squabbles, the union continued to grow and by 1925 claimed a membership of thirty-nine thousand. At this point it enjoyed popular support among sections of the urban black proletariat, although the union was organizationally weak.

Kadalie and A.W. Champion, the Natal leader, turned the union's attention to organizing in the rural areas. Deeply aggrieved by the state's efforts to drive them off the land and turn them into a rural proletariat, African labor tenants were ready recipients of the ICU's radical message of struggling for emancipation from white oppression. Kadalie's oratory ability and skill at mobilizing the disaffected were critical in the ICU's exponential growth in rural areas. By 1927 the union could claim an

impressive membership of about one hundred thousand. Many were attracted by his fiery populism. One labor tenant recalled: "We would all flock to Kroonstad anxious to hear Kadalie insulting the whites and promising us liberation from oppression" (Bradford, 1987, p. 91). Kadalie's lawyer described him as "a phenomenon. No others are like him . . . an African Xavier" (Shepperson, 1973, p. 159). At the height of his popularity, Kadalie increasingly imagined himself as a savior, in biblical terms, which also reflected an underlying millenarianism in the ICU's ideology.

Kadalie's own political positions were eclectic at best. In 1924 he called on the small black electorate to vote for the conservative Afrikaner-dominated National Party, an idea that was rejected by other unionists. In the mid-1920s Kadalie admitted Communist Party members into the ICU, after the Party had taken the strategic decision to concentrate its efforts on organizing black workers and peasants. But within a year they were at loggerheads, especially as the Communists hoped to build a conventional trade union, emphasizing workplace organization and accountability. Kadalie was a renowned mobilizer but an ineffective organizer. As a result, the union was poorly administered and was virtually bereft of accountability to its members. Partly because the union began to pursue relations with liberals and partly to deflect attention from the deepening crisis in the ICU, Kadalie purged the Communists, who were increasingly critical of his leadership, from the ICU.

Soon after, he attempted to affiliate to the white trade union federation, the South African Trade Union Congress (Council), but the application was rejected for fear that the ICU would overwhelm the small federation and lead to an exodus of white workers. He seemed to covet official recognition. In 1927, Kadalie traveled to Europe to seek recognition for the ICU as the representative of black workers in South Africa by seeking affiliation to the International Federation of Trade Unions. Due perhaps to his fight with the Communists, Kadalie was feted by Social Democrats in Europe. At home, however, his position in the ICU was under serious threat, as he was blamed for the myriad problems faced by the union. Furthermore, his leadership was challenged by Champion, the charismatic head of the Natal branch of the ICU. In 1929, William Ballinger, the British trade unionist who had been brought in to assist in the rebuilding of the ICU along the lines of European trade unions, fired Kadalie from his position.

Kadalie responded by launching the Independent ICU (IICU), which was mainly based in the Eastern Cape where he had relocated. In 1930, Kadalie's new union organized a strike of dock and railway workers in East London to demand a wage increase from three shillings to six shillings and sixpence a day. After nearly two weeks, the police broke the strike by arresting Kadalie and other strike leaders and charging them with public violence. The failure of the strike seemed to signal the end of a chapter in the life of Kadalie. The IICU entered a period of dormancy. A similar fate befell the main ICU, as it did other black political organizations in the 1930s.

Although confined to provincial politics, Kadalie's reputation as an activist, orator, and leader of the poor remained largely intact. At the start of World War II, the IICU called a strike to demand higher wages, reflecting the resurgence of trade unionism in the 1940s. Kadalie expended considerable political energy competing with Communists for influence among workers in East London and succeeded briefly in organizing his traditional constituency—dock and railway workers—into the IICU. Kadalie also established himself as a leading figure in the local ANC, with considerable support among the black elite of East London. In the last years of his life, he was influential in the struggles to improve living conditions in the township. Kadalie remained in South Africa until his death in 1951, only visiting his homeland a month before he passed away.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bonner, Philip. "The Transvaal Native Congress, 1917-1920." In *Industrialisation and Social Change in South Africa: African Class Formation, Culture, and Consciousness, 1870-1930*, edited by Shula Marks and Richard Rathbone, pp. 270-313. New York: Longman, 1982.
- Bradford, Helen. *A Taste of Freedom: The ICU in Rural South Africa, 1924-1930*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1987.
- Lodge, Tom. *Black Politics in South Africa Since 1945*. London and New York: Longman, 1983.
- Roux, Edward. *Time Longer than Rope: A History of the Black Man's Struggle for Freedom in South Africa*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1964.
- Shepperson, George, Clements Kadalie, and Stanley Trapido. "Clements Kadalie and Africa: Review of *My Life and the ICU: The Autobiography of a Black Trade Unionist in South Africa*." *The Journal of African History* 14.1 (1973): 159-161.

Wickens, Peter L. "The One Big Union Movement Among Black Workers in South Africa." *The International Journal of African Historical Studies* 7.3 (1974): 391-416.

NOOR NIEFTAGODIEN

Kader Coubadja Touré, Mohamed Abdel (1979-), Togolese soccer player, was born on 8 April 1979 in the large Togolese city of Sokodé. His affluent Muslim family claimed royal descent. In Sokodé, Touré grew up with two other future professional football players: his brother Coubadja Touré and his cousin Mam Chérif Touré. He attended Qur'anic school as well as primary school and already was a passionate football player as a child. By the age of sixteen, he had become a major Togolese soccer prospect. His family and schoolmates were somewhat surprised by his decision to join the Étoile Filant club of Sokodé's rival city of Lomé in 1995. Despite his young age, Touré became one of the top players on the team, praised for his goal-scoring ability. He played in Tunisia for the CA Bizertin club in the 1997-1998 season. In 1998, Touré joined the Coupe d'Afrique championships with the Togolese national team. He played with such established Togolese players as Bachirou Salou, Ouadja Lantam, and Djima Oyawolé. He scored the winning goal for Togo against Ghana in the same competition, which led to Togo's first-ever win in this event. Touré caught the attention of European clubs after he managed to speed by a number of defenders and then score with a lob shot.

His up-and-down career thus commenced. The Italian team of Parma signed Touré to a contract in 1998, but then never played him. Annoyed, Touré asked to be sent to another club, and Parma transferred Touré to the Swiss team Lugano. He only played in eight games. Touré found a new chance to revive his career in Libya in 2000-2001, where he was the undisputed star of the Al-Ahli Tripoli club with seventeen goals in twenty games. Parma re-signed Touré, but again chose not to play him much. Touré only regained his footing in 2002, when he was traded to the Swiss club Servette FC based in Geneva. In the 2003-2004 season, Touré scored nineteen goals and was elected the Togolese football player of the year for his dominance. The French team FC Sochaux-Montbéliard then signed Touré to play in Ligue Un (League One) for the 2004-2005 season. He sat on the bench yet again, much as he had done in Parma.

The 2006 World Cup offered Touré a chance at redemption after two mediocre seasons in

club football. *Les Eperviers* (The Sparrow Hawks), as the Togo national team was known, shocked the African football establishment by making the tournament after a poor performance in the Coupe d'Afrique in the same year. Touré scored the first goal ever made by a Togolese national team in the World Cup, in a 2-1 loss to South Korea. Although the Togolese team failed to defeat Switzerland and France in the preliminary round and went home without a win, Touré's exploits drew attention from fans and international teams. From 2005 to 2008, Touré played for Guingamp in the French second division. He moved to the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in the summer of 2008, where he had a chance to display his offensive talents after a rather quiet career in France. He played for Ajman Club, a UAE team, in 2010.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- "Kader Touré." Official Web site of Mohamed Abdel Kader Coubadja Touré. <http://www.kader-coubadja-toure.blog4ever.com/blog/index-177925.html>.
- "Mohamed Kader-Touré." *L'Equipe France*. <http://www.lequipe.fr/Football/FootballFicheJoueur22111.html>.

JEREMY RICH

Kadima, Webe (1958-), Burundian scientist and educator, was born on 1 January 1958 in the Burundian capital of Bujumbura. Her father was Gaston Kadima Muende Kanumayi (1916-1981), from the Kasai Occidental province in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). Her mother, Jacqueline Girinka Kibogora (1936-), was born to a Congolese father, Kibogora Ruteru Munzi. Her family moved to Kinshasa, the capital of the DRC, in 1962. Kadima then attended elementary school in Kinshasa and Kananga. Her middle school years were spent at the Catholic girls school Institut Janua Caeli in Kananga. To further her interests in mathematics and science, she transferred to a predominantly male Catholic high school, where she concentrated on biology and chemistry. The girls' school offered little in the way of science education, and her father strongly supported her decision to search out better opportunities. Kadima graduated from high school in 1975, having scored extremely well in her college entrance tests. She hoped to become a medical doctor, but discovered that her name was not included in the list of new students admitted into the University of Kinshasa's medical program. In fact, Kadima had to seek the backing of a government official just to be finally admitted

into the chemistry program and met many students whose test scores were far lower than her own had been.

After studying chemistry for one year at the University of Kinshasa, she transferred to the University of Montreal. After she graduated with an undergraduate degree in chemistry, she began graduate studies at the same university. At Montreal, she supported herself with many jobs: cleaning hotels, babysitting, looking after elderly people, and working as a research assistant for Dr. Miklos Zador. Her master's thesis in physical chemistry examined a palladium analog (palladium ethylenediamine chloride/Pd(en)Cl₂) of the chemotherapeutic anti-cancer drug cisplatin. The goal of her research was to investigate the mechanism of action of the drug. It was already known that cisplatin acts on DNA; however, the exact site of action and the mechanism of binding were not yet resolved. In her research, Kadima used a nucleoside (a building block of DNA), inosine, as a model of DNA to mimic the interaction between DNA and cisplatin. Palladium analogs were used because they react much faster than the platinum complex, thus permitting the collection of a lot of data in a short period of time. She completed her Master of Science (MS) degree in the summer of 1981. Results of her MS work were published in the *Journal of Inorganica Chimica Acta* in 1983.

She commenced her doctoral studies in bioanalytical chemistry at the University of Alberta in January 1982. Her dissertation work was on the toxicology of cadmium, a toxic heavy metal found in paints and in the environment. It is known that when it is inhaled or ingested, most of the load is found in the blood stream. In her research, she endeavored to determine where in the blood and which component(s) of blood cadmium directly attacks. Kadima discovered that cadmium binds within the red blood cell predominantly to a tripeptide called glutathione and to a lesser extent to hemoglobin. The method used for her investigation was nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), the precursor technique to the well-known magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Her thesis, "NMR Studies of the Interaction of Cd(II) with Biological Ligands and Red Blood Cells," was completed in 1986. Results of her dissertation research were published in a series of three papers.

She held a number of different teaching positions after graduating from the University of Alberta. She worked as a postdoctoral fellow in the Department of Biochemistry at the University of California at Riverside from 1987 to 1989. From October 1989 to