|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **LESSON 1**  **Physical Geography of Southern Africa**  **ESSENTIAL QUESTION:*How does geography influence the way people live?*** | |
|  | |
| *Southern Africa is the world’s leading producer of gold, platinum,chromium, and diamonds. Other minerals the region supplies, including uranium and copper, are also important in the global economy.*  **Landforms and Bodies of Water**  ***What are the dominant physical features of Southern Africa?***  The region of Southern Africa consists of the 10 southernmost countries on the African continent. It also includes four independent island countries and two French island territories in the Indian Ocean off Africa’s east coast.  Southern Africa is bordered by the Indian Ocean on the east and the Atlantic Ocean on the west. The Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of the continent is considered the place where the two oceans meet.  Several of the region’s countries are fairly large. Angola and South Africa are each nearly the size of Western Europe and are the continent’s seventh- and ninth-largest countries, respectively. Along with Namibia, Mozambique, Zambia, and Botswana, Angola and South Africa rank in the top 25 percent of the world’s countries in land area.  The country of Madagascar occupies the world’s fourth-largest island, also called Madagascar. The region’s three other island countries—Comoros, Mauritius, and Seychelles—are tiny. Their combined area of 1,800 square miles (4,662 sq. km) makes them smaller than the state of Delaware. |  |

**Landforms**

If Southern Africa’s physical geography had to be described with one word, that word would be high. A series of plateaus that range in elevation from 3,000 feet to 6,000 feet (914 m to 1,829 m) cover most of the region. The northern plateaus extend from Malawi across Zambia and Angola. These plateaus are largely forested. Farther south, the plateaus are covered mainly by grasslands.

The plateau’s outer edges form a steep slope called the Great Escarpment. In Angola, the **escarpment**, a steep cliff between a higher and a lower surface, runs parallel to the Atlantic Coast and continues through Namibia. Between the escarpment and the Atlantic Ocean lies a strip of desert called the Namib that is 80 miles to 100 miles (129 km to 161 km) wide. The Namib runs 1,200 miles (1,931 km) from southern Angola to western South Africa, where it merges with another desert, the Kalahari.

The Kalahari Desert is a vast, sand-covered plateau that sits some 3,000 feet (914 m) above sea level. It is bordered by even higher plateaus. The Kalahari covers much of eastern Namibia and most of Botswana. In some places, long chains of sand dunes rise as much as 200 feet (61 m) high. The sand in some areas is red because of minerals that coat the grains of sand.

South of the Kalahari Desert, much of the rest of Southern Africa is covered by a huge plateau that slopes from about 8,000 feet (2,438 m) in the east to 2,000 feet (610 m) in the west. At the southern tip of this plateau, the Great Escarpment breaks into several small, low mountain ranges. This group of ranges is known as the Cape Ranges. The ranges are separated from each other by dry basins called the Great Karoo and the Little Karoo.

As the Great Escarpment follows South Africa’s coastline, it forms the Drakensberg Mountains. This is the most rugged part of the escarpment. Mountain peaks rise to more than 11,000 feet (3,353 m). A narrow coastal plain lies between the mountains and the Indian Ocean.

The Drakensberg mountains parallel the Indian Ocean coastline for some 700 miles (1,127 km) through Lesotho and Swaziland, two **landlocked**countries in Southern Africa. Near Swaziland, the escarpment pulls back from the coastline to create a broad coastal plain that covers much of Mozambique. Northwestern Mozambique and the neighboring countries of Zimbabwe, Zambia, and Malawi lie at higher elevations west of the escarpment, on the plateau.

**Bodies of Water**

Three major river systems—the Zambezi, the Limpopo, and the Orange—drain most of Southern Africa. The Zambezi, which stretches for 2,200 miles (3,541 km), is the region’s longest river. On the Zambia-Zimbabwe border, midway through its course, the Zambezi plunges over the spectacular Victoria Falls into a narrow gorge. Roughly a mile (1.6 km) wide and 350 feet (107 m) high, the falls are about twice the width and height of Niagara Falls in North America. Because of the heavy veil of mist that rises from the gorge, the area’s indigenous people named the fallsMosi-oa-Tunya (“The Smoke That Thunders”).

The Orange River is Southern Africa’s second-longest river. It begins in the highlands of Lesotho and flows westward to reach the Atlantic Ocean. Its course marks the southern boundary of the Kalahari Desert. The region’s third-longest river, the Limpopo, flows eastward in a large arc along South Africa’s border with Botswana and Zimbabwe. The river then drops over the Great Escarpment to cross the plains of southern Mozambique to the Indian Ocean.

These three rivers, their tributaries, and Southern Africa’s other rivers have carved a **network** of canyons and gorges across the plateaus. Dams have been built in the area to store water. Lake Kariba, Southern Africa’s second-largest lake, is really a **reservoir**, or an artificial lake created by a dam.

The region’s largest lake—and the third largest in all of Africa—is Lake Malawi (also known as Lake Nyasa), which forms Malawi’s border with Mozambique and Tanzania. It is the southernmost lake of the Great Rift Valley, which stretches for thousands of miles. Lake Malawi fills a depression, or hollow, that follows one of the rifts, or tears, in Earth’s crust. Because of the great depth of the depression, Lake Malawi is one of the deepest lakes in the world.

A number of flat basins, called pans, can be found in Southern Africa. The salt deposits they contain provide nourishment for wild animals. Etosha Pan, in northern Namibia, is an enormous expanse of salt that covers 1,900 square miles (4,921 sq. km). It is the largest pan in Africa, and it is the center of Etosha National Park. The park is home to some of the greatest numbers of lions, elephants, rhinoceroses, and other large animals in the world.

***Identifying*** Which type of landform is common in Southern Africa?

**Climate**

***What is the climate of Southern Africa?***

Southern Africa has a wide variety of climates, ranging from humid to arid to hot to cool. Nearly all of the region’s climates have distinct seasons, with certain seasons receiving most of the rain.

**Tropical Zone**

The Tropic of Capricorn crosses the middle of Southern Africa. This places the northern half of the region in the Tropics. Northern Angola and northern Mozambique have a tropical wet-dry climate. Each area gets as much as 70 inches (178 cm) of rain per year. Most of it falls in the spring, summer, and fall—from October to May. The high elevation makes temperatures cool.

Daily average temperatures range from the upper 60s°F (upper 10s°C) to the upper 70s°F (mid-20s°C). Along the coasts, temperatures are warmer.

Much of northern Mozambique’s coastline is watered by rain-bearing winds called monsoons that sweep in from the Indian Ocean during the summer months. More than 70 inches (178 cm) of annual rainfall is common.

Parts of Angola and Mozambique have humid subtropical climates, as do Malawi, Zambia, and northeastern Zimbabwe. The rainy season here is shorter than in the tropical wet/dry zone, and also brings less rainfall. Most places average 24 inches to 40 inches (61 cm to 102 cm) per year. Average temperatures are also slightly cooler. Nighttime frosts are not uncommon in July on the high plateaus of Zambia and Malawi. Temperatures on summer days in lowland areas, however, can exceed 100°F (38°C).

**Temperate Zones**

Much of South Africa, central Namibia, eastern Botswana, and southern Mozambique have temperate, or moderate, climates that are not marked by extremes of temperature. Most of these areas are semiarid. Summer days are warm—from 70°F to 90°F (21°C to 32°C), depending on elevation. Winters are cool, with frosts and sometimes freezing temperatures on the high plateaus.

Annual rainfall varies from 8 inches (20 cm) in some areas to 24 inches (61 cm) in others. Most of the rain falls during the summer, with very little the rest of the year. Droughts are common; in some places, they last for several years.

Lesotho, Swaziland, and eastern South Africa, including the Indian Ocean coastline, are much wetter. Temperatures are like those in semiarid regions, but ocean currents and moist ocean air bring up to 55 inches (140 cm) of rain annually. Like elsewhere in the region, most of this rain falls in the summer.

**Desert Regions**

Western South Africa, western Namibia, and much of Botswana are arid. Along the coast, the Namib gets very little rain. In some years, no rain falls. But fog and dew provide small plants with the moisture they need to survive. Temperatures along the coast are mild, however, with daily averages ranging from 48°F to 68°F (9°C to 20°C). The aridity, the fog, and the mild temperatures result from the cold Benguela Current that flows along the coast. This area is sometimes called the “Skeleton Coast” because many ships used to lose their way in the fog and run aground. Once ashore, the sailors rarely survived because of the lack of water in the sandy desert.

In inland areas of the Namib Desert, temperatures are hotter with summer highs from the upper 80s°F to more than 100°F (30°C to 38°C). In winter, freezing temperatures sometimes occur. During wet years, desert grasses and bushes appear. Much of the time, however, the Namib is home to vast areas of barren sand.

The Kalahari’s location—farther inland than the Namib—and dry air make its temperatures more extreme than in the Namib. The Kalahari also gets a little more precipitation than the Namib.

***Describing*** Why are temperatures in Southern Africa’s tropical countries generally not hot?

**Natural Resources**

***What natural resources are found in Southern Africa, and why are they important?***

Southern Africa is the continent’s richest region in natural resources. Mineral resources have helped the Republic of South Africa, in particular, to build a strong economy. In other countries, like Angola and Namibia, such resources provide the only source of wealth.

**South Africa’s Resources**

The Republic of South Africa has some of the largest mineral reserves in the world. It is the world’s largest producer of platinum, chromium, and gold, and one of the largest producers of diamonds—both gems and industrial diamonds, or diamonds used to make cutting or grinding tools. These resources, along with important deposits of coal, iron ore, uranium, copper, and other minerals, have created a thriving mining industry. This industry has attracted workers and investments from other countries that have helped South Africa’s industries grow.

**Energy Resources**

The Republic of South Africa, Zimbabwe, Botswana, and Mozambique mine and burn coal from their own deposits to produce most of their electric power. Mozambique has large deposits of natural gas as well, as does Angola. Angola is also one of Africa’s leading oil producers. Namibia has oil and natural gas deposits, too, and they are slowly being developed. Oil and gas must be refined, or changed into other products, before they can be used.

The region’s rivers are another resource for providing power. Zimbabwe and Zambia get electricity from the huge Kariba Gorge dam on the Zambezi River. Malawi’s rivers and falls generate power for that country. Deforestation, however, allows more sediment to enter the rivers, which reduces the water flow and the electricity that the rivers produce. Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and Angola have not made full use of their rivers to provide power. Economic development and the standard of living in those countries have suffered as a result.

**Minerals and Other Resources**

Namibia is one of Africa’s richest countries in mineral resources. It is an important producer of tin, zinc, copper, gold, silver, and uranium. It also ranks with South Africa and Botswana as a leading world supplier of diamonds. In the 1990s, rebels captured Angola’s mines and sold the diamonds to continue a 20-year-old civil war against the government. In countries outside Southern Africa, groups have also mined diamonds to pay for rebellions and other violent conflicts. Diamonds used for this purpose are called **blood diamonds**.

Gold is a leading export for Zimbabwe. Mozambique has the world’s largest supply of the rare metal tantalite, which is used to make electronic parts and camera lenses. Gold, platinum, and diamonds are mined there too, as are iron ore and copper. Much of Zambia’s economy is based on copper and cobalt, although gold, silver, and iron ore are also mined. Zambia has some of the largest emerald deposits in the world. A small amount of rubies, sapphires, and a variety of semiprecious gems are mined in neighboring Malawi.

Malawi’s most important natural resource is its fertile soil. The country’s economy is based mainly on agriculture. Tobacco is its most important export. Exporting farm products is also a major economic activity in Zimbabwe. Lesotho and Swaziland have few natural resources. Most of their people practice subsistence farming, growing only enough to meet their needs.

**Wildlife**

Southern Africa is known for its variety of animal life. Wildebeests, lions, zebras, giraffes, and many other animals are found across the region. They live within and outside the many national parks and wildlife reserves that nearly every country has created to protect them. Tourists come from throughout the world to see these animals. **Poaching**, or illegally killing game, is a problem. Poachers shoot elephants for their valuable ivory tusks and rhinoceroses for their horns. Others kill animals to sell their skins and meat and to protect livestock and crops.

***Describing*** How does deforestation affect the energy supply in the region?

**LESSON 1 REVIEW**

**Reviewing Vocabulary**

1. Why is *poaching* against the law?

**Answering the Guiding Questions**

1. ***Describing*** How has damming Southern Africa’s rivers benefited the people and countries of the region?
2. ***Identifying*** What are the rainfall and temperature differences between Southern Africa’s tropical, temperate, and arid regions?
3. ***Describing*** For what resources is Southern Africa known throughout the world?
4. ***Narrative Writing*** Create a journal entry recording your observations and experiences during one day of a photo safari at Etosha National Park.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **LESSON 2**  **History of Southern Africa**  **ESSENTIAL QUESTION:*How do new ideas change the way people live?*** | |
|  | |
| *Many of Southern Africa’s resources have become important parts of the global economy. Political instability and unrest have sometimes disrupted the flow of products to world markets. Much of the instability and unrest is directly or indirectly the result of the region’s colonial history.*  **Rise of Kingdoms**  ***What major events mark the early history of Southern Africa?***  Southern Africa’s indigenous people have inhabited the region for thousands of years. Some lived as hunter-gatherers. Others farmed and herded cattle. Trade among the groups flourished. Ivory, gold, copper, and other goods moved from the interior to the east coast. There such goods were exchanged for tools, salt, and luxury items including beads, porcelain, and cloth from China, India, and Persia.  **Great Zimbabwe**  Around the year A.D. 900, the Shona people built a wealthy and powerful kingdom in what is now Zimbabwe and Mozambique. The capital was a city called Great Zimbabwe. (*Zimbabwe* is a Shona word meaning “stone houses.”) As many as 20,000 people lived in the city and the surrounding valley.  Great Zimbabwe was the largest of many similar cities throughout the region. By the 1300s, it had become a great commercial center, collecting gold mined nearby and trading it to Arabs at ports on the Indian Ocean. |  |

Great Zimbabwe was abandoned in the 1400s, possibly because its growing population exhausted its water and food resources. The city’s ruins show the Shona’s skill as builders. Some structures were more than 30 feet (9 m) high. Their large stones were cut to fit and stay in place without mortar to hold them together.

**The Mutapa Empire**

In the late 1400s, the Shona conquered the region between the Zambezi and Limpopo rivers from Zimbabwe to the coast of Mozambique. Like Great Zimbabwe, the Mutapa Empire thrived on the gold it mined and traded for goods from China and India.

The Portuguese arrived and took over the coastal trade in the 1500s. They gradually gained control over the empire and forced its people to mine gold for them. In the late 1600s, Mutapa kings allied with the nearby Rozwi kingdom to drive out the Portuguese. Instead, the Rozwi conquered the Mutapa’s territory and ruled it until the early 1800s, when it became part of the Zulu Empire.

**Other Kingdoms**

The Zulu leader Shaka united his people in the early 1800s to form the Zulu Empire in what is now South Africa. He built a powerful army and used it to expand the empire by conquering neighboring people. Shaka was killed in 1828, but his empire survived until the British destroyed it in the Zulu War of 1879.

A series of kingdoms rose and fell on the island of Madagascar from the 1600s to the 1800s. Some of the early kingdoms were influenced by Arab and Muslim culture. In the early 1800s, one king allied with the British on the nearby island of Mauritius to prevent the French from taking control of Madagascar. He eventually conquered most of the island and formed the Kingdom of Madagascar. French troops invaded the kingdom in 1895 and made it a French possession.

***Identifying*** Which outsiders traded with Southern Africans before the Europeans arrived?

**European Colonies**

***How did Southern Africa come under European control?***

Around 1500, Portugal and other European countries began establishing settlements along the African coast. The first settlements were trading posts and supply stations at which ships could stop on their way to and from Asia. As time passed, the Europeans grew interested in **exploiting**Africa’s natural resources and, as a source of labor, its people.

**Clashes in South Africa**

During the 1600s till about the 1800s, Europeans set up trading posts but did not establish colonies, which are large territories with settlers from the home country. One exception was Cape Colony, founded by the Dutch in 1652 at the Cape of Good Hope on the southern tip of what is now South Africa. The Dutch became known as Boers, the Dutch word for farmers. They grew wheat and raised sheep and cattle. Enslaved people from India, Southeast Asia, and other parts of Africa provided much of the labor.

The Africans did not like the Dutch pushing into their land, and soon they started fighting over it. By the late 1700s, the Africans had been defeated. Some fled north into the desert. Others became workers on the colonists’ farms.

**The Union of South Africa**

Wars in Europe gave Britain control of the Cape Colony in the early 1800s. Thousands of British settlers soon arrived. The Boers resented British rule. Many decided to seek new land beyond the reach of British control. Beginning in the 1830s, thousands of Boers left the colony in a migration called the Great Trek and settled north of the Orange River.

In the 1860s, the Boers discovered diamonds in their territory. Then, in 1886, they found the world’s largest gold deposits. British efforts to gain these resources led to the Boer War in 1899. The Boers were defeated and again came under British control. In 1910 Britain allowed the Boer colonies to join the Cape Colony in forming an independent country—the Union of South Africa. The small African kingdoms of Lesotho and Swaziland remained under British control.

**Colonialism in Other Areas**

While the British and the Boers competed for South Africa, other European countries were competing over the rest of Africa. In 1884 representatives of these countries met in Berlin, Germany, to divide the continent among themselves.

In Southern Africa, Britain gained control over what is now Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Botswana. The Berlin Conference decided Portugal had rights to Angola and Mozambique. Germany received what is now Namibia, although South Africa seized the colony during World War I. Besides Madagascar, France controlled what is now Comoros. Mauritius and Seychelles were British colonies.

European control in Southern Africa continued for about the next 80 years. Not until the 1960s did the region’s colonies begin to gain independence and self-rule.

***Analyzing*** Which European country claimed the most territory in Southern Africa in the 1800s?

**Independence and Equal Rights**

***What challenges did Southern Africans face in regaining freedom and self-rule?***

French rule in Madagascar ended in 1960, making it the first Southern African country to gain independence. Britain **granted** independence to Malawi and Zambia in 1964 and to Botswana and Lesotho in 1966. Swaziland and Mauritius gained their freedom in 1968, and Seychelles in 1976. Elsewhere, however, freedom was more difficult to achieve.

**The End of Portuguese Rule**

While other European nations gave up their African colonies, Portugal refused to do so. Revolts for independence broke out in Angola in 1961 and in Mozambique in 1964. The thousands of troops Portugal sent to crush these revolts failed to do so.

By 1974, the Portuguese had grown tired of these bloody and expensive wars. Portuguese military leaders overthrew Portugal’s government and pulled the troops out of Africa. Angola and Mozambique became independent countries in 1975 as a result. Fighting continued, however, as rebel groups in each country competed for control. Mozambique’s long civil war ended when a peace agreement was reached in 1994. Peace was not finally achieved in Angola until 2002.

**The Birth of Zimbabwe**

After granting Malawi and Zambia independence, Britain prepared to free neighboring Zimbabwe, then called Southern Rhodesia. The colony’s white leaders, who controlled the government, instead formed a country they called Rhodesia and continued to rule.

Rhodesia’s African population demanded the right to vote. When the government resisted, a guerrilla war began. In 1979 the government finally agreed to hold elections in which all Rhodesians could take part. Rebel leader Robert Mugabe was elected president, and Rhodesia’s name was changed to Zimbabwe.

**Equal Rights in South Africa**

After independence, the growth of South Africa’s mining and other industries depended on the labor of black Africans, who greatly outnumbered the country’s whites. The white minority government stayed in power by limiting the black population’s educational and economic opportunities and political rights.

English South Africans controlled the government until the end of World War II. Then a strike by more than 60,000 black mine workers frightened white voters into electing an Afrikaner government in 1948 that promised to take action. (Afrikaners are the descendants of the Boers. They speak a language called Afrikaans, which gives them their name.)

The new government leaders began enacting laws that created a system called **apartheid**—an Afrikaans word meaning “apartness.” Apartheid limited the rights of blacks. For example, laws forced black South Africans to live in separate areas called “homelands.” People of non-European background were not even allowed to vote. The African National Congress (ANC), an organization of black South Africans, began a campaign of **civil disobedience**, disobeying certain laws as a means of protest. The government’s violent response to peaceful protests caused the ANC to turn to armed conflict. In 1962 ANC leader Nelson Mandela was arrested and sentenced to life in prison.

By the 1970s, apartheid-related events in South Africa had gained world attention. Countries began placing **embargos**, or bans on trade, on South Africa. Meanwhile, the struggle in South Africa grew more intense. In 1989 South Africa’s president, P.W. Botha, was forced to resign. In 1990 the government, under Botha’s successor, F.W. de Klerk, began repealing the apartheid laws. Mandela was released from prison in 1991. In 1993 a new constitution gave South Africans of all races the right to vote. The ANC easily won elections held in 1994, and Mandela became the country’s president.

In 1995 the new government created a truth and reconciliation commission. Its task was to ease racial tensions and heal the country by uncovering the truth about the human rights violations that had occurred under apartheid.

***Determining Central Ideas*** Why do you think South Africa’s government created the apartheid system?

**LESSON 2 REVIEW**

**Reviewing Vocabulary**

1. Why might some people disapprove of *civil disobedience* as a means of protest and of achieving change?

**Answering the Guiding Questions**

1. ***Analyzing*** How did some of Southern Africa’s early people benefit from the region’s natural resources?
2. ***Identifying*** Name five present-day countries in Southern Africa that were once controlled by Britain.

1. ***Determining Central Ideas*** Why was gaining independence especially difficult for Angola and Mozambique?
2. ***Argument Writing*** Write a paragraph explaining whether actions against the governments of Rhodesia and South Africa were justified.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **LESSON 3**  **Life in Southern Africa**  **ESSENTIAL QUESTION:*How does geography influence the way people live?*** | |
|  | |
| *Control over Southern Africa’s vast and vital natural resources has been passed on to new leadership. Great economic, political, and social changes and challenges have accompanied this transfer.*  **The People of the Region**  ***Where do people live in Southern Africa?***  The population of Southern Africa is overwhelmingly black African. The largest white minority is in the country of South Africa, where whites represent 10 percent of the population. In almost every other country, whites and Asians make up less than 1 percent of the population. The region’s black African population is made up of many different ethnic and culture groups.  **Population Patterns**  Southern Africa’s countries vary widely in population. Fewer than 2 million people live in the small countries of Lesotho and Swaziland. South Africa, which surrounds both of them, has the region’s largest population—about 49 million.  Population depends heavily on geography and economics. For example, Botswana and Namibia are much larger than Swaziland and Lesotho, but their populations are only slightly larger. Most Batswana, as the people of Botswana are called, live in the northeast, away from their country’s desert areas. Similarly, most Namibians live in the northern part of their country, away from the arid south and west.  South Africa and Angola are about the same size. South Africa, the region’s most industrialized nation, has three times as many people. In both countries, most people live in cities. Angola’s rural areas are thus much more thinly populated than rural areas in South Africa. |  |

Mozambique, which is slightly smaller than Namibia and much smaller than Angola, has a population greater than those two countries combined. Most of Mozambique’s 23 million people are engaged in farming, mainly along the fertile coastal plain.

Zambia is twice as big as Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe, with a population of about 12 million, has only 2 million fewer people. Both countries are largely rural, with only about one-third of their people living in cities. Large parts of Zambia are thinly populated.

Malawi is just one-third the size of Zimbabwe and one-sixth the size of Zambia, yet it exceeds both in population. With some 16 million people living in an area roughly the size of Pennsylvania, it is the region’s most densely populated country. On average, every square mile holds more than 250 people.

Surprisingly, Malawi is also Southern Africa’s most rural nation. Only 20 percent of its people live in cities. Its small size and large rural population mean that most of its farms are small. Most farm villages are not able to produce much more than what they need. As a result, Malawi is the region’s poorest country. The average Malawian earns less than $350 per year.

**Ethnic and Culture Groups**

Africans are not a single people. Southern Africa is home to many ethnic and cultural groups who speak several different languages. One group, the Shona, makes up more than 80 percent of the population of the country of Zimbabwe. South Africa’s 9 million Zulu make up that country’s largest ethnic group. More than 7 million Xhosa also live there, as do the Khoekhoe. Some 4.5 million Tsonga people are spread among the countries of South Africa, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique.

About 4 million Tswana form the major population group in Botswana. A similar number of Ovimbundu and 2.5 million Mbundu make up approximately two-thirds of Angola’s population. A smaller group, the Ambo, live in Angola and Namibia. About half of Namibia’s people belong to this ethnic group. The San, a nomadic people, live mainly in Namibia, Botswana, and southeastern Angola. The Chewa are Malawi’s largest ethnic group.

Groups like the Chewa, Tsonga, Ambo, and San illustrate an important point about Southern Africa’s history. When Europeans divided the region, they paid little attention to its indigenous people. The Chewa and their territory, for example, were split among four colonies. Similarly, the area inhabited by the Tsonga was divided by the borders between South Africa, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique.

**Religion and Languages**

Southern Africa’s colonial past has also influenced its people’s religious beliefs. In almost every country, most of the people are Christians. Christianity was introduced to the region during the colonial era by Christian missionaries.

In Angola, however, nearly half the population continues to hold traditional indigenous religious beliefs. Traditional African religions are followed by large numbers of people in Namibia and Lesotho, too. In Zimbabwe and Swaziland, a blend of Christianity and traditional religious beliefs is followed by about half the population.

Swaziland, Zambia, Malawi, and Mozambique also have large Muslim populations. Most of Mozambique’s Muslims live on the coast, where**contact** with Arab traders led long ago to the introduction of Islam. Immigration from Asia explains Zambia’s Muslim population, as well as its large Hindu minority.

Portuguese remains the official language in Angola and Mozambique. English is an official language in most of the former British colonies. Its use, however, is mainly limited to official and business communications; nowhere is it widely spoken by the people. Instead, most speak indigenous languages. South Africa has 10 official languages besides English; Zambia has 7.

***Determining Central Ideas*** What is the main religion practiced in Southern Africa?

**Life in Southern Africa**

***How do the various people of Southern Africa live?***

As in other regions of Africa, life differs from city to countryside. Many rural people continue to follow traditional ways of life. At the same time, urban and economic growth are challenging and changing many of the traditional ways.

**Urban Life**

Although most people in the region of Southern Africa live in the countryside, migration to cities grows because of job opportunities. Harare, Zimbabwe, has grown to more than 1.5 million, as have Lusaka, Zambia, and Maputo, Mozambique. Luanda, Angola’s capital, is even larger: It holds some 4.5 million people. South Africa has four cities—Durban, Ekurhuleni, Cape Town, and Johannesburg—with populations of around 3 million or more.

**Urban Growth and Change**

The rapid growth of some cities has strained public **utilities**—services such as trash collection, sewage treatment, and water distribution. Luanda, for example, has had many problems providing enough clean water for its many people. Outbreaks of cholera and other diseases have resulted from drinking polluted water.

The region’s cities have a mix of many ethnic groups and cultures. An example is Johannesburg, where the wealth from nearby gold fields helped build one of the most impressive downtowns in all of Africa. Outside the central city are the white neighborhoods where about 20 percent of the city’s population live. Some black South Africans have moved into these neighborhoods since the end of apartheid. Most, however, live in “townships” at the city’s edge. These areas often have no electricity, clean water, or sewer facilities. Most of the region’s large cities have shantytowns.

Johannesburg’s role as a mining, manufacturing, and financial center has attracted people from around the world. Every black ethnic group in Southern Africa is present, as well. The white community is mainly English and Afrikaner. Large Portuguese, Greek, Italian, Russian, Polish, and Lebanese populations also live there. Indians, Filipinos, Malays, and Chinese live mainly in the townships. At least 12 languages are heard on city streets.

**Family and Traditional Life**

People who move to the cities must adjust to new experiences and a different way of life. In the countryside, traditional ways of life remain strong.

Rural villages are often small—consisting of perhaps 20 or 30 houses. Building materials, which vary by ethnic group, include rocks, mud bricks, woven sticks and twigs packed with clay, and **thatch**—straw or other plant material used to cover roofs.

In many cultures, all the people in a village are related by blood or marriage to the village’s headman or chief. Men often have more than one wife. They provide a house for each wife and their children. Growing food crops is the main economic activity. Many families raise cattle as well, mainly for milk and as a symbol of wealth.

People in the countryside practice subsistence farming, growing the food they need to survive. Artwork sometimes provides a family with a source of cash. Wood and ivory carving are art forms that are generally practiced by men. Pottery-making is usually a woman’s craft. In some cultures, both men and women make baskets. They sell the products in cities or at**periodic markets**—open-air trading markets held regularly at crossroads or in larger towns.

In recent times, more and more men have been leaving their villages to work at jobs in cities or mines. Although the money they send home helps support their families, this **trend** has greatly changed village life. Many villages now consist largely of women, children, and older men. Women have increasingly taken on traditional male roles in herding, family and community leadership, and other activities.

***Citing Text Evidence*** Where in their countries do most Southern Africans live?

**Southern Africa Today**

***What challenges and prospects do the countries of Southern Africa face?***

Southern Africa’s wealth of mineral, wildlife, and other resources may be the key to its future. Still, the region faces serious social, economic, and political challenges.

**Health Issues**

Life expectancy in Southern Africa is low. In the majority of countries, most people do not live beyond age 50 to 55. Lack of good rural health care is one reason, although many countries are trying to build or improve rural clinics.

**Disease**

Malaria, a tropical disease carried by mosquitoes, is a problem in several countries. Dysentery and cholera, potentially fatal diseases caused by bacteria in water, are also widespread. So is tuberculosis. Malnutrition is a cause of death for many infants and young children.

Southern Africa has some of the highest rates of infant death in the world. In Angola, Malawi, and Mozambique, about 100 to 120 of every 1,000 children die in infancy. Elsewhere in the region, the figure is 40 to 60 per 1,000. (The infant death rate in the United States is 7 per 1,000.)

A major cause of death in children and adults is HIV/AIDS. Southern Africa has a higher HIV/AIDS rate than any other region in Africa. Swaziland, Botswana, Lesotho, and South Africa have the highest rates in the world. About one of every four adults (25 percent) in these countries is infected with this sexually transmitted disease, which women pass on to their children at birth. In the rest of the region, the adult HIV/AIDS rate averages between 11 and 14 percent. (In the United States, the rate is 0.6 percent.)

The high incidence of HIV/AIDS has disrupted the labor force by depriving countries of needed workers. It has also disrupted families through death, inability to work, or AIDS-related family issues. The disease has created millions of AIDS orphans, children whose mother and father have died from AIDS. The huge number of AIDS orphans is a major social problem.

**Progress and Growth**

Angola and Mozambique continue to rebuild the cities and towns, industries, railroads, and communications systems that have been damaged or destroyed by years of civil war. Oil exports in Angola and aluminum exports in Mozambique help finance this effort. So does the tourism that peace and stability have brought back to the beautiful beaches and resorts along Mozambique’s coast.

Tourism at national parks has grown with the establishment of stable, democratic governments. Zambia and Malawi replaced one-party rule with more democratic forms of government in the 1990s. Botswana and Namibia have been strong democracies, respecting and protecting human rights, since independence. Only Zimbabwe and Swaziland continue to suffer economic decline and political unrest, largely due to repressive leaders.

**Help From Other Countries**

The United States has used economic aid to strengthen democracy in Southern Africa. Other U.S. programs have provided billions of dollars to pay for medications and care for AIDS sufferers and AIDS orphans.

Other countries and international organizations have also made huge investments in the region. Taiwan’s development of a textile industry in Lesotho, for example, is giving some of that poor country’s workers an alternative to employment in South Africa’s mines.

Foreign investment, workers, and tourists have also returned to South Africa as it continues to recover from the effects of apartheid. South Africa remains the region’s most industrial and wealthiest country. It also faces serious economic challenges. Many of its traditional African farming communities struggle in poverty, growing few if any cash crops. Its heavy reliance on the export of mineral and agricultural goods places it at risk if world demand or prices for the goods fall. These problems mirror the challenges that many other countries in Southern Africa also confront.

***Analyzing*** Why is life expectancy in Southern Africa so low?

**LESSON 3 REVIEW**

**Reviewing Vocabulary**

1. What did rural Southern Africans use clay and *thatch* for?

**Answering the Guiding Questions**

1. ***Determining Central Ideas*** How did colonialism and contact with traders influence religious beliefs in Southern Africa?
2. ***Describing*** What are rural and city life like for Southern Africa’s black population?
3. ***Analyzing*** How and why has Southern Africa benefited from the growth of democracy in the region?
4. ***Argument Writing*** Write a letter to the editor of a Southern African newspaper explaining whether the region should continue to work for change.