

#Notes

#Exams

#Binding

#Schemes

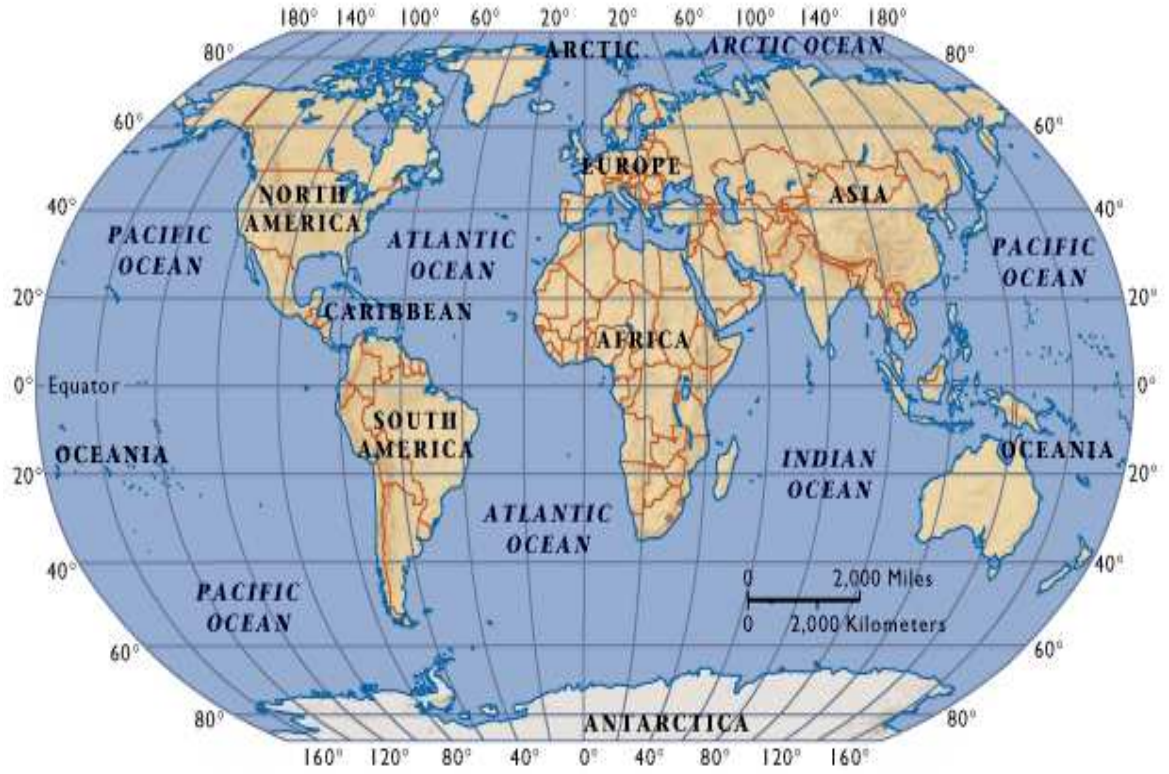
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TOPIC 1: (Term I)

LOCATION AND PHYSICAL FEATURES OF AFRICA.

LOCATION OF AFRICA ON THE WORLD MAP:



AFRICA IN RELATION TO OTHER CONTINENTS.

A continent is a large mass of land. There are seven continents in the world. Some continents are completely surrounded by water.
The seven continents are:

i) Asia- The largest.
ii) Africa – The second largest.
iii) Europe.
iv) North America.
v) South America.
vi) Australia (Flattest and driest).
vii) Antarctica.

Of the seven continents, Antarctica is the only continent that is not inhabited by people. The continents are surrounded by five major oceans. An ocean is a large area of land covered by water.
The five major oceans are:

i) Pacific Ocean- The largest.
ii) Atlantic Ocean.
iii) Indian Ocean.
iv) Arctic Ocean.
v) Antarctic (Southern) ocean.

THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA:

i. Africa is the second largest continent after Asia (30,300,300km$^{2)}$.
ii. Africa has the largest number of countries and offshore islands.
iii. Africa is the hottest continent with the highest recorded temperature hitting 58^0c in Libya on 13/09/1922.
iv. Africa has the hottest desert, the Sahara desert that is 8,400,000 km^2.
v. Africa has the largest man made lake in the world, L. Volta (8,842 km^2).
vi. Africa has the longest river in the world, R. Nile (6,670km).
vii. Africa has the shortest people in the world i.e. the Pygmies who live in the Ituri forests of the DR Congo.
viii. Africa is the leading producer of minerals e.g. gold, diamonds etc.
ix. Africa has the longest canal i.e. the Suez Canal that is 162 km long and 16 metres deep.
x. Africa has the highest number of landlocked countries. There are 15 landlocked countries in Africa.

AFRICA POSITION:

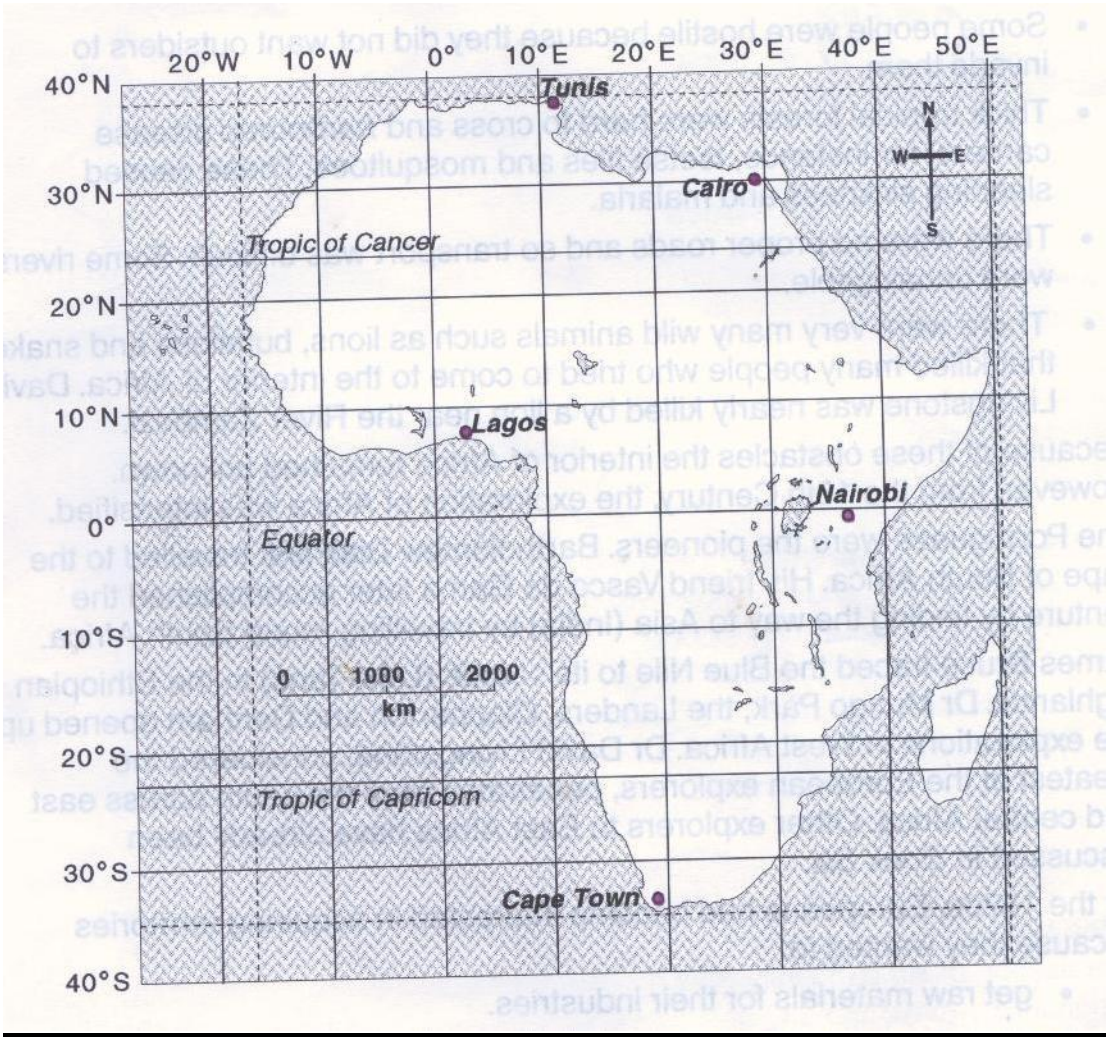
Africa is crossed by all the three main latitudes i.e.:

i) Tropic of cancer ($23^1/_2{}^0$ N).
ii) Equator (0^0).
iii) Tropic of Capricorn ($23^1/_2{}^0$ S).

Africa is also crossed by the major longitude (Prime meridian /Greenwich meridian) marked 0^0. Africa lies between latitudes 38^0 North & 35^0 South and longitudes 25^0 West and 60^0 East. Africa is surrounded by four major water bodies:

i. East- Indian Ocean.
ii. West- Atlantic Ocean.
iii. North – Mediterranean Sea.
iv. Northeast Red Sea.

AFRICA – POSITION



OTHER FEATURES ASSOCIATED WITH AFRICA:

a) Straits:

A strait is a narrow water passage between two landmasses. There are two main straits in Africa:

i) Strait of Gibraltar- Northwest.
ii) Strait of Babel Mandeb – Northeast.

b) ***Gulfs:***

A gulf is a large area of sea that is partly enclosed by land.
The main gulfs of Africa are:

i) Gulf of Aden- NE
ii) Gulf of Suez -N
iii) Gulf of Aqaba -N
iv) Gulf of Guinea W

The Suez Canal joins the Red Sea to the Mediterranean Sea. The Isthmus through which the Suez Canal passes joins Africa to Asia.

c) ***An Isthmus:***

An Isthmus is a narrow land connecting two landmasses that would otherwise be separated by water.

There are also island countries in Africa:

i) Seychelles.
ii) Madagascar.
iii) Mauritius.
iv) Comoros.
v) Cape Verde.
vi) Reunion.
vii) Sao Tome and Principe.

Locating Countries On The Map

The Equator and the Prime Meridian (Greenwich meridian) are the most important lines that help in locating places (countries) on the map.
By using the Equator we can tell whether the country is in the Southern or Northern Hemisphere. Some countries are crossed by the Equator and are therefore partly in the Southern and partly in the Northern Hemisphere.

Such countries include:

i) Uganda.
ii) Kenya.
iii) Somalia.
iv) DR Congo.
v) Congo Brazzaville.
vi) Gabon.

By using the prime meridian we are able to tell whether the country is in the Eastern or the Western Hemisphere. When using longitudes and latitudes we identify the longitudes and latitudes lying on the opposite extreme borders of the place being located.

EXAMPLE I:
Locating Algeria.

Algeria is found between latitudes 18^0 N & 37^0 N and longitudes $8^1/_2{}^0$ W & 12^0 E. This means that Algeria lies entirely in the Northern hemisphere (i.e. North of the Equator) but crossed by the Greenwich. The space enclosed by the above mentioned longitudes and latitudes is where Algeria is located. So we say, Algeria lies between latitudes 18^0N & 37^0 N and longitudes $8^1/_2{}^0$ W & 12^0E.

EXAMPLE II:
Locating Botswana.

Botswana is found entirely in the Southern hemisphere, so both latitudes are marked (^{0}S) and both longitudes are also marked degrees East because it also lies entirely in the Eastern hemisphere. Botswana lies between 18^0S & 27^0 S and 21^0 E & $29^1/_2{}^0$ E.

How to use longitudes & latitudes to locate places.

Longitudes and latitudes are not numbered consecutively as 0,1,2,3,4,5,etc. They are commonly numbered 0,10,20,30,40,50 or 0,5,10,15,20,25,30 etc so, we have to determine the longitudes and latitudes that are not indicated.

i. Identify any two parallel longitudes or latitudes e.g. 20^0E and 30^0E.
ii. Find the degrees between these lines i.e. there are 10^0 between 20^0E and 30^0E.
iii. Find the distance in cm or mm between those two lines e.g. there are 3cm or 30mm between those lines.
iv. Divide the answer of (c) by that of (b),

So $10^0 = 30mm$
$1^0 = {}^{30mm}/_{10}$
$1^0 = 3mm$

Therefore every 3mm make 1^0 or 1mm = ${}^1/_3{}^0$. So we can calculate and get the required longitude or latitude.

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF AFRICA.

Africa has various physical features that include:

i. Coastal regions.
ii. Plateau.
iii. Mountains/ Highlands.
iv. Rift valleys.
v. Oceans.
vi. Drainage (Rivers).
vii. Lakes.

1. ***The Coastal Regions.***

It is a narrow zone between the sea and land. The coast may be smooth or having gaps depending on the land, wind (waves), marine etc processes. Some coastal regions have lagoons. A lagoon is a body of seawater separated from the sea by sand or silt (mud).

Ghana, Benin, Cote D' Ivoire, and Nigeria have many lagoons. Even cities like Lagos (Nigeria), Abidjan (Cote D' Ivoire) and Durban (South Africa) were built on islands in lagoons. There are more lagoons on the Nile delta.

Areas of coastline with lagoons have coral reefs. Coral reefs are formed by dead animals' bones which later turn into limestone.
Some coasts lack good natural harbours so artificial ones are constructed. Harbours handle countries' imports and exports. They also provide employment i.e. loading and offloading goods to and from ships.
Other economic activities carried out on the coastlines include:

i) Fishing.
ii) Mining.
iii) Oil refining.
iv) Tourism.

1. ***Plateau:***

A plateau is a **raised flat-topped piece of land**.
The plateau covers the largest part of Africa.

Some of the main plateaux in Africa include:

i. Tibesti plateau in Chad.
ii. A hagger (Tasili) plateau in Algeria.
iii. Futa Djalon (Guinea).
iv. Yatta plateau of Kenya.
v. Nyika plateau of Kenya.
vi. Bie plateau of Angola.

Economic activities carried out on the plateau:

i) Cattle keeping.
ii) Crop farming.
iii) Mining.
iv) Tourism.
v) Fishing.

2. ***Highlands/ Mountains.***

There are three main types of highlands:

i) Volcanic highlands / mountains.
ii) Block / Horst highlands / mountains.
iii) Fold mountains / Highlands.

a) ***Volcanic Highlands/ Mountains***:

Volcanic mountains are divided into three groups:

i) Active volcanoes.
ii) Dormant or sleeping volcanoes
iii) Dead/ extinct volcanoes.

i) Active volcanoes

They are the mountains, which could have erupted in the last 500years and may erupt again.

Examples are:

i) Ol doInyo Lengai- Tanzania.
ii) Mt Mufmbiro -Uganda.
iii) Mt Meru - Tanzania.
iv) Mt Longonot – Kenya.

ii) Dormant or sleeping volcanoes.

They are the mountains that have never erupted in the last 500 years but may erupt in future.

Examples of sleeping volcanoes are:

i) Mt Kilimanjaro – Tanzania.
ii) Mt Kenya –Kenya.
iii) Mt Elgon –Uganda.

iii) Dead/ extinct volcanoes.

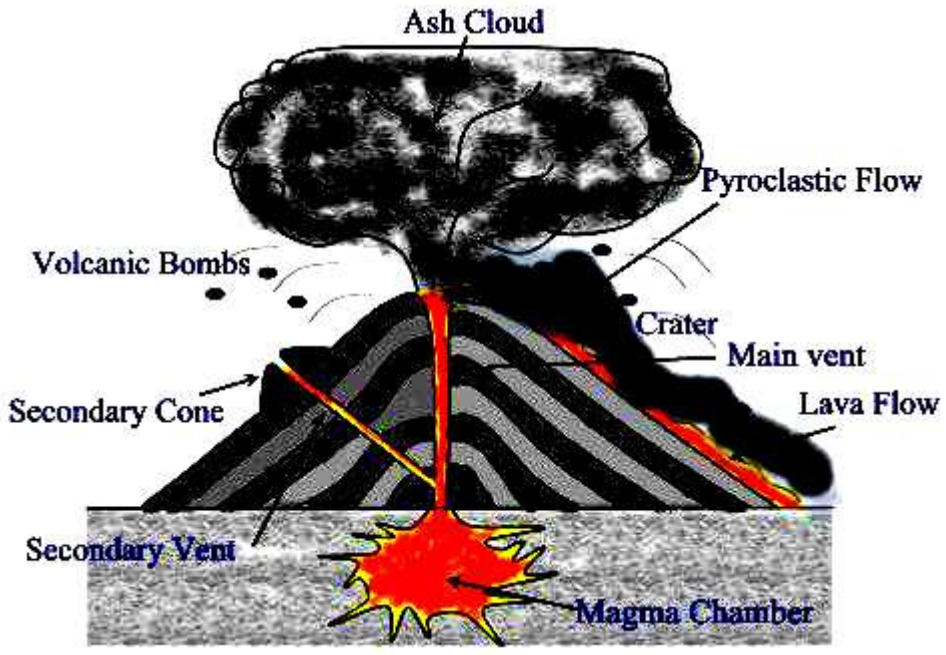
They are volcanic mountains that do not show any signs of eruption.

Examples of dead volcanoes in East Africa are:

i. Mt Kilimanjaro – Tanzania.
ii. Mt Kenya –Kenya.
iii. Mt Elgon –Uganda.

Formation Of Volcanic Mountains:

Volcanic mountains are formed when the hot molten substances (magma) burst out from beneath the earth onto the surface of the earth where it cools down into a mountain.



Geysers And Hot Springs:

They are found in areas that experience volcanic activity. They occur when the magma is very close to the surface and it warms the underground water.
Examples are:

i. Kitagata hot springs –Bushenyi- Uganda.
ii. Rubale hot springs –Ntungamo- Uganda.

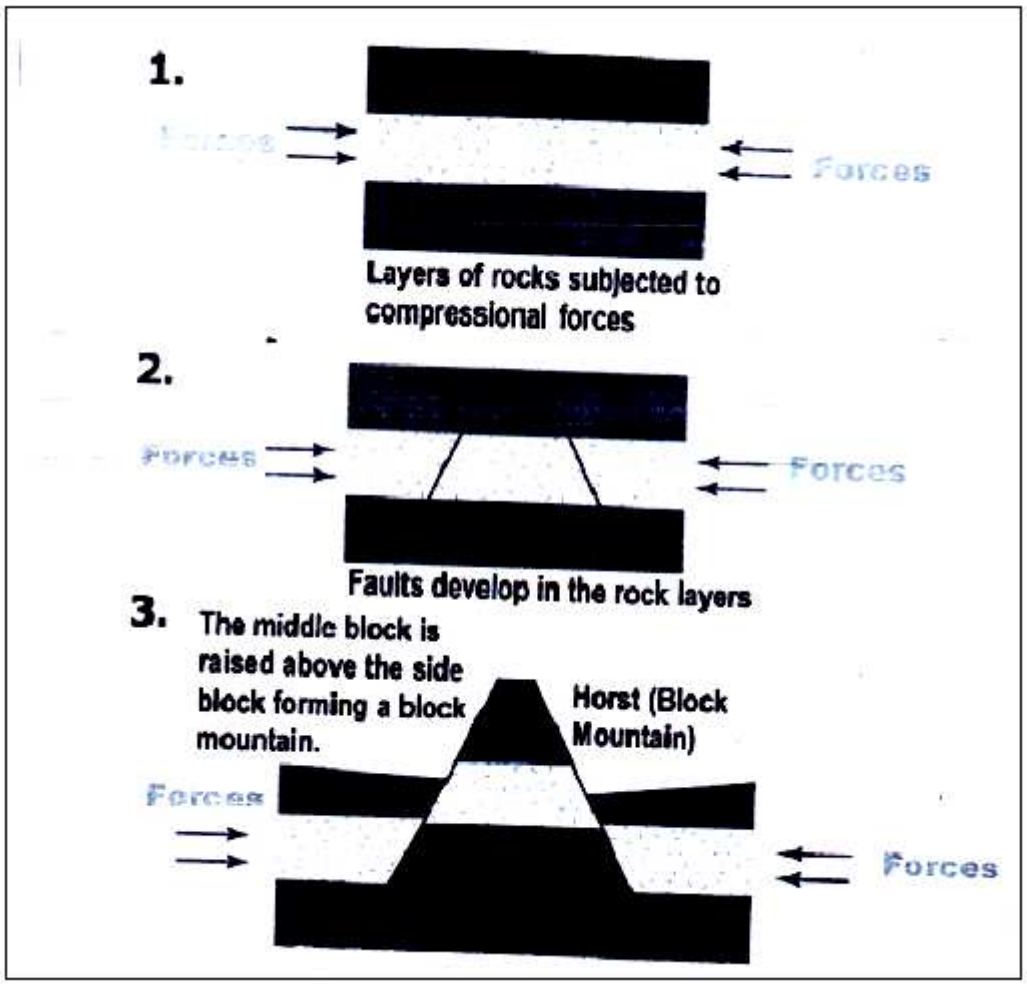
iii. Kisiizi hot springs –Rukungiri- Uganda.
iv. Sempuya hot springs –Bundibugyo- Uganda.
v. Kibiro hot springs –Hoima- Uganda.

b) ***Block / Horst Mountains***:

They are formed by faulting which is caused by tensional and compressional forces.
Examples of such mountains in East Africa are:

i. Mt Rwenzori – Uganda.
ii. Mt Ndoto - Kenya.
iii. Mt Uluguru – Tanzania.
iv. Mt Usambara – Tanzania.
v. Mt Mahari – Tanzania.

Formation Of Block / Horst Mountains:

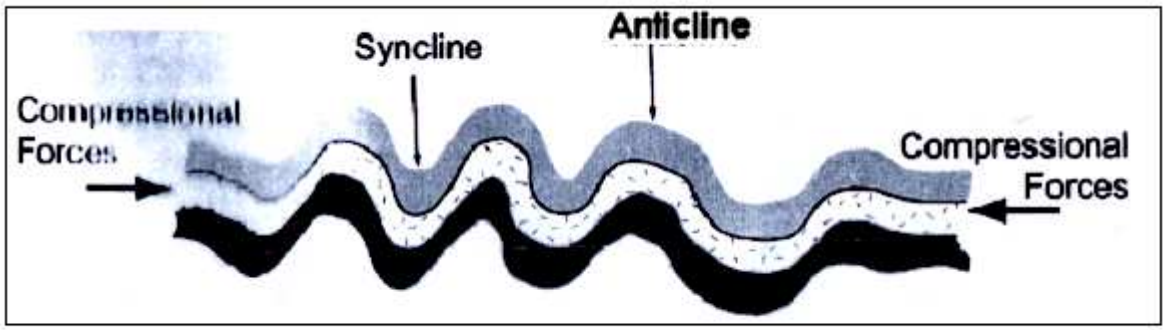


c) ***Fold Mountains***:

Mountains are formed by the folding of the earth's surface due compressional forces. Fold Mountains normally cover a large area. The series of mountains formed is called mountain ranges.

The main Fold Mountains of Africa are the **Atlas Mountains** in the extreme Northwest of Africa and the **Cape Ranges** in the extreme Southeast of Africa.

Formation Of Fold Mountains:



Importance of highlands / mountains:

i. They provide fertile volcanic soils for crop farming.
ii. They help in the formation of rainfall.
iii. They earn foreign exchange through tourism.
iv. They are a home of wild animals e.g. gorillas.
v. They have mineral deposits e.g. lime stone, diamonds etc.
vi. They form sources of important rivers.
vii. They have forests that are a source of timber.
viii. They create cool temperatures that are conducive for dairy farming, sheep rearing and vegetable growing.
ix. Some act as boundaries e.g. Mt Elgon.

NB:

Some mountains in Africa have snow on their peaks (snow capped peaks) because their peaks are above the snowline.
Some of the snow-capped mountains in Africa are:

i. Mt Kilimanjaro- Tanzania.
ii. Mt Rwenzori- Uganda.
iii. Mt Kenya – Kenya.

The snow-capped peaks attract tourists who bring in foreign exchange.

Crops grown on highlands:

i. Arabica coffee on the slopes of Mt Elgon and Mt Kilimanjaro.
ii. Wheat - Kapchorwa –Mt Elgon , Uganda.
iii. Barley - Kapchorwa –Mt Elgon , Uganda.

iv. Maize.
v. Grapes.
vi. Tea.
vii. Tomatoes.
viii. Cabbage.
ix. Irish potatoes etc.

Sheep reared on highlands:

i. Merino – wool.
ii. Hampshire.
iii. Romney.
iv. Marsin.
v. Ayrshire.
vi. Dorset.

NB: Dairy goats such as Saanen and Togenberg are also kept.
However, human activities such as over-cultivation, charcoal burning etc are leading to environmental degradation on highlands.

Disadvantages of highlands:

i. They cause loss of life during eruptions.
ii. They destroy property during eruptions and landslides.
iii. The molten lava sometimes flows to water bodies disrupting fishing.
iv. They hinder the development of infrastructure like roads and railways and donkeys have to be used in such areas like Kasese and Kapchorwa.
v. Highlands harbour wrong doers.
vi. Highlands encourage soil erosion.
vii. Highlands harbour deadly wild animals.
viii. High mountains are dangerous to air transport.

4. *THE AFRICAN RIFT VALLEY.*

A rift valley is a long narrow depression on the earth's surface.
Rift valleys were formed by the process of faulting.
A fault is a deep crack on the earth's surface.
The faults (deep cracks) are caused by tensional and compressional forces.

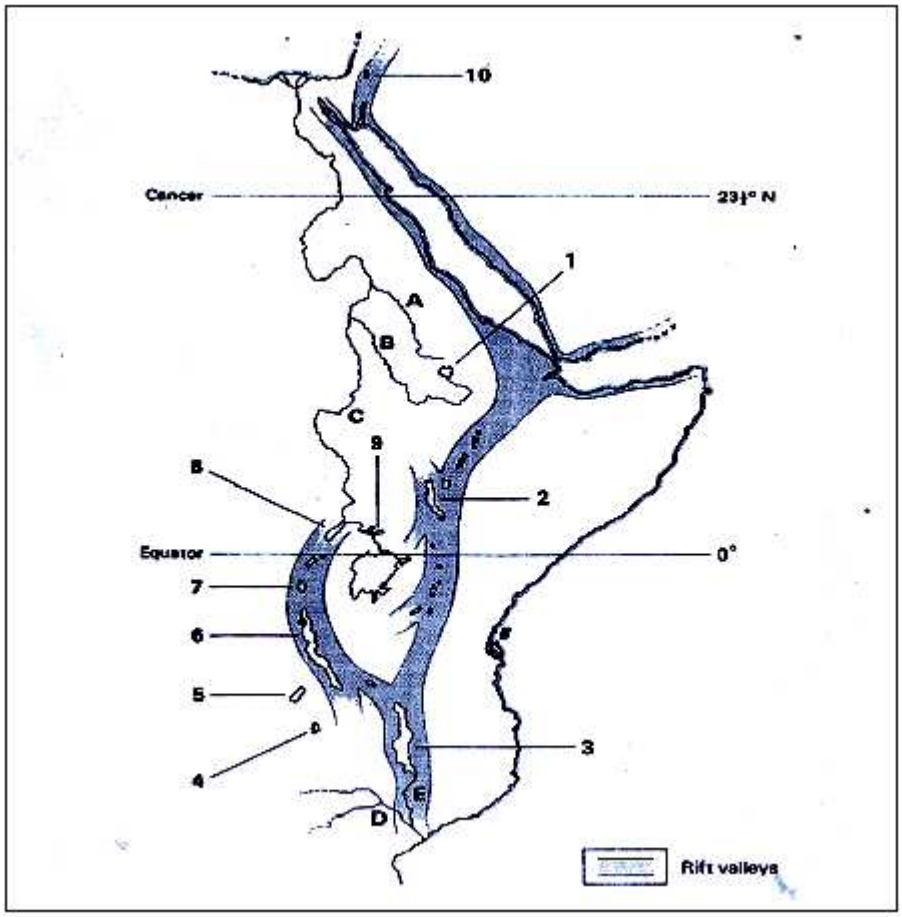
The great African rift valley starts from Syria, runs through Jordan, Dead Sea, gulf of Aqaba, Red Sea, gulf of Aden, Ethiopian highlands, Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi and ends in Mozambique.

The rift valley is divided into two arms in East Africa:

i. **Eastern arm**.
ii. **Western arm**.

The Western arm runs through:
i. Uganda.
ii. Rwanda.
iii. Burundi.
iv. Tanzania.

THE AFRICAN RIFT VALLEY.



Lakes in the Western arm of the rift valley:

i. L. Albert.
ii. L. Edward.
iii. L. George.
iv. L. Kivu
v. L.Tanganyika

Lakes in the Eastern arm of the rift valley:

1. L. Turkana.
2. L. Baringo.
3. L. Naivasha.
4. L. Elmenteita.
5. L. Nakuru.
6. L. Magadi.
7. L. Natron.
8. L. Manyara.
9. L. Eyasi.
10. L. Malawi.
11. L. Bogoria

Lakes not in (outside) the rift valley.

a) L. Victoria (Ug)
b) L. Kyoga (Ug)
c) L. Wamala (Ug).
d) L. Bisina (Ug).
e) L. Amboseli (Kenya)
f) L. Chad.
g) L. Tana.

Important facts:

- L. Tanganyika is the longest and deepest lake in Africa.
- L. Nakuru is a famous tourist attraction because of her flamingo birds.
- L. Magadi is where Kenya mines soda Ash and salt.

Characteristics of rift valley lakes:

i. They have no outlets.
ii. They are deep.
iii. They are salty.
iv. They are oblong (long and narrow)

Why rift valley lakes are salty:

i. They have inland drainage i.e. inlets only.
ii. They lie on salty rocks.
iii. They have salty ashes and gases.

Economic activities carried out in the rift valley:

i. Nomadic pastoralism.
ii. Tourism e.g. L. Nakuru.
iii. Fishing
iv. Water transport.
v. Mining e.g. salt and soda ash in L. Magadi.

Problems of people in the rift valley:

i. There is too much heat (high temperatures).
ii. There are disease vectors e.g. Tsetse flies.
iii. There is drought
iv. There is scarcity of fresh water.
v. There is poor transport and communications.
vi. Sometimes there are floods.

5. *OCEANS.*

Oceans are large masses of the earth that are covered by water. They are made up of large water masses unlike those of lakes and rivers. Part of the land was uplifted and all the water collected at the bottom of the slope. Towards the coast, the ocean bed is not deep.
Africa is bordered by two main oceans:

i. Indian Ocean.
ii. Atlantic Ocean.

Importance of oceans:

i. They are used for water transport using ships.
ii. They are a source of fish.
iii. They are mining areas for salt, limestone, Oil etc.
iv. They are a tourist attraction.
v. They are used for recreation e.g. swimming, boat racing etc.
vi. They are a source of animal feeds e.g. the shells of water creatures are crushed to provide calcium.
vii. They help in rainfall formation.

Disadvantages of Oceans:

i. They occupy a lot of land.
ii. Water levels sometimes rise submerging land.
iii. They are very wide and separate continents.

Problems facing Oceans:

i. Pollution e.g. oil spillage from oil tankers.
ii. Dumping of nuclear wastes.

6. ***AFRICA'S LAKES:***

Water that collects in the hollows of the earth's surface form water bodies called lakes. Some of the lakes in Africa are natural while others are man-made.
Natural lakes occupy the hollows formed by the earth's natural movements, volcanicity,, river deposition and marine deposition. Most lakes in Africa are found in East Africa now called the 'Great Lakes region'.

Economic activities:

i. Tourism i.e. many game parks are found in the forests and lakes.
ii. Fishing in the lakes. iii. Mining. iv. Transport.

TYPES OF LAKES:

a) ***Crustal/down warped/basin/depression lakes***:

They were formed as a result of down warping (depression) of the Earth's surface. They have fresh water.
Examples are:

i. L. Victoria.
ii. L. Kyoga
iii. L. Chad
iv. L. Amboseli
v. L. Wamala.
vi. L. Kwania.

1. L. Victoria.

i. It's the largest fresh water lake in East Africa and in Africa.

ii. It's shared by the three East African countries.
iii. It's a fishing area.
iv. It's the source of river Nile.
v. It's also good for inter-territorial trade.
vi. There are many islands on L. Victoria that form the districts of Kalangala and Buvuma in Uganda.
vii. Its old (local) name in Uganda is L. Nalubale (Home of gods).
viii. It was named L. Victoria after Queen Victoria of England by John Speke in 1858.

2. *L. Kyoga*.

i. It's found in central Uganda. It was formed as a result of down warping.
ii. It's the swampiest lake in Uganda.
iii. It's swampy because it's shallow.
iv. It's good for fishing and transport.
v. It has sudd which sometimes makes navigation difficult.
vi. The first white man to see L. Kyoga was Chaillie Long.

3. ***L. Amboseli***.

i. It's found in Southern Kenya.
ii. It's the only lake that is not in the rift valley in Kenya.
iii. It's a seasonal lake.

b) ***Rift valley lakes***:

They occupy the faults found on the floor of the rift valley. They are long and narrow (oblong) because they are in the rift valley. Rift valley lakes are :

i. salty.
ii. Deep.
iii. Narrow and long(oblong).
iv. Have no outlets.

Examples of rift valley lakes:

i. L. Albert.
ii. L. Edward.
iii. L. George.
iv. L. Kivu
v. L.Tanganyika
vi. L. Turkana.
vii. L. Baringo.
viii. L. Naivasha.
ix. L. Elmenteita.
x. L. Nakuru.
xi. L. Magadi.

1. ***L. Tanganyika.***

i. It's the longest and deepest lake in Africa.
ii. It's shared by Tanzania, Burundi, DR. Congo and Zambia.
iii. It's important for fishing and transport.
iv. Its main inland ports are Kigoma and Ujijii.

2. ***L. Albert :***

i. It's found on the Uganda-DR. Congo border.
ii. It's local name is Mwitanzigye.

iii. It's important for fishing and transport.
iv. It also has oil deposits and natural gas.
v. Port Butiaba is the chief lake port.

4. *L. Magadi*:

i. It's found in the SW of Kenya.
ii. It's important for salt and soda ash mining in Kenya.

5. ***L. Turkana****:*

i. It's in the Northwest of Kenya.
ii. It's former name was L. Rudolf.
iii. It was named Rudolf by a Hungarian explorer called count Teleki.
iv. It's important for fishing.
v. However, fishing is not developed because of poor transport and shortage of market for fish.
vi. The Turkana live around this lake they are nomadic pastoralists.

6. L. Nakuru:

i. It's found in the Eastern rift valley in Kenya.
ii. It's the home of flamingo birds.
iii. It's popularly referred to as a sanctuary of flamingoes in East Africa.

7. L. Kivu:

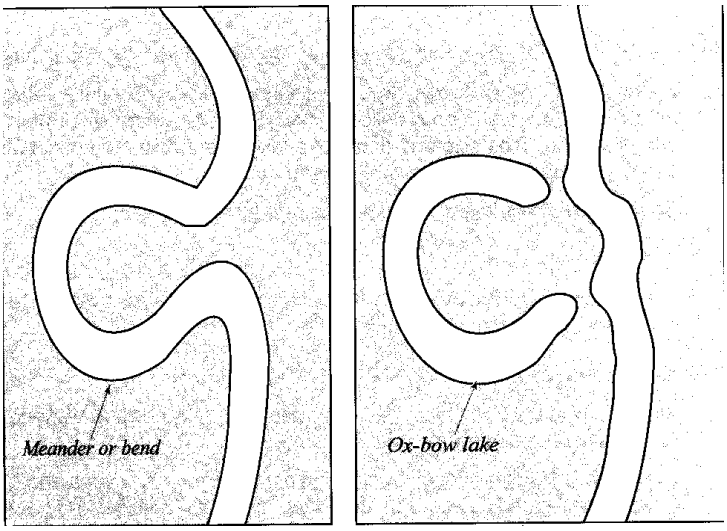
i. It's in the western rift valley in Rwanda.
ii. It's the only lake that is in the East African rift valley but not in east Africa.

Other lakes in the rift valley are:

i. L. Manyara.
ii. L. Eyasi.
iii. L. Malawi.
iv. L. Rukwa.
v. L. Edward.
vi. L. George.

The two lakes, Edward and George, are joined by Kazinga Channel. Kazinga Channel is said to having the largest number of hippopotami in the world.

c) ***Ox-bow lakes***:
They are formed as a result of meandering and deposition of rivers.



Examples of Ox-bow lakes are found on:

i. R. Semliki – Uganda.
ii. R. Nyando – Kenya.
iii. R. Kilombero – Tanzania
iv. R. Nzoia – Kenya.
v. R. Malagarasi- Tz.
v. R. Ruizi – Uganda.

d) ***Volcanic lakes***:

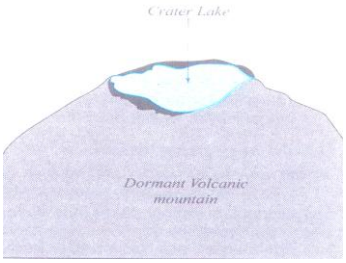
Volcanic lakes are divided into three groups.

a. Caldera lakes:

They are formed after volcanic activity leaves large rounded depressions on tops of volcanoes. Examples are found on:

i. Mt. Napak in Uganda.
iii. Mt. Meru in Tanzania.
iv. Mt. Ngorongoro in Tanzania is the largest caldera in Africa.
v. Mt. Longonot in Kenya.
vi. Mt. Mengai in Kenya.

b. ***Crater lakes***.



They are found on tops of dead Volcanic Mountains. They are formed when water occupies the hole left by molten lava during eruptions.
Examples are:

1. ***L. Katwe*:**
   i. it's found in Western Uganda to the North of L. Edward.
   ii. It's a crater lake that was formed by volcanic activity.
   iii. It lies in the rift valley but it is not a rift valley lake.
   iv. It's important for salt mining.

2. L. Nyungu.
3. L. Katabaganda.
4. L. Muhavura.
5. L. Nyamununka.
6. L. Nyakasura.
7. L. Munyanyange

c. Lava dammed (blocked) lakes:

They are formed when lava flow from an eruption blocks (dams) a river forming a lake.
Examples are;

i. L. Bunuyonyi – Uganda.
ii. L. Mutanda - – Uganda.
iii. L. Butera – – Uganda.
iv. L. Muhondo– Uganda.
v. L. Mulehe– Uganda.
vi. L. Ndalaga – Uganda.

NB: L. Bunyonyi is one of the deepest lakes in Africa. It is a tourist attraction due to its blue water.

a) Man-made lakes:

They are formed when man constructs dams on rivers.
Some are just dug out e.g. kabaka's lake, Kajjansi lake and Kibimba lake.
Some of the man –made lakes due to dammng of rivers are:

i. L. Volta on R. Volta (Ghana) the largest in the world.
ii. L. Kariba on R. Zambezi (Zambia).
iii. L. Nasser R. Nile (Egypt).

NB.

There was no lake formed behind Nalubale power station because the dam is near L. Victoria. However, the water level behind the dam rose virtually submerging the Rippon falls.

***Glacial lakes (cirques)*:**

They are formed by glacial erosion on the sides of snow-capped mountains.
The sides of a mountain are eroded by pieces of falling snow.

Examples of cirques are on Mt Rwenzori i.e.

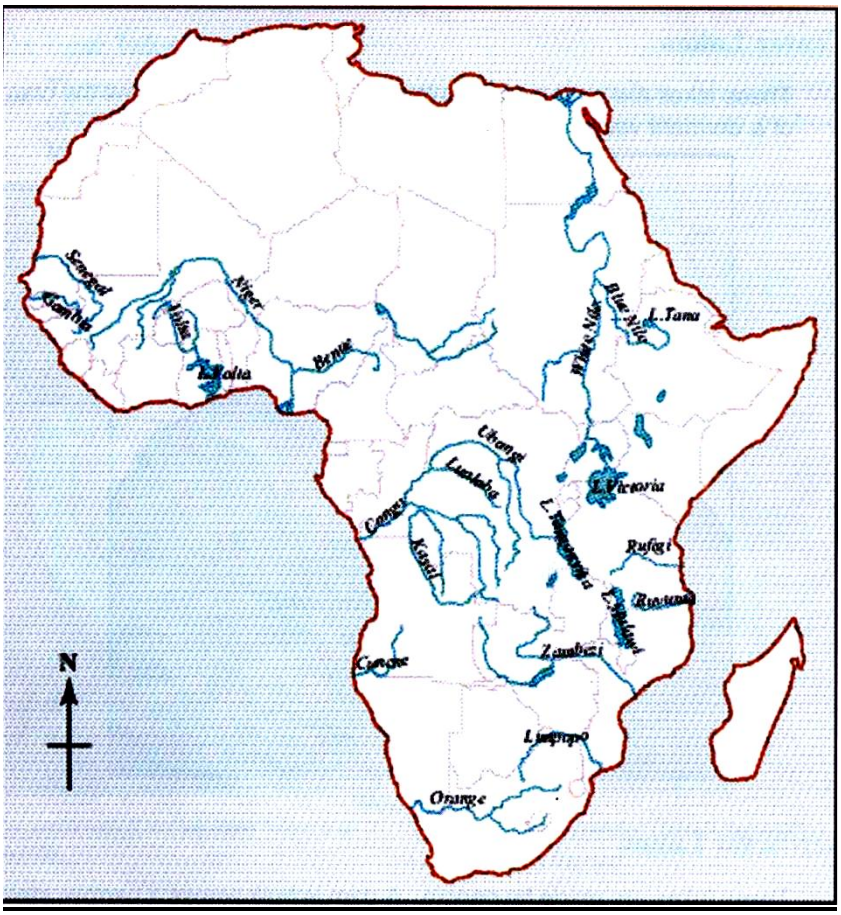
i. L. Speke – Mt Rwenzori Uganda
ii. L. Teleki – Mt Rwenzori Uganda.

NB. The down flow of melting snow also results into rivers called Glacial Rivers. Glaciers are large masses of ice formed by snow on mountain tops that moves down the mountain.

b) Lagoon lakes:

Lagoon lakes are formed by deposition i.e. sand and mud (silt) separate the water from the main water body forming a lagoon lake e.g. L. Nabugabo in Uganda.
There are many lagoon lakes in West Africa.

AFRICA'S LAKES & RIVERS:



KEY:

Lakes:

a. L. Victoria.
b. L. Kyoga.
c. L Albert.
d. L. Tanganyika.
e. L. Turkana.
f. L. Chad.
g. L. Nasser.
h. L. Volta
i. L. Kariba.
j. L.Tana

Rivers:

1. R. Nile.
2. R. Congo.
3. R. Orange.
4. R. Limpopo.
5. R. Zambezi.
6. R. Niger.
7. R. Gambia
8. R. Volta
9. R. Senegal

Why areas around L.Victoria are densely populated:

i. The soils are fertile.
ii. There is reliable rainfall.
iii. There is fishing.
iv. There are employment opportunities.
v. There are good social services.

Importance of lakes:

i. They are a source of fish
ii. They provide water for irrigation, industrial and domestic use
iii. They are used for transport.
iv. They are a home/habitat of wild animals.
v. They attract tourists who bring foreign exchange.
vi. They help in rainfall formation.
vii. They are mining areas e.g. salt, soda ash, ammonia, etc. Ammonia is mined in L. Nyamununka.
viii. They are used for recreation.
ix. They control floods.

Problems faced by people who live around lakes*:*

i. There are many disease vectors.
ii. Floods may occur destroying life and property.
iii. They cause cold weather.
iv. There are many forests around.

Problems facing lakes:

i. Pollution from dumping/fishing.
ii. Waterweeds e.g. water hiacynth, Najjahoroh.

THE AFRICA'S RIVERS.

A river is a large natural stream of water flowing in a channel. Most rivers begin from highlands, mountains and lakes. Those areas receive plenty of rainfall that keeps the rivers full. The rivers make falls as they flow from the highlands to the coastal areas. Waterfalls hinder navigation but are good for the generation of hydro electricity power and tourism attraction.

NB:

Rivers flow from higher altitude to lower altitude.

Most rivers end in the;
i. Lakes. ii. Oceans. iii. Seas etc.

Definition of terms:

a) **A source** is where a river starts.
b) **A mouth** is where a river ends.
c) **A watershed** is a stretch of highland separating two/more rivers.
d) **A basin** is an area drained by a river and its tributaries.
e) **An estuary** is an open mouth by a river.
f) **A delta** is a mouth of a river made up of distributaries.
g) **A distributary** is a small river leaving the main one.
h) **A tributary** is a small river joining the main one.
i) **A confluence** is a place where two or more rivers meet.
j) **Meanders** are bends of rivers.

Stages/causes of a river:

Youth stage (Torrent stage). Old stage (old stage).
Mature stage (middle stage).

a) Youth (torrent) stage.

It's the upper course / stage (first part) of the river.

Characteristics:

i. It has many waterfalls and rapids.
ii. It flows in a V shape.
iii. It has a narrow gorge.

Economic activities:

i. Generation of Hydro .Electric.Power on the waterfalls.
ii. Tourism. iii. Fishing

NB: Waterfalls and dams hinder water transport (navigation) on this part of the river.

b) Mature (middle) stage.

It is the second part of the river.

Characteristics:

i. It flows in a U shape.
ii. Meanders begin to develop.
iii. It has some few waterfalls.

Economic activities:

i. Generation of Hydro .Electric.Power on the waterfalls.
ii. Tourism.
iii. Fishing.
iv. Transport.

c) *Old (plain) stage.*

It's the third and last part of the river.

Characteristics:

i. It has Ox bow lakes.
ii. There is a lot of deposition.
iii. The water flows slowly.

Economic activities:

i. Mining.
ii. Tourism.
iii. Fishing.
iv. Transport.

Rivers With Deltas In Africa:

i. River Nile – Uganda
ii. R. Niger – Nigeria.
iii. R. Zambezi- Mozambique.
iv. R. Nyando – Kenya.
v. R. Rufiji – Tanzania.
vi. R. Semliki- Uganda.

1. ***River Nile***.

i. It's locally known as Kiira.
ii. It flows Northwards because the North is on a lower altitude.
iii. It begins from Lake Victoria in Uganda.
iv. It flows through Sudan, Egypt and pours it's waters into the Mediterranean Sea.
v. It ends in a delta.
vi. Its main tributaries are Blue Nile and Atbara.
vii. Its main distributaries at the delta are Rosetta and Damieta.
viii. It's the longest river in the world (4,150, miles/6,640 km).

The search for the source of the Nile attracted many European explorers to Africa.
John Hanning Speke was the first white man to see the source of the Nile at Rippon falls on 28/7/1862.

The part of the Nile from L. Victoria to L. Albert is called Victoria Nile while the part from L. Albert to Nimule at the border with Sudan is Albert Nile. From Nimule down words is the White Nile. The White Nile has sudd.
Uganda, Sudan, Egypt and Ethiopia form the Nile valley.

The Nile is the only (main) major source of water in Egypt since it's a desert country hence its called '**The life blood of Egypt'** and the saying , **'No Nile, No Egypt'**

Uganda, Sudan and Egypt have constructed power dams on the Nile for the generation of H.E.P and provision of water for irrigation.

The main dams and power stations on the Nile are:

i. Nalubale power station – Formerly, Owen falls dam (Uganda)- HEP
ii. Sennar dam (Sudan)- Irrigation.
iii. Rosoires dam (Sudan)- Irrigation.
iv. Aswan high dam (Egypt) – HEP.(Led to the formation of L. Nasser)

NB: Kiira dam is built on the man made part constructed at the source of the Nile.
Uganda exports her H.E.P to:

i. Kenya
ii. Tanzania.
iii. Rwanda.

NB:
The Nile carries a constant volume of water to the sea because its source is in a place that receives heavy rainfall throughout the year.

2. ***R. Zambezi.***

It begins from Northern Zambia and the Angolan plateau. It flows through Mozambique and makes its delta in the Indian Ocean.
Dams on river Zambezi include:

i. Kariba dam -Zambia.
ii. Kafue dam -Zambia.
iii. Cabora bassa dam – Mozambique.

NB: The construction of Kariba dam led to the formation of L. Kariba.

3. ***R. Niger.***

R. Niger starts from the Futa Djallon highlands. Its major tributary is R. Benue. It forms a delta as it pours its water into the Atlantic Ocean. R. Niger delta is economically important to Nigeria because:

i. Its delta has oil deposits.
ii. It provides water for industry.
iii. It provides hydro electric power from Kainji dam.
iv. It is used for water transport since it has a few falls.

3. ***R. Volta*.**

R. Volta starts from Burkina Faso and flows South wards through Ghana and pours its water into the Atlantic Ocean.

The main tributaries of R. Volta are:

i. Black Volta.
ii. White Volta.
iii. Otti.

L. Volta is the biggest lake in Ghana and is the biggest man-made lake in the world. It was formed when Akosombo dam was built on R. Volta.

4. ***R. Orange*.**

It starts from the Drakensberg Mountains in the East of South Africa. It flows Westwards and it pours its water into the Atlantic Ocean.
Its tributaries are:

i. Vaal. ii. Modder. iii. Caledon.

Dams constructed on R. Orange are:

i. Verwoerd dam. ii. Vaal dam.

6. *R. Congo.*

It is flows through the Equatorial forests of D.R. Congo. It has so many tributaries of which the main two are **Kasai** and **Ubangi**.
R. Congo carries more water to the ocean than all other rivers of Africa put together because:

i. It flows through thick forests that receive heavy rainfall.
ii. It has very many tributaries.

7. *R. Ruvuma*.

It flows into the Indian Ocean. It flows along the Tanzania – Mozambique border. Other rivers that flow into the Indian Ocean are:

i. R. Rufiji.
ii. R. Pangani.
iii. R. Tana.
iv. R. Athi / Galana.

Importance of rivers in Africa:

i. Rivers provide water for irrigation, industrial and domestic use.
ii. Rivers are used for the generation of hydro electric power.
iii. Rivers help in the formation of rainfall.
iv. Rivers provide us with fish.
v. Rivers are used for navigation.
vi. Rivers are a home of wild animals.
vii. Rivers attract tourists who bring in foreign exchange.
viii. Rivers are also needed for recreation e.g. swimming, etc.

Why some rivers are not good for navigation:

i. Some rivers have waterfalls.
ii. Some rivers have dams.
iii. Some rivers have sudd.
iv. Some rivers have rocks.
v. Some rivers have wild animals.
vi. Some rivers are shallow.
vii. Some rivers are narrow.
viii. Some rivers are seasonal.

Dangers created by rivers:

i. Some rivers destroy life and property when they flood.
ii. Waterfalls and rapids hinder navigation.
iii. Rivers are breeding places for vectors.
iv. Rivers hinder the development of roads and railways.
v. River developmental projects displace people.

Advantages (importance) of dams:

i. They help to generate hydro electric power.
ii. They provide water for irrigation.
iii. They may form lakes for fishing.
iv. They may form lakes for tourism.
v. They may form lakes for navigation.
vi. They may form lakes for recreation.
vii. They create employment.

Disadvantages of dams:

i. They destroy tourist attractions like falls.
ii. They cause floods
iii. They hinder navigation.
iv. Dams displace people.
v. They are expensive to construct.
vi. They disrupt aquatic life.

Dams and Power stations in Africa.

NO	DAM	ON RIVER	COUNTRY
1	Nalubale Power station	R. Nile	Uganda
2	Kiira Power station	R. Nile	Uganda
3	Aswan High Dam	R. Nile	Egypt
4	Akosombo dam	R. Volta	Ghana
5	Kainji dam	R. Niger	Nigeria
6	Inga dam	R. Congo	DR Congo
7	Nzilo dam	R. Congo	DR Congo
8	Hale dam	R. Rufiji	Tanzania.
9	Seven forks dam	R. Tana	Kenya.
10	Kariba dam	R. Zambezi	Zambia
11	Kafue dam	R. Zambezi	Zambia.
12	Cabora Bassa dam	R. Zambezi	Mozambique.
13	Sennar dam	R. Nile	Sudan
14	Rosoires dam	R. Nile	Sudan
15	Vaal dam	R. Orange	South Africa
16	Verwoerd dam	R. Orange	South Africa,

TOPIC 2

THE VEGETATION OF AFRICA.

Vegetation is the plant cover of an area. Vegetation can be planted or it grows naturally.
Natural vegetation is the plant cover that grows on its own.
Planted vegetation is the plant cover that is planted by man.

The main vegetation types of Africa include:

i. Equatorial / Tropical rainforests.
ii. Savannah / Tropical grasslands.
iii. Semi-desert vegetation.
iv. Mediterranean vegetation.
v. Temperate grasslands.
vi. Mangrove forests/ swamps.
vii. Mountain vegetation/ Montane.
viii. Desert vegetation.

1. *Tropical Rain Forests*.

Tropical rainforests or Equatorial forests grow in Equatorial climatic regions. In this region, the temperatures are high throughout the year and heavy rainfall is received throughout the year. These forests are thick because they receive heavy rainfall throughout the year. The trees provide hard wood (timber).
Some of the trees found in the Equatorial forests are:

i. Mahogany.
ii. Mvule (Troko)
iii. Rose wood.
iv. Green heart.
v. Ebony.
vi. Sepele.
vii. Obeach
viii. Mangrove.

Characteristics of equatorial / tropical forests:

i. Trees have buttress roots standing above the ground.
ii. Tree trunks are straight and have branches at lower parts.
iii. Trees have hard wood.
iv. Trees have broad leaves.
v. Trees grow tall due to phototropism.
vi. The vegetation is evergreen.
vii. Trees have thick undergrowth.
viii. Trees take long to mature e.g. 70 years.

The vegetation grows in different layers:

i. Undergrowth----------0-10 metres.
ii. Under canopy----------10-20 metres.
iii. Main canopy----------20-30 metres.
iv. Emergents----------30-40 metres.

The leaves drop and rot into humus thus adding to the fertility of the soil. When deforestation occurs, the cycle is broken and the soil becomes too poor as soil erosion also comes in.

Equatorial rainforests are found along the Equator e.g.:

i. D.R. Congo.
ii. Congo Brazzaville
iii. Areas around L. Victoria.
iv. Western part of Uganda
v. The central highlands of Kenya.
vi. The Southern part of the central highland in Tanzania.

Uses of hard wood:

i. For making furniture.
ii. For construction of houses
iii. For making boats.
iv. For making coffins.
v. For fuel
vi. For poles, etc.

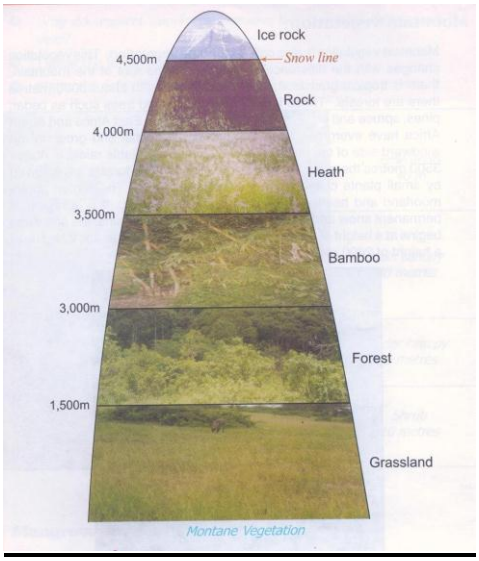
2. ***Montane forests (mountain vegetation***).

Montane forests are also known as mountain vegetation. Montane forests grow in semi-temperate regions in the highlands. Semi-temperate regions have cool temperatures. Montane forests grow taller in wetter areas.

At the foot of the mountain, there is tropical grassland. Forests occur from about 1500 metres – 3000 metres. The trees that grow in such areas have softwood. Such trees include ceder, pine, spruce and fir.

Above 3,500 metres, there are small plants called heath and moorland. Above heath and moorland is too cold for plants to grow. It is mainly covered by snow or it is just bare rock. In the tropics, the snow line is the altitude of 4,500 metres.

Mountain Vegetation



3. ***Mangrove Forests***.

Mangrove forests grow along the coast i.e. under salty conditions.

They are not as thick and dense as equatorial forests.
Mangrove forests grow in or near water that's why they are sometimes referred to as mangrove swamps.
Mangrove forests provide hard wood and waterproof timber that is used for shipbuilding.
They are mainly found in Western, Eastern and southeastern coast of Africa. They are also found in the Western part of Madagascar.
Kenya exports mangrove timber to Middle East countries like Saudi Arabia and Iran.
Apart from mangrove swamps, there are other swamps that grow in low lands mainly along rivers and around lakes.
Swamps reduce the flow of water, which increases the rate of evapo-transpiration (evaporation and transpiration) leading to rain formation.

4. ***Savannah Grasslands***.

The Savannah is also known as tropical grasslands.
It covers the biggest part of Africa.
The grass grows to a height of about 2 metres. During the dry season, the grass turns yellow and dries up. The roots remain dormant in the ground until it rains. Most trees in the Savannah shed their leaves during the dry season to **reduce transpiration**. Such trees are called **deciduous** trees while trees that don't shed their leaves are called **evergreen.** Some trees have thin leaves that also help in **reducing transpiration**. The trees also have long taproots to absorb water from deep underground.
The Savannah is divided into woodland and grassland. The wooded Savannah like the Miombo woodland of southern Tanzania has many Tsetse flies, which makes cattle keeping and human settlement almost impossible. Tsetse flies can be controlled by spraying with insecticides and clearing the bushes.
Savannah grasslands are a major source of pasture, protection and shelter for animals.
That is why there are many game parks on the Savannah.

5. ***Semi-Desert Vegetation.***

The semi-desert vegetation consists of scrub, thorny trees, scattered rough grass and bushes. It's found in areas with very little rainfall. Because of the little rainfall received few trees are scattered here and there but mainly along rivers. Semi-desert areas are close to deserts like the Sahara, Namib and Kalahari etc.
It covers the biggest part of northern and northeast Kenya. It also covers northeast Uganda (Karamoja). Nomadic pastoralism is the major economic activity.

Temperate Grasslands.
Temperate grasslands are found in temperate regions i.e. outside tropics. The temperate grasslands of Africa are called the **Veld** or **High Veld**. They are called the High Veld because they are located on the plateau of South Africa. They are commonly found in areas where moisture is not enough for plant growth. The grass has short roots, long narrow leaves with hairy covering which help them to survive in long dry spells.
Desert Vegetation.

Desert areas have bare rock with sand heaps called **sand dunes**. In the desert, water can only be found in the **Oases**. Few crops can grow near the oases e.g. **dates, palms, barley** etc. The

trees that grow in the desert have thick backs and thin leaves to control transpiration. Some of the desert trees are cactus and boabab etc.

Mediterranean Vegetation.

The Mediterranean vegetation is found to the extreme Northwest and extreme Southeast of Africa. Woodland and scrub make up the Mediterranean vegetation. Mediterranean forests have softwood. Some of the trees in the Mediterranean vegetation are conifers, pine, rose wood and cypress etc. Most of the trees of this vegetation have wax-covered leaves to **control transpiration**.

Factors that influence vegetation distribution in Africa.

i. Rainfall

It is the major factor that determines vegetation distribution. The amount of rainfall received in an area determines the type of vegetation that will be in that area. Forests are found in areas with heavy rainfall while grasslands are found in areas with low rainfall.

ii. Soil.

Fertile soil supports more plant growth that the infertile soil.

iii. Temperature.

Some plants can withstand high temperatures while others like medium or low temperatures. High temperatures increase the rate of evapotranspiration.

iv. Human activities.

i. Charcoal burning.
ii. Brick baking.
iii. Lumbering.
iv. Fish smoking.
v. Industrialization.
vi. Road construction.

Human activities such as the above do not favour vegetation growth instead they lead to deforestation while industrialization leads to ozone depletion by Chloro floro carbons (CFC) gases. However, human activities such as agro-forestry, afforestation and re-afforestation promote vegetation growth.

v. Relief.

General appearance of the landscape. Different vegetation appears on different altitudes.

Forests:

A forest is a group of trees. There are two types of forests in E. Africa.

i. Natural forests.
ii. *Plantation forests*.

Natural forests.

Natural Forests are the forests that grow up on their own. Natural forests in Uganda include; Mabira forest, Budongo forests and Bugoma forest, etc.

Plantation forests.

Plantation forests are forests that are planted by people. Most of these forests have soft wood trees such as ceder, pine, spruce and fir.

Trees from plantation forests grow tall to reach the sunshine but these forests are not as thick as the Equatorial.

Softwood from these forests is used for making soft boards, paper, pencils and matches etc.

Some of the plantation forests in Uganda are;
i) Namunve. Ii) Lendhu. Iii) Muguga etc.

Importance of forests /vegetation.

i. Forests provide timber to man
ii. Natural vegetation is a tourist attraction.
iii. Forests are habitats of wild life and people e.g. pygmies.
iv. Forests help in the formation of rainfall.
v. Forests provide employment to the people e.g. forests rangers.
vi. Forests are a source of wood fuel i.e. firewood and charcoal.
vii. Forests are research centres.
viii. Forests are a source of herbal medicine.
ix. Forests provide fruits to people.
x. Forests are a source of raw materials like rubber.
xi. Forests control global warming i.e. remove carbondioxide and provide oxygen.
xii. Forests provide man with fibre.
xiii. Forests protect houses and plants from strong winds.
xiv. Savannah grasslands are grazing areas for cattle.
xv. Bamboo is used to make musical instruments.
xvi. Swamps filter sewage and water.
xvii. Forests control soil erosion.
xviii. Forests are hunting areas.
xix. Vegetation conserves soil fertility.
xx. Swamps are a source of craft materials.
xxi. Swamps are water catchment areas.
xxii. Swamps control floods.

Disadvantages of forests.

i. Forests harbour vectors like Tsetse flies.
ii. Forests harbour deadly wild animals.
iii. Forests harbour wrong doers.
iv. They occupy farmland for cultivation and settlement.
v. Forests are a barrier to transportation and communication.
vi. Forests provide poisonous herbs.

Swamps.

Swamps are waterlogged areas with vegetation

Importance of swamps:

i. For growing crops.
ii. For fishing.
iii. For controlling floods (water catchment areas).
iv. They filter water.
v. They are water sources.
vi. They are homes of wild animals.
vii. They provide pastures for livestock (grazing).
viii. They are mining areas i.e. sand & clay.
ix. They are research areas.
x. They are tourist attractions.
xi. They are dumping areas.
xii. They help in rainfall formation.
xiii. They are a source of fruits.
xiv. They are a source of craft materials.
xv. They are a source of local medicine.
xvi. They a source of fibre.
xvii. They are hunting areas.

Disadvantages of swamps:

i. They harbour disease carriers e.g. snails, mosquitoes.
ii. They harbour wrong doers.
iii. They are communication barriers.
iv. They welcome only a few crops that need a lot of water.
v. They encourage dumping.
vi. They are difficult to plough.

Swamp reclamation.

Swamp reclamation is the draining of swamps for economic activities.

Why people reclaim/drain swamps:

i. For crop growing.
ii. For industrialization.
iii. For settlement.
iv. For construction of infrastructure.

Crops grown in swamps.:

i. Sugar cane.
ii. Rice.
iii. Yams
iv. Sweet potatoes.
v. Maize
vi. Vegetables.

Effects of swamp drainage/reclamation:

i. It leads to the reduction of rainfall.
ii. It leads to desertification.
iii. It leads to destruction animal habitats.
iv. It leads to the lowering of the water table.
v. It leads to environmental degradation.

Destruction Of Forests/Vegetation.

People destroy forests by:
i. Bush burning.
ii. Cutting down trees for timber, charcoal and firewood.
iii. Using poor farming methods leading to soil erosion.
iv. Over grazing.
v. Clearing vegetation to construct roads, industries, etc.

Why people cut down forests.

i. To create land for settlement due to population increase.
ii. To create land for agriculture.
iii. For firewood (smoking fish/cooking/brick baking, etc.)
iv. For making charcoal.
v. For timber.
vi. For poles for electricity.

Human activities that lead to deforestation.

i. Charcoal making
ii. Firewood making.
iii. Lumbering.
iv. Fish smoking.
v. Industrialization.
vi. Poor methods of farming e.g. shifting cultivation

Effects of deforestation.

i. It leads to reduction of rainfall (drought)
ii. It leads to desertification.
iii. It leads to global warming.
iv. It leads to loss of animal habitats.

Ways to conserve forests.

i. By afforestation.
iii. By re-afforestation.
iii. By applying appropriate farming methods e.g.
- ♦ Bush fallowing / agro-forestry.

- Crop rotation.
- Using manure/ fertilizers.

iv. The youth should be persuaded not to destroy forests.
v. By enacting strong laws protecting forests and implementing them.
vi. By sensitizing people on the value of forests.
vii. By rural electrification.
viii. By encouraging people to use alternative sources of energy e.g. coffee husks, solar energy, biogas, banana peelings, etc.

Environmental Degradation:

Environmental degradation is the lowering of the quality of the environment.

How the environment is degraded.

i. By deforestation.
ii. By swamp reclamation.
iii. By mining e.g. sand.
iv. By brick making.
v. By bush burning.
vi. By dumping industrial wastes.
vii. By construction of infrastructure.

Activities carried out in swamps:

i. Crop farming.
ii. Mining e.g. clay, sand, etc.
iii. Tourism
iv. Collection of craft materials.
v. Fishing e.g. mudfish.

Effects of swamp drainage;

i. It leads to drought that causes desertification.
ii. It leads to the destruction of animal habitats.
iii. It leads to the lowering of the water table.

LOCATION OF GAME PARKS OF AFRICA.

National Game Parks are natural habitats of wild animals that are gazetted by the government to preserve wildlife. Hunting is not allowed in national game parks. Game reserves are for both domestic and wild animals. Limited hunting is allowed in game reserves but only with permission from the authorities.
Most game parks in Africa are located on the Savannah because the Savannah provides animals with pasture and space for free movement of the animals.
The governments of the African countries have ministries that are responsible for wild life and tourism.

Marine Parks.

They are places where some fish, lizards and water birds can be cared for. Most marine parks in E. Africa are found along the coast of E. Africa.

The Zoo.

A zoo is a place where wild animals and birds are kept on a small scale for public viewing.

A National Sanctuary.

They are natural habitats where birds are protected and encouraged to breed. An example of a national sanctuary is L. Nakuru for flamingoes.

The Savannah or tropical grassland provides good pasture for animals and it's the reason why there are many national parks on the Savannah.

Some national parks are partly on water because some animals live in water.
Tourists love to see these animals and they pay a lot of money to see them.
Hotels are constructed near national parks to provide food, accommodation, transport and entertainment to the tourists.

Types of animals in African game parks.

There are Mammals, Reptiles, Birds and other smaller organisms.
The main animals in the African parks are:

- The grass eaters (herbivores) e.g. antelopes, elephants, giraffes, buffaloes etc
- The meat eaters (Carnivores) e.g. lions, leopards, cheetahs etc.
- That are both meat and grass eaters (omnivores) e.g. pigs etc.
- Those that eat the rotting meat (scavengers) e.g. hyenas.

There are also big birds e.g. the ostrich, which is the biggest bird in the world, the flamingos with their famous sanctuary of L. Nakuru of Kenya.
Some animals live in and around water e.g. the crocodiles, rhinos etc. Others prefer forests e.g. the monkeys, chimpanzees and gorillas etc.
The grass eaters like the antelopes prefer open grasslands.

Importance of game parks in Africa

i. They employ people as game rangers, guides etc.
ii. They promote tourism through which a country earns money.
iii. They provide market for locally made goods such as handicrafts etc.
iv. They are used for educational purposes and research.
v. They preserve different animal species for future generations.
vi. They promote good relationships and co-operation between countries.
vii. They encourage the development of infrastructure.

How to maintain national parks.

iii. There should be vegetation conservation to provide pasture for animals.
iv. There should be security for both tourists and animals.
v. There should be a variety of animals and birds.
vi. There should be good transport and communication.

vii. There should be good accommodation i.e. hotels, lodges, comp sites, etc.

Disadvantages of national parks:

i. Game parks occupy farmland.
iii. Game parks displace people.
iv. Animals escape and kill people.
v. Some animals e.g. elephants cause deserts.
vi. It's expensive to maintain parks.

Influence of vegetation on animals.

Vegetation greatly influences animals and their grazing patterns.

Animals prefer vegetation:
i. That they can feed on.
ii. That can shelter (protect) them.
iii. That is too thick for human beings to move.

Problems facing national parks.

i. Poaching.
iv. Drought leading to shortage of pasture and water.
v. Occasional floods.
vi. Wild bush fires.
vii. Animal diseases e.g. nagana, anthrax etc.
viii. Wars.
ix. Increasing human population clearing land for settlement
x. Pollution of parks e.g. cans, bottles and polythene paper kill animals.

TOURISM INDUSTRY:

Tourism is the act of travelling to see new and interesting places for purposes of pleasure and study purposes.
Tourism is referred to as an industry because:

i. It generates income.
ii. It creates employment.
iii. It develops remote areas.

Tourism is also called invisible trade because it generates income but there's no physical exchange of goods.

Tourism is also called invisible export because it generates foreign exchange but no physical goods are taken outside the country.

There's domestic tourism and international tourism.
Domestic tourism is done by local people while international is by foreigners.

African tourist attractions:

i. Game parks (wild life)
ii. Climate- during whiter Europeans come to Africa
iii. Culture e.g. dressing, musical instruments, etc.
iv. Historical sites e.g. Stone Age sites, monuments. Etc.
v. Plant life (vegetation) e.g. forests, swamps, flowers etc.
vi. Lakes and rivers.
vii. Mountains especially the snow-capped.
viii. The rift valley.

Importance of the tourism industry.

i. It brings foreign exchange. It's one of the leading foreign exchange earners in East Africa.
ii. It has promoted the protection of wild game, natural sites, historical sites, historical monuments and cultural activities.
iii. It has encouraged the construction and maintenance of tourist facilities. E.g. hotels, inns, guesthouses, lodges, H.E.P, sanitation, etc.
iv. It has provided market for local goods mainly from the craft industry.
v. It's a source of educational information.
vi. Tourism creates employment
vii. It promotes friendly relations among countries.

Problems faced by the tourism industry.

i. Poaching – Poaching is the illegal hunting for animals in national parks. Animals are hunted for their teeth, skins, horns, ivory and meat etc. people who hunt in national game parks are poachers. However, the government has employed game rangers to protect the animals.
ii. Poor accommodation i.e. hotels, lodges etc.
iii. Shortage of funds to promote the tourism industry.
iv. Poor managerial skills of people involved in the tourism industry.
v. Poor transport i.e. bad roads and vehicles in dangerous mechanical conditions.
vi. Poor publicity leaves many tourists attractions unknown.
vii. Political instability which causes insecurity may scare away tourists and make animals migrate (flee the war zone).
viii. Similarities of wild life of the E. African countries.
ix. Hostility of the local people to the tourists.
x. Animal diseases kill animals.
xi. Diseases like HIV/ AIDS, Ebola scare a way the tourists.
xii. Wild bush fires drive away and kill animals.
xiii. Encroachment on game parks for settlement and farming.

Disadvantages of tourism:

i. Tourists bring in diseases.
ii. Tourists bring in their immoral culture.
iii. Tourism hinders the development of infrastructure like dams on waterfalls.
iv. Some tourists come in as spies.

Solution to problems of tourism:

i. Poaching should be controlled (employment of game wardens and better-trained and equipped game rangers).
ii. Infrastructure like roads should be developed.
iii. Security should also be improved.
iv. Africa should advertise /publicise her tourist potential.
v. The masses should be sensitized on the value of conserving wild life.
vi. The local people should handle tourists in a friendly manner.
vii. New national parks should be gazetted.
viii. Bush burning should be discouraged.
ix. Income generating activities should be set up to reduce poaching.
x. New species of animals should be introduced.
xi. Fire fighting equipment and personnel should be set up.
ix. Veterinary services should be provided to animals in national parks.

Effects of vegetation on animals.

The distribution of animals in Africa is also determined by the vegetation.
Animals use the vegetation for:

- Food i.e. pasture for herbivorous like Buffaloes, etc, fruits and berries for monkeys, apes, etc.
- Shelter, i.e. the vegetation provides them with shade, shelter from sunshine, rainfall, etc.
- Protection e.g. monkeys climb trees when attacked, gorillas climb mountains, etc.
- The vegetation is a habitat/home for wild animals i.e. they stay there, meat-eaters (carnivores) also stay in the vegetation as they hunt for herbivores.
- Deserts with little or no rainfall have poor vegetation therefore only small animals live there.

The animals found in particular national parks are determined by the features in the area. For example, there are no hippos, crocodiles in Kidepo valley NGP because the place is semi- desert. If the game park is on water body, then water animals should be there.

Effects of vegetation on population distribution.

Few people are settled in the tropical rainforests because there are unfavourable conditions for human settlement. Roads and railways are too expensive to construct because of the thick forests. Cattle also can't be reared where there is a lot of rainfall like in the forests.
However, the Ituri forests of DR Congo are a home to very short and small people, the pygmies.

The pygmies live by:

i. Hunting and trapping wild animals. ii. Collecting wild fruits.

They use small bow and arrows for hunting and protection. They live in simple huts. Pygmy women build huts, collect wild fruits and honey whereas the men do the hunting and collecting wild palm. Women cover parts of their bodies with leaves while men use skins of animals.

In the Savannah, there is a large population because there is enough space for crop farming and settlement whereas in other forests, there are people who live by both subsistence farming and shifting cultivation.

Desert areas are sparsely populated because of poor climate. Water can only be found in the oases and in the rivers, so people live along the river valleys and a few around the oases.
Woodlands like the Miombo are not suitable for human settlement because they harbour disease vectors like the tse tse flies, which transmit sleeping sickness to people and nagana to animals.

TOPIC 3:

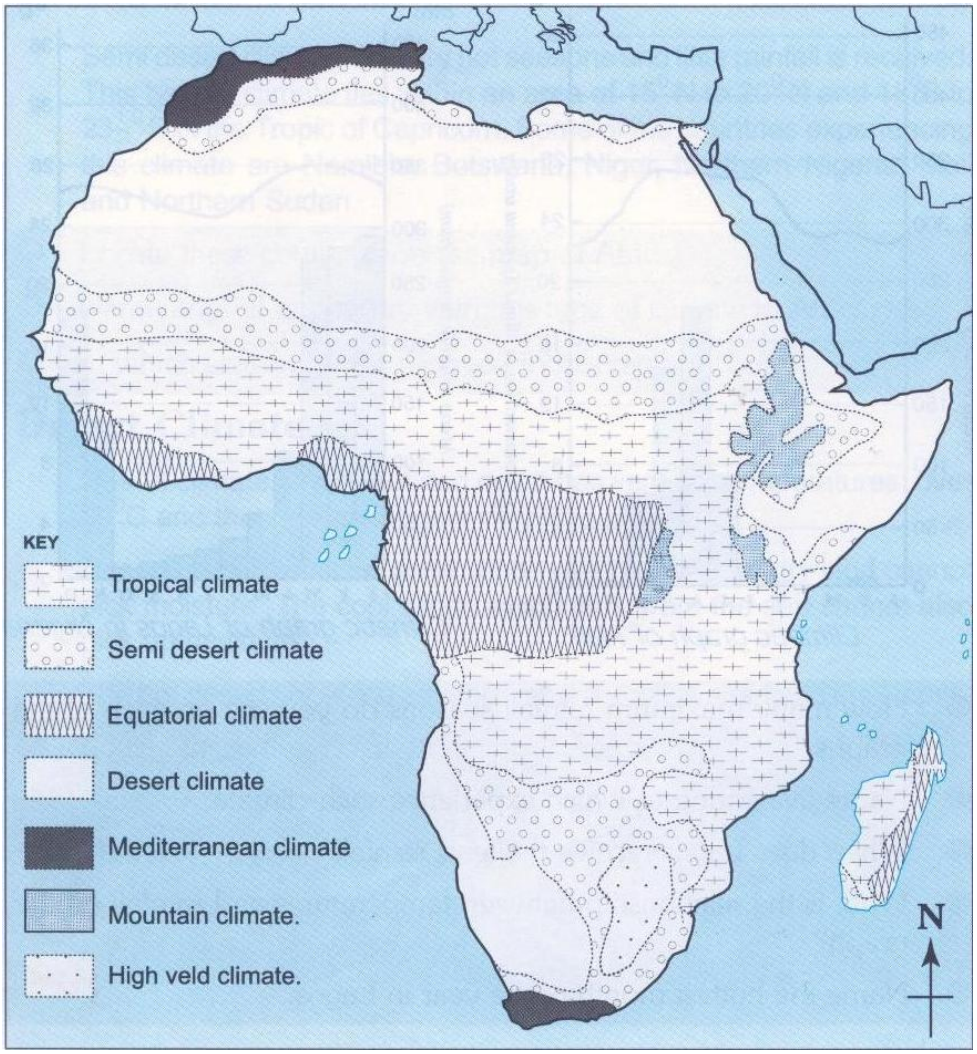
CLIMATE OF AFRICA.

Climate is the average weather conditions of a place recorded for a long period of time.

The main climatic regions of Africa are:

a) Equatorial region
b) Tropical region
c) Mediterranean region.
d) Temperate region.
e) Semi- desert region
f) Desert region.

CLIMATIC REGIONS OF AFRICA



Tropical Climate

Tropical climate is in two types:

a) Tropical or Savannah climate.
b) Tropical monsoon climate.

Tropical Or Savannah Climate.

This climate is found in the central part of Africa. It extends up to 20^0 N and 20^0 S of the equator. Temperatures are very warm throughout the year. Summers are hot and wet while the winters are warm and dry. Wet seasons are much longer than dry seasons. Rainfall is received when the sun is overhead the equator. The rainfall is less than that of the equatorial climate. There are different climates in this area because there are different altitudes.

Some of the countries that receive this type of climate are:

i. Gambia.
ii. Burkina Faso.
iii. Chad.
iv. South Africa. (Veld Plateau)
v. S. Nigeria.
vi. Sudan.
vii. Zimbabwe.
viii. South Mali

The Tropical Monsoon Climate.

This climate is similar to tropical climate. The only difference is that monsoon climate has shorter less severe dry seasons. Monsoon winds bring rainfall to Southern and South Eastern Africa between November and March. They also bring rain to West Africa between May and September. The Guinea coast of West Africa has tropical monsoon climate.

Equatorial Climate.

Places with equatorial climate extend to about 5^0 - 10^0 North and South of the Equator. The climate is hot and wet throughout the year. It mainly experiences convectional rainfall that is characterised by lightning and thunderstorms. It often occurs in the afternoon.

Areas covered by equatorial climate include:

i. DR Congo.
ii. Northern Angola.
iii. Gabon.
iv. Congo Brazzaville.
v. Sierra Leone.
vi. Central African Republic

Semi- Desert Climate.

The climate has very hot summers and little rainfall is received. It is found 15^0 – 20^0 North and 18^0 – $23^1/_2{}^0$ South. Some of the countries covered by this climate are:

i. Namibia.
ii. Botswana.
iii. Niger.
iv. N. Nigeria.
v. Mali.
vi. N. Sudan.

Desert Climate.

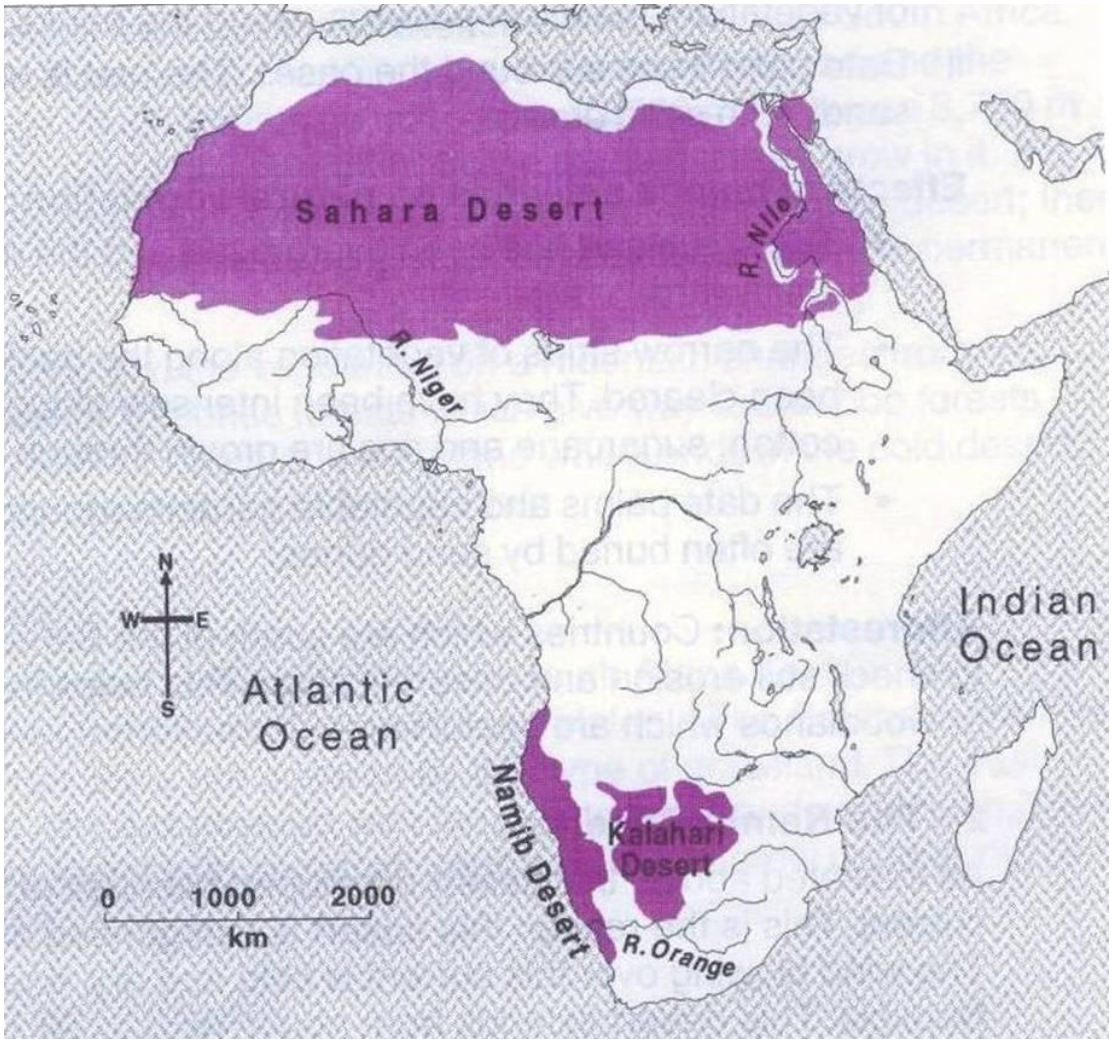
Desert climate is hot and dry. Summers have very high temperatures of over 30^0C. Winters are very cool and totally dry. Deserts don't receive rainfall because dry winds blow over them.

The main hot deserts of Africa are:

i. Sahara desert.
ii. Kalahari desert.
iii. Namib desert.

People who live in the deserts wear light white clothes to reflect heat. They build flat-topped mud houses. Oases are the main sources of water. Agriculture is only possible by irrigation.

Hot Deserts Of Africa.



Mountain Climate.

In Africa, there are high mountains and plateau. High altitude reduces temperature while low altitude increases temperature. Highland areas also influence rainfall distribution. The highest temperatures in Africa are in areas below sea level while the lowest temperatures are in areas that are above 4,500 metres (snow line). That's why mountains Rwenzori, Kenya and Kilimanjaro have snow on their peaks and yet they are located along the equator.

Mediterranean Climate

The Mediterranean climate is also called the 'Warm temperate Western margin'. It is found in warm temperate regions. It's one of the two temperate climates but it's not common in Africa.
Mediterranean climate is found in areas bordering the Mediterranean Sea. It's also found in areas 30^0 – 40^0 North and South of the equator.

Areas covered by this climate include:

i. Northern Morocco.
ii. Tunisia.
iii. Algeria.
iv. Libya.
v. Cape Town in South Africa.

The Mediterranean climate has hot and dry summers and warm and wet winters. There is moderate rainfall in winter when the temperatures are between 4^0 and 10^0.

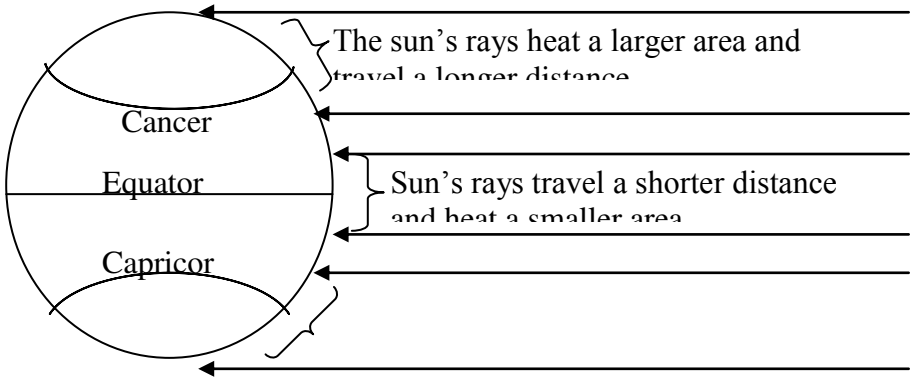
Factors that influence climate

a) Latitude (distance from the equator)

Places near the equator are hotter than those that are far from the equator because:

i. The sun's rays travel a shorter distance to the equator than to the poles.
ii. The sun's rays on the equator heat a smaller area than those on the Polar Regions do.

Atmospheric gases absorb heat from the sun's rays so the longer the distance traveled the more heat lost.

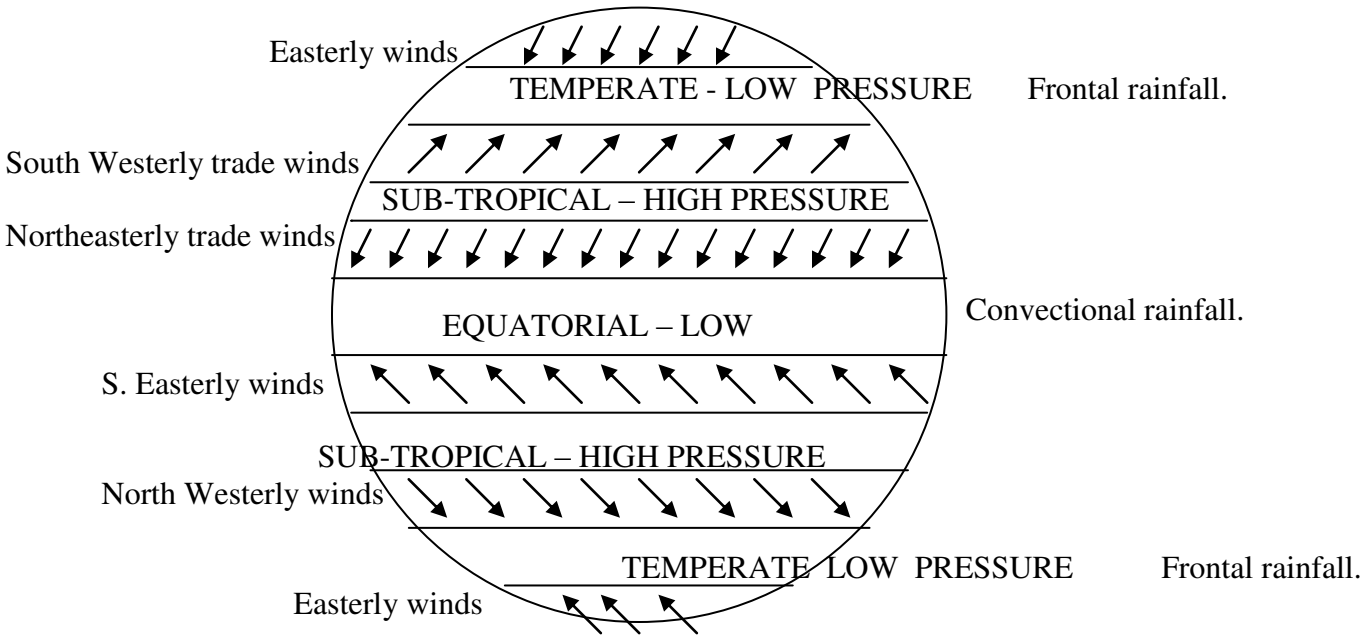


b) Distance from the water bodies.

Areas close to the water bodies receive heavy rainfall with low temperatures whereas areas far from water bodies receive less rainfall with high temperatures. These areas receive convectional rainfall due to evaporation from water bodies.

c) Prevailing winds and pressure belts.

Prevailing winds warm or cold weather or rainfall. Differences in atmospheric pressure which is caused by different temperatures causes wind to blow from a place of high pressure to that of low pressure. Isobars are imaginary lines drawn on a map joining places of the same air pressure. Atmospheric pressure is measured using a barometer.



The doldrums are areas of rising air. They have low pressure. They are also areas where Northeast and Southeast trade winds meet. The North East and Southeast trade winds bring rainfall to the Equator.

d) Altitude.

Altitude is the height above sea level. Temperatures decrease with increasing altitude. Contours are the imaginary lines joining places of the same altitude on a map.

e) Global warming (Man's activities).

Global warming is caused by the increase of carbondioxide in the atmosphere leading to the rise in world temperatures. Carbondioxide forms the biggest part of the green house gases that prevent heat from escaping into space causing global warming.
Man's activities cause the increase of carbondioxide and other pollutants in the atmosphere.
Deforestation and swamp drainage destroy vegetation, which reduces carbondioxide by using it during photosynthesis thus cleaning the air.
Global warming leads to the melting of snow and ice which causes the increase of water levels in seas, oceans, lakes and rivers.
It also causes the abnormally heavy rainfall called El nino, which results in serious flooding etc.

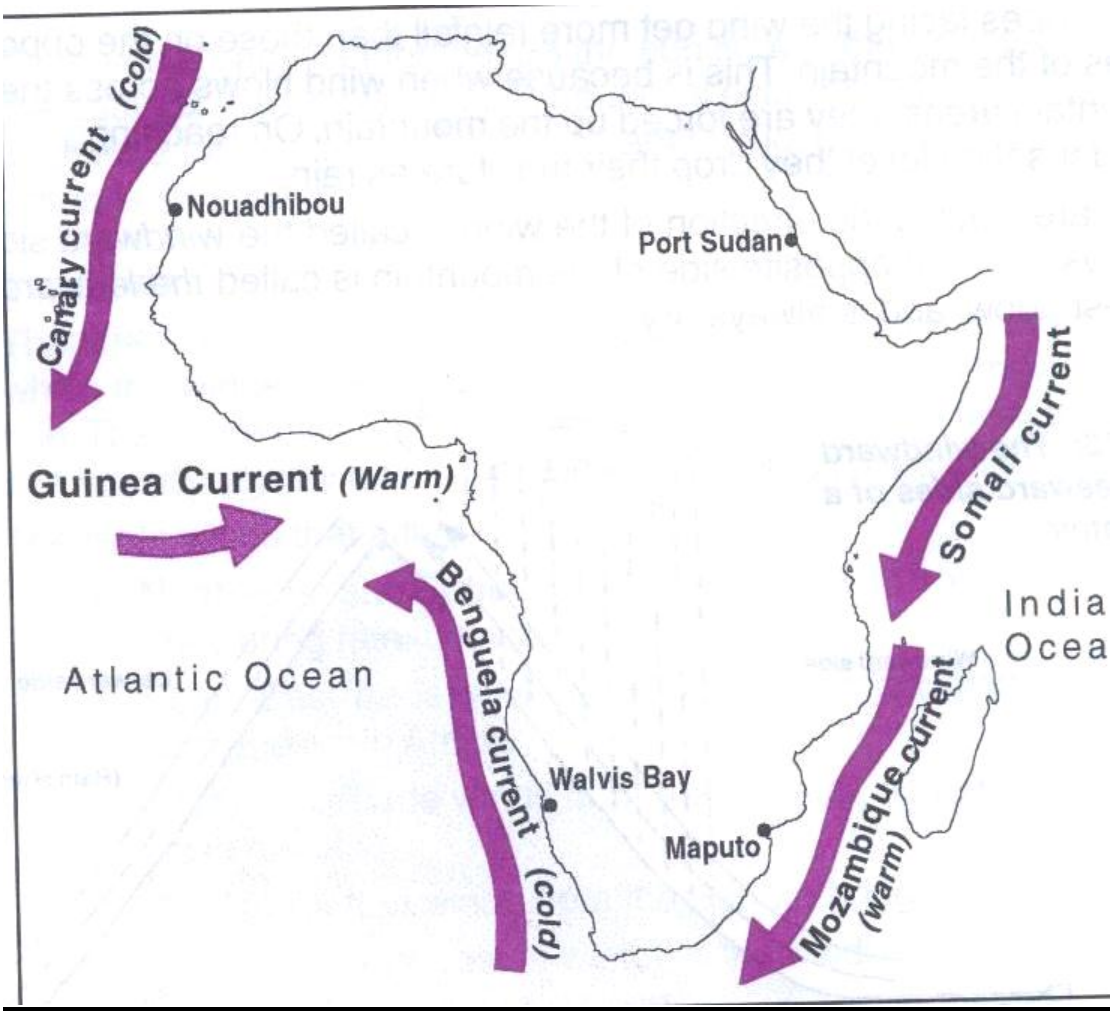
f) ***Vegetation cover***.

Vegetation influences the formation of rainfall due to its process of transpiration

g) Ocean currents.

Warm ocean currents make coastal areas warm and bring rainfall.
Cold oceans currents are dry but make coastal areas cool.

OCEAN CURRENTS OF AFRICA.



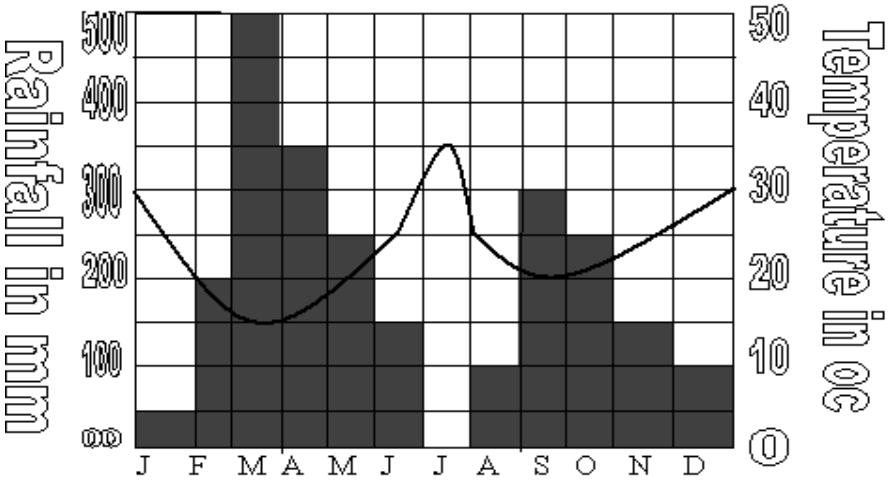
KEY:

Cold currents.

Warm currents.

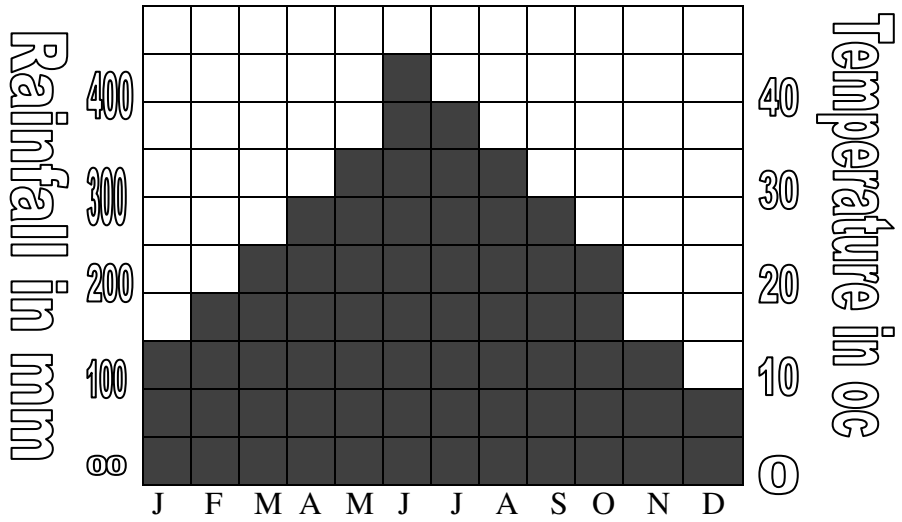
Prevailing winds.

CLIMATIC CHARTS:



Questions:

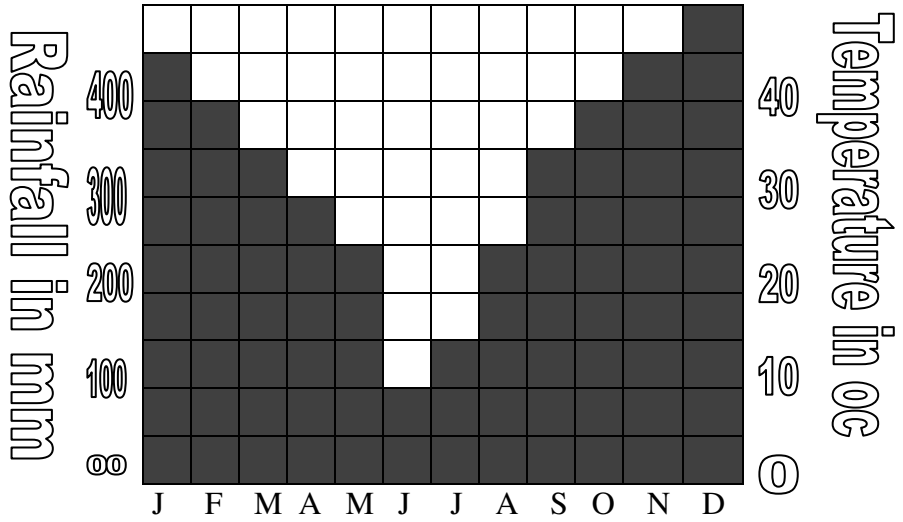
i. How many rainy seasons are shown on the chart?
ii. Which month had the highest rainfall?
iii. What was the hottest month? Why?
iv. Why do you think March was the coldest month?
v. Which month had the lowest rainfall?
vi. Which type of vegetation exists in the above place?
vii. Describe the climate experienced in the above area.
viii. Identify the type of climate experienced in the above area.
ix. How much rainfall was received in March?
x. Explain the relationship between temperature and rainfall.
xi. Suggest the economic activities that can be carried out in the above area.



Questions:

i. How many rainy seasons are shown on the chart?
ii. Which month had the highest rainfall?
iii. What was the hottest month? Why?
iv. Why do you think June was the coldest month?
v. Which month had the lowest rainfall?
vi. Which type of vegetation exists in the above place?

vii. Describe the climate experienced in the above area.
viii. Identify the type of climate experienced in the above area.
ix. How much rainfall was received in March?
x. Explain the relationship between temperature and rainfall.
xi. Suggest the economic activities that can be carried out in the above area.



Questions:

i. How many rainy seasons are shown on the chart?
ii. Which month had the highest rainfall?
iii. What was the hottest month? Why?
iv. Why do you think December was the coldest month?
v. Which month had the lowest rainfall?
vi. Which type of vegetation exists in the above place?
vii. Describe the climate experienced in the above area.
viii. Identify the type of climate experienced in the above area.
ix. How much rainfall was received in September?
x. Explain the relationship between temperature and rainfall.
xi. Suggest the economic activities that can be carried out in the above area.

MONTHS (YEAR)	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
Rainfall in mm	150	250	450	300	200	50	00	150	300	250	200	100
Temperature in ^{0}C	26	22	15	18	24	30	35	29	18	22	24	28

Questions:

i. How many rainy seasons are shown on the chart?
ii. Which month had the highest rainfall?
iii. What was the hottest month? Why?
iv. Why do you think March was the coldest month?
v. Which month had the lowest rainfall?
vi. Which type of vegetation exists in the above place?
vii. Describe the climate experienced in the above area.
viii. Identify the type of climate experienced in the above area.

ix. How much rainfall was received in July?
x. Explain the relationship between temperature and rainfall.
xi. Suggest the economic activities that can be carried out in the above area.

MONTHS (YEAR)	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
Rainfall in mm	00	10	20	00	00	00	00	00	10	00	10	00
Temperature in ^{0}C	40	38	35	41	38	37	39	40	39	42	38	44

Questions:

i. How many rainy seasons are shown on the chart?
ii. Which month had the highest rainfall?
iii. What was the hottest month? Why?
iv. Why do you think dry seasons in Uganda are very hot at daytime and very cold at night?
v. Which month had the lowest rainfall?
vi. Which type of vegetation exists in the above place?
vii. Describe the climate experienced in the above area.
viii. Identify the type of climate experienced in the above area.
ix. How much rainfall was received in March?
x. Explain the relationship between temperature and rainfall.
xi. Suggest the economic activities that can be carried out in the above area.

Influence of climate on human activities .

Different human activities are carried out in different climatic regions under the influence of climate. What man rears, grows, builds etc in an area depends on the climatic conditions of that area.

Human activities in Equatorial climate:

The Equatorial region is hot and wet throughout the year.

Human activities carried out include:

i. Agriculture.
ii. Lumbering.
iii. Mining
iv. Hunting.

Crops grown include:

i. Cocoa.
ii. Rubber.
iii. Coffee.
iv. Palm oil.
v. Sugar canes.
vi. Bananas.

These crops are mainly grown in:

i. DR Congo.
ii. Gabon.
iii. Congo Brazzaville.

Rubber trees provide latex which is mixed with water, acetic acid, smoked and used for making:

i. Tyres. ii. Shoe soles. iii. Balls etc.

Since the region is forested, crops are grown by shifting cultivation.

Human activities in Tropical climate:

Since there is less rainfall than the Equatorial region and with wider space, cattle keeping is the major economic activity.

The main animals kept are:

i. Cattle. ii. Sheep. iii. Goats.

Some people in these regions are nomads.

Examples are:

i. Karimojong (Uganda).
ii. Turkana (Kenya).
iii. Masai (Kenya / Tanzania border).
iv. Fulani (N. Nigeria)

Crops are also grown like:

i. Coffee. iv. Cotton. vii. Tea.
ii. Groundnuts. v. Maize. viii. Sorghum etc.
iii. Millet. vi. Tobacco.

Tourism is also carried out.

Human activities in the desert.

The deserts are hot and dry. Few crops are grown at the oases with the help of irrigation.
Crops grown in the desert include:

i. Dates. ii. Wheat. iii. Olives. iv. Barley.

Sudan and Egypt depend on the waters of the Nile for Irrigation that is why the Nile is known as the lifeblood of Egypt and Sudan.

Libya has constructed a man –made river to supply water for irrigation, home and industrial use. Irrigation enables crop production throughout the year because people don't need to wait for the rainy season. However, irrigation is very expensive.

Human activities in Mediterranean regions:

Mediterranean climates favour fruit growing such as oranges, lemons, vine, barley and olives.
Vine is used for making wine in the wineries. The growing of vines is called viticulture. Barley is used in the breweries for making beer.

Effects of climate on people:

Climate affects man more than any other element of the physical environment. People's energy, mental strength, health, comfort and physical appearance are determined by climate. Climate also determines people's buildings. People build houses with slanting roofs to allow easy runoff of water in places that receive heavy rainfall. In hot areas people paint their houses white to reduce heat.
Climate makes people in hot areas wear light clothes and people in cold areas wear thick clothes.
Even the food eaten is determined by climate. Climate also has influence on disease vectors and therefore on diseases and human resistance to diseases.
Severe coldness and high altitude plus low pressure weaken people's resistance to diseases while fresh air, sunshine and moderate humidity strengthen man's resistance to disease.
Climate affects markets and sale of goods. It also affects transport and communication.

How man affects the environment.

i. By afforestation.
ii. By re-afforestation.
iii. By agro-forestry.
iv. By overgrazing.
v. By draining wetlands.
vi. By polluting the environment.
vii. By deforestation.
viii. By over cultivation.
ix. By clearing the land.
x. By extracting water from underground using pumps which lowers the water table.

Effects of environmental degradation:

i. Loss of soil fertility (soil exhaustion).
ii. Soil erosion.
iii. Drought.
iv. Global warming.
v. Desertification.
vi. Negative climatic changes.

Ways of conserving the environment:

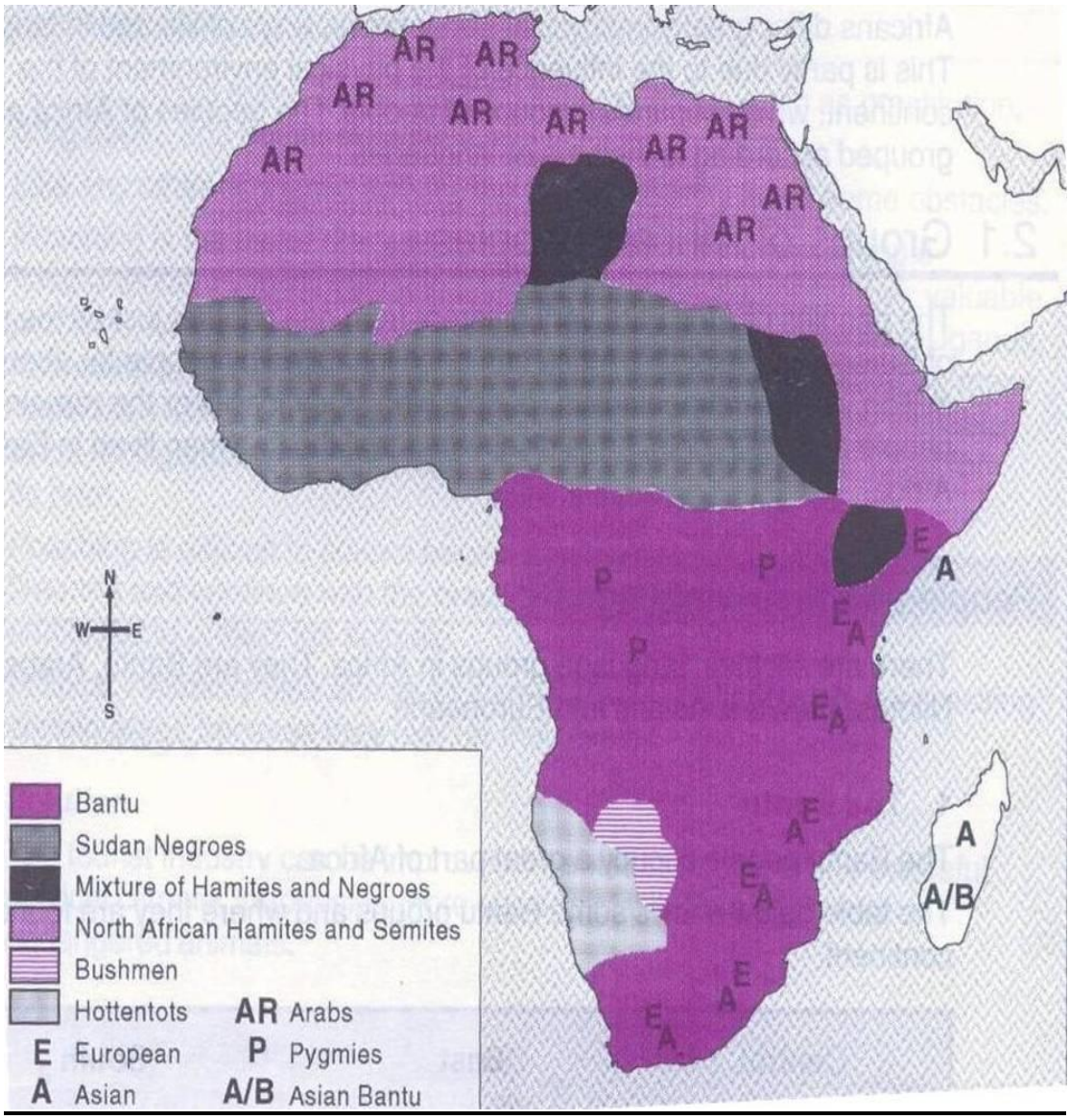
i. By afforestation.
ii. By re-afforestation.
iii. Rural electrification reduces the cutting down of trees for fuel.
iv. By agro-forestry.
v. By practising good farming methods e.g. terracing, contour ploughing, strip cropping etc
vi. By encouraging people to use alternative sources of fuel e.g. coffee husks, banana peels, biogas, solar energy etc.
vii. By sensitizing people on how to use and conserve the environment through the media seminars etc.

TOPIC 4: (Term ii)

THE PEOPLE OF AFRICA.

After the discovery of many of the oldest tools, weapons and remains of early man in Africa, historians believe that Africa is the cradle land of man i.e. the first man lived in Africa.
The peoples of Africa are grouped according to their major languages spoken.
Africa has many ethnic groups e.g. Bantu, Nilotics, Nilo-Hamites, Hamites, Arabs and Berbers etc.

MIGRATIONS OF THE PEOPLE OF AFRICA.



The peoples of Eastern Africa ***(<u>refer to P.6 notes</u>)***

a) Bantu e.g. Nyamwezi, Baganda, Kikuyu, Basoga, He he etc.

b) Plain Nilotes (Nilo Hamites) e.g. Iteso, Karimojong, Jie etc.

c) River lake Nilotes (Nilotics) e.g. Acholi, Langi, Alur, Jaluo, Jophadhola etc

d) Highland Nilotes. e.g. Sabiny and Pokots.

e) Hamites (Cushites) e.g. Bahima, Tutsi etc.

f) Semites e.g. Arabs.

The Peoples Of Southern Africa.

The Southern part of Africa is mainly inhabited by the:

i. Bantu.
ii. Khoisan
iii. Coloureds.
iv. Europeans.
v. Asians (Indians, Chinese, Malaysians)

The Bantu is the largest ethnic group in South Africa and in Africa.

The Bantu include:

i. The Ngoni i.e. the Pondo, Tembu, Xhosa, Baca and Zulu.
ii. The Sotho i.e. Tswana, Basuto, Urembo, Herero etc.

The available evidence shows that the Bantu originally lived either in:

i. The confluence of the Niger and Benue.
ii. The Cameroon highlands.
iii. The Congo forests.

It's from these places that they moved to Southern Africa and even East Africa.

Effects of the discovery of iron:

i. Man started growing crops using iron tools hence increased food production and population.
ii. It led to the shortage of land.
iii. Over cultivation led to loss of soil fertility causing famine.
iv. Man found it easier to use iron tools and weapons.

Causes of the Bantu migration:

i. Shortage of food (famine).
ii. Epidemics.
iii. Shortage of land for farming.
iv. Shortage of rainfall.
v. Internal and external conflicts.
vi. Love for adventure.

The Bantu mainly settled in areas with fertile soils and reliable rainfall.

Problems faced by early migrants:

i. They were attacked and killed by wild animals.
ii. They lost their property on the move.
iii. They faced shortage of food and water.
iv. There was poor climate.
v. It was difficult to cross rivers, lakes, swamps, mountains etc.
vi. They were attacked by hostile tribes.
vii. There was poor means of transport.

The Khoisan.

The Khoisan lived in South Africa before the coming of the Bantu.
The Khoisan are made up of the Khoikhoi who were formerly known as the Hottentonts and the San who were formerly called the Bushmen.
They were mainly hunters and kept some goats and sheep. When the Bantu and the Europeans came to South Africa, they drove the Khoisan to the Kalahari desert where they live today.

The Europeans.

The first Europeans to come to South Africa were on their way to India. They had a resting-place called Cape of Good Hope in South Africa where they could get fresh water, fruits and vegetables.

In 1647, a Dutch ship called Harleem hit a rock and capsized but most of the sailors swam to the coast. John Van Riebeck encouraged his fellow Dutch men to construct temporary houses and grow crops since the land was fertile and the climate was good.

A company called the Dutch East India company appointed John Van Riebeck to be in charge of the Dutch settlers at the Cape of good hope. It was later known as the Cape Colony, which was the first colony to be founded in Africa.

The Dutch settlers were farmers. They were called 'Boers' which means 'Farmers'. The Boers fought the Khoisan and drove them away. Later, the Dutch were joined in the Cape colony by the French who introduced the growing of grapes for making wine.

In 1806, the British took over the Cape Colony and forced the Boers to stop treating the Africans like slaves. The Boers were not happy with that and they didn't want to be under the British so, they decided to leave the Cape Colony. They moved Northwards in a journey called the **Great Trek.**
They founded new states:

i. Orange Free State. ii. Transvaal (across R. Vaal).

The British occupied Cape Province and Natal.

During the Great Trek, the Boers mixed and intermarried with Africans and Asians. They adopted a new language called Afrikaans, which was a mixture of Portuguese, Dutch, and Bantu languages.

The enmity and hatred between the British and the Boers did not end there. The Boers formed their own party, The Nationalist party that believed in racial separation.

The nationalist party won the 1948 elections leading to the establishment of Apartheid rule in South Africa. The population of South Africa was increased by the coming of the Chinese and Malaysians.

The Coloureds.

The Coloureds were formed as a result of the intermarriages among the various races in South Africa i.e. Indians the British, The Bantu etc.
The Coloureds mainly lived in towns. They worked in mines and farms in South Africa.

Results of the Great Trek.

i. There were many wars between the Boers and the African tribes.
ii. A lot of property was lost on the way.
iii. Land belonging to Africans was taken by the Boers.
iv. New states were formed e.g. Trans-vaal and Orange Free sate.
v. There were intermarriages between the Africans and the Dutch.
vi. Many Africans lost their lives in the wars and those who were captured were enslaved.
vii. It led to the discovery of gold and diamonds.

The Asians.

The Asians were mainly people who came from India, China and Malaysia. They were workers or traders. They intermarried with Africans and formed the Coloureds.

The Peoples Of Northern Africa.

North Africa includes Egypt, Morocco, Libya and Algeria, Tunisia.

The Arabs.

Most people in North Africa are Arabs. They came to Africa from Saudi Arabia after the spread of Islam. They attacked Egypt in 639 AD and they attacked the Maghreb defeating the Berbers. The term Maghreb refers to the Northern lands i.e. Libya, Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria.

Before the coming of the Arabs, black people lived in Egypt.
The Berbers practised cultivation, hunting and nomadic pastoralism. After defeating people in Egypt and the Maghreb, the Arabs settled there and intermarried with them. Most of the Berbers became Muslims due to the influence of the Arabs.

Most of the people in North Africa are Semites and they speak Arabic. The Egyptians, Semites and Berbers are light skinned and look like Arabs. The three fall under the Cushites.

Causes of the migration of the Arabs:

i. Some Arabs came to trade.
ii. Some were fleeing religious conflicts.
iii. They were trying to spread Islam to the new lands.
iv. Some were looking for areas for settlement.

The Peoples Of Central Africa.

Countries that form Central Africa are:

i. DR Congo.
ii. Zambia.
iii. Malawi.
iv. Cameroon.
v. Angola.
vi. Zimbabwe.
vii. Rwanda.
viii. Central African republic
ix. Burundi etc

The Bantu.

Before the coming of the Bantu, Central Africa was inhabited by the Khoisan.
The Bantu who settled in Central Africa came from the Cameroon highlands.
Others came from South Africa due to the wars of Shaka the Zulu.
The Bantu of Central Africa were the Ndebele, Lozi, Luba, Ovimbulu, Shona, Tonga, Bemba, Lunda, Chewa
Those who came from South Africa were the Ngoni, Gaza and the Ndebele.

The Pygmies.

They live in the Ituri forests of Congo. They are short, dark-skinned with broad noses. The Pygmies have been reduced by intermarriages and migrations.

The Peoples Of West Africa.

West Africa has many tribes. They have much in common with the Bantu of Eastern, Central and Southern Africa. The main groups of people in West Africa are the Mande, Voltaic, Kwa, Afro-Asians and the Nilo-Saharan people.

How African People Organised Themselves:

The people of Africa were organised into:

i. Empires. ii. Kingdoms. iii. Chiefdoms.

People were engaged in many traditional activities:

i. Trade.
ii. Farming.
iii. Hunting.
iv. Gathering.
v. Animal keeping.
vi. Rock painting.

vii. Iron working.

Trade helped people improve their well being.

The Trans-Saharan Trade.

It was the trade between the people of North Africa and Sudan across the Sahara desert.
Traders from North Africa crossed the Sahara desert to areas of West and Central Sudan. Arabs and North Africans called the areas from the West African coast to the Nile valley, Sudan.
The traders were looking for:

i. gold
ii. salt.
iii. Ivory.
iv. Slaves.
v. Skins and hides.

The North Africans and the Arabs brought the following:

i. weapons.
II. swords.
III. camels.
IV. copper ware.
V. glass.
VI. beads.
VII. cloth .
VIII. household items.

Salt was on high value because it was used to preserve meat. Salt was got from Taghaza and Tadmekket in Ghana. Camels were used for transport. Camels were brought from Saudi Arabia.
Camels are suitable for desert conditions because:

i. They have huge humps that store fats and water.
ii. They have huge hoofs that move more easily on sand.
iii. They have hard eyelids that protect the eyes from the desert sand.
iv.

The trade routes ran across the Sahara desert and that's why it was called the **Trans- Saharan** trade. The traders used to rest / camp at the Oases. The traders used to travel in convoys or caravans while crossing the desert because there were hostile people. The Berbers were middlemen in this trade.

Results of the Trans-Saharan trade:

i. It brought North and West Africa closer.
ii. People's wealth increased.
iii. Kings and chiefs became richer and more powerful.
iv. Kingdoms of Ghana, Songhai, Mali and Kanem developed.
v. Towns and cities developed.
vi. Many people were attracted to towns.
vii. Many people converted to Islam.

OLD KINGDOMS OF AFRICA.

Ghana.

The Soninke people founded Ghana in 500 AD. It was one of the greatest kingdoms in West Africa. It covered the present-day Senegal and Mali. Its capital was Kumbi-Saleh. Gold was the chief export that's why the Europeans called it Gold Coast. There were also a lot of salt and iron. Ghana was the centre of many trade routes during the Trans-Saharan trade.

Mali.

The kingdom of Mali developed as Ghana declined. It controlled part of former Ghana. It had a large and well-trained army. Mansa was the title of the king of Mali. The most famous Mansa was Mansa Musa Kankan. Timbuktu and Goa were its major towns. The first university in Africa was built in Timbuktu. The visit of Mansa Musa to Mecca strengthened co-operation between Mali and Arab countries.

Songhai.

It developed from Goa, a town of Mali. The kings of Songhai were called Askias. Askias strengthened Islam in the kingdom. The last of the greatest Askias of Songhai was Mohammed Toure. Songhai had valuable salt deposits.

Benin.

Benin also depended on trade. Its king was Oba. It exported precious stones, Leopard skins and slaves. They imported iron bars, cloth, and cowrie shells from the Portuguese who were the first Europeans to come to Benin. Cowrie shells were used as a form of money.

The Luba-Lunda Kingdom.

The Luba and Lunda are Bantu. They are said to have originated from the West of Congo forests. The Luba were the first to form a kingdom. Their chief married a Lunda girl and later became the king of the Lunda also.

Great Zimbabwe.

It was the greatest kingdom in Central and Southern Africa. They mined salt, copper, gold and iron. They made weapons from the iron they smelted. Monomotapa was the title given to the king of Zimbabwe. The chiefs and the rich made stone enclosures around their homes to protect their animals.

POPULATION SIZE AND DISTRIBUTION IN AFRICA.

a) Definition of terms:

i. **Population** is the number of people in an area.
ii. **Population size** is the specific number of people living in an area.
iii. **Population density** is the number of people per square kilometre (km^2)
iv. **Population distribution** is how people are spread in an area.
v. **Over population** is when the population is bigger than the resources in an area.
vi. **Under population** is when the population in an area is less than the resources.
vii. **Optimum population** is the number of people that can be supported by the resources.
viii. **Sparse population** is when the people are few in an area compared to the resources.
ix. **Dense population** is when the population is high compared to the area.
x. **Even population** is when the number of people per square kilometre is the same.
xi. **Population explosion** is the sudden rapid increase of population.
xii. **Population census** is the general counting of people in an area after every 10 years.

b) ***Factors influencing population distribution***:

i. Climate factors – reliable rainfall attracts settlement while dry climate causes migration.
ii. Health conditions – diseases kill, incapacitate and make others migrate.
iii. Fertility of the soils- fertile soils attracts settlement.
iv. Markets for products – people prefer to settle where there are markets so that they can sell their produce.
v. Power supply – people want to settle where there's H.E.P for lighting, cooking, etc.
vi. Infrastructure – e.g. roads promote development so a good road network attracts settlement.
vii. Employment opportunities- people flock to towns, mining areas and industrial areas in search of employment.
viii. Disasters – e.g. famine, drought, floods, earthquakes, etc reduce population.
ix. Wars – make people take of, get killed and give people no room to produce.
x. Cultural beliefs – e.g. having many children is fame.
xi. Vegetation cover – discourages settlement.
xii. Social services – e.g. education, medical care, etc.
xiii. Relief of the area – i.e. sloppy areas discourage settlement.
xiv. Pests e.g. Tsetse flies discourage settlement.
xv. Religious factor e.g. Muslims marry up to four wives tend to produce more children.
xvi. Historical factors e.g. slave trade.
xvii. Government policy – e.g. family planning, settlement schemes, forest reserves and game parks have an impact on population.

C) ***Factors influencing population increase****:*

Population increase refers to population growth i.e. when people become more.
The increase in population is caused by:
i. Availability of food.
ii. Medical services (improved).
iii. Reduced death rate.
iv. Pre-marital sex.
v. Migration.
vi. Increased birth rate.
vii. Cultural beliefs e.g. people want boys.
viii. Climatic factors e.g. cold areas like Kabale lock people indoors while hot areas like Karamoja have men moving out as nomads.
ix. Ignorance i.e. not knowing how pregnancy comes.

Population density:

Population density refers to the number of people per square kilometre.
Some of the densely populated areas of E. Africa are;

- Shores of Lake Victoria.
- Slopes of mountains – Elgon, Mufumbiro and Kilimanjaro, etc.
- Towns like Kampala, Jinja, Nairobi, Dar-Es-salaam, etc.

Advantages of an increasing population:

i. It leads to the increase of home markets.
ii. Availability of labour force.
iii. It stimulates investment in the country.
iv. A lot of money is collected in form of taxes.
v. It leads to diversification of the economy.
vi. It reduces the debt burden per person.

iv. Problems/effects of a high population:

i. It leads to shortage of food.
ii. It leads to shortage of land (land fragmentation).
iii. It leads to high crime rate.
iv. It leads to inadequate social services.
v. It leads to traffic congestion
vi. It leads to low standards of living.
vii. It leads to inefficiency in administration.
viii. It leads to moral decay.
ix. It leads to unemployment.
x. It leads to easy spread of diseases.
xi. It leads to poor accommodation/housing and congestion.
xii. It leads to poor sanitation.
xiii. It leads to encroachment on swamps, forests, game parks etc.

Effects of a high population on land:

a) It causes deforestation leading to;
   - Soil erosion.
   - Soil exhaustion.
   - Drought.
   - Desertification.
   - Soil pollution.

b) It causes land fragmentation leading to low agricultural production.
c) It causes swamp drainage leading to;
   - Drought.
   - Desertification.
   - Lowering of the water table, which causes deforestation.
   - Destruction of animal habitats.

Solutions to problems of a high population:

i. By encouraging voluntary migration to low population areas.
ii. By encouraging self-employment to control rural –urban migration.
iii. By setting up settlement schemes for landless people.
iv. By family planning campaigns.
v. By constructing storreyed houses especially in towns.
vi. By guaranteeing peace and security.
vii. By carrying out massive immunisation to curb infant mortality and disability.
viii. By providing entandikwa schemes to improve standards of living.
ix. Supporting girl child education.
x. Natural factors that control population increase.

1. Natural hazards (disasters):

i. Epidemics Earthquakes
ii. Volcanic eruptions.
iii. Floods
iv. Strong winds
v. Famine
vi. Drought.

2. Man-made hazards (disasters):

i. Wars.
ii. Toxic industrial wastes.
iii. Radiation.
iv. Radioactive wastes.

3. Government legislation:

i. Legalising abortion.
ii. Legalising sterilisation.
iii. Family planning campaigns.
iv. Government policy e.g. four children per family.

How to control population increase:

i. Family planning campaigns.
ii. By discouraging pre-marital sex.
iii. By discouraging early marriages.
iv. By legalising abortion.
v. By legalising sterilisation.
vi. By sensitizing people on the dangers of a high population.
vii. By use of government policy e.g. four children per family.

Family planning:

Family planning is a measure taken by parents on the number of children to produce.

Birth control methods used in family planning:

i. Injecta plan.
ii. Pill plan.
iii. Condoms
iv. Abstinence.
v. Withdraw.
vi. Natural method

Advantages of family planning:

i. It enables parents to space children for easy management.
ii. It enables the mothers to become productive as they may engage in income generating activities.
iii. It enables the country to budget for the people according to the resources.

NB: Child spacing is allowing enough spaces between the births of a family's children.

Sparsely populated areas of E. Africa:

a. Karamoja sub-region due to drought.
b. Kalangala district – no H.E.P, poor transport. Etc.
c. N. & NE. Kenya – drought (semi-desert).
d. Miombo woodlands (TZ) –Tsetse flies.

Disadvantages of sparse population:

i. Scarcity of labour
ii. Shortage of market.
iii. Low revenue collection.

Population census:

A population census is the general counting of people in an area/country.
It's carried out by the ministry of finance, planning and economic development.

Importance of a population census:

i. To know the number of people in the country.
ii. To get information about the population e.g. number of men, women, children, etc.
iii. To be able to plan for the citizens of the country.
iv. To be able to compare growth rates after every 10 years.

Information gathered during population census includes Age, sex, race, marital status, religion, language, level of education, type of housing, occupation etc.

Difficulties faced during census:

i. Lack of skilled enumerators.
ii. It's expensive since materials have to be bought.
iii. Wide spread illiteracy.
iv. Language barrier.

To find the recent population in an area, use the formula:

Recent population census + Birth rates + immigrants – death rates + emigrants.

Rural – Urban Migrations:

Rural – urban migration is the movement of people from villages to towns.

Causes of rural-urban migration:

i. To look for jobs (employment).
ii. To look for businesses.
iii. To look for better standards of living.
iv. To look for better social services e.g. education, medical care, etc.
v. To look for better security.

Effects of rural – urban migration:

i. It leads to low agricultural production.
ii. It may cause famine.
iii. It causes corruption in offices.
iv. It causes depopulation in villages.
v. It causes over population in towns.

How to control rural-urban migration:

i. By setting up small-scale industries in villages to create employment for people.
ii. By increasing the prices of crops.
iii. By rural-electrification.
iv. By providing soft loans to village people to start income generating activities.
v. By subsidizing agricultural inputs.

Urban-Rural Migration:

Urban – rural migration is the movement of people from towns to villages.

Causes of urban- rural migration:

i. Poor pay and poor working conditions.
ii. Old age.
iii. Inadequate qualifications (low levels of education).
iv. Insecurity.

How to control urban-rural migrations:

i. By providing people with jobs.
ii. By avoiding retrenchment.
iii. By providing good social services.
iv. By providing enough security.

Rural –Rural Migration:

It's the movement of people from one village to another e.g. the Bakiga from Kabale to Kibale.

***Causes*:**

i. Searching for fertile land.
ii. Searching for pasture.

iii. Fleeing local conflicts.
iv. Over population.
v. Civil wars/political instability.
vi. Fleeing disasters e.g. drought, famine, earthquakes.

Effects of rural- rural migration:

i. It leads to population increase.
ii. It causes local conflicts.
iii. It leads to loss of culture.
iv. It leads to land shortage.
v. It leads to intermarriages

TOPIC 5:

FOREIGN INFLUENCE ON THE AFRICAN CONTINENT.

THE COMING OF THE ARABS.

Foreign influence is the effect of the coming of the outsiders to the African continent.
The Arabs were the first foreigners to come to Africa. They entered Africa through Egypt. Most of the Arabs who came to Africa came from Saudi Arabia. They forced people to become Muslims. The Arabs conquered most of North Africa.

They didn't spread to much of West Africa and South of the Sahara because:

i. The Sahara desert was too large to cross.
ii. They feared the thick forests and swamps to the south of the Sahara.

How the coming of the Arabs affected the people of Africa:

i. Many Africans converted to Islam.
ii. Better ways of building were introduced.
iii. The interior of Africa was made known to other lands.
iv. Better methods of farming were introduced.
v. Guns were introduced.
vi. New crops e.g. cloves were introduced.
vii. New dressing was introduced e.g. kanzu.
viii. They introduced slave trade.
ix. They introduced cowrie shells that were used as a form of money.
x. They introduced the Zebu cows.

However, much of Africa remained unknown to the outside world. There was only little known about it and that's why Africa was known as the 'Dark Continent'.

Reasons why Europeans took long to penetrate Africa:

i. There were no routes to be followed by the travelers.
ii. It was difficult for the travelers to cross the Sahara desert.
iii. There were thick forests.
iv. There were wild animals.
v. There were hostile tribes.
vi. There were wars.

The Triangular Trade (Trans-Atlantic Trade).

The Portuguese and the Spaniards wanted human labour in their newfound lands of Mexico and Central America. The Europeans also wanted things like gold, ivory etc.
The **Gore islands** were the most famous Slave market in West Africa.

a) Slaves were taken from Africa to America to work in:

   i. sugar plantations.
   ii. Ranches.
   iii. Gold and silver mines.

b) The produce from plantations and minerals from mines were taken to Europe as raw materials for industries.
c) Manufactured goods from Europe like clothes, spirits, guns, cigarettes and household items were brought to Africa. Ivory and gold were taken to Europe directly.

The Trans-Atlantic trade was called triangular trade because it had three main trade routes forming a triangle:

i. From West Africa to America (slaves).
ii. From America to Europe (raw materials)
iii. From Europe to Africa (finished goods).

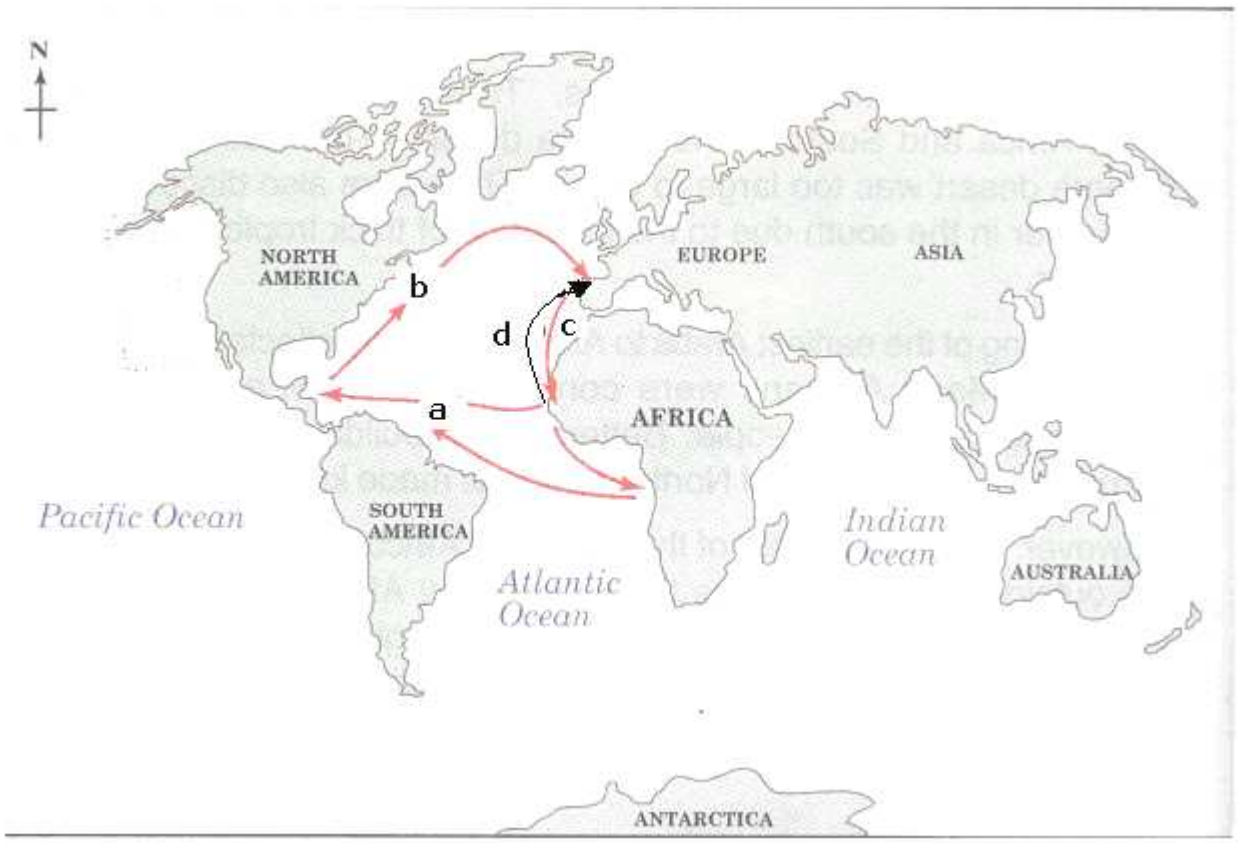
   i. Slaves were mistreated.
   ii. They were given heavy loads to carry.
   iii. They were given little food.
   iv. They worked without pay.

Slave trade made African chiefs richer so they supported it but slave trade was responsible for the under development of Africa because:

i. Strong young strong men and women were taken away as slaves.
ii. Africa was depopulated.

iii. People lost their property.
iv. People lost identity (culture).
v. Slave trade led to terrible famine
vi. Agriculture and other economic activities came to a standstill.

THE TRIANGULAR TRADE (TRANS-ATLANTIC TRADE).



a Slaves
b Raw materials.
c Finished goods.
d Gold and ivory

The Fight Against Slave Trade.

Sir William Wilberforce was the leader of the anti-slavery movement in East Africa. **Sir Heinrich Barth** led the fight against slave trade in West Africa.
Dr David Livingstone preached against slave trade and its evils in Central and Eastern Africa.
Abraham Lincoln, the then president of United States of America also worked hard to abolish slavery in America.

THE COMING OF EUROPEANS TO AFRICA.

The great industrial revolution was responsible for the coming of the Europeans to Africa. Machines were invented. Factories were built. So, there was great demand for raw materials and

market for manufactured goods. The industrial revolution started in Britain and spread to other European countries.
The Europeans then came to Africa to look for raw materials for their industries and market for their goods. Some wanted land to settle surplus population. The Europeans first sponsored explorers and missionaries to Africa as their agents.

EUROPEAN EXPLORERS.

a) ***Dr. David Livingstone***.

He arrived in Africa in 1841. He made three journeys in Africa. He was sponsored by the **Royal Geographical Society.** He became the first missionary to walk across Africa from coast to coast.
Having traveled much in Africa, he was able to make detailed reports about Africa on:

i. Physical features.
ii. Climate.
iii. Vegetation
iv. Soil and other possible resources.

He persuaded European countries to establish their rule in Africa as a way to control slave trade and develop Africa.

Achievements of Dr David Livingstone:

i. He fought against slave trade I Eastern and Central Africa.
ii. He was the first white man to see R. Zambezi.
iii. He was the first white man to see Victoria falls (smoke that thunders)
iv. He set up mission stations in central and southern Africa.
v. He spread Christianity in Southern and Central Africa.
vi. He treated sick people.

Dr David Livingstone died in **Chitambo's** village near **L. Banguelu** on **01/05 /1873**. His embalmed body was carried by his two faithful servants, **Chuma** and **Susi** up to the coast where it was shipped to England for burial at **West Minster Abbey**, a burial place for important people only.

b) **Dr. *Mungo Park*.**

Dr. Mungo Park was sent to Africa by the African Association in 1797. He made two journeys in Africa. He made a report on West Africa about the natural resources, size of population and navigation. He drowned in the **Bussa falls** on R. Niger on his second journey.

c) ***Richard And John Lander***.

The two brothers were sent to West Africa to find out whether transportation of goods was possible on R. Niger. They made a report on trade in West Africa recommending British companies to open links with West Africa and deal in ivory, palm oil and vegetable oil.

d) ***De Brazza***.

He was sponsored by France. He concentrated around Gambia and Senegal.

e) ***Heinrich Barth***

He was sent by the British to explore and sign treaties with chiefs in West and Central Africa. He started his journey in Tripoli. He is the longest traveled explorer in Africa.

EUROPEAN MISSIONARIES.

i. They came to Africa purposely to spread Christianity.
ii. They built mission stations.
iii. They fought against slave trade.
iv. They resettled freed slaves.
v. They introduced cash crops.
vi. They opened schools.
vii. They built hospitals.

They encouraged African converts to adapt European culture. The Africans who had trained in missionary schools were much attracted to European life. This opened way for European colonisation of Africa.
Some missionaries encouraged their home countries to come and establish their rule using military means.

The CMS missionaries sponsored Capt. FD Lugard to stay on in Uganda to deal with Kabaka Mwanga who was a threat to missionary work in Buganda. The missionaries also provided vital information to their home countries which information was used to weaken African resistance to colonial rule.

The Scramble And Partition Of Africa.

The reports of the explorers and the missionaries encouraged the colonisation of Africa. Many European countries developed interest in Africa. The struggle for colonies in Africa among European powers was known as the **Scramble for Africa**.

The main struggle was among Britain, France, Germany, Portugal and Belgium.
Britain had the largest number of colonies in Africa.

Before the scramble for Africa could amount to a war, the chancellor of Germany, Otto Von Bismarck organised a conference in the Berlin City of Germany from November 1884 to February 1885. It was called the Berlin conference. The conference encouraged European powers to get colonies in Africa i.e. partition Africa.

Later, more treaties were signed by the European powers for the peaceful partition of Africa e.g. the Anglo- German agreement of 1886, which gave Kenya to Britain and Tanganyika to Germany, the Anglo- German agreement of 1890 (Heligoland treaty) also gave Uganda to Britain in exchange for Heligoland Island in the North sea in Europe which was given to Germany.

Why Africans failed to resist colonial rule.

i. Africans were not united against the colonialists.
ii. Africans had inferior weapons as compared to those of the Europeans.
iii. Many African traditional leaders collaborated with the European colonialists.
iv. Many African traditional leaders were not aware of the intentions of the Europeans and the results of the signing of the agreements.

Effects of colonial rule in Africa.

Positive (good) effects:

i. Slave trade was stopped.
ii. New crops like cotton were introduced.
iii. Law and order were maintained.
iv. Schools were built for formal education.
v. Towns e.g. Fort Portal developed.
vi. Hospitals were built.
vii. New transport systems were established e.g. air, railway and road.

Negative (bad) effects:

i. African culture was destroyed.
ii. African political system (kingdoms) was destroyed.
iii. A lot of wealth was taken by the Europeans.
iv. Many Africans lost their lives during rebellions.
v. Irrelevant education system was introduced.
vi. Goods from Europe were introduced.
vii. Africans were forced to work on white man's plantations in order to get money for paying taxes.

EUROPEAN COLONIES IN AFRICA:

BRITAIN	**FRANCE**	**GERMANY**	**PORTUGAL**
1. Uganda	1. Madagascar	1. Tanganyika.	1. Angola.
2. Egypt	2. Chad	2. Rwanda	2. Mozambique.
3. Sudan	3. CAR	3. Burundi.	3. Guinea.
4. Kenya.	4. Algeria.	4. Namibia.	4. Cape Verde.
5. Zambia.	5. Cote D' Ivoire.	5. Togo.	5.
6. Zimbabwe.	6. Mali	6. Cameroon.	6
7. Botswana.	7. Congo Brazzaville.	7. Gambia.	
8. S. Africa.	8. Burkina Faso.	8	**ITALY**
9. Nigeria.	9. Senegal.	9	1. Libya.
10. Ghana.	10. Morocco.	10	2. Somalia.
11. Sierra Leone	11. Tunisia.		3. Eritrea.
12. Lethoso	12. Mauritania.		
13. Malawi	13. Benin.		

14. Swaziland.	14. Niger.		**SPAIN**
15. Seychelles.	15. Comoros.		1. Western Sahara.
16. Mauritius.	16. Gabon.		2. Equatorial Guinea.
17Tanganyika(mandate)	17. Re-Union.		**BELGIUM**
18. Gambia	18. Djibouti		1. DR Congo
19. Somaliland			2. Rwanda

NB: Ethiopia and Liberia were not colonised.

TOPIC 6:

NATIONALISM AND THE ROAD TO INDEPENDENCE.

Nationalism is the love and pride in one's country or It's one's devotion to one's country. Nationalists express the desire for their countries to develop politically, socially and economically.

Pan- Africanism:

Pan-Africanism is the love for Africa as a whole and the belief in the unity of Africa and desire, willingness and determination of Africans to remove all forms of foreign oppression and create a free society.

The Earliest Leaders Of Pan-Africanism:

a) ***Booker T. Washington.***

He was a black American who lived in the slave state of Alabama. He encouraged Africans to co-operate and improve their welfare through education.

b) J. E. K. Aggrey.

He was a learned Ghanaian. He spread the ideas of Booker in Africa. He encouraged Africans to value education.

c) ***Dr Williams E. Du Bois.***

He was a black American of Indian descent. He encouraged Africans to unite and oppose white domination.

d) ***Marcus Gurvey.***

He was a Jamaican. He formed the **United Negro improvement Association** (**UNIA**) in 1914. He advised Africans to start business to gain economic power in order to get political power.

e) ***Henry Silvester Williams.***

He was a wealthy Trinidad lawyer who used his wealth to sponsor the course of Pan-Africanism. He sponsored the first Pan-African congress in London in 1900.

Others were:

f) ***Namdi Azikiwe.***
g) ***Kwame Nkrumah.***
h) ***Abdel Nasser.***

The Pan-African Awareness In Africa.

In 1935, Mr. Benitto Mussolini of Italy ordered his army to attack Ethiopia. The Africans and the blacks from America and Caribbean decided to help the Ethiopians to fight the Italians. Pan-Africanism got more support when Ghana got her independence in 1957. Her leader, Dr Kwame Nkrumah supported it so much that he even suggested the formation of the United States of Africa. Padimore was one of the founder members of Pan Africanism.

The Pan-African Congress.

The conference was attended by the 8 (eight) leaders of the then independent African states in Accra (Ghana) in 1958:

No	LEADER	COUNTRY	YEAR OF INDEPENDENCE
1	Kwame Nkrumah	Ghana	1957
2	Col. Abdel Nasser	Egypt	1922
3	Gen. Ibrahim Abboud	Sudan	1956
4	King Hassan II	Morocco	1956
5	Bourguiba Muhammed	Tunisia.	1956
6	Muhammed Idris.	Libya	1951
7	Haile selassie.	Ethiopia.	Not colonised
8	William Tolbert.	Liberia.	Not colonised

The Need For Independence.

Independence can be defined as:

a) Political freedom from colonialism.
b) Human liberation from oppression, exploitation, poverty, diseases and illiteracy.

Why Africans wanted independence:

i. Africans didn't want to be ruled by foreigners.
ii. Africans didn't want foreign culture that was causing conflicts in society.
iii. Africans wanted to control resources in their land.
iv. Foreigners mistreated Africans in their own land.

Factors that brought about serious demands for independence:

i. After being trained in missionary schools, some Africans went to Europe for further studies where they acquired experiences which made them realize that they were being sidelined and exploited by the Europeans.
ii. African Christian converts preached against colonialism.
iii. War veterans returning from different parts of the world after the Second World War became fearless in demanding for independence.
iv. Workers increased riots and demanded for better pay.

Why colonial powers gave independence to Africans:

i. The political parties formed united people to struggle for independence.
ii. The U.S.A as a world power opposed colonialism.
iii. The UNO urged Britain, France and Belgium to give independence to trusteeships and mandates.
iv. The world wars left many European powers with many economic problems so they couldn't support their colonies.
v. The force of African nationalism.
vi. The involvement of Africans in the world wars gave them courage to fight for their independence.

THE ROAD TO INDEPENDENCE.

CASE STUDY:

Ghana (Gold Coast)

Ghana was colonised by Britain. Ghana was called Gold Coast by the British because **it had many large gold deposits.** In 1949, J. B Danquah formed the first political party, The United Gold Coast Convention (UGCC). Kwame Nkrumah was the secretary general of the UGCC. Nkurumah split away forming the Convention People's Party (CPP).

The CPP organised nationwide strikes and boycotts but the British responded by:

i. Imprisoning Kwame Nkrumah.
ii. Banning the CPP newspaper called the Accra Evening News.

But riots and strikes increased and the colonial government was forced to organise elections in 1951. Kwame Nkrumah became the first Prime Minister of Ghana after being released from prison in 1951.
The CPP again won the 1956 elections and on **March 06, 1957**, Ghana got her independence with Kwame Nkrumah as its first president. The Gold Coast was re-named Ghana **after the ancient kingdom of Ghana**

Nigeria.

Nigeria was also colonised by the British. Many Nigerians who went abroad for the Second World War came and demanded for more responsibilities in the affairs of their country.
The leading politicians of that time were Dr. Namdi Azikiwe and Abubaker Tafawa Balewa.

The National council of Nigeria and Cameroon (NCNC) was the leading outspoken group against the British. Others were the Action group and the Northern people's Congress (NPC). The NCNC joined with the NPC to form a federal government.

On 1st October 1960, Nigeria got her independence with Dr Namdi Azikiwe as the first president and Abubaker Tafawa Balewa as the Prime Minister.

Malawi (Nyasaland)

Malawi, formerly Nyasaland was also colonised by the British. The Nyasaland African Congress was formed in 1944 as the first political party. The NAC was formed to resist the Central African Federation i.e. the joining of Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe. NAC started demanding for the independence of Malawi.
Its leaders were Makumbi Chipembere and Kanyama Chiume. The two invited Hasting Kamuzu Banda to head NAC but Kamuzu Banda was imprisoned. A new party, Malawi Congress Party (MCP), replaced NAC. Banda was released from prison and he led Malawi to independence on 6th July 1964.

Zambia (Northern Rhodesia).

Zambia was known as Northern Rhodesia during colonial rule. It was colonised by the British. The first political party, the Northern Rhodesia Congress (NRC) was formed in 1948. The NRC was re-named the Northern Rhodesia African National Congress (NRANC) in 1951 after getting Harry Nkumbula as its new leader. The NRANC organised strikes and boycotts to fight colonial oppression.

The Lumpa church, which was founded by Alice Lenshina also, helped in the struggle against colonial oppression.
The Zambia African National Congress (ZANC) was formed in 1958. It was led by Kenneth Kaunda and Simon Kapwepwe. ZANC was banned in 1959 and its leaders imprisoned for demanding for full independence. United National Independence Party (UNIP) was formed. The first elections were held in 1962. Most seats in the LEGCO were won by NRANC and UNIP. Zambia got her independence on 24th October 1964 with Kenneth Kaunda as its first president.

Zimbabwe (Southern Rhodesia)

It was colonised by Britain. It had a large population of the white settlers who took control of the politics and the economy of Zimbabwe. The white settlers occupied the most fertile lands. They used the Africans to work in industries, mines and in their farms. The All African Convention (AAC) was formed in 1951 to oppose the proposed Central African Federation.

The City Youth League led by James Chikerema was formed. Joshua Nkomo of the Rhodesia African National Congress joined with CYL to form the Southern Rhodesia African National Congress (SRANC). All political parties were banned in 1959.

Later, Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU) and Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) were formed. Britain gave Zimbabwe her independence in 1965 but Ian Douglas Smith, the

leader of the white settlers was strongly against the African demand for in dependence and still suppressed them. (Ian Douglas Smith died on the 20th November, 2007 in Cape Town).

A guerilla war was fought until white rule was weakened and majority (black) rule was gained in 1980 with Robert Mugabe as the first black president.
NB: Robert Mugabe has of recent been evicting the white settlers and giving the land to the Africans. This has made the Europeans to hate him.

Rwanda.

Rwanda was colonised by Germany. It was given to Belgium as a mandate after World War I by the League of Nations. It was known as the territory of Rwanda – Urundi. After world war II, Rwanda became a trusteeship of the United Nations but the Belgians continued ruling it through chiefs.

Fighting broke out between the Tutsi and the Hutu in 1959. The Tutsi king and his royals fled the country in 1960. Rwanda was declared a republic in 1961. Rwanda was granted independence on 1st July 1962 with Gregoire Kayimbanda as the first president. Kayimbanda was overthrown by Juvenal Habyarimana in a bloodless coup in July 1973. Habyarimana never wanted the Tutsi to return to Rwanda.

In 1990, the Tutsi and the moderate Hutu under the Rwandese Patriotic Front (RPF) attacked Rwanda. The war dragged on until 1994 when Habyarimana and Cyprian Ntaryamira were killed near Kigali when their plane was shot down. The death of Habyarimana made the Hutu to kill over 500,000 Tutsi and moderate Hutu. Pasteur Bizimungu became the president but resigned in 2000 and was replaced by Maj. Gen. Paul Kagame.

Somaliland.

Parts of Somaliland belonged to the old Ethiopian kingdom of Axum (from C 2nd – C 7th). Britain was the first power to occupy the region. Britain wanted to protect her trade route through the Red Sea to India. The Italians entered the region when the British abandoned the region due to revolts.
After the 2nd world war, Italy lost all her colonies. On 1st April 1950, Somaliland was re-named Somalia by the United Nations General Assembly. Somalia got her independence on 1st July 1960 with Aden Abdullah Osman as the first president. Osman was defeated in an election by Abdi Rashid Ali Shirmaka in 1967.

A military group led by Maj. Gen. Muhammad Said Barre took over power when Shirmaka had been assassinated on 15th October 1969. Rebel groups were formed to fight Barre in 1982 and in 1990 clans opposing Barre formed a united front to fight him. Barre was ousted in January 1991 and was given asylum in Lagos, Nigeria where he died of heart attack in 1995.

In June 1995, one of the clan leaders, Muhammed Farrah Aideed declared himself the president of Somalia but he was not recognised by other clans. Farrah Aideed died of bullet wounds in July 1996. His son, Hussein Muhammad Aideed, replaced him. Somalia remains a war torn country.

Mozambique.

It was difficult for Portuguese colonies to get independence since Portugal was a poor country and had to get most of her resources from her colonies. From 1930 – 1960, workers had to go on strike to demand for better living standards. They also wanted to be supervised by blacks not whites.
The Portuguese put down these strikes harshly so, nationalist organizations had to form outside Mozambique.
Three nationalist movements joined to form the ("***Frente Libertacao de Mozambique***" translated as '***Front for Liberation of Mozambique***" (FRELIMO) whose headquarters were in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania. Edwardo Mondalene was the first president of FRELIMO. FRELIMO fought the colonialists in Mozambique for many years.

Edwardo Mondalene was killed in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania in 1969. He was replaced by Samora Machel in whose leadership FRELIMO was able to weaken the colonialists. Joachim Chissano was the first prime minister of Mozambique.

Mozambique got her independence on 25th June 1975 with Samora Machel as the first president. When Samora Machel died in a plane crash, Joachin Chissano took over as the president.

Belgian Congo (Democratic Republic Of Congo).

Congo was colonised by Belgium. The Congolese demanded for independence in tribes. The largest political party in the Katanga region was ***Confederation Des Associations Tribales Du Katanga (CONAKAT).***

A new nationalist party, the Movement Nationale Congolais (MNC) was founded in October 1958 under Patrice Lumumba. The MNC demanded for immediate independence and wanted to control the activities of the Belgian settlers in Congo. More political parties were formed when independence was anticipated.

General elections were held in 1960 and the MNC, which made an alliance with other parties, won the elections. On 30th June 1960, Patrice Lumumba led Congo to independence with himself as the first Prime Minister and Joseph Kasavubu as the president.

French West Africa.

All French colonies were in a federation whose headquarters were in Dakar, Senegal. Some of the members were Senegal, Cote D' Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Niger, Mauritania, Guinea and Benin.

In 1946, a constitution that extended French citizenship to all Africans in the French colonies was made. Later in 1946, a federation was made by French colonies in Bamako, Mali to oppose French rule. It was led by Felix Houphouet Boigny of Tunisia. It was called the Resemblement Democratic African (RDA).

In 1958, General de Gaul wanted the French colonies to get independence but within the French community in order to get French aid. Sekou Toure of Guinea rejected the idea and on 1st

October 1958, Guinea became independent and by 1960, most French colonies had got their independence. Leopold Sedar Senghor was the first president of Senegal.

Ethiopia.

Ethiopia was formerly called Abyssinia. It's found in the horn of Africa. It's Menelik II who united the many kingdoms of Axum to form Ethiopia. Ethiopia is found where the old kingdom of Axum once existed. Axum was the first kingdom of Africa to adopt Christianity.

The early rulers of Ethiopia.

a) ***Frumentius***.

He converted Ethiopians to Christianity at around 333 AD.

b) ***Theodore III***.

He became the emperor in 1885. He welcomed European missionaries and traders. He imprisoned Europeans who interfered. When war broke out with Britain, he committed suicide before he could be captured.

c) ***Menelik II***.

He made a treaty with Italy where Italy was to strengthen him. He modernised his army with arms from Britain, France and Russia. He expanded his kingdom. He declared war on the Italians and defeated them in the battle of Adowa on 1st March 1896. He constructed roads and railways and united Ethiopians.

d) ***Lidj Lasu***.

Britain and Russia started to look at Ethiopia at his time as prone to colonialism.

e) ***Tofari Makonen***.

He became the emperor in 1913. He named himself Haille Salassie (Power of Trinity). He developed social services like education and also modernised his army. The Italians attacked and defeated him in 1934-35 and he was exiled to Britain. Britain fearing Italy, helped Ethiopia to defeat Italy in 1941 and Salassie was back as a leader.
After the second world war, Ethiopia negotiated with the UNO to annex Eritrea that had been under Italy. Italy also lost her colonies for supporting Germany in the world wars.

The Eritreans resisted until 1993 when the UNO organised a referendum in which the Eritreans voted for independence, which they got in May 1993 therefore making Ethiopia landlocked.
The headquarters of OAU (AU) are in Ethiopia in recognition of Ethiopia's resistance to colonialism. Salassie constructed the OAU headquarters and chaired the founder OAU meeting in Addis Ababa.

f) ***Why Ethiopia was not colonised***:

i. It was mountainous.
ii. It had strong rulers e.g. Menelik, Salassie.
iii. It had a strong army.
iv. The people were united.
v. Poor roads made it difficult for the Italians to move troops.

NB: Haille Selassie was overthrown by Haile Menghistu Mariam in 1974 and starved to death in 1975.

South Africa.

The Republic of South Africa (formerly Azania) is located in the Southern tip of the continent of Africa. It was colonised by the British.

The first foreigners to settle in South Africa were the Dutch from Holland (Netherlands). They came to South Africa when their ship, Harleem, capsized near the present day town of Cape Town. Some sailors swam to the coast and started to grow vegetables until they were collected after one year. They later returned there to settle and grow vegetables to supply other sailors who were dying of scurvy which is caused by lack of vitamin C.
The British also came with the intentions of settling in the same place. After a few scuffles, the Dutch, also known as the Boers (farmers) left and formed their own states of Transvaal and Orange Free State. The Dutch discovered gold in Wit waters Rand in Transvaal and diamonds in Kimberley in Orange Free State in 1871.
The British were interested in the exploitation of these resources (minerals) so they saw the need to unite with the Dutch. Talks were held and in 1910, the Union of South Africa was formed. The British occupied the cape province and Natal while the Dutch occupied the Orange Free state and Transvaal. They started to build a strong modern state using the mineral wealth. The labour would be provided by the black majority.

Introduction Of Apartheid.

Apartheid means racial segregation or separateness. There are many races in South Africa, some of which are British (whites), Indians, Chinese, Malaysians, Dutch and Bantu.

Apartheid was developed by Dutch professors in Stellensbosch University and was advocated for by Boer leaders such as Dr FD Malan. The apartheid policy was adopted by the Nationalist Party (party of the Boers). The laws passed put the whites in a superior position that had special economic status and opportunities for economic development than any other race.

In 1950, the group area act was passed. The blacks were restricted to stay in separate areas. The blacks were regarded as foreigners who had gone to South Africa to look for employment. The government therefore created ten homelands for the blacks according to their tribal grouping. The black homelands were called **Bantustans**. The whites restricted the blacks to stay there only to move out with pass identities. The whites even wanted to declare the Bantustans independent countries inside South Africa (Enclaves).

The ten homelands were:

i. Transkei (first to be formed).
ii. Ciskei.
iii. Lebowa.
iv. Venda.
v. Qwaqwa.
vi. Kwazulu.
vii. Gazankulu.
viii. Kwandebele.
ix. Kwangwamwa.
x. Bophuthaswana.

Most of the homelands were overpopulated with shortage of food and increasing disease and poverty.
Townships were set up to accommodate people who were working in big cities like Pretoria and Johannesburg. Townships were also far away from white settlements. The biggest township was Soweto. Many demonstrations against apartheid were staged in Soweto.

How apartheid was practised:

i. The Africans were not to travel out of their homelands without pass identities.
ii. Intermarriages between the whites and Africans were criminal offences.
iii. Sporting clubs catered for the whites only.
iv. Laws made it difficult to share schools, hospitals, hotels, housing estates, churches, sports grounds cinemas and transport centres.
v. The Africans were not to play any role in government.
vi. African political organizations were banned.
vii. Blacks were taught in local language

Reasons why Africans hated apartheid law

i. Apartheid made Africans foreigners on their own land.
ii. Apartheid made the black people poor which caused death.
iii. Apartheid law denied Africans their rights.
iv. Many black people were imprisoned due to apartheid law.
v. Apartheid law put the whites at a superior position and the blacks at inferior position.

The apartheid policy made people poor, miserable, angry and caused a lot of suffering, pain and death. On June 16th Black children were massacred on the streets of Soweto inSouth Africa

African reactions to apartheid:

i. Apartheid was opposed strongly by the blacks, Coloureds and Asians.
ii. The church leaders preached against apartheid and people wrote in newspapers, magazines etc against apartheid.
iii. Chief Albert Luthuli wanted to change the government using peaceful means but was banned from holding public meetings and was imprisoned.
iv. Political parties were formed to oppose apartheid.
v. Black form strikes and boycotts.
vi. African wrote article sin new papers to condemn apartheid.
vii. Songs were composed against apartheid.
viii. Church leaders preached against apartheid.
ix. Countries broke their economic and political links with South Africa.

Apartheid developed nationalism in the South Africans. They staged rebellions and demonstrations against apartheid.

Political organizations were also formed to counter apartheid e.g.:

i. African National Congress (ANC) in 1952.
ii. Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP).
iii. Pan Africanist Congress (PAC) in 1959.

They protested using peaceful demonstrations and strikes but the government went violent, so, in 1961, Nelson Mandela of the ANC formed the '**Umkhonto we Sizwe'** meaning the '**Spear of the nation'** to counter apartheid militarily.

The apartheid government banned all black political organizations and imprisoned its leaders. Nelson Mandela of the ANC was imprisoned in the **Roben Island** for 27 years from 1963 – 1990. Robert Sobukwe and Luthuli were also detained in the Roben Island.

The Indians, Coloureds and some whites later joined the struggle.

The leaders of the Anti Apartheid struggle in South Africa were:

i. Izak Seme – founder.
ii. Nelson Mandela.
iii. Oliver Tambo.
iv. Robert Sobukwe.
v. Chris Hani.
vi. Chief Albert Luthuli.

How the world helped to stop apartheid:

i. Many countries broke diplomatic relations with South Africa e.g. trade, diplomatic etc.
ii. The Commonwealth put sporting links with South Africa on sanctions. South Africa then pulled out of the Commonwealth.
iii. The OAU also put sanctions on South Africa.
iv. The OAU helped the ANC in many ways e.g. finance.
v. The Frontline States formed by the countries of Angola, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zimbabwe helped in training and facilitating the freedom fighters. Julius Nyerere (RIP) was the chairman of the Frontline States.
vi. The UNO forbade member states to supply weapons to South Africa.

Multi racial elections in South Africa:

President FW De Klerk who replaced Botha came under a lot of local and international pressure so:

i. He released all the political and the anti apartheid prisoners including Nelson Mandela in 1990.
ii. He allowed all anti apartheid organizations to operate.
iii. He organised multi racial elections in South Africa in 1994 where Nelson Mandela became the first democratically elected black president of South Africa.

Mandela formed a national unity government that involved all races and all political parties. He discouraged the blacks from revenging against the whites. South Africa was then recalled to the international organizations.

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission (T.R.C.) chaired by Bishop Desmond Tutu was set up in 1995 to allow both the white and black politicians to apologize to one another for the past evils in order to encourage the to forgive and forget the past atrocities committed. Nelson Mandela voluntarily left power in 1999 and Thabo Mbeki was elected president.

TOPIC 7:

POST INDEPENDENCE AFRICA.

It refers to the time/ period after the African countries had got their independence.

THE ORGANISATION OF AFRICAN UNITY.

Pan Africanism is a concept that stresses spiritual unity of the black people, upholds the rights and self-determination in Africa and the need to be treated as equals of the other races in the world.

It was taken up by the rising nationalists like Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana. Independent African states led the movement in 1958 and by 1960, 26 African countries had got their independence.

The Europeans were not happy with the Pan African movement and they used some Africans to cause divisions among the Pan Africanists.

In 1961, Ghana, Morocco, Mali, Libya, Egypt, Algeria and Guinea met in Casablanca and they were known as the **Casablanca group**.

The Brazzaville group had 12 French speaking countries (former colonies of France). The Brazzaville group (French speakers) opposed the Casablanca group (English speakers).

The Monrovia group had also been formed.

The conference that was held in Addis Ababa in 1963 decided that all these groups should join and form the Organization of African Unity (OAU). The name OAU was suggested by President Herbert Maga of Benin.

The Organization of African Unity was formed by 32 independent African countries on 25th May 1963. The headquarters of the OAU were in **Addis Ababa**, **Ethiopia**.

All independent African countries qualify to be members. There are 54 independent countries in Africa but only **53** were members.

Morocco pulled out in 1984 after the OAU had recognized Western Sahara (Saharawi Arab Democratic Republic) which was part of Morocco as a member state.

The OAU Charter.

In the OAU charter, it was agreed that:

i. All member states are equal and sovereign.
ii. There would not be interference in the internal affairs of other states.
iii. There had to be respect for territorial integrity of member states.
iv. Disputes had to be settled peacefully by means of negotiations, mediations etc.
v. All independent African states would apply for membership.

Founder members of the OAU with their presidents:

NO	COUNTRY	LEADER	YEAR OF INDEPENDENCE
1	Ethiopia	Haille Selassie	Not colonised
2	Liberia	William Tolbert	Not colonised
3	Egypt	Col. Abdeal Nasser	1922
4	Libya	Mohammed Idris	1951
5	Sudan	Gen Ibrahim Abboud	1956
6	Morocco	King Hassan II	1956
7	Tunisia	Bourguiba Mohammed	1956
8	Ghana	Kwameh Nkruma	1957
9	Guinea	Sekou Toure	1958
10	Cameroon		1960
11	Togo		1960
12	Mali		1960
13	Senegal	Leopold Sedar Senghar	1960
14	Madagascar		1960
15	D. R. Congo	Patrice Lumumba	1960
16	Somalia		1960
17	Benin	Herbert Maga	1960
18	Niger		1960
19	Burkina Faso		1960
20	Cote D' Ivoire	Felix Houphouet Boigney	1960
21	Chad		1960
22	Central African Republic		1960
23	Congo Brazzaville		1960
24	Gabon		1960
25	Nigeria	Namdi Azikiwe	1960
26	Mauritania		1960
27	Sierra Leone	Shaka Stevens	1961
28	Tanganyika	Julius Nyerere	1961
29	Rwanda	Gregoire Kayimbanda	1962
30	Burundi		1962
31	Algeria	Ben Bella	1962
32	Uganda	Apollo Milton Obote	1962

The last countries to join OAU were:

- Eritrea joined in 1993 after gaining independence Ethiopia.
- South Africa joined in 1994 after the collapse of apartheid.

Aims of the OAU:

i. To unite all African countries.
ii. To eradicate colonialism in (decolonise) Africa.
iii. To prevent re-colonisation of Africa.
iv. To maintain peace and solve disputes among member states.
v. To enable the different people of Africa live together co-operatively.
vi. To foster political, social, economic and scientific development in Africa.
vii. To promote friendship between Africa and the rest of the world (sell Africa's image)

The Flag Of The OAU / AU:



Meanings of the features of the OAU / AU emblem / flag:

i. ***The palm leaves****:*

The palm leaves shooting at either side of the circle stand for **peace**.

ii. ***The green colour****:*

The **green colour** stands for **Africa's hopes and aspirations.**

iii. ***The gold / yellow colour****:*

The **gold / Yellow colour** stands for **Africa's wealth and bright future**.

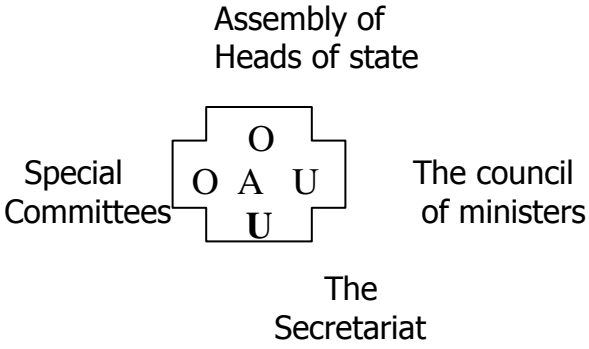
iv. ***The white colour****:*

The **white colour** represents **Africa's desire to have genuine friends all over the world.**

The OAU / AU Emblem



Organs Of The OAU:



The OAU operates through various bodies called organs each with duties to perform:

a) ***The Assembly of Heads of state***.

The Assembly of Heads of state was made up of Heads of state of member states. They met once a year in different countries

During the meeting the Heads of state:

i. Discussed problems affecting Africa.
ii. Decided how they were going to work together the following year.
iii. Elected the chairperson for the next year. In most cases the Head of state of the host country becomes the next chairperson.

OAU meetings have been held twice in Uganda. First, it was in 1975 under the chairmanship of Iddi Amin Dada, the then president of Uganda and Secondly in 1990 under Y. K Museveni.

The Past Chairpersons Of The OAU:

CHAIRPERSON	COUNTRY	TOWN	YEAR
Haile Salassie	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa	1963
General Abdel Nasser	Egypt		1964
Kwame Nkrumah	Ghana		1965
Joseph Arthur Ankrah	Ghana		1966
Haile Salassie	Ethiopia		1966
Joseph Desire Mobutu	D. R. Congo		1967
Houari Boumedienne	Algeria		1968
Ahmadou Ahidjo	Cameroon		1969
Kenneth Kaunda	Zambia		1970
Maktar Ould Daddah	Mauritania		1971
King Hassan II	Morocco		1972
Yakubu Gowon	Nigeria		1973
Muhammad Siad Barre	Somalia		1974
Iddi Amin Dada	Uganda	Kampala	1975
Seewoosagur Ramgoolam	Mauritius		1976
Omar Bongo	Gabon		1977
Gaafar Nimeiry	Sudan		1978
William R Tolbert Jr	Liberia		1979
Leopold Sedar Senghor (**Acting**)	Senegal		1980
Shaika Stevens	Sierra Leone		1980
Daniel Arap Moi	Kenya		1981-82
Mengistu Haile mariam	Ethiopia		1983
Julius Nyerere	Tanzania		1984
Abdu Diouf	Senegal		1985
Denis Sassou-Ngwesso	Congo Brazzaville		1986
Kenneth Kaunda	Zambia		1987
Moussa Traore	Mali		1988
Hosni Mubarak	Egypt		1989
Y. K. Museveni	Uganda	Kampala	1990
Gen Ibrahim Babangida	Nigeria		1991
Abdu Diouf	Senegal		1992
Hosni Mubarak	Egypt		1993
Zine El Abidine ben Ali	Tunisia		1994
Meles Zinawi	Ethiopia		1995
Paul Biya	Cameroon		1996
Robert Mugabe	Zimbabwe		1997
Blaise Compaore	Burkina Faso		1998
Abdelaziz Bouteflika	Algeria		1999
Gnassingbe Eyadema	Togo		2000
Frederick Chiluba	Zambia		2001
Levy Patrick Mwanawasa	Zambia		2002
Thabo Mbeki	South Africa	Durban	2002
Joachim Chissano	Mozambique	Maputo	2003
Olusegun Obasanjo	Nigeria	Lagos	2004-5

Denis Sassou-Ngwesso	Republic of Congo		2006
John Kofi Agyekum Kufuor	Ghana		2007
Jakaya Kikwete	Tanzania		2008
Colonel Muamar Gaddafi	Libya	Sirte	2009
Bingu Wamatharika	Malawi		2010
Teodoro Obiang Nguema Mbasogo	Equatorial Guinea		2011
			2012
			2013

b) ***The Secretariat***.

The secretariat was very important and was located in Addis Ababa. The Secretariat was headed by a Secretary General who was assisted by five secretaries from different regions of Africa i.e. Eastern Africa, Western Africa, Southern Africa, Northern Africa and Central Africa.

The secretary general performed the following duties:

i. To prepare the budget for the OAU.
ii. To prepare for the Assembly of Heads of State, Council of ministers and special committees i.e. booking conference halls, hotels etc.
iii. To keep the important documents of the OAU.
iv. To prepare the agenda of any meeting concerning OAU.
v. To monitor the day-to-day affairs of the OAU.

Secretaries general of OAU since its formation:

NO	NAME	COUNTRY	TERM
1	M. Diallo Telli	Guinea	1963 – 1972
2	Nzo Ekangaki	Cameroon	1972 - 1974
3	Eteki Mboumoua	Cameroon	1974 – 1978
4	Edem Kodjo	Cameroon	1978 – 1983
5	Ide U- Oumarou	Niger	1983 – 1989
6	Dr Salim Ahmed Salim.	Tanzania.	1989 – 2002
7	Amara Essy	Cote D' Ivoire	2002 - 2003
8	Alpha Omar Konare	Mali	2003 _ 2008
9	Jean Ping	Gabon	2008 - 20

NB:

i. **Amara Essy** was the last **secretary general** of the **OAU** and the first **Interim president** of the **African Union Commission**.
ii. **Alpha Omar Konare**, former president of Mali was elected president of the African Union Commission on 10th October 2003 at the Maputo summit

c) ***The council of ministers***.

The council of ministers is made up of the ministers of foreign affairs from member states. They meet twice a year to prepare for the assembly of Heads of State and special committees.

Special Committees.

Special committees were set up to deal with special problems e.g. border disputes, liberation struggles… e

Some of the special committees were:

i. Economic and social commission.
ii. Education and cultural commission.
iii. Health, sanitation and nutrition commission.
iv. Defence commission.
v. Scientific, technical and research commission.
vi. Communication commission.
vii. Liberation commission.
viii. Africa civil aviation commission.
ix. Union of African railways.
x. Organization of African trade unions.
xi. Supreme council for sports in Africa.
xii. Pan African postal union.

Membership Of The OAU.

An African country automatically qualified to become a member state on attainment of independence. OAU was started by 32 member states but by the time it was replaced the African Union, it had 53 member states.

COUNTRIES OF AFRICA AND YEAR OF INDEPENDENCE:

NO	COUNTRY	YEAR
1	Ethiopia	Not colonised
2	Liberia	Not colonised
3	Egypt	1922
4	Libya	1951
5	Sudan	1956
6	Morocco	1956
7	Tunisia	1956
8	Ghana	1957
9	Guinea	1958
10	Cameroon	1960
11	Togo	1960
12	Mali	1960
13	Senegal	1960
14	Madagascar	1960
15	D R Congo	1960
16	Somalia	1960
17	Benin	1960
18	Niger	1960
19	Burkina Faso	1960
20	Cote D' Ivoire	1960
21	Chad	1960
22	Central African Republic	1960
23	Congo Brazzaville	1960
24	Gabon	1960
25	Nigeria	1960
26	Mauritania	1960
27	Sierra Leone	1961
28	Tanganyika	1961
29	Rwanda	1962
30	Burundi	1962

31	Algeria	1962
32	Uganda	1962
33	Kenya	1963
34	South Africa	1948*
35	Malawi	1964
36	Zambia	1964
37	Gambia	1965
38	Lethoso	1966
39	Botswana	1966
40	Mauritius	1968
41	Equatorial Guinea	1968
42	Swaziland	1968
43	Guinea Bissau	1974
44	Mozambique	1975
45	Angola	1975
46	Comoros	1975
47	Sao Tome & Principe	1975
48	Cape Verde	1975
49	Western Sahara	1976
50	Seychelles	1976
51	Djibouti	1977
52	Zimbabwe	1980
53	Namibia	1990
54	Eritrea	1993

Achievements (successes) of the OAU:

i. OAU had achieved a certain degree of unity among African countries.
ii. OAU had managed to eliminate colonialism (de-colonise) Africa.
iii. OAU had settled some border disputes e.g. between Libya & Chad, Morocco & Algeria etc.
iv. OAU had helped to resist, condemn and bring to an end, the apartheid policy in S. Africa.
v. OAU had funded the African Development Bank whose headquarters are in Abidjan, Cote d'Ivoire.
vi. OAU had preserved African culture through All Africa Games.
vii. OAU had helped in the setting up of regional economic groupings to foster economic developments e.g. COMESA, ECOWAS, BADEA, SADC etc.

Failures of the OAU:

i. OAU had failed to create a standing army to keep peace.
ii. It had failed to stop civil wars in Africa and therefore solving the problem of refugees.
iii. It had failed to establish democracy and good governance since there were still many coups in Africa.
iv. It had failed to achieve economic integration in Africa.
v. It had not been able to form a common front of Africa on international policies.
vi. It had also failed to save Africa from over dependence on foreign aid.

vii. OAU had failed to liberate Africa from neo-colonialism.

Problems of the OAU:

i. Shortage of funds to run its programmes as member states were unable to pay membership fees.
ii. Lack of a standing army.
iii. African countries have many internal problems that divert their attention from the OAU.
iv. There are many military coups in Africa that affect development in Africa.
v. Most member states still depend on developed nations for assistance.
vi. Civil wars and internal conflicts also affect development in Africa.
vii. Imperialism (neo-colonialism).
viii. Ideological differences among African leaders.

Reasons for the failures of the OAU:

i. There is diversity of languages in Africa.
ii. Unfavourable geographical location.
iii. Artificial colonial political units.
iv. Economic rivalry of African states.
v. There are personal differences between African leaders.
vi. There are different levels of nationalism in African countries.
vii. Lack of co-operation among member states.
viii. Shortage of funds.
ix. There is no standing army.

THE AFRICAN UNION (AU):

Since all African countries had got their independence, and the OAU had little woe work to do, there was need to form an organisation that would face the challenges of modern Africa. The African Union (AU) was formed to replace the Organization of African Unity (OAU).
The idea of the formation of the AU was presented by the president of Libya, Col. Muammar Gadaffi during the 1999 OAU summit in Sirte City in Libya. Gadaffi proposed the creation of one state from the African countries called the '**United States of Africa**' with one government, one president, one currency and one people. Unfortunately the African leaders disagreed with Gadaffi and instead preferred a union that would enable African countries remain independent but co-operate in the political, economic and social development of the continent.

The African Union was launched on 9th July 2002 in Durban City, South Africa.
The first AU meeting was attended by 43 heads of state.
Since the first AU meeting was held in South Africa, His Excellency Thabo Mbeki became the first chairman of the African Union.
The headquarters of the AU are located in Addis Ababa in Ethiopia.

Personalities who advocated for the African Union:

i. Col. Muammar Gadaffi Libya.
ii. H E Y K Museveni Uganda.

iii. H E Levi Patrick Mwanawasa Zambia.
iv. H E Daniel Arap Moi Kenya.
v. H E Joachim Chissano Mozambique.

Objectives of the AU:

i. To speed up the process of bringing African states together.
ii. To promote economic integration among member states through regional trade.
iii. To promote peace and democracy.
iv. To promote democracy and good governance.
v. To promote stability.
vi. To promote and protect human rights.
vii. To promote development among member states.
viii. To defend African states from foreign rule.
ix. To promote co-operation in all areas in order to raise the living standards of Africans.
x. To promote research especially in science and technology in order to enable Africa develop.
xi. To work with the international community to get rid of the preventable diseases and promote good health in Africa.
xii. To promote regional trade among member states.

Organs Of The AU:

a) ***The Assembly of the Union***.

It is made up of the heads of state of the member states. The heads of state meet once a year in one of the member states. The chairmanship rotates among the member states as was in the OAU. The first chairman of the Assembly of the union was H E Thabo Mbeki of South Africa.

b) The Executive Council of the Union.

It is made up of the ministers of foreign affairs from member states. It coordinates and takes decisions on policies of common interest.

c) ***The pan African parliament***.

It is a law making body of the African Union. It is made up of 5 members of parliament from each member state. The members work for one term of five years. It ensures the full participation of the Africans in the affairs of their countries. It also advises and consults other organs of the Union.

Uganda's representatives in the Pan African parliament are:

i. Hon. Ndaula Kaweesi.

ii. Hon. Mary Mugyenyi.
iii. Hon. Johnson Toskin.
iv. Hon. Peter Abraham L'Okwi.
v. Hon. Sam Njuba.

d) ***The African union commission***.

The African Union Commission replaced the OAU secretariat. It comprises 10 members who include the president and the vice president. The president heads this organ of the AU. The first president (interrim) of the African Union Commission (AUC) is Amara Essy (Cote d'Ivoire). He was the last secretary general of the OAU. The current president of the African Union Commission is Alpha Omar Konare (former president of Mali).
The headquarters of the African Union Commission are in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

e) ***The Peace and Security Council:***

This is meant to bring an end to all forms of conflicts in the African continent. Its main role is to create a standing army to provide peace-keeping forces in areas of conflict like Somalia.
Other organs of the AU are:

f). The court of justice of the Union.

It consists of a few respected judges from some African countries but this organ has not yet been fully established.

Future prospects of the African Union:

i. To set up financial institution (banks) eg:
   - The African Central Bank (ACB).
   - The African Monetary fund (AMF).
   - The African Investment Bank (AIB)
ii. To have regular meetings of the African leaders to discuss problems affecting the continent.
iii. To strengthen regional economic groupings to promote trade and co-operation among member states.
iv. To promote and strengthen democracy in order to reduce civil wars and coup de tats in Africa.
v. To promote peaceful negotiations and conflict-resolution among member states.

Factors hindering co-operation in Africa:

i. Differences in political and economic ideologies.
ii. Influence of neo colonialism.
iii. Differences in levels of economic development among member states.
iv. Political instability in some countries.
v. Diversity of languages in African countries.

vi. Different currencies in African countries.
vii. Similarities in economic activities i.e. mainly agriculture.

REGIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN AFRICA:

General objectives of the regional bodies:

i. To promote trade among member states.
ii. To promote industrialization among member states.
iii. To lessen dependence on overseas imported goods among member states.
iv. To finance developmental projects among member states.
v. To promote transport and communication among member states.
vi. To curb smuggling of goods among member states.
vii. To ease the movement of people with their goods and services among member states.

Common Market For Eastern And Southern Africa (COMESA).

COMESA replaced the preferential trade area (PTA) as a trading organization. It is the largest economic grouping in Africa. It was formed in 1994. It is made up of 20 member states:

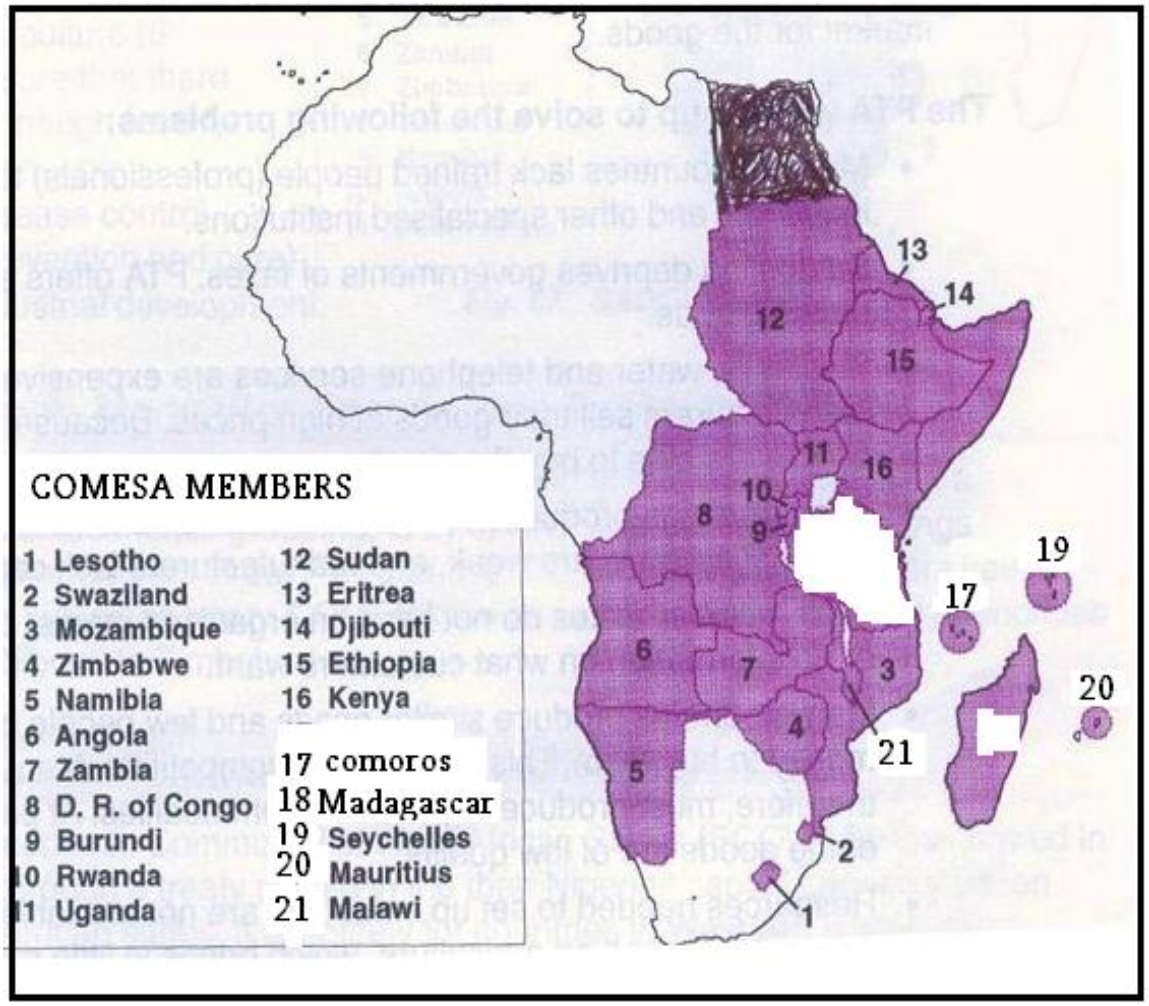
i. Uganda
ii. Kenya.
iii. Egypt.
iv. Zambia.
v. Malawi.
vi. Zimbabwe.
vii. DR Congo.
viii. Eritrea.
ix. Djibouti.
x. Madagascar.
xi. Seychelles.
xii. Rwanda
xiii. Burundi.
xiv. Angola.
xv. Swaziland.
xvi. Mauritius.
xvii. Comoros.
xviii. Sudan
xix. Namibia**.**
Xx **Libya**

The headquarters of COMESA are in Lusaka, Zambia. The current secretary general of COMESA is Mr. Erastus Mwencha. The secretary general is appointed for a five-year term. The secretary general heads the secretariat of COMESA. The chairmanship of COMESA rotates among the heads of state of member states. The COMESA bank is located in **Bujumbura**, Burundi.

Reasons for the formation of COMESA:

i. To promote trade among member states.
ii. To unite member states.
iii. To reduce the trade tariffs among the member states.
iv. To allow free movement of people, goods, money and services among the member states.
v. To promote economic development among member states.
vi. To provide market for goods produced by member states.
vii. To improve on transport and communication among member states.
viii. To raise the standards of living of people in member states.

MAP SHOWING MEMBER STATES OF COMESA.



Organs Of COMESA:

a) ***The Authority***.

It is made up of the heads of state and government of COMESA. It is the supreme policy organ of COMESA.

b) ***The council of ministers***.

It is made up of ministers responsible for trade in the member states. It is the second highest policy organ of COMESA.

c) ***The secretariat***.

The secretariat of COMESA is located in Lusaka, Zambia. It is headed by the secretary general. It runs the daily affairs of COMESA.

d) ***The committee of governors of central banks***.

It is made up of the governors of the central banks of member states.

e) ***The court of justice of COMESA.***

It is the judicial organ of COMESA.

Economic Community Of West African States (ECOWAS).

ECOWAS is an organization formed by the West African states. The headquarters are in Lagos, Nigeria.
The following are the member states:

i.	Nigeria.	vii.	Guinea - Conakry.	xiii.	Mali
ii.	Mauritania.	viii.	Cape Verde.	xiv.	Burkina Faso.
iii.	Togo.	ix.	Benin.	xv.	Senegal.
iv.	Gambia.	x.	Sierra Leone.	xvi.	Liberia
v.	Cote d'Ivoire.	xi.	Ghana.		
vi.	Guinea -Bissau.	xii.	Cameroon.		

Reasons for the formation of ECOWAS:

i. To promote trade among member states.
ii. To encourage economic development among West African states.
iii. To unite West African states.
iv. To promote political stability in West African states.
v. To provide easy transport and communication in the region.
vi. To facilitate free movement of people, goods, services and money in the region.

Achievements of ECOWAS:

a) ECOWAS bank has been established in Lome, Togo.
b) ECOWAS has encouraged trade among member states.
c) The military wing of ECOWAS called the Economic Community Monitoring Group (ECOMOG) has been formed to maintain peace in the region.
d) Power stations like the Akosombo dam in R. Volta and the Kainji dam on R. Niger have been completed.
e) It has united West African states.
f) It removed tariffs and obstructions to trade among member states.
g) Inter-state telecommunications network has been put up in the following states:

    i. Ghana and Burkina Faso.
    ii. Nigeria and Niger.
    iii. Benin and Burkina Faso.
    iv. Mali and Cote D' Ivoire.

Problems affecting ECOWAS:

i. Shortage of funds.
ii. Political instability in some member states e.g. Guinea Bissau, Sierra Leone, Liberia and Gambia.
iii. Divisions among member states since some member states are Francaphone (French speaking) while others are Anglophone (English speaking).
iv. Some member states belong to more than one economic grouping and this has led to divided loyalty and commitment.
v. There are different levels of development among member states.
vi. Member states use different currencies.
vii. Economic dominance of Nigeria as a regional super power threatens small states like Togo, Benin Gambia etc.

Economic Community Monitoring Group (ECOMOG).

ECOMOG is the military wing for ECOWAS. It was formed in 1990 by the third conference of heads of state and government from the member states of ECOWAS. ECOMOG is made up of 10,000 soldiers from the member states of ECOWAS. The member states of ECOWAS are the automatic member states of ECOMOG.

Duties of ECOMOG:

i. To maintain peace and security among West African states.
ii. To mediate on disputes that may arise between member states.
iii. To broker cease-fire between rival member states.
iv. To defend member states from any external attack.
v. To ensure respect for human rights.
vi. To improve relations among member states.

Duties of ECOWAS to ECOMOG

i. To provide soldiers to the military group.
ii. To make financial contributions for the maintenance of the soldiers.
iii. To provide weapons, drugs and food to the soldiers.
iv. To put in place a standing mediation committee that will help to settle disputes between member states.

Achievements of ECOMOG:

i. It has promoted peace and security in West Africa.
ii. It has mediated for peace in Liberia, Gambia and Sierra Leone.
iii. It has made it possible for people and goods to move across borders of member states especially the refugees fleeing the war zones.
iv. Member states have been active in making their contributions the monitoring group.

Failures of ECOMOG:

i. It has failed to maintain peace and security in West Africa.
ii. It has failed to disarm the national patriotic rebels. In Liberia.
iii. It failed to prevent the capture and killing of the Liberian president Samuel Doe in 1990.
iv. It has failed to stop Nigeria from exercising her military and economic strength the region.

Southern African Development Community (SADC).

It was formerly called the Southern Africa development coordination conference when it was formed in 1971. It became the Southern Africa Development Community in 1992. Its headquarters are in Lusaka, Zambia. It is mainly a training organization formed by the countries of the Southern part of Africa.

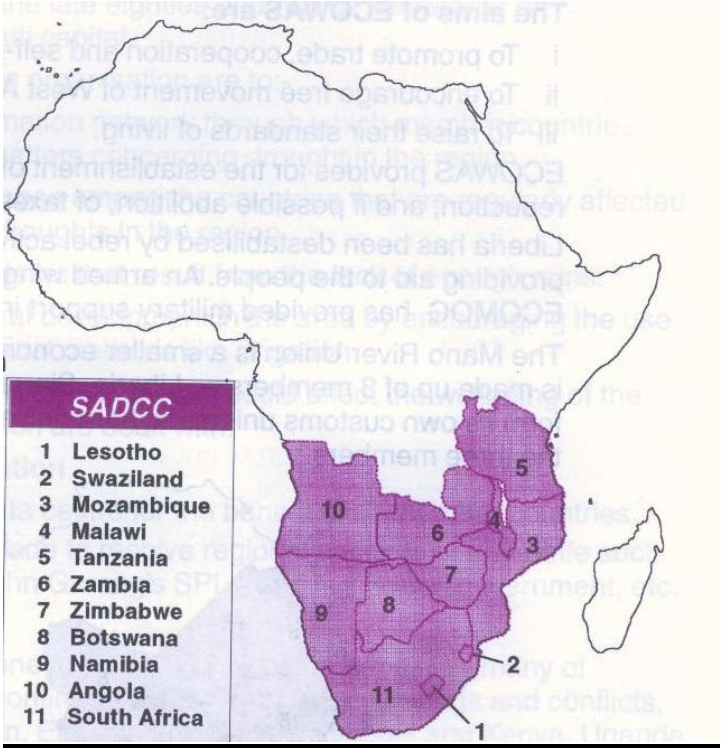
The following are the member states of the Southern Africa Development Community:

i. Tanzania.
ii. South Africa.
iii. Zambia.
iv. Zimbabwe.
v. Namibia.
vi. Angola.
vii. Swaziland
viii. Botswana.
ix. Mauritius.
x. Lethoso.
xi. Mozambique.
xii. Malawi.
xiii. Seychelles.
xiv. DR Congo.

Reasons for the formation of SADC:

i. To promote trade among member states.
ii. To unite member states.
iii. To provide market for goods produced in member states.
iv. To promote economic development among member states.
v. To improve on regional communication.
vi. To help landlocked member states to access seaports.
vii. To encourage free movement of people, goods, services and money in the region.
viii. To remove trade and border barriers.

MAP SHOWING MEMBER STATES OF SADC:



Achievements of SADC:

i. The SADC helped to end apartheid in South Africa through the following ways:
   - ♦ Training guerilla fighters in member states.
   - ♦ Giving financial and moral support to the fighters.
   - ♦ Giving technical and material support to the fighters.
   - ♦ Providing homes for refugees from South Africa.

ii. It has promoted trade among member states.
iii. It has promoted unity among member states.
iv. It has rehabilitated roads and railways in order to improve transport and communication.
v. It has improved port facilities in Luanda (Angola), Maputo and Machola (Mozambique) and Dar Es Salaam (Tanzania).
vi. It has promoted economic development among member states.
vii. It has settled disputes in member states like Angola, Mozambique and South Africa.

Problems facing SADC:

i. Most members of SADC depend on foreign financial aid for economic development.
ii. Differences in levels of economic development.
iii. Shortage of skilled labour.
iv. Shortage of machines and equipment.
v. The transport network is poor because the existing roads are poorly maintained.
vi. Some member states have direct trade links with their former colonial masters and this affects trade in the region.
vii. Shortage of market for goods produced in the region due to the low population in the region and member states produce similar goods.

viii. Fluctuation of prices for goods produced by the member states.
ix. The corrupt nature of the leaders of the organization and Africa in general.
x. SADC also faces a challenge in competing with other regional groupings e.g. COMESA, ECOWAS, EAC etc.

Inter-Governmental Authority On Development (IGAD).

It was formerly called Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Development.

The headquarters are in Djibouti. The member states are:

i. Uganda.
ii. Ethiopia.
iii. Somalia.
iv. Djibouti.
v. Sudan.
vi. Eritrea.
vii. Kenya

Reasons for the formation of IGAD:

i. To fight drought in the region.
ii. To deal with problems caused by drought among member states.
iii. To promote development among member states.
iv. To unite member states.
v. To promote peace among member states.
vi. To promote agricultural development in the region.
vii. To encourage trade among member states.

Achievements of IGAD:

i. It has united member states.
ii. It has encouraged trade among member states.
iii. It has helped to organize peace talks between the Sudan people's Liberation army and the government of Sudan.
iv. It has established a data centre to benefit member states on matters concerning drought.

Failures of IGAD:

i. It has failed to find a lasting solution to the drought in the area.
ii. It has failed to encourage member states to use collective effort to solve problems in the region.
iii. It has failed to solve some border disputes e.g. between Ethiopia and Eritrea and

The East African Co-Operation (EAC).

The idea of the East African Community came when the British brought all the three East African countries under their control i.e. Kenya (1890), Uganda (1894) and Tanganyika (1918).

The East African High Commission:

It was formed in 1948 to unite the East African countries. The headquarters were located in Nairobi.
The services provided by the East African High Commission were:

i. Higher education.
ii. Research activities.
iii. Railway and harbour services.
iv. Posts and telecommunications services.
v. Income tax department.
vi. The East African literature bureau.

The East African Common Services Organization.

The East African High Commission was replaced by the East African Common services Organization (EACSO). This organization was formed in 1961 after Tanganyika had gained independence. It took over all the organs of the East African High Commission.

Reasons for the collapse of the EACSO:

i. There was lack of economic power by the organization.
ii. The organization could not unite the East African countries into a federation.
iii. There was division among member states.

The East African Community (EAC).

The EAC was formed in 1967. It replaced the EACSO. The headquarters of the EAC were in Arusha, Tanzania.
The founder presidents of the East African Community were:
i. Dr Apollo Milton Obote (Uganda).
ii. Jomo Kenyatta (Kenya).
iii. Mwalimu Julius Nyerere (Tanganyika).

Reasons for the formation of the East African Community (EAC):

i. To promote unity among member states.
ii. To promote trade among member states.
iii. To promote economic development in the region.
iv. To set up a similar currency for the member states.
v. To have common taxes on goods of trade so that prices of goods are similar in all country.
vi. To start the East African development Bank so that it supports economic development.
vii. To make it easy for the member states to receive financial assistance for shared problems.
viii. To be able to transport goods of one country through another without taxation.

Organs Of The East African Community:

a) ***The Authority***:
This was the supreme body of the East African Community. it consisted of the three heads of state from the member countries. Its main duty was to direct the activities of the East African Community.

b) ***The Secretariat***:
The secretariat was responsible for running the day to day activities of the East African Community. Its headquarters were in Arusha (Tanzania). It was headed by the Secretary General. The first and the last Secretary General of the East African Community was **Bigirwa Byenkya** (from Uganda)

c) ***The Committee of Ministers***:
It was made up of the ministers of foreign affairs from member countries. The ministers worked hand in hand with the Secretary General in running the affairs of the East African Community.

d) ***The East African Legislative council***.
It was the law making body for the East African Community. It had 36 members drawn from the three member countries.

e) ***The East African court of appeal***.
This was the highest legal organ of the East African Community and it was responsible for hearing appeals from the member states.

Services provided by the EAC:

	SERVICES PROVIDED	HEADQUARTERS
1	East African railways and harbours	Mombasa
2	East African Post and Telecommunications.	Kampala.
4	Customs and Excise department.	Mombasa.
5	Marine fisheries research.	Zanzibar.
6	Institute of medical research, inland marine services.	Mwanza
7	Central secretariat, Civil aviation board, Pests research.	Arusha.
8	Virus research institute.	Entebbe.
9	East African railways repair workshop.	Kisumu
10	Fresh water fisheries.	Jinja.
11	East African Trypanosomiasis research.	Tororo
12	Agriculture and forest research, Veterinary research	Muguga
13	East African Leprosy research.	Alupe
14	East African Development Bank.	Kampala
15	East African Examinations Council	Nairobi
16	East African Literature Bureau	Nairobi
17	East African Flying school	Soroti
18	East African Air ways	Kampala

NB:
Bodies that survived the collapse of the EAC:

i. **The East African Development Bank.**
ii. **The East African School of Librarianship**.

Achievements of the East African Community:

i. It helped to industrialize member states.
ii. It promoted trade among member states.
iii. It promoted regional co-operation through its common services.
iv. It helped bring about economic growth among member sates.

Problems faced by the EAC:

i. There were political differences among member states.
ii. The dictatorship in Uganda by Iddi Amin stopped member states from having meetings.
iii. Bad decisions that were taken by Iddi Amin created bad relations among member states.
iv. Uganda and Tanzania felt that Kenya had cheated them.
v. Differences in political ideology.

Reasons for the collapse of the EAC:

i. Border closures between Kenya and Tanzania caused by increased envy.
ii. Member states failed to contribute to the central fund causing shortage of funds.
iii. Kenya nationalised the major assets of the EAC.
iv. There were many misunderstandings among the heads of state.
v. Tanzania and Uganda felt that Kenya was benefiting more than they were.
vi. The declaration of Iddi Amin to take over parts of Western Kenya.
vii. Political ideological differences.
viii. European countries didn't want Africa to create a strong market for her goods.

The East African Co-Operation (EAC).

The East African Co-operation is a regional intergovernmental organization for the three East African Countries i.e. Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Its headquarters are in Arusha, Tanzania. The heads of state of the three East African countries i.e. Y K Museveni, Daniel Arap Moi and Benjamin Mkapa, signed a treaty establishing the East African Co-operation in Arusha, Tanzania on 30th November 1999. The secretary general is elected rotationally among the member states. The member states of the East African Co-operation mainly export agricultural produce like coffee, cotton, tea, fish, hides and skins.
Minerals like gold, diamonds and soda ash are also exported. Tourism is one of the major foreign exchange earners in the region.
The major imports of the East African Co-operation member states is:

i. Machinery.
ii. Industrial supplies.
iii. Motor vehicles.
iv. Crude and refined oil.

The major trade partners of the EAC are:

i. Japan.
ii. China.
iii. The European Union.
iv. The United Arab Emirates.
v. Saudi Arabia.

The EAC co-operates with the following African organizations:

i. African Union (AU)
ii. Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA).
iii. Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD).

Reasons for the formation of the East African Co-operation / Revival of the East African Community:

i. To create a large market for goods and services in the region.
ii. To revive free movement of goods, people, money and services in the region.
iii. To improve on the former EAC bodies that were still existing.
iv. To promote unity among the East African countries.
v. To create a common tax in order to fight against smuggling.
vi. To promote security in the region.
vii. To promote transport and communication in the region.
viii. To develop industries in East Africa.
ix. To harmonise monitory policy i.e. having one currency in East Africa.

Organs / Institutions Of The East African Co-Operation:

a) ***The Summit****:*

It is the supreme body of the East African Co-operation consisting of the five presidents of the member states. The member states include the three East African countries i.e. Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania plus Rwanda and Burundi from Central Africa, which joined the Co- operation in 2007. The chairman is elected rotationally depending on where the summit is held and the current chairman of the East African Co-operation is H E Y K Museveni.

b) ***The Secretariat****:*

it is headed by the executive Secretary General. The headquarters are in Arusha in Tanzania. The current secretary general of the East African Co-operation is D**r. Juma Sezibera (Burundi)**.

c) ***The Council of Ministers****:*

it consists of the five ministers of East African Affairs and their deputies from the member states. They make decisions together with the secretariat. Uganda's current minister for East African Affairs is Hon Eriya Kategaya.

d) ***The East African Legislative Assembly****:*
it is a law making body. The members of the EALA are sent from the five member states. Uganda's representatives to the EALA are:

i. Hon Mike Sebalu.
ii. Hon Dan Kidega.
iii. Hon Bernard Mulengani.
iv. Hon Nusura Tiperu.
v. Hon Dora Byamukama.
vi. Hon Margaret Zziwa.
vii. Hon Lydia Wanyoto
viii. Hon Maj. Gen. Mugisha Muntu.
ix. Hon Wandera Ogalo

The current speaker of the EALA is **Abdirahim Haithar Abdi**.

e) The East African Court of Justice:

It consists of respected judges appointed from the five member states.

Problems hindering co-operation in East Africa:

i. There have been disagreements between Uganda and Kenya.
ii. Some countries have been restricting the importation of some goods from member states.
iii. The three countries have different education systems.

Kagera Basin Organization (KBO).

It was formed in 1978. It was formed to enable member states to benefit directly from R. Kagera.
The member states KBO are:

i. Uganda.
ii. Kenya.
iii. Rwanda.
iv. Tanzania

Reasons why KBO was formed:

i. To solve the problem of transport and communication among member states.
ii. To promote social and economic development among member states.
iii. To promote political co-operation among member states.
iv. To encourage trade among member states.
v. To encourage fair distribution of services in the region.

Achievements of KBO:

i. It has strengthened political, social and economic unity among member states.
ii. Hydro Electricity from Uganda has been extended to Northern Tanzania and some parts of Rwanda.
iii. Member states use the seaport of Dar Es Salaam at reduced tax rates.
iv. Trade has been encouraged among the member states of KBO.

Failures of KBO:

i. KBO failed to stop genocide in Rwanda in 1994.
ii. It has failed to improve on road and railway network in the region.
iii. It has failed to improve on the production of goods and services in the region.
iv. It has failed to promote free movement of goods and people in he region.

Organization Of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC).

Oil exporting countries like Nigeria, Libya and Algeria are member states. It was formed to unify petroleum policies and to stabilize the price of oil in the world market.

Arab Bank For Economic Development In Africa (BADEA).

The North African Arab countries like Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Sudan are member states. It finances developmental projects.

Economic Community Of Central African States (ECCAS).

It aims to create a common market with free movement of goods, people, services and money among member states.

Challenges facing regional bodies:

i. **Shortage of funds**. Regional bodies do not have enough funds to run their activities.
ii. **Political differences**. There are political differences that can be traced to colonial times. These political differences hinder co0operation and commitment to regional co-operation.
iii. **Desire for prestige**. Some countries desire to be looked at as superior in the region. This hinders co-operation.
iv. **Political instability**. Constant civil wars hinder economic development.
v. **Language barrier**. Communication and co-operation are limited by lack of a common language.

Solutions to problems of regional bodies:

i. Regional bodies should encourage proper accountability to ensure proper use of the available resources.
ii. Political differences should be avoided if possible.
iii. Political differences should not be mixed with regional co-operation and trade.
iv. Regional bodies should work together to promote unity and interdependence.
v. Regional languages that are spoken by large section o people e.g. Kiswahili should be taught in schools to that they are developed.

POLITICAL RELATIONSHIPS OF AFRICA AND THE REST OF THE WORLD.

African countries are members of the United Nations Organization (UNO), Commonwealth of Nations, Non-aligned Movement and the Arab League.

The Commonwealth of Nations:

The Commonwealth of Nations is an Association that comprises Britain and her former colonies, protectorates, mandates and Dominion states. There are altogether 54 member states.

Membership:

All countries that were once **ruled by Britain** (i.e. her colonies, protectorates, mandates) and **Dominion states qualify** to be members of the Commonwealth of Nations.

However, Portuguese speaking Mozambique and French speaking Cameroon applied to join and were admitted. Rwanda (former colony of Belgium) has also joined (2009).

Dominion states are those independent states that have the Queen of England as their head of state e.g.

i. Canada.
ii. Australia.
iii. New Zealand.
iv. Jamaica.
v. Barbados.
vi. Bahamas.
vii. Greneda.
viii. Papua New Guinea.
ix. Solomon Islands.
x. Tuvalu.
xi. St Vicent and the Grenadines.
xii. Antigua and Barbuda.
xiii. Belinze.
xiv. St Lucia.
xv. St Kitts and Nevis.

The Queen of England is also the Paramount Chief of Fiji Islands and the Supreme governor of the Church of England.
Queen Elizabeth the II was born on 21st April 1926. She got married in 1947 and became the Queen in 1952 when her father died.

The Commonwealth of Nations was formed in 1931 by Queen Elizabeth of England. Its headquarters are in London, England. The Queen of England is the head of the Commonwealth. There were altogether 54 member states of the Commonwealth of Nations but Zimbabwe pulled out in 2003 at the Abuja CHOGM and Pakistan was suspended in the Kampala CHOGM of 2007. There are different races among member states e.g. Arabs, Blacks, Whites and Indians. There are also different religions among member states e.g. Islam, Christianity, Hinduism etc. The oldest Commonwealth member states include:

i. Britain.
ii. Canada.
iii. Australia.
iv. India.
v. Pakistan

The African member states of the commonwealth include:

i. Uganda.
ii. Kenya.
iii. Tanzania.
iv. Botswana.
v. Zambia.
vi. Zimbabwe.
vii. Ghana.
viii. Nigeria.
ix. Malawi.
x. Lethoso.
xi. Mauritius.
xii. Swaziland.
xiii. S. Africa.
xiv. Gambia.
xv. Sierra Leone.
xvi. Seychelles.
xvii. Mozambique
xviii. Cameroon.
xix. Rwanda

Characteristics of Commonwealth member states:

i. The education systems of these countries are similar.
ii. English is the official language spoken in these countries.
iii. They were once ruled by Britain

Aims of the Commonwealth of Nations:

i. To unite Britain and her former colonies, protectorates, mandates and dominions.
ii. To promote good governance and democracy among member states.
iii. To provide markets for products of the member states.
iv. To assist former colonies of Britain that had just got their independence.
v. To promote education, technology, agriculture, health and sports.
vi. To enable member states to exploit their resources to promote industrialization.
vii. To uplift the standards of living among member states.
viii. To carry out joint ventures in matters like trade and solving political problems of member states.
ix. To promote co-operation among member states.

Institutions/ Organs/ Structures Of The Commonwealth Organisation.

a) The Commonwealth secretariat:

The headquarters of the Commonwealth are in London.
It's headed by the Secretary General who performs the following duties:

i. Heads the secretariat.
ii. Prepares the agenda for the meetings.
iii. Supervises the Commonwealth committees.
iv. Chairs the meetings of the Commonwealth foreign ministers.

The first secretary general from Africa was Chief Emeke Anyauku from Nigeria and the current secretary general is **Mr Kamalesh Sharma** from India. MR Ramsford Smith is the deputy Secretary General.

b) THE Commonwealth fund and technical co-operation:

It provides funds for a number of projects in member states.

c) Commonwealth parliamentary Association:

It works to improve relations between parliamentarians of the member states.

d) Commonwealth Agricultural Bureau:

It promotes co-operation in the field of agriculture.

NB:

A diplomat representing a Commonwealth country in another Commonwealth country is called a high commissioner. And a diplomat representing any country in another country is called an ambassador.

Duties of the High Commissioner:

i. To attend High Commission meetings in the headquarters, London.
ii. To issue visas to people who want to visit the country he represents.
iii. To discus matters of common interest.
iv. To renew passports of their citizens in the country he operates.

The benefits of the Commonwealth Organisation to her member states:

Commonwealth countries help each other in a number of ways:

i. Member countries get financial assistance for development projects.
ii. Training programmes have been organized to train personnel on how to solve some of their problems e.g. agriculture, army.
iii. Commonwealth associations have been formed where professionals exchange ideas, advice and experiences etc.
iv. Scholarships and fellowships are organized in different parts of the world.
v. Commonwealth games are held every two years.
vi. Member countries discuss common political problems and find solutions.

NB:
Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting is held after every two years. **Uganda** is hosted the **Commonwealth Heads of Government meeting (CHOGM) in 2007.**

Benefits of hosting CHOGM:

i. Infrastructure is developed.
ii. Security is strengthened.
iii. It creates employment.
iv. it promotes tourism.

PAST COMMONWEALTH MEETINGS:

COMMONWEALTH SUMMITS

SN	DATE	CITY	HOST STATE	HOST HEAD OF STATE
1	1st -15th May 1944	London	Britain	Sir Winston Churchill
2	4th –13th April 1945	London	Britain	Sir Winston Churchill
3	23rd Apr-25th May 1946	London	Britain	Clement Richard Atlee
4	11th –22nd Oct 1948	London	Britain	Clement Richard Atlee
5	22nd-27th April 1949	London	Britain	Clement Richard Atlee
6	4th –13th Jan 1951	London	Britain	Clement Richard Atlee
7	3rd –9th Jun 1953	London	Britain	Sir Winston Churchill
8	26th Jan-9th Feb 1955	London	Britain	Sir Winston Churchill
9	27th Jun-6th July 1956	London	Britain	Anthony Eden
10	26th Jun-5th Jul 1957	London	Britain	Harold Macmillan
11	3rd –13th May 1960.	London	Britain	Harold Macmillan
12	8th –17th March 1961	London	Britain	Harold Macmillan
13	19th –19th Sept 1962	London	Britain	Harold Macmillan
14	8th –15th July 1964	London	Britain	Sir Alec Douglas Howe
15	17th –25th June 1965	London	Britain	Harold Wilson
16	12th Jan 1966	Lagos	Nigeria	Dr Benjamin Namdi Azikiwe
17	6th –15th Sept 1966	London	Britain	Harold Wilson
18	15th Jan 1969	London	Britain	Harold Wilson
	Re-named Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM).			
19	14th –22nd Jan 1971	Singapore	Singapore	Benjamin Henry Sheares
20	2nd-10th Aug 1973	Ottawa	Canada	Pierre Elliott Trudeau
21	29th Apr –6th May 1975	Kingston	Jamaica	Michael Norman Manley
22	8th –15th Jun 1977	London	Britain	James Calagan
23	1st –7th Aug 1979	Lusaka	Zambia	Kenneth Kaunda
24	30th Sept-10th Oct 1981	Melbourne	Australia	Malcolm Fraser
25	23rd –29th Nov 1983	New Delhi	India	Indira Gandhi
26	16th –22nd Oct 1985	Nassau	Bahamas	Lynden Oscar Pindling
27	#rd –5th Aug 1986	London	Britain	Margaret Thatcher
28	13th –17th Oct 1987	Vancouver	Canada	Martin Brian Mulroney
29	18th –24th Oct 1989	Kuala Lumpur	Malaysia	Mahathir Bin Mohamad
30	16th –21st Oct 1991	Harare	Zimbabwe	Robert Mugabe
31	21st –25th Oct 1993	Nicosia	Cyprus	Glafcos LoannouClerides
32	10th –13th Nov 1995	Auckland	New Zealand	James Brendan Boiget
33	24th –27th Oct 1997	Edinburgh	Scotland	John Major
34	11th –20th Nov 1999	Durban	South Africa	Thabo Mbeki
35	6th –9th Oct 2002	Coolum	Australia	Hon John Winston Howard
36	5th –8th Dec 2003	Abuja	Nigeria	Gen Olusegun Obasanjo
37	25th 27th Nov 2005	Valetta	Malta	Dr Edward Fenech Acami
38	23rd –25th Nov 2007	Kampala	Uganda	Yoweri Kaguta Museveni

39	27th – 29th Nov 2009	Port of Spain	Trinidad & Tobago	Patrick Manning
40	28th – 30th Oct. 2011	Perth	Australia	Julia Gillard
41	2013	Hambantota	Sri Lanka	
42	2015	Port Louis	Mauritius	
43				

NB: *(***UNO is NOT in the Syllabus***)*

P.7 TERM III LESSON NOTES

THE UNITED NATIONS ORGANISATION (UNO).

The UNO is the largest organisation in the world. It was formed to replace the League of Nations (LON). The League of Nations was formed after the Second World War. It was formed to prevent the outbreak of another war.

The First World War (1914-1918):

It took place between 1914 and 1918. It was started by Germany, which wanted to conquer and control the nations of the world at the beginning of the C20th . France, Britain ad Russia prepared to defend themselves if attacked by Germany.

On 28th June 1914, the heir to the throne of Austria called Franz Fardinand was killed by a Serbian student called Gavril Principi. Austria declared war on Serbia and Russia supported her ally, Serbia. Germany then declared war on Russia and France. Britain fought alongside Russia and France thus the first world war had started. Germany was defeated in the war.

Effects of the war:

i. Millions of people lost their lives.
ii. A lot of property was destroyed.

As a punishment for starting the world war, Germany was made to lose all her colonies. The League of Nations decided that all German colonies be given to other powers as mandates.
Due to the great negative effects of the war, President Wilson Wardro of the USA proposed that the League of Nations be formed to prevent the outbreak of another war. The LON was formed in 1919 to maintain world peace and to find peaceful solutions to political problems.

Aims of the League of Nations:

i. To avoid other wars.
ii. To promote friendship.
iii. To reduce the productions of arms.
iv. To reduce aggression of states towards other states.
v. To establish economic linkage where nations were to be partnered.

The LON however failed and the Second World War broke out in 1939 and it ended in 1945.

Reasons for the failure of LON:

i. Lack of military strength i.e. the LON had no army.
ii. Some powerful countries like USA refused to join.
iii. Continued absence of Germany and Russia.
iv. It was difficult to achieve unanimous decisions.
v. Lack of will among member states
vi. Economic crisis i.e. unemployment, inflation, bankruptcy etc.
vii. Extremism by the governments of Italy, Germany and Japan (non-members of the LON).
viii. The LON failed to control the arms race.

The Second World War (1939-1945)

Adolf Hitler who became the leader of Germany in 1933 wanted to regain her former lost glory. He was supported by people called the Nazis. Hitler rebuilt the German army in preparation for another war and allied with Ben Mussolini of Italy.

The second world war started when Germany attacked Poland on 1st September 1939. France and Britain straight away declared war on Germany on 3rd September 1939.
This war was also fought in some African countries like Algeria, Somalia, Ethiopia and Tanzania etc.

Results of the Second World War:

i. Millions of people were killed in the war.
ii. A lot of property was destroyed.
iii. Japan's two cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki were destroyed with atomic bombs.

The bombing of these cities marked the end of the Second World War.

Formation Of The UNO:

After the second world war, the LON was seen as too weak to maintain world peace so a new organisation called the United Nations Organisations (UNO) was formed on 24th October 1945 by 51 countries from around the world that met in San Francisco, USA.

Today the headquarters of the UNO are in New York (USA). There are 194 member states. Every peace-loving nation is free to become a member.

The UNO has a flag that is blue in colour with a world map in the middle surrounded by olive branches. The olive branches symbolise peace.

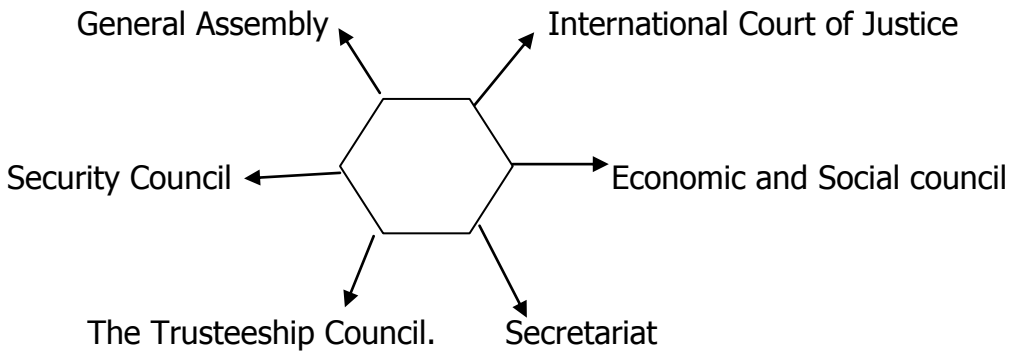
Aims of the UNO:

i. To maintain world peace.
ii. To promote and encourage respect of human rights.
iii. To settle international disputes by the international law.
iv. To take a collective stand against any attack by one country on another.
v. To encourage good governance among member states.
vi. To improve the standards of living worldwide.

The UNO Flag:



Organs of the UNO:



The General Assembly.

The General Assembly is made up of representatives from all member states. They meet annually from the end of September to the middle of December in the headquarters in New York.
Functions of the Assembly:

i. Discusses important world issues related to peace and resolutions are passed.
ii. Approves the UNO annual budget.
iii. Elects one member nation to chair for one year.
iv. Elects the 10 non-permanent members of the Security Council tat serve or a two-year term. Each member nation has one vote.

The meetings of the General Assembly are conducted in six languages:

i.	English.	iii.	Chinese.	v.	French.
ii.	Russian.	iv.	Arabic.	vi.	Spanish

When for example, an Arab is speaking, an Englishman switches on the button for English and gets the translation immediately.

The Security Council:

The Security Council is responsible for maintaining peace and security. It's the first to take a decision on any matter relating to peace. It meets whenever necessary.

It has 15 members of which five are permanent members i.e. **USA, Britain, China, Russia** and **France.** The other 10 members are elected by the General Assembly to work for 2 years.

Duties of the Security Council:

i. It receives the applications from countries wishing to join the UNO. If acceptable, it forwards the application to the General Assembly.
ii. It receives the applications for the post of Secretary General when it falls vacant.
iii. It meets immediately in case of trouble/ war and decides appropriate action.
iv. It sends peacekeeping forces to countries that have political conflicts to keep apart the opposing forces.

During voting in the Security Council, each member has one vote and a major decision needs 9 votes out of 15 to be passed. The 5 permanent members have veto powers that they can use to turn decisions.

The Secretariat:

The Secretariat is responsible for the day-to-day affairs of the UNO. It is headed by the Secretary General. Its headquarters are in New York, USA. The Secretary General is elected to serve for a term or terms of five years after the approval of the Security Council. He /she can be elected for a second term.

The UNO Secretaries General Since Its Formation:

NO	NAME	COUNTRY	TERM
1	Trygve Lie	Norway.	1946-1953
2	Dag Hammarskjold	Sweden.	1953-1961
3	U Thant	Burma	1961-1971
4	Kurt Waldheim	Austria.	1971-1981
5	Javier Perez De Cuellar	Peru	1981-1991
6	Boutros Boutros Ghali	Egypt	1991-1996
7	Koffi Annan	Ghana	1996- 2007
8	Ban Ki Moon	South Korea	2007 -
9			
10			

Dag Hammarskjold died in DR Congo when he was struggling to bring peace into Congo in the 1960s.

The first secretary general from Africa was Boutros Boutros Ghali from Egypt. He is the only secretary general who served for one term. The second secretary general from Africa was Koffi Anan from Ghana.

Functions of the Secretariat:

i. It organises all the UNO international conferences.
ii. It compiles and keeps the records of the organisation.
iii. It interprets the UNO international speeches.

iv. It translates the UNO international documents.
v. It makes the agenda for the General Assembly.
vi. It makes the budget for the General Assembly and other committees.
vii. It finds solutions to international disputes.
viii. It monitors peacekeeping operations.

The International Court Of Justice:

The International Court of Justice (ICJ) has its headquarters in The Hague in Netherlands. It consists of 15 judges who are elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council to serve for a term of 9 years subject to re-election. It settles disputes over borders etc between countries e.g. the ICJ settled a border dispute between Botswana and Namibia in 1999.

The Trusteeship Council:

Countries that were removed from Germany and Italy and given to the UNO to look after were called Trusteeships.
The trusteeship council is responsible for:

i. Protecting the interests of the trusteeships.
ii. Preparing the trusteeships for independence.

The last trusteeship was Namibia that got her independence in March 1990. The Trusteeship finished its work and is non-operational today.

The Economic And Social Council:

The council works through the specialised agencies of the UNO e.g.:

i. Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO).
ii. World Health Organisation (WHO).
iii. International Labour organisation (ILO).
iv. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR).
v. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
vi. United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) etc.

Every member makes a financial contribution to the running of the UNO. The UNO in turn makes the member countries happy and peaceful. A UNDP representative is sent to help each country to use her resources properly.

United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF):

It was formed in 1946.
It aims at providing the children of the world with Clean water, Shelter, Food, Free education and Protection against exploitation.

The UNICEF in Uganda has:

i. Carried out immunization of children.
ii. Promoted children's rights.
iii. Provided protein rich foods for children.
iv. Drilled bore holes and made protected wells to provide clean water.

The UNICEF emblem:



Some specialized agencies of the UNO:

NO	AGENCY	ABBR	HQRS	FUNCTIONS
1	International Monetary Fund	IMF	Washington DC (USA)	i. It gives short term loans to countries with deficit budgets ii. It helps countries to establish their economies.
2	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization	UNESCO	Paris (France)	i. It improves standards of education worldwide. ii. It promotes scientific advancement in research. iii. It promotes preservation of the cultural heritage.
3	World Health Organization	WHO	Geneva (Switzerland)	i. It approves newly invented drugs for international use. ii. It carries out research in the field of drugs and diseases. iii. It provides medical support to underdeveloped countries. iv. It prevents and fights the outbreak of epidemics.
4	Food and agricultural Organization	FAO	Rome (Italy)	i. It improves and promotes food production in poor countries. ii. It sends experts to teach better nutrition in rural areas of developing countries.
5	International Labour organization.	ILO	Geneva (Switzerland)	i. It defends the rights of workers worldwide. ii. It works to improve the wages and the working conditions of workers worldwide. iii. It advocates for better housing of workers.
6	United Nations High Commission for Refugees	UNHCR	Geneva (Switzerland)	i. It registers refugees in affected countries. ii. It helps to resettle refugees. iii. It provides basic needs for refugees. iv. It protects the rights of refugees. v. It funds the education of refugees.
7	United Nations Development Programme	UNDP	New York (USA)	i. It promotes industrialization in poor countries. ii. It gives grants to improve infrastructure in poor countries. iii. It sends experts to improve the economies of poor countries.
8	International Development Association	IDA	Washington DC (USA)	i. It gives soft loans to developing countries. ii. It provides technical and financial assistance in the field of economy.

9	United Nations Fund for Population Activities.	UNFPA	Geneva (Switzerland)	i. It prepares and keeps population data. ii. It provides technical assistance to national population departments.
10	United Nations Environmental Programme	UNEP	Nairobi (Kenya)	i. It conserves the existing forests and swamps. ii. It sensitizes people about the importance of a clean environment.

Achievements of the UNO:

i. It supported the liberation forces in Africa and ended colonialism.
ii. It established peace in countries that had continued unrest e.g. Kosovo, Lebanon etc.
iii. Its specialized agencies have helped to uplift the standards of living in developing countries.
iv. Its continued appeal for good governance and democracy has helped many nations get rid of dictatorship.
v. It has managed to convince super powers limiting the production of nuclear weapons.
vi. It has managed to prevent the outbreak of another war.

Failures of the UNO:

i. It has failed to bring everlasting peace in the whole world.
ii. It has failed to reconcile Arab countries with Israel.
iii. It has failed to make superpowers to destroy their weapons of mass destruction.
iv. It has failed to bring developing countries to the level of developed countries.
v. It has no standing army of its own.
vi. It failed to stop genocide in Rwanda in 1994.

Challenges facing the UNO:

i. Shortage of funds.
ii. It is influenced by super powers like USA.
iii. It is slow to react to African problems.

CASE STUDY (RELATED TO UNICEF)

Children's rights:

i. A right to food.
ii. A right to education.
iii. A right to shelter.
iv. A right to protection.
v. A right to medical care etc.

Child abuse:

Child abuse can be defined as:
i. The violation of children's rights.

ii. An offence committed against the child.

How children's rights are commonly violated:

i. By defilement.
ii. By denying the child food.
iii. By denying the child education.
iv. By over working the child.
v. By forcing the child into marriage etc.
vi. By giving the child corporal punishments e.g. beating.

Causes of child abuse:

i. Poverty.
ii. Ignorance of children's rights.
iii. Culture/ tradition e.g. the Karimojong chase and rape.
iv. Environmental factors e.g. clubs, slums etc.
v. Drug abuse.
vi. Neglect by parents.
vii. Family set up e.g. extended families, single parents.
viii. Alcoholism.
ix. Poor accommodation etc.

Effects/ results of child abuse:

i. Deformity.
ii. Early pregnancies.
iii. Street children.
iv. Early marriages.
viii. Spread of diseases e.g. HIV/ AIDS etc.
v. Traumatisation.
vi. Death e.g. rapists kill.
vii. Dropping out of school.

Preservation of children's rights (Ugandan case):

i. Representation of children in the L.C. executive i.e. the vice-chairperson is in charge of children's affairs.
ii. Creation of the ministry of Ethics and integrity to follow up and oversee children's cases.
iii. Sensitization of people on children's rights.
iv. Imposing heavy punishments against the offenders of the children's rights.

Causes of street children:

i. Harsh parents.
ii. Lack of education.
iii. Orphanage.
vi. Parental neglect etc.
iv. Bad peer groups.
v. Poverty

Dangers of street children:

i. They pick pocket.

How the government can assist street children:

i. The government should offer them free vocational education.
ii. The parents (if there) should be traced and punished .

THE EUROPEAN UNION (EU):

It comprises most of the European countries e.g. Britain, France, Germany, Sweden, Spain etc.
Most of Africa's produce especially raw materials are exported to the European Union.
On the other hand:

i. The European Union has encouraged African countries to adapt and exercise democracy.
ii. It also gives loans and grants for developmental projects in Africa.

The European Union has developed a currency, the **Euro**.

TOPIC 8: (Term iii)

AFRICA'S ECONOMY.

The term economy refers to the relationship between people, trade and the supply of money in a particular country.

Major Economic Resources In Africa.

A resource is a feature in the environment that man can use to meet his needs.

There are two types of resources:

i. Renewable resources.
ii. Non renewable resources.

a) Land

Uses of land:

i. For growing crops.
ii. For rearing animals.
iii. For transport e.g. roads, railways.
iv. For settlement.
v. For urbanisation.
vi. For industrialization.
vii. For tourism.
viii. For mining.
ix. For recreation.
x. For burial etc.

Problems facing land:

i. Soil erosion especially hilly areas.
ii. Soil exhaustion due to the poor methods of farming.
iii. Land pollution e.g. polithene papers, charcoal, bottles, plastics etc.
iv. Aridity i.e. deserts, semi deserts etc.
v. Mining.

Most fertile areas of Africa:

i. Lakes shores e.g. L. Victoria.
ii. Mountain slopes e.g. Mt. Elgon, Mt. Kilimanjaro.
iii. Deltas e.g. Nile delta, Niger delta etc.

b) Minerals.

Minerals are chemical substances that are found beneath the earth. Minerals are mined from the earth. Mining is the process of extracting minerals from the earth.

Africa's major minerals:

NO	MINERAL	LOCATION	USES
1	Gold	Witwaters Rand (S. Africa)	For making jewelry, medals artificial teeth etc.
2	Diamonds	Kimberly (S. Africa), Mbuyi Mayi & Tshikapa (DRC), Shinyanga (Tanzania)	For making jewelry, cutters, reducing friction etc.
3	Petroleum	Niger delta, Libya, Algeria, Morocco	For making petrol, diesel, kerosene, drugs, plastics, etc.
4	Soda ash	L. Magadi (Kenya)	For making glass.
5	Copper	Copperbelt (Zambia), Katanga (DRC)	For making telephone & electric wires, coins, pipes, heaters, alloys etc.
6	Phosphates.	Tororo, Arusha	For making artificial fertilizers.
7	Limestone	Hima (Uganda), Tororo (Uganda)	For making cement
8	Wolfram (got from tungsten)	Kabale, Kisoro, Mityana	For making cutting tools, rock drills, gun burrels, rocket engines etc
9	Salt	l. Katwe (Uganda), L. Magadi (Kenya)	For human consumption and chemical industry.
10	Aluminum	Ghana	For making aeroplanes.

Why some minerals are not mined in Africa:

i. Shortage of capital.
ii. Shortage of skilled labour.
iii. Lack of political will from the leaders.
iv. Some mineral deposits are too small.
v. Some mineral deposits are scattered.
vi. Some mineral deposits are in no man's land.

Importance of mining to a country:

i. It creates employment.
ii. It earns foreign exchange through exportation of minerals.
iii. It leads to industrialization.
iv. Mining companies pay taxes to the government.
v. Remote areas are developed e.g. roads, HEP etc.

Disadvantages of mining:

i. it leads to environmental degradation.

ii. It leads to pollution of air, water and land.

c) Labour.

Labour in this case refers to the people who do the work or the workers.

There are two types of labour:

i. Skilled labour i.e. trained workers.
ii. Unskilled labour i.e. untrained workers.

Expatriates are highly skilled people hired from outside countries.

Problems affecting labour:

i. Poor pay.
ii. Poor working conditions.
iii. Corruption.
iv. Tribalism.
v. Diseases e.g. AIDS.
vi. Irrelevant education (.bookish)
vii. Brain drain i.e. trained people going abroad to look for better pay.
viii. Sectarianism i.e. differences in religious beliefs.

Industrial expansion:

Industrial expansion refers to the rate at which industries are set up in an area. Most industries in African countries manufacture essential consumer goods like sugar, textiles, soap etc. Most of the machinery like panes, cars, motor cycles etc are imported. The imported goods are expensive and yet African countries export raw materials that are cheap and unreliable.

Factors that have led to rapid industrial expansion in some African countries:

i. Availability of raw materials.
ii. Availability of funds especially loans.
iii. Availability of skilled and unskilled labour.
iv. Availability of large markets for goods.
v. Availability of land.
vi. Availability of power (HEP).
vii. Political stability.
viii. Favourable government policies.
ix. Presence of good communication system.

d) Water Bodies.

Water bodies are a source of fish, water for industrial use, water for irrigation and tourism.

e) Forests.

Forests are important for tourism, provision of timber etc.

f) Wild Animals.

Wildlife attracts tourists who bring in foreign exchange to African countries.

g) Climate.

The climate of Africa supports agriculture and tourism.

1. ZAMBIA.

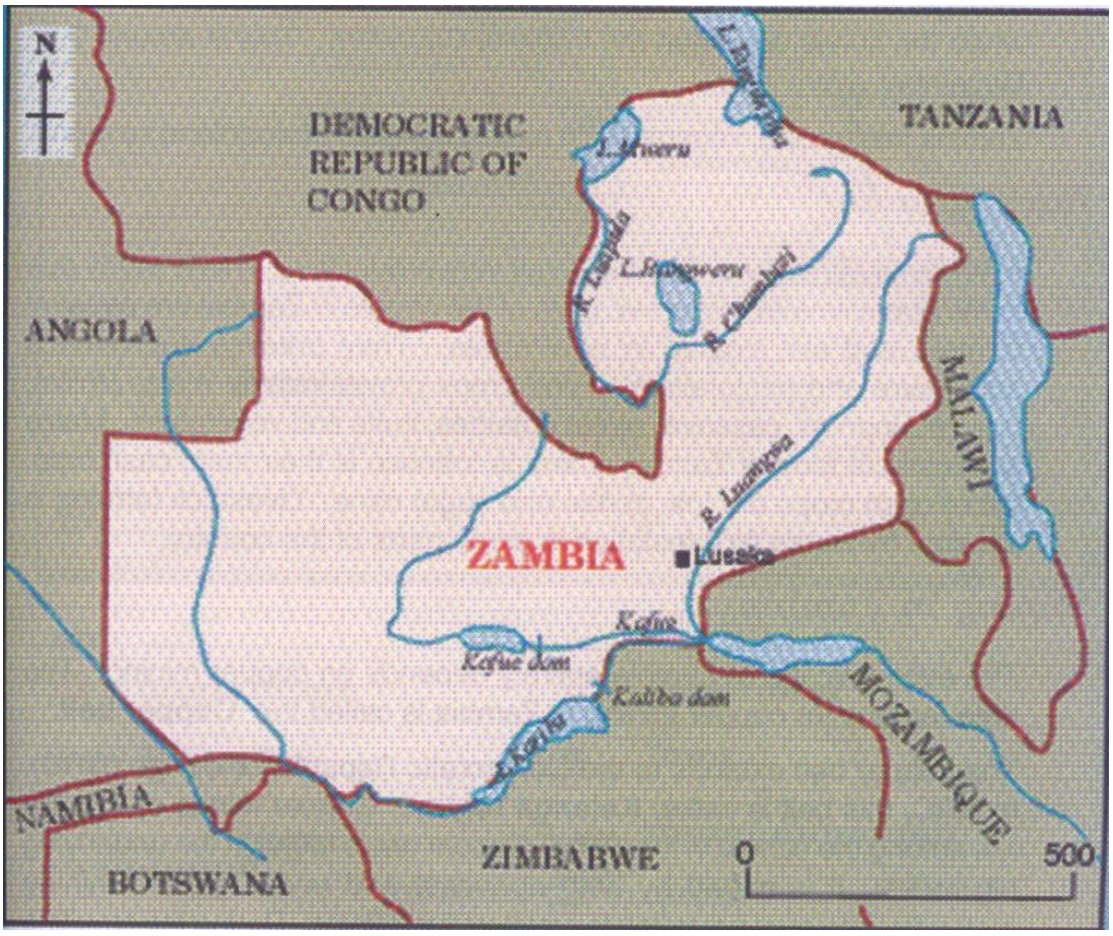
a) Location/ position.

Zambia lies between 22^0 E & 34^0 E and 9^0 S & 17^0 S.
Zambia is a landlocked country.
The capital city of Zambia is Lusaka.
Zambia is a former colony of the British.
The current president of Zambia is **Rupiah Bwezami Banda**.

Her neighbours are:

NE- Tanzania.
E- Malawi.
SE- Mozambique.
S- Zimbabwe, Namibia & Botswana.
W- Angola.
N- DR Congo.

MAP OF ZAMBIA SHOWING POSITION:



b) Relief:

Most of Zambia is covered by a plateau. There are highlands towards the Northeast. R. Zambezi is the only main river that flows through Zambia. There is L. Banguelu (swampy) in the North. Zambia shares L. Tanganyika with Tanzania, L. Mweru with DR Congo and L. Kariba (man-made) with Zimbabwe.

C) Climate:

Zambia has a tropical climate i.e. long wet seasons with short dry periods becoming hottest when the sun is overhead (22nd December) and it is wettest at the same time. Its vegetation is wooded Savannah with stunted trees.

d) Agriculture:

There is mainly subsistence farming i.e. the growing of crops and rearing of animals mainly for home consumption. The main food crops are:

i. Maize- staple food.
ii. Millet.
iii. Rice.
iv. Cassava.
v. Groundnuts.
vi. Sweet potatoes etc.

The main cash crop is tobacco. Others are tea, coffee and sugarcanes.
Cattle keeping is hindered by the presence of tse tse flies.

e) Mining in Zambia:

The economy of Zambia depends on mining i.e. copper mining. Zambia produces 15% of the world's copper. Copper is mined from the Copperbelt that is on the border with DR Congo. The Copperbelt is about 160 km long and 50 km wide. Another mining area is Brokenhills.

Other minerals mined include:

- Cobalt
- Coal
- uranium
- Lead
- Zinc
- Tin etc.

Most industries in Zambia smelt copper. Hydro electricity power is got from **Kariba** and **Kafue** dams on R. Zambezi.

f) Copper mining in Zambia:

Copper is mined using two methods in Zambia:

i. Open cast method- when the copper ore is extracted from just on the top of the earth.
ii. Shaft method- it is when the copper ore is found deep in the earth's surface. The miners are taken there in cages. Copper ore is smelted and cast into **ingots**.

g) Uses of copper:

Copper is malleable i.e. it can be made into different shapes easily. It is a good conductor of heat and electricity.

Copper is used for making:

i. Copper wires.
ii. Bullets.
iii. Pipes.
iv. Helmets.
v. Cookers.
vi. Refrigerators.
vii. Coins etc.

h) Benefits of copper mining to Zambia:

i. It creates employment for the people of Zambia.
ii. It generates revenue through taxation.
iii. It has promoted industrialization.
iv. It has led to the development of towns in the Copperbelt e.g. Ndola, Kitwe, Chingola & Luanshya.
v. It earns foreign exchange through exportation.

i) Problems facing the Zambian copper industry:

i. Fluctuation of copper prices on the world market.
ii. Stiff competition from other copper producers.
iii. Lack of capital to acquire modern mining equipment.
iv. Mismanagement of mining companies.
v. Flooding of mines during heavy rains.
vi. Collapsing of mines.
vii. Exporting copper through neighbouring countries is expensive.

e) Ports used by Zambia:

i. Lobito in Angola but was blocked by UNITA (National Union for Total Independence of Angola) rebellion.
ii. Beira and Maputo in Mozambique but were blocked by FROLIMO insurgency.
iii. Cape Town in South Africa.
iv. Dar Es Salaam through the TANZAM/ TAZARA.

f) Problems caused by copper mining:

i. It causes overpopulation on the Copperbelt.
ii. It has attracted many migrant workers from neighbouring countries.
iii. It has retarded agriculture causing famine.

g) Problems of landlocked countries:

i. Delays of goods on the way.
ii. They pay taxes for using neighbours' seaports thus raising the prices of goods.
iii. Political instability in neighbouring countries blocks routes to seaports.
iv. Lack of privacy especially on security matters.
v. Goods may get spoilt on the way.
vi. Goods may get lost/ stolen on the way.

h) How landlocked countries can solve their problems:

i. By promoting railway transport.
ii. By promoting air transport.
iii. By promoting industrialization and modernizing agriculture (self-sustaining economy) hence reducing importation.

i) Similarities between Uganda and Zambia:

i. Both of them are landlocked countries.
ii. Both of them are former colonies of Britain.

j) Differences between Uganda and Zambia:

i. Uganda depends on agriculture while Zambia depends on mining.

2. DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO (D.R.C).

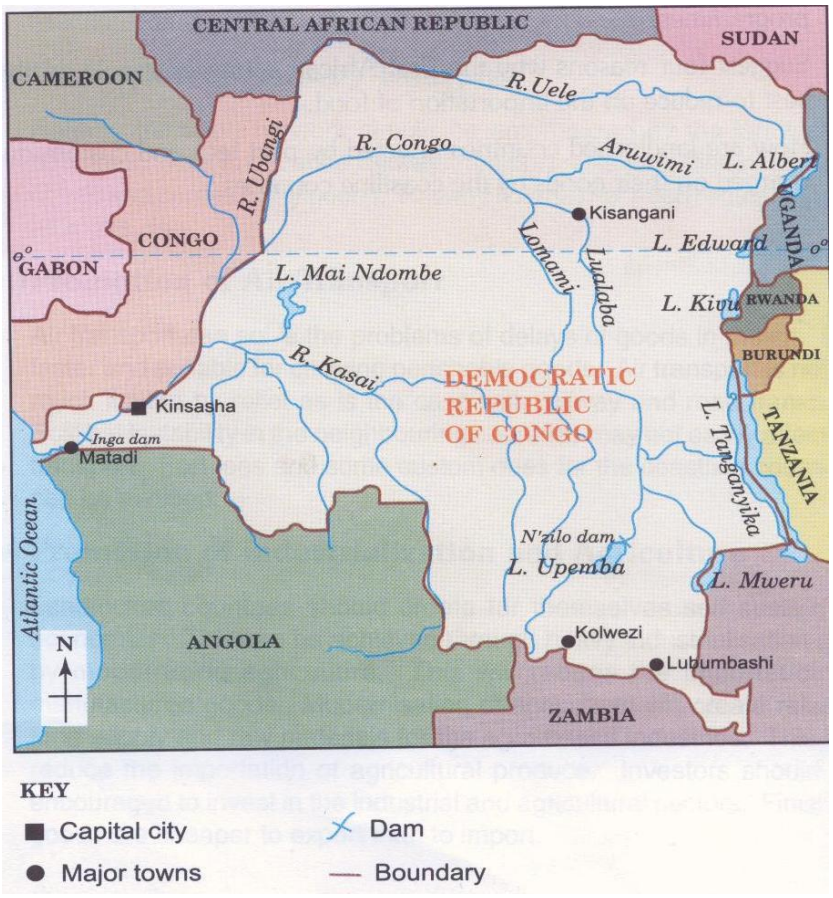
a) Position:

It was a Belgian colony.
It was first called Congo Leopold Ville.
Later it was called Zaire and now it is called the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).
The capital city is **Kinshasa**.
The current president is **Joseph Kabila**.
Her seaport is Matadi at the estuary of R. Congo.
D. R. Congo has the shortest coastline in Africa.
It is the second largest country in Africa after Sudan.
Most of her people are Bantu.
D.R. Congo lies between 15^0 E & 24^0 E and 5^0 N & 12^0 S

Her neighbours are:

N- Central African Republic (CAR).
NE - Sudan.
E – Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi & Tanzania.
S – Zambia
SW – Angola & Atlantic Ocean.
W – Congo Brazzaville.

MAP SHOWING POSITION OF D.R. CONGO:



b) Relief:

It is in the Congo basin that is drained by R. Congo and its tributaries.
R. Congo carries more water to the ocean than all other rivers of Africa put together because:

i. It has many tributaries.
ii. It flows through thick forests that receive heavy rainfall.

c) Climate and Vegetation:

The D.R Congo experiences equatorial climate i.e. hot and wet throughout the year. $^{1}/_{3}$ of D.R.Congo is covered by thick forests and the rest by Savannah.

d) Agriculture:

The climate is good so both food and cash crops are grown.
The main cash crops are:

i.	Rubber.	iii.	Cotton.	v.	Palm oil.	vii.	Sisal.
ii.	Coffee.	iv.	Cocoa.	vi.	Tobacco.	Etc.	

The main food crops are:

i.	Bananas.	iv.	Sweet	vi.	Groundnuts.	ix.	Plantains.
ii.	Maize.		potatoes.	vii.	Millet.	x.	Sorghum
iii.	Yams.	v.	Pineapples.	viii.	Cassava.		etc

The number of cattle kept is limited by the presence of tse tse flies and the poor climate i.e. heavy rainfall throughout the year that is not favourable for cattle keeping.
Some thick forests like the Ituri forests are inhabited by primitive people called the Pygmies.

Some people in the thick forests carry out shifting cultivation i.e. clearing an area for crop farming and moving to clear another area when this one is exhausted.

Every year the following exports contribute 50% of the exports:

i. Palm oil.
ii. Palm kennels.
iii. Cocoa.
iv. Rubber.
v. Cotton.
vi. Timber.
vii. Coffee

e) Mining:

D.R. Congo mainly depends on mining. Her main minerals are:

i. Gold.
ii. Diamonds.
iii. Copper.
iv. Cobalt.
v. Uranium.
xi. Manganese
vi. Zinc.
vii. Tin.
viii. Lead.
ix. Oil.
x. Wolfram.

Diamonds:

D. R. Congo is the world's leading producer of diamonds. They are alluvial diamonds i.e. they are mined from the riverbeds. They are mainly mined from **Mbuyi Mayi** and **Tshikapa**.

Gold

It is mined from Southeastern D R Congo in **Kilo-moto** and **Kiou** region

Copper:

It is mainly mined from **Katanga** province (formerly Shaba) that lies at the border with Zambia.

f) Problems facing the mining industry:

i. Shortage of capital.
ii. Shortage of skilled labour.
iii. The mining industries are managed by foreigners.
iv. The water table is near causing the collapse of mines.
v. Illegal mining and smuggling of minerals.
vi. Bad leadership i.e. dictatorship.

g) Transport:

Water transport is mainly used but air transport is also used. All the big towns like Kisangani, Lubumbashi, Bunia and Goma have airports.
It's difficult to construct roads and railways because:

i. There are many rivers.
ii. There are many thick forests.
iii. The area is soggy.
iv. The area is marshy (swampy).

Hydro electricity power is got from **Nzilo dam** on R. Congo and **Inga** dam on R. Kasai.

D. R. Congo uses many different seaports for her overseas trade:

i. Matadi.
ii. Mombasa – Kenya.
iii. Dar Es Salaam – Tanzania.
iv. Cape Town – South Africa.

h) Lumbering:

Lumbering is the cutting of trees for timber.
Lumbering faces the following problems:
i. Lack of good transport.
ii. Lack of modern cutting equipment.
iii. Plenty of rainfall throughout the year hampers lumbering.
iv. Trees grow close to each other making cutting difficult.
v. There are fierce wild animals in the forests.

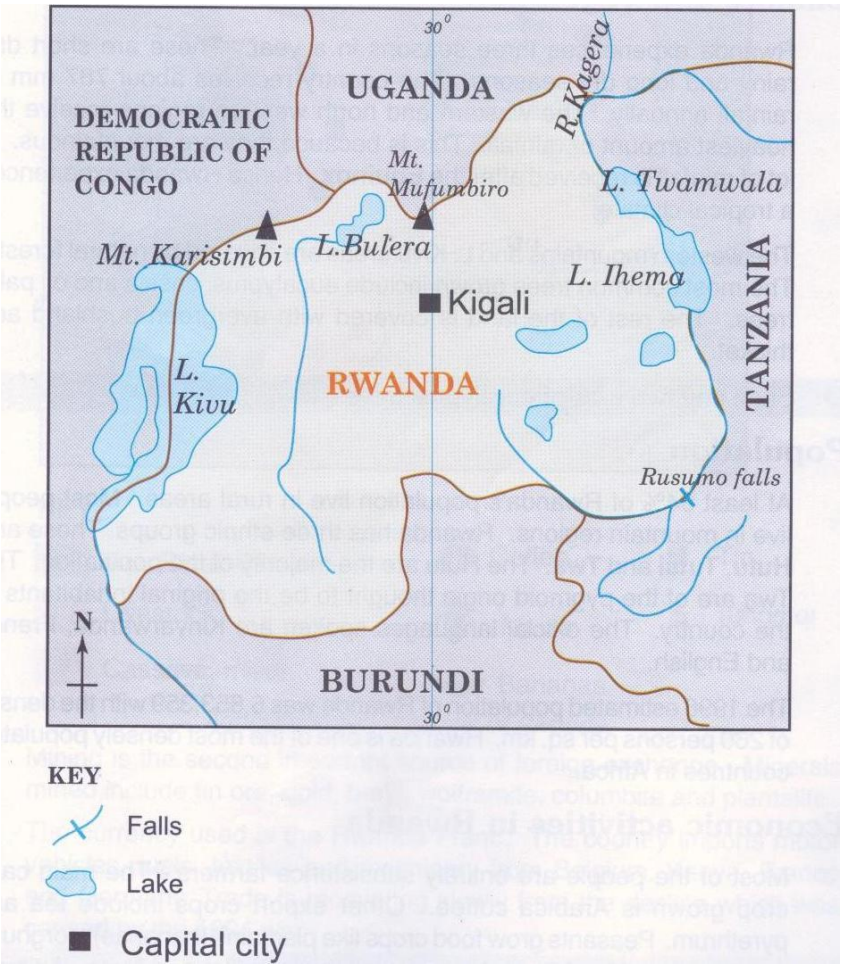
3. RWANDA.

a) Position:

The republic of Rwanda is located in Central Africa.
Rwanda was removed from Germany and given to Belgium after the First World War.
It is a small country with an area of 26,338 km^2 .
The capital city of Rwanda is Kigali.
The current president is **HE Paul Kagame**.
Her neighbours are:

i. N – Uganda.
ii. E – Tanzania.
iii. S – Burundi.
iv. W – D. R Congo.

MAP OF RWANDA SHOWING POSITION:



b) <u>Relief</u>:

Much of Rwanda is covered by a hilly plateau. There are Virunga mountains to the North. They are volcanic mountains with Karisimbi as the highest peak. There is L. Kivu on the border with Congo and R. Kagera flows through it.

c) Climate and Vegetation:

Rwanda experiences tropical climate. L. Kivu areas have natural forests while the rest is covered by Savannah.

d) Population:

Rwanda is one of the most densely populated countries in Africa with a population density of 260 persons per km^2.

There are three main groups of people i.e. the Hutu, Tutsi and the Twa. The Hutu are the majority.

The main languages spoken are Kinyarwanda, French and English.

e) Economic activities:

Most people in Rwanda are farmers (subsistence farmers). The main cash crop is Arabica coffee. Others are tea and pyrethrum. Cattle, goats and sheep are also kept.

f) Problems faced by Rwanda:

i. Rwanda is landlocked.
ii. It's mountainous hence roads and railways are poor.
iii. There is strong soil erosion since the area is hilly.
iv. There are civil wars.
v. There is shortage of land since there is dense population.
vi. Many people move to neighbouring counties to provide cheap labour and for better education.

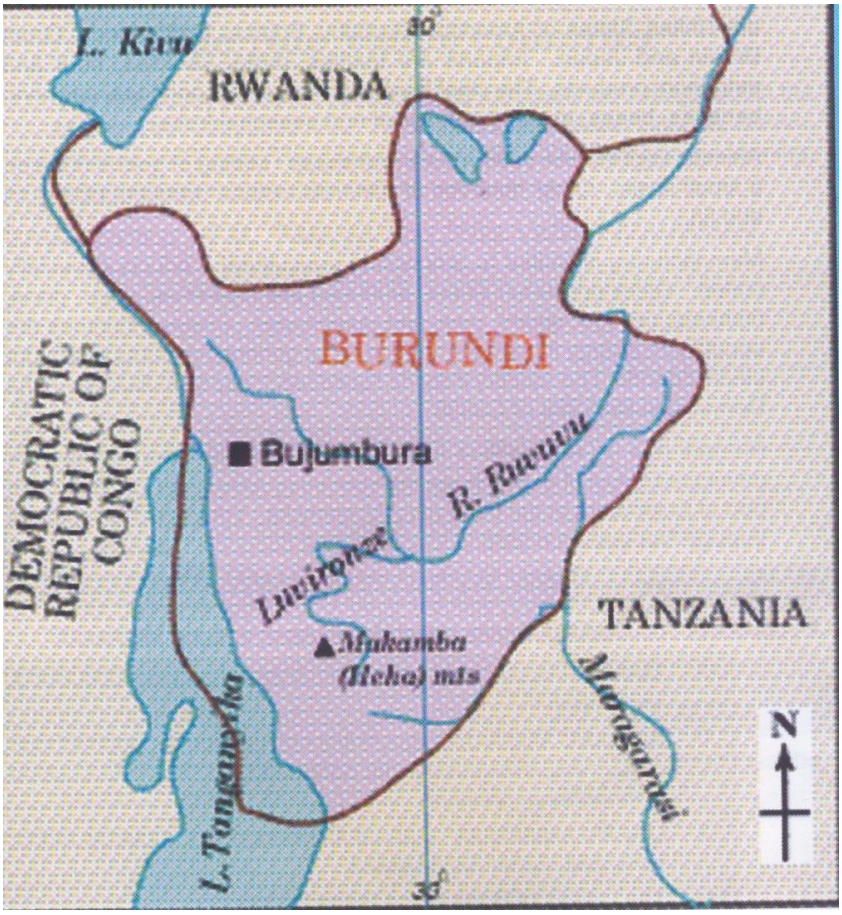
4. BURUNDI.

a) Position:

Burundi is also a small Central African state.
It was also given to Belgium from Germany as a mandate after the First World War.

It has a high population density also. The main people of Burundi are the Hutu, the Tutsi and the Twa. There is a small river that flows through Burundi and L. Tanganyika is partly in Burundi. Bujumbura is the capital city.

MAP OF BURUNDI SHOWING POSITION:



b) The economy of Burundi:

Burundi depends on agriculture. The main cash crop is coffee.
It has a good road network that is used to transport goods to Tanzania for export through Dar Es Salaam.

c) Problems hindering development in Burundi:

i. Burundi is landlocked.
ii. There's a civil war between the Hutu and the Tutsi.
iii. There is soil erosion that is caused by population pressure.
iv. Low life expectancy (40 years).
v. The valleys of Burundi are tse tse infested.
vi. There is high crime rate.
vii. Diseases like AIDS, TB, and Kwashiorkor etc.
viii. Shortage of land due to over population.

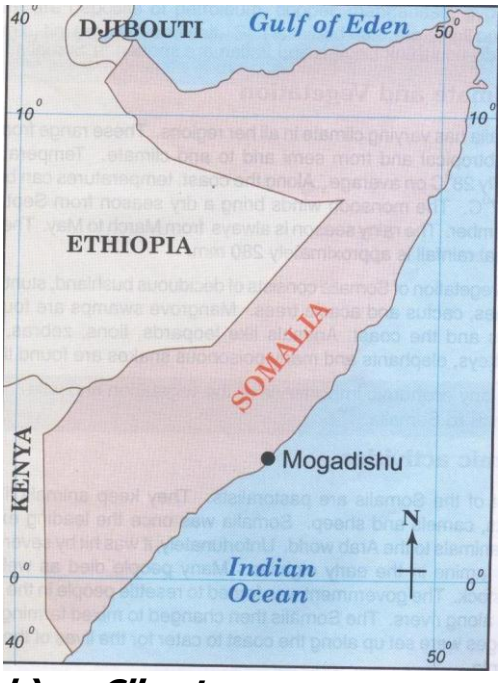
5. SOMALIA.

a) Position:

Somalia was formerly called Somaliland. The earliest name was Horn of Africa.
It was colonised by Italy.
It is located in Eastern Africa in the Horn of Africa.
The capital city is Mogadishu.
The current president is Sheikh Sharif Sheikh Ahmed
Her neighbours are:

SW – Kenya.
W – Ethiopia.
NW – Djibouti.
N – Gulf of Aden.
E & S – Indian Ocean.

MAP OF SOMALIA SHOWING POSITION:



b) Climate:

Somalia is semi arid with R. Shabele and R. Juba flowing through it.
The highest temperature goes as high as 47^0 C. the vegetation is poor.
Most people in Somalia are Muslims.
The main languages spoken are Somali, English and Arabic.

c) Economic activities:

They keep, cattle, sheep and goats that were exported to the Arab world but was hit by a severe famine in the early 1980s in which many people and animals died.
There have been a number of civil wars.

The government had to resettle people in the South along rivers.
The Somalis then changed to mixed farming.

Fishing villages were also set up along the coast for the resettled people.
Mineral deposits are there but are not yet exploited e.g. Petroleum, copper, manganese, gypsum, iron, marble, tin, uranium and salt.

6. SOUTH AFRICA.

a) Brief history:

The coming of the Europeans:

The first Europeans to come to South Africa in the C15th were the Portuguese. The first to arrive was Bartholomew Diaz who named the Southern tip of Africa, '**Cape of storms'** because of the violent storms that attacked him there.

The king of Portugal renamed it, '**Cape of good hope'** because he was full of hope that the sea route to India would soon be found.

In 1497, Vasco da Gama also passed there on his way to India. He spent the Christmas night of 1497 at Natal, coming from the Latin word, '**Dies natalis'**, meaning, '**Christmas day'**. He wanted fresh food and water for his sailors. Many sailors used to suffer and die of scurvy, which is caused by lack of vitamin C.

The first foreigners to settle in South Africa were the Dutch from Netherlands/ Holland. When their ship Harleem capsized off the coast, some sailors swam to the coast and started growing vegetables until they were collected after one year. They later returned and settled to grow vegetables. They were called '**Boers**' meaning '**Farmers**'. They were led by **John Van Riebeck**.

When the British later came with the intention of settling in the same place, there was a brief fight before the Boers left for the North in a journey called, 'The Great Trek' in about 1834- 1839. They set up independent states of **Orange Free State** and **Transvaal** (across river Vaal).

They intermarried with Africans and adopted a new language called Afrikaans which, was mixture of Bantu, Dutch and Portuguese.

The Dutch who hated the British formed their own party, **The Nationalist Party**, which believed in apartheid. The nationalist party won the 1948 elections leading to the establishment of apartheid government in South Africa.

b) Location:

The Republic of South Africa (Azania) is found in the Southern tip of Africa. South Africa has an area of about 1,221,036 km2. It is about the seventh largest country in Africa.
Lesotho and Swaziland are inside South Africa and such countries are called **enclaves**.
The capital city of South Africa is Pretoria.
South Africa has nine provinces:

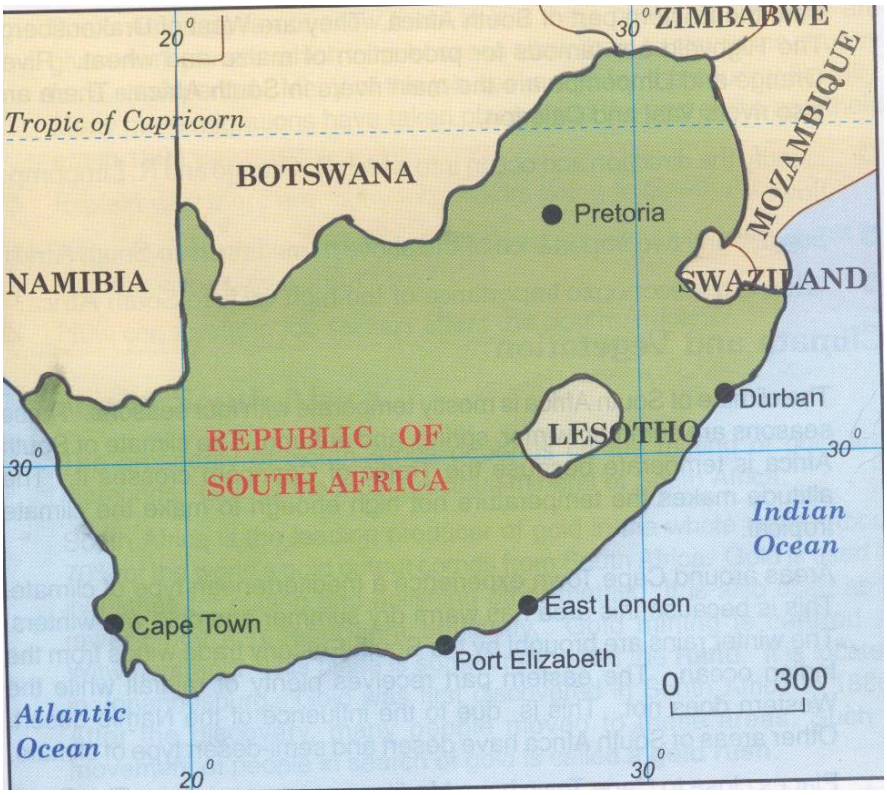
i. Natal.
ii. Transvaal.
iii. Orange Free State.
iv. Northern cape.
v. Eastern cape.
vi. Western cape.
vii. Gauteng.
viii. Mpulalanga.
ix. N. W. province

South Africa lies between 22^0S & 35^0 S and 15^0 E & 32^0E. It is crossed by the tropic of Capricorn.

Her neighbours are:

N – Botswana and Zimabwe.
NW – Namibia.
NE – Mozambique.
E – Indian ocean.
W – Atlantic ocean.

MAP OF SOUTH AFRICA SHOWING LOCATION:



c) Relief:

Most of South Africa is plateau. There are Drakensberg mountains in the Southeast. It is bordered by the Indian and the Atlantic oceans. The main rivers are Limpopo and Orange.

d) Climate and vegetation:

South Africa has four main types of climate:

i. Mediterranean – near Cape Town.
ii. Temperate – West of Drakensberg.
iii. Desert – Kalahari desert.
iv. Tropical climate.

Wooded grasslands cover the coastal plains. The great Karoo (treeless uplands) covers the Southern end where a lot of agriculture takes place i.e. the growing of maize, rearing of Merino sheep and Angora goats. Northwestern is drier and it becomes desert as we move further North.

e) The people of South Africa:

About $^{2}/_{3}$ of the South Africans are Bantu but the original inhabitants were the Bushmen and the Hottentonts. Intermarriages between the various races led to the formation of the Coloured.

f) Economic activities:

The economy of South Africa depends on mining.

The main minerals mined are:

i. Gold.
ii. Diamonds.
iii. Copper.
iv. Tin.
v. Iron.
vi. Coal.
vii. Uranium.
viii. Silver.
ix. Zinc.
x. Lead.
xi. Oil.
xii. Tungsten.
xiii. Limestone.
xiv. Phosphates.
xv. Nickel.
xvi. Flourspar.

Uranium is extracted as a by-product of gold. It is used in the production of atomic energy.

g) Gold:

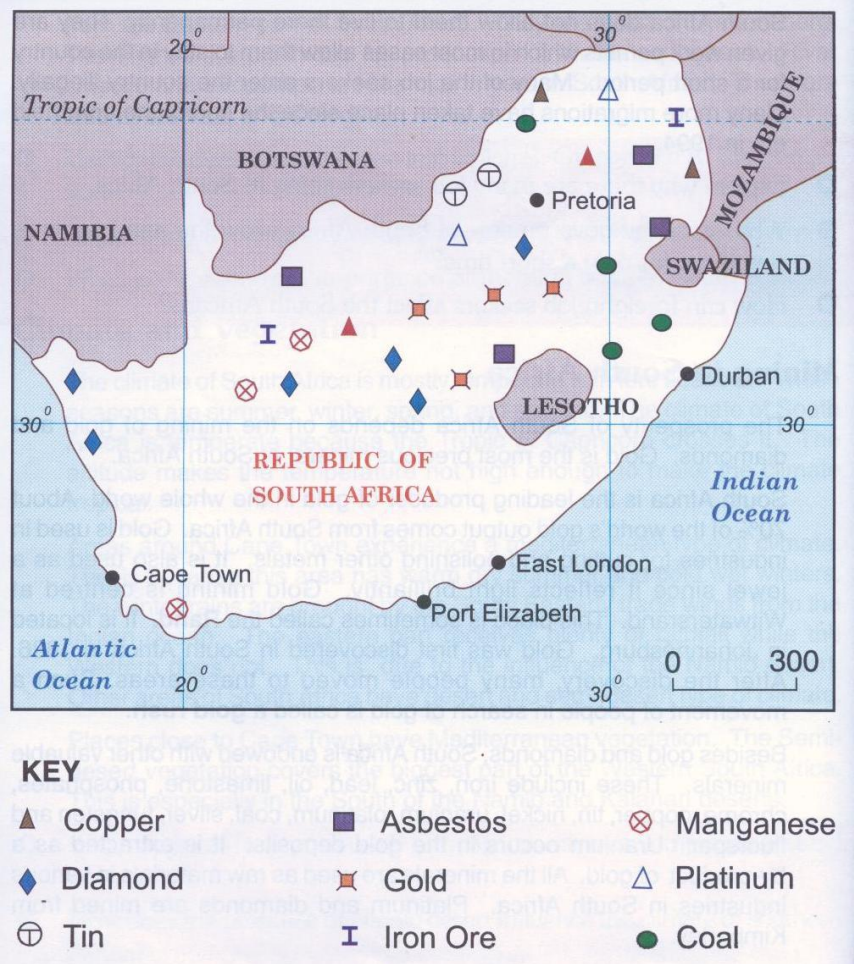
It was discovered in the WitwatersRand (Rand) near Johannesburg (Transvaal) in 1886. It's found in rocks called bankets. More was discovered in Orange Free State in 1946.
Gold is a yellowish bendable metal. It very valuable. South Africa is the world's leading producer of gold with about 70% of the world's gold. It is exported through Durban and Cape Town.

h) Diamonds:

Diamonds are the hardest minerals ever known to man. They are formed by great heat during volcanicity. They are found volcanic pipes in the blue rock. The blue rock is called kimberlite.

Diamonds were discovered in South Africa in 1871 in Kimberley and another was discovered in Finsch. Diamonds are the used in various ways including reducing friction in machines.
Iron is mined at **Thabasimbi** and copper is found in **Transvaal**.

MAP OF SOUTH AFRICA SHOWING MINERALS:



i) Importance of mining:

i. It provides foreign exchange to the government.
ii. It employs about ¾ of the population.
iii. It funds developmental projects.
iv. It has raised the standards of living.
v. It has created better wages for the workers.

j) Factors that have contributed to the development of mining in South Africa:

i. Presence of large deposits of minerals e.g. gold, diamonds etc.
ii. Availability of capital.
iii. There is a good transport network South Africa has the best railway network in Africa.
iv. There is enough labour (both skilled and unskilled).
v. There is market for minerals in USA, Europe and Japan.
vi. There is water and power.
vii. There is scientific equipment and technology.

k) Negative effects of mining:

i. It has contributed to the pollution of air, water and land.

ii. It has caused climatic changes.
iii. It has led to the destruction of vegetation and environment.
iv. It reduces farmland.
v. It has attracted many foreigners to work in Sooth Africa.
vi. It has caused overpopulation in mining areas.

l) Agriculture:

There is maize growing in the maize triangle in the High Veld. It is used as the staple food by the blacks in South Africa.

There is citrus fruit growing in the Cape Province where the climate is Mediterranean.
Sugarcane is grown at Natal under irrigation. Most sugarcane is refined at Durban.

Cattle keeping takes place at the temperate grasslands. The sheep reared include:

i. Merino sheep – for wool.
ii. Afrikander – for meat.
iii. Karakul – for skins. It is killed before it is a day old.

Goats are also kept for wool (mohair). The main goats kept are **Angora goats**.
The economic activities listed above depend on the climate and natural resources.

The main seaports of South Africa are:

i. Cape Town.
ii. Durban.
iii. Port Elizabeth.
iv. East London.

7. GHANA.

a) Brief history:

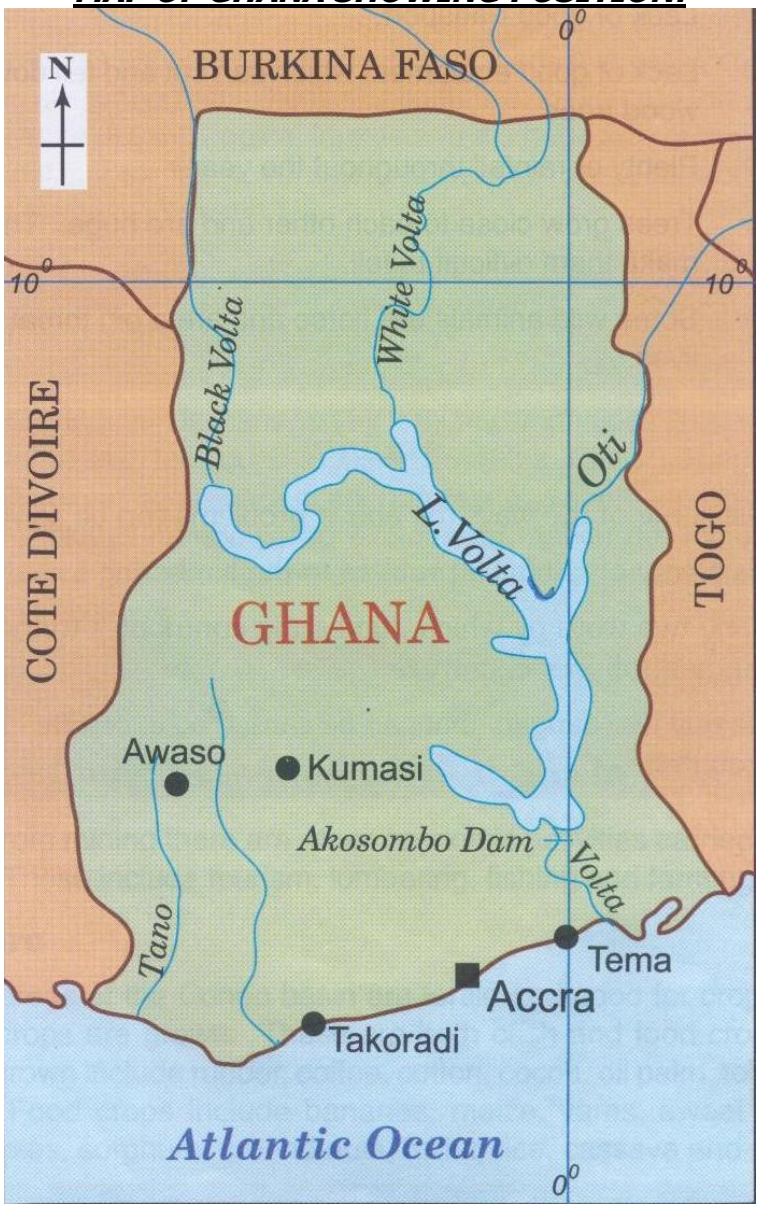
Ghana was the oldest kingdom in West Africa. The British called it **Gold Coast** because of the presence of large deposits of gold.
The country was re-named Ghana after the Old Kingdom when it gained independence from the British under Kwame Nkurumah, its first president.
Ghana got her independence on 6th March 1957 and became the first West African country to get independence. The official language is English.

b) Location and size:

Ghana lies to the North of the equator i.e. 5^0N & 12^0N. Ghana is crossed by longitude 0^0 (Prime Meridian / Greenwich) that crosses through Accra.

Ghana is not landlocked because it has a sea coastline along the Atlantic Ocean. Ghana is a small country with an area 238,600 km^2.
The capital city of Ghana is Accra.
Her neighbours are:
N – Burkina Faso.
E – Togo.
W – Cote D' Ivoire.
S – Atlantic Ocean.

MAP OF GHANA SHOWING POSITION:



c) Physical features of Ghana:

Most of Ghana is a plateau that is divided into two parts, the Northern and the Northwestern plateau.

The Eastern plateau lies in the Volta basin. The main river in Ghana is R. Volta with the Black and the White Volta as its main tributaries.

The construction of the Akosombo dam led to the formation of L. Volta, which is the largest man-made lake in the world.

There are also lagoons at the coast. A lagoon is a body of water separated from the sea by sand and silt. The biggest lagoon is the Keta lagoon.

MAP SHOWING GHANA PHYSICAL:



d) Climate of Ghana:

Ghana has both the equatorial and tropical climates as it lies in the tropics and is close to the equator. The average temperatures are 25^0C- 27^0C throughout the year. The Southwestern receives heavy rainfall and is therefore forested.

e) Vegetation:

The main vegetation types of Ghana are Savannah and tropical rain forests. Along the coast are mangrove forests. Mangrove forests survive in salty conditions.

f) The people of Ghana:

Ghana has a population size similar to that of Uganda.
There are many ethnic groups i.e. Ewe, Fante, Asante, Akwapim, etc.
The main language spoken is Akan.
Most people of Ghana are Christians with a few Muslims.

g) Cocoa growing in Ghana:

Cocoa is a native crop of Brazil and was first grown in Africa in Sao Tome Islands. It was introduced to Nigeria in 1874 and to Ghana in 1879. It was brought by a man called Tetteh Quarshie.

The main cocoa growing area in Ghana is **Kumasi** in the SouthWest where rainfall is heavy and the altitude is high. There is another cocoa growing area to the East of L. Volta.

Ghana is one of the leading cocoa producers in the world. It produces $^1/_3$ of the world's cocoa. The economy of Ghana depends on agriculture. The main cash crop is cocoa but since it is dangerous for a country to depend on one cash crop, the government is encouraging farmers to grow other cash crops also like rubber, bananas, coffee, tobacco, cotton and oil palm.

h) How cocoa is grown:

i. Cocoa seeds are put in nursery beds.
ii. They grow up 30- 40 cm high.
iii. They are transplanted after 5 months.
iv. They take 5-7 years before they mature and start bearing fruit.
v. Pods grow from the tree trunks and branches.
vi. The pods become yellow orange when ripe.
vii. There are two main harvesting seasons i.e. October- February (main harvest) and May- August.

i) Conditions that favour cocoa growing:

i. Well-drained porous fertile soils.
ii. High temperatures of $20 - 25^0$ C.
iii. Heavy rainfall ranging from 1,000 – 1,500 mm.
iv. High humidity.
v. Proper (timely) pruning.
vi. Shelter from strong winds and sunshine.

j) Harvesting and processing cocoa:

i. The pods are cut off the trees.
ii. The pods are split open and beans scooped out by hand. There are about 40 beans in each pod.
iii. The beans are (fermented) put in a heap and covered with leaves:
    - ❖ To remove the slimy substance.

- ❖ To give the beans flavour.

iv. The beans are dried and taken to buying centres where it is taken to ports for export.

The main seaports are:

i. Takoradi (chief port).
ii. Tema.
iii. Accra.
iv.

Most of the cocoa is exported to Britain, USA and Germany. It is transported by water.

k) Importance of cocoa:

The beans are ground and mixed with other ingredients to make:

i. Chocolate bars.
ii. Cocoa powder.
iii. Drinking cocoa.
iv. Butter.
v. Cakes/ bread.
vi. Cocoa also creates employment.
vii. It is a source of income.
viii. The old cocoa trees are used as fuel.
ix. Cocoa is also eaten as food.

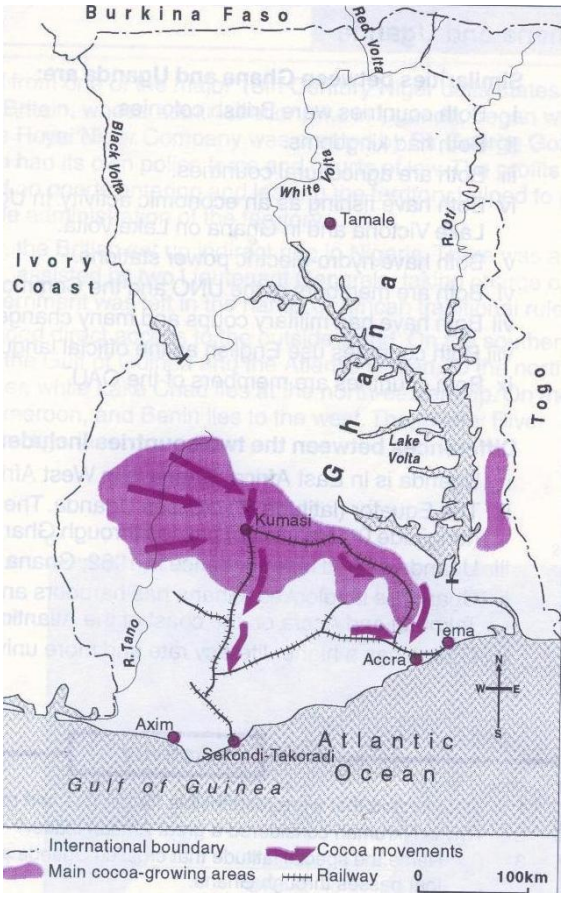
l) Problems facing cocoa growers:

i. Diseases – cocoa is attacked by black pod and swollen shoot. The affected plants are uprooted and burnt to control the spread of the disease.
ii. Poor transport – most roads flood making transport impossible.
iii. Shortage of inputs – most farmers can't afford fertilizers and insecticides.
iv. Hazards – bush fires may burn down the plantation during the dry season.
v. Drought.
vi. Price fluctuations on the world market.

Other cocoa growing countries in Africa are Cote D' Ivoire, Cameroon and Nigeria.
Other crops grown in Ghana include:

i. Maize.
ii. Sorghum.
iii. Cocoa yams.
iv. Sweet potatoes.
v. Rice.
vi. Yams.
vii. Cassava.
viii. Plantains.

MAP SHOWING COCOA GROWING IN GHANA:



m) Hydro power production in Ghana:

Ghana gets her power from the Akosombo multipurpose power project on R. Volta. It is called multipurpose because it serves many purposes. The project involved the construction of an aluminum smelter at Tema (Volta Aluminum company (VALCO).

Akosombo was one of the oldest Multi purpose projects in Africa. It was built by VALCO. Ghana exports her electricity to Benin and Togo.

n) Advantages of the Akosombo Multi-purpose power project dam:

i. It generates hydro electricity.
ii. It provides water for irrigation, industrial and domestic use.
iii. It controls floods.
iv. A man made lake was formed for fishing.
v. A man made lake was formed for transport.
vi. A man made lake was formed for tourism
vii. A man made lake was formed for recreation.
viii. It has created employment for the people of Ghana.

o) Problems caused by the Akosombo dam:

i. A lot of money was spent on the construction.
ii. A lot of people were displaced.
iii. The man made lake covered a large area of land.
iv. Some communication lines were destroyed.
v. A lot of money was used to resettle the displaced.

NB:
Sometimes the North is affected by drought leading to a low supply of water to the dam causing shortage of hydro electricity. So thermal power has to be used.

p) Factors that favour the setting up of multi purpose river projects:

i. Presence of constant strong flow of water.
ii. Presence of strong rocks to give a strong foundation.
iii. Presence of narrow steep sided gorge (deep valley).
iv. Presence of reliable market for HEP.

q) Transport in Ghana:

Ghana is located in a geographically strategic place. It has a coastline on the Atlantic Ocean. The seaports of Takoradi, Tema and Accra are all served by railways and roads.
There is some water transport on L. Volta and on some rivers. Most of the roads are affected by the heavy rains.

r) Mining:

Ghana was once famous for gold and salt but today there are deposits of Bauxite, diamonds, manganese and oil. Aluminum is got from Bauxite.

There are large deposits of bauxite at Awaso. Ghana exports Bauxite and imports Aluminum from USA. The Alumina is smelted at Tema by VALCO. Smelting Bauxite to Aluminum takes a lot of hydro electricity power.

s) Similarities between Ghana and Uganda:

i. Both depend on agriculture.
ii. Both carry out fishing.
iii. Both hare almost the same size.
iv. Both have almost the same population size.
v. Both grow cocoa.
vi. Both lie on the plateau.
vii. Both countries were colonised by the British.

t) Differences between Ghana and Uganda:

i. Uganda is in East Africa while Ghana is in West Africa.
ii. Uganda is landlocked while Ghana has seaports.
iii. Uganda is on a higher altitude than Ghana.

8. NIGERIA.

a) Brief history:

Nigeria is a former colony of the British. English is the official language spoken.
The capital city is Abuja.

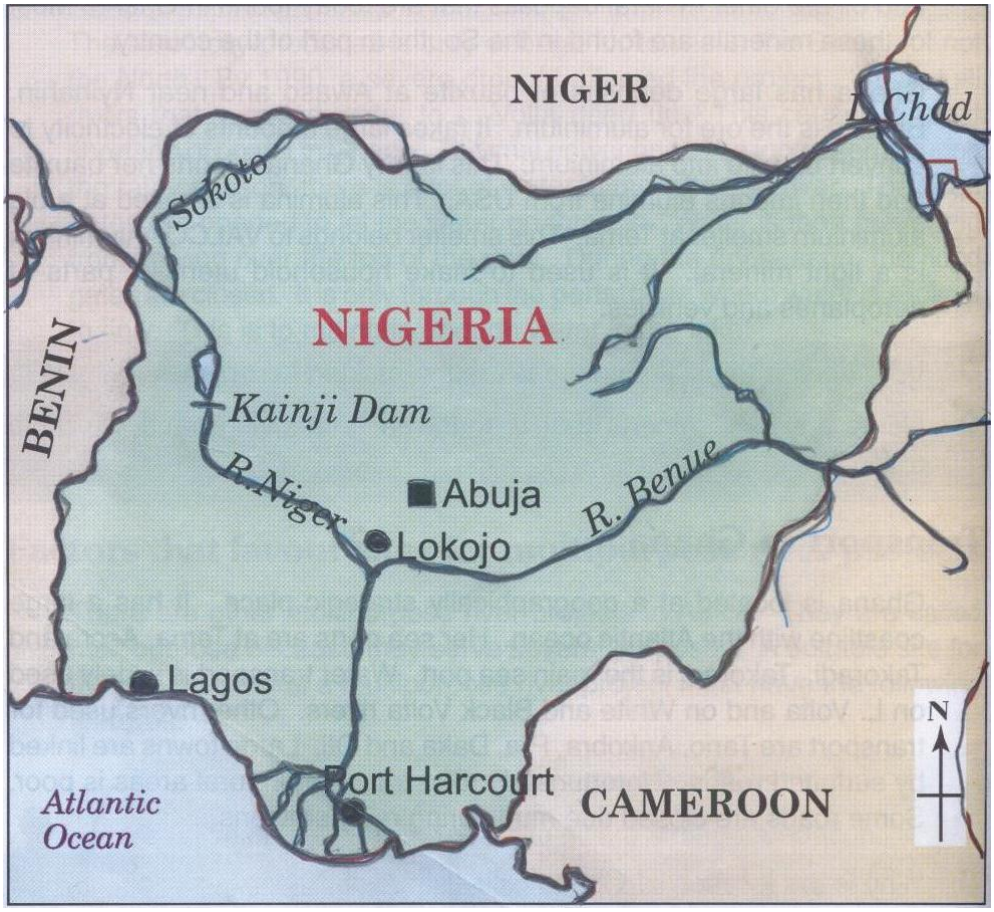
Nigeria has been until recently ruled by military dictators leading to her suspension from the Commonwealth of Nations until recently. Nigeria has the biggest population in Africa of over 136 million people (2007 figures).

b) Location of Nigeria:

Nigeria is found in West Africa. It lies to the North of the Equator and to the East of Greenwich. It is not landlocked since it borders the Atlantic Ocean.
Her neighbours are:

N – Niger.
E – Cameroon.
NE _ Chad.
W – Benin.
S – Atlantic Ocean.

MAP OF NIGERIA SHOWING LOCATION:



c) Climate and vegetation:

The Southern Margin and the coastal plain have thick mangrove forests. The equatorial zone also has thick forests. The forests turn into open grasslands as one moves to the North.

d) The people of Nigeria:

The main people of Nigeria are:

i.	Ibo.	iii.	Nupe.	v.	Fulani.
ii.	Yoruba.	iv.	Hausa.		

The Fulani are nomadic pastoralists who live in the North of the Country.

e) Mining in Nigeria:

Nigeria has large deposits of mineral wealth.
Some of her minerals are:

i.	Petroleum (oil).	iii.	Coal.	v.	Salt.
ii.	Gold.	iv.	Lead.	vi.	Tin.

f) Oil mining in Nigeria;

Oil is the most important mineral of Nigeria. It is found between layers of rocks in certain parts of the world. It was formed millions of years ago by dead sea creatures that sank to the sea bed and rotted forming oil and gas. The oil then moved upwards through porous rocks until it was stopped by non-porous rocks.

The search for oil in Nigeria started in 1937 but oil was discovered in 1956. Areas where oil is found are called oil fields and **oil fields** found in the sea are called **offshore oil fields**.
A place where oil is got out from is called an **oil well**.
Oil is drilled out by use of a derrick. Oil is mined in its natural form called **Crude oil**.
Oil is transported to the refinery by use of **pipelines**.

Nigeria's oil is refined at:

i.	Wari.	ii.	Kaduna.	iii.	Port Harcourt.

In the refinery, oil is pumped into a **fractionating column** where it is heated and separated in to various products in a process known as **fractionating distillation**.
The various products from oil are:

i.	Petrol (Gasoline).	vi.	Oil paints.	x.	Fertilizers.
ii.	Diesel.	vii.	Lubricants e.g.	xi.	Plastics.
iii.	Aviation fuel.		grease.	xii.	Drugs.
iv.	Kerosene.	viii.	Dyes.	xiii.	Tar (bitumen)
v.	Vaseline.	ix.	Insecticides.		

Nigeria is the leading oil producer in Africa. Nigeria exports her oil in huge tankers to:

i. USA.
ii. France.
iii. Britain.
iv. Italy
v. Netherlands.

Other oil producers in Africa are:

i. Libya.
ii. Algeria.
iii. Egypt.
iv. Morocco.
v. Angola.
vi. Gabon etc

g) Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC):

The oil exporting countries are united by the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). OPEC was formed in 1960.

The African members of OPEC are:

i. Nigeria.
ii. Algeria.
iii. Libya.

h) Objectives of OPEC:

i. To unite all oil producing countries.
ii. To co ordinate its members for better oil production.
iii. To regulate oil production and prices.
iv. To advocate for the rights of the members in matters relating to oil production and marketing.

i) Positive effects of mining to Nigeria:

i. Oil is the leading mineral export and foreign exchange earner.
ii. Oil industries have created employment.
iii. Social services have improved.
iv. Primary education was made free and compulsory.

j) Negative effects of mining to Nigeria:

i. Many foreigners have flocked to look for employment making Nigerians unemployed.
ii. Rural Urban migration has increased.
iii. Oil mining has caused pollution of air, water and land.
iv. There are fires from pipeline bursts.

Some of the oil companies in Uganda are:

i. Shell Uganda Ltd.
ii. Total.
iii. Caltex.
iv. Kobil.
v. Petro.
vi. AGIP.
vii. GAPCO etc

k) <u>Hydro energy in Nigeria:</u>

Nigeria is one of the leading industrialised countries in Africa. Nigeria gets most of her hydro electricity power from Kainji dam on R. Niger. It was constructed in 1957. L. Kainji was formed after the construction of the Kainji dam.

l) Importance of Kainji dam:

i. It provides hydro electricity power.
ii. It controls floods.
iii. It has created employment.
iv. It led to the formation of L. Kainji for fishing.
v. It led to the formation of L. Kainji for transport.
vi. It led to the formation of L. Kainji for tourism.
vii. It led to the formation of L. Kainji for recreation.

NB:
Transport has been improved on R. Niger after the destruction of the Bussa falls.

m) Agriculture in Nigeria:

Agriculture is the growing of crops or the keeping of animals.
Agricultural exports form an important part of Nigeria's exports.

Nigeria produces:

i. Palm oil.
ii. Rubber.
iii. Cocoa.
iv. Ground nuts _ Kano.

Palm oil is the chief cash crop of Nigeria.

n) Palm oil growing in Nigeria:

i. It requires heavy rainfall and high temperature.
ii. The soil should be sandy, acidic and well drained.
iii. The trees take three years to mature and the fruits take 6 months to ripen from flowering.
iv. The tree grows up to 14 – 16 metres tall.
v. Its fruits grow in bunches.
vi. During harvesting, the farmer climbs the tree with help of a belt and cuts the bunch.

The oil is found in the nuts. The nuts have a hard orange skin followed by a fibre like substance. In the pericarp are the shell and the kernel. The kernel is pounded into pulp and boiled. The oil is then skimmed off.
Palm oil is used for making:
i. Margarine.
ii. Candles.
iii. Palm wine.
iv. Materials for thatching and fuel.

o) Problems facing palm oil growing in Nigeria:

i. Harvesting needs a lot of labour (climbing trees).

ii. Pests and diseases.
iii. Changing climatic conditions.
iv. Fire outbreaks.
v. Poor transport of the produce.
vi. Farmers use wasteful local methods to obtain palm oil.

p) Rubber:

Nigeria is the second largest producer of rubber after Liberia in Africa. It does well in hot and wet lands. It requires heavy rainfall throughout the year with well-drained soils.
The bark of a rubber tree is cut and the white milky substance called latex is processed for export. It is used for making tyres and other rubber materials.

q) Cocoa:

Nigeria is the fourth largest producer of cocoa in the world.

r) Groundnuts:

Groundnuts are an important source of vegetable oil. It is produced in Northern Nigeria.

s) Pastoral farming in Northern Nigeria:

The Fulani and the Hausa occupy Northern Nigeria. The Fulani are nomadic pastoralists.
They spread up to Senegal and Chad.

The Fulani also practise transhumance i.e. the seasonal movement of people with their animals from one place to another.
They use horses for transport as they survey for pasture.

Cattle are used for:
i. Prestige.
ii. Bride price.
iii. Paying fines.
iv. Hides for shelter and foot wear.

The government wants the Fulani to settle so it's helping them ton fight tse tse flies and is encouraging them to take up mixed farming and irrigation.

t) Similarities between Nigeria and Uganda:

i. Both of them are former colonies of Britain.

u) Differences between Nigeria and Uganda:

i. Nigeria is in West Africa while Uganda is in East Africa.
ii. Nigeria is much larger than Uganda in size.
iii. Nigeria has a seaport whereas Uganda doesn't have.

iv. Nigeria mines oil while Uganda doesn't.
v. Nigeria is more industrialised than Uganda.
vi. Nigeria has a higher population than Uganda.
vii. Nigeria is on a lower altitude than Uganda.

9. LIBYA.

a) Brief history:

Libya was colonised by Italy in 1911but when the Italian army was defeated in the Second World War in 1943, Britain and France took over the control of Libya.

Libya got her independence on 24th December 1951 under the leadership of King Muhammad Idris Al- Serussi. Idris was overthrown by army officers led by Col. Muamar Gadhafi who is the current president.

b) Position:

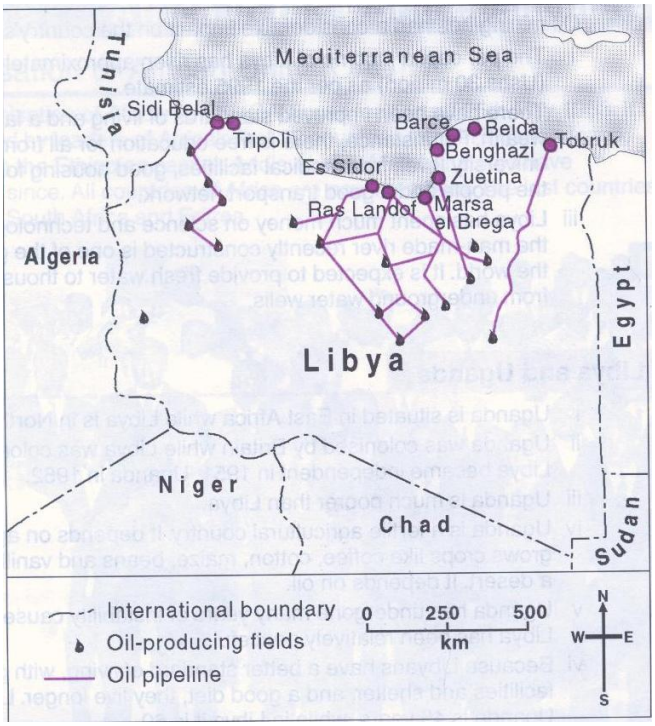
Libya is located in North Africa. It is crossed by the Tropic of cancer.
The capital city is Tripoli.

It is not a landlocked country because it borders the Mediterranean Sea to the North. There are no lakes and rivers in Libya apart from the man made river that is in pipeline form.

Her neighbours are:

E – Egypt.
S. E – Sudan.
S – Chad.
W – Algeria.
N W – Tunisia.
N- Mediterranean Sea.
S W _ Niger

MAP OF LIBYA SHOWING POSITION AND MINING:



c) Climate and vegetation:

Libya lies in the desert so there's mainly desert climate. There is also Mediterranean climate at the coast that is suitable for citrus fruit growing. Only 1% of Libya is suitable for farming and that is at the coast.

In the desert, life is only possible at the Oases where some little water and vegetation can be found. The vegetation is mainly cactus, which have thick leaves to store water.

Camels are mainly used for transport in the desert and air transport is also used to fly some supplies to the oil fields in the desert.

d) The people of Libya:

Most people in Libya are Muslim Arabs. The population is about 5 million (1993).
The population density is 2. 9 persons per km^2

The income par capita is estimated at $ 30,000.
The language spoken is Arabic.

The Tuaregs are nomadic pastoralists who move from oasis to oasis to find water for their animals i.e. sheep, goats and camels.

Crops grown include dates, olives, oranges, wheat, vines etc.

e) Oil mining in Libya:

Before the discovery of oil in 1959, Libya depended on fishing along the coast. Other people just wandered over the vast Sahara desert with their sheep, goats and camels.
Libya depends on oil only. Oil is pumped to the coastal ports for refining and export.

Libya exports her oil to:

i. USA. ii. France. iii. Italy. iv. Britain.

Most countries buy Libya's oil because:
i. It is of high quality i.e. it contains less sulphur that causes pollution.
ii. Libya is nearer to Europe so it is cheaper.

Libya's main ports are:

i. Marsa El Brega (main).
ii. Tripoli.
iii. Es Sidor.
iv. Ras Landof.
v. Benghazi.
vi. Barce.
vii. Tobruk.
viii. Sidi Belal.
ix. Zuetina.
x. Beida.

f) Benefits of oil mining in Libya.

i. It is a major foreign exchange earner.
ii. It has led to the development of infrastructure.
iii. It has led to the industrialization of Libya.
iv. It has created employment for the people of Libya.
v. It supplies cheap fuel to the nation.
vi. It has enabled Libya to offer her people free social services like transport, medical care, housing and education that is free and compulsory from primary up to university.
vii. It has enabled Libya to construct a man-made river to supply fresh water for domestic use and irrigation.

Libya has been able to develop faster than Nigeria because Libya has a lower population.

g) Problems faced by Libya:

i. Most European countries think that Libya supports terrorism.
ii. Some countries are unhappy about the Sharia rule in Libya. .
iii. Sometimes trade sanctions / embargoes are imposed on Libya.

h) Problems caused by the oil industry:

i. It has attracted many foreign workers to work in Libya but they siphon foreign exchange to their home countries.
ii. Her earnings are affected by price fluctuations on the world market since it depends entirely on oil.
iii. It is expensive to extract oil.
iv. Most people work in the oil industry so there is shortage of labour in other sectors like agriculture.
v. Oil mining leads to air, water and land pollution.

NB: Fossil fuels are **Petroleum**, **Natural gas** and **Coa**l.

i) Tourism in Libya:

Tourists are attracted to Libya by:

i. The man-made river.
ii. The desert (sand dunes).
iii. Oases.
iv. Camels.
v. Mediterranean climate.

Most people in Libya live in the North along the coast because:
i. There is employment in the oil industries.
ii. There is trade.
iii. There is fishing.
iv. There is favourable climate.
v. There are better social services.
There are no similarities between Libya and Uganda.

j) Differences between Libya and Uganda:

i. Uganda is in East Africa while Libya is in North Africa.
ii. Uganda is landlocked while Libya is not.
iii. Libya mines oil while Uganda doesn't.
iv. Uganda was colonised by Britain whereas Libya was colonised by Italy.
v. Uganda has a better climate than Libya.
vi. Uganda has a higher population than Libya.

THE NILE VALLEY COUNTRIES:

The Nile valley countries consist of the countries through which the Nile and its tributaries flow i.e.

i. Uganda, ii. Sudan. iii. Egypt. iv. Ethiopia.

There are several economic activities carried out in the Nile valley:

i. Crop farming.
ii. Hydropower production.
iii. Tourism.
iv. Fishing.
v. Transport.
vi. Industrialization.

Importance of the Nile to the Nile valley countries:

i. It is used for the generation of hydro electricity power.
ii. It is used for navigation (transport).
iii. It provides water for domestic, industrial use and irrigation.
iv. It generates foreign exchange through tourism.
v. It provides fish.

The leading cash crop of the Nile valley is **cotton**.

The Nile is called the White Nile in Sudan. The while Nile begins from the border with Uganda (Nimule) and is full of suds.

The volume of water in the Nile is ever constant because its source is in a place that receives heavy rainfall throughout the year.

Egypt depends on the Nile so much so that it has been called the '**Life blood of Egypt'**.

10. EGYPT.

a) Brief history:

Egypt is officially known as the Arab Republic of Egypt. Egypt is said be where ancient civilization in Africa started along the Nile valley.

The Egyptians are believed to be the first people to make a calendar by studying the sun, moon and the stars. They also had a picture handwriting called Hieroglyphics. They used a shadoof for irrigation.

Egypt was colonised by the British in 1882 but gained her independence in 1922 becoming the first country to get independence in Africa.

b) Location of Egypt:

Egypt is found in North Africa. The capital city is Cairo, the most populated city in Africa (6,663,000 people). Most of the people in Egypt are Muslims. Arabic is the official and national language.

Egypt is not landlocked. It has coastlines on both the Red and Mediterranean seas.
Her neighbours are:
N – Mediterranean Sea.
E – Red Sea.
NE – Israel.
S – Sudan.
W – Libya.

MAP OF EGYPT SHOWING LOCATION:



c) Climate of Egypt:

The climate is mainly desert since 96% of Egypt is desert. The deserts in Egypt include the Sahara desert, Libyan desert and the Arabian desert.

Vegetation in Egypt is found along the:

i. Nile delta. ii. Nile valley. iii. Oases.

d) Agriculture:

Many Egyptians carry out crop farming and animal rearing. The peasants are called **Fellahin**. The leading cash crops are:

i. Cotton.
ii. Sugar canes.
iii. Water melons.
iv. Tomatoes.
v. Maize.
vi. Millet.
vii. Barley.
viii. Onions.
ix. Vegetables.
x. Citrus fruits.
xi. Mangoes.
xii. Dates.
xiii. Figs.
xiv. Grapes etc.

Farm yields in Egypt are very high because:

i. The government has reclaimed more land.
ii. The government has used the Aswan high dam water for irrigation.
iii. Fertilizers are applied.
iv. Agriculture has been mechanised.

e) The Aswan High dam:

The Aswan High dam was built on the Nile in Egypt. It is the biggest dam on the Nile. It was completed in 1970. A small dam had been constructed in 1903.

f) Reasons for the construction of the Aswan High dam:

i. To generate hydro electricity power.
ii. To control floods.
iii. To supply water for irrigation to grow food for the high population.
iv. To create a water source for both domestic and industrial use.
v. To create a source of fish i.e. L. Nasser.
vi. To control the wastage of water once the Nile flooded.

g) Advantages of the Aswan high dam:

i. It generates hydro electricity.
ii. It has created employment.
iii. A lot of land has been irrigated. Crops can now be grown all the year (3 times a year) i.e. perennial irrigation.
iv. It has increased chances of multi cropping.
v. Electric pumps are now used to pump water to far places.
vi. It has led to the reclamation of land from the desert.

h) Disadvantages of the Aswan High dam:

i. The fertile soils no longer go to the areas near the dam. They only go to L. Nasser so fertilizers have to be used.
ii. The amount of water at the delta has reduced affecting the fishing industry negatively.
iii. It has led to the increase in evaporation.
iv. The soil that was good for making bricks is no longer there.
v. Many people have been displaced.
vi. Many people are affected by bilharzia in areas of perennial irrigation.

i) Mining in Egypt:

The chief mineral of Egypt is oil. It is mainly mined from the Gulf of Suez. The biggest oil field is called Ramathan. Oil and gas are transported using pipelines.
Egypt also mines:

i. Natural gas.
ii. Salt.
iii. Iron ore.
iv. Uranium.
v. Phosphates (for making fertilizers).

Iron ore and Uranium are mined at Aswan.

j) Importance of mining in Egypt:

i. It provides employment to the people of Egypt.
ii. It provides raw materials for industries.
iii. It earns foreign exchange through exportation.

k) Industrial development in Egypt:

Egypt is the second most industrialised nation in Africa after South Africa.
Most o f the industries are located in

i. Port Said. ii. Cairo. iii. Alexandria.

Egypt encouraged industrialization by creating free trade zones in the Suez and Delta regions.
Industrial exports are used to buy food.

The big population of over 60 million people provides market for goods and labour industries.
Some of Egypt's most important industrial products are:

i.	Textiles.	iv.	Steel.	vii.	Cement.
ii.	Sugar.	v.	Fertilizers.	viii.	Motor vehicles.
iii.	Sulphuric acid.	vi.	Paper.	ix.	Tele vision sets.

Other industrial activities in Egypt include:
i. Motor vehicle assembling.
ii. Petroleum refining.
iii. Steel making.
There are also small-scale industries:

i.	Leather tanning.	iv.	Handicrafts.
ii.	Brewing.	v.	Flour milling.
iii.	Pottery.	vi.	Food processing etc.

l) Factors that led to the industrial expansion in Egypt:

i. The supply of hydro electricity by the Aswan high dam.
ii. The discovery and the exploitation of oil.
iii. The large population has provided market for local goods.
iv. The government policy to expand the industrial sector.
v. The availability of raw materials e.g. cotton, iron etc.
vi. There is political stability.
vii. Good working relations with Israel, USA and the European countries.
viii. The high population has provided labour.
ix. The provision of technical education at both primary and secondary levels.

m) Transport and communication in Egypt:

i. There is a railway line that links the Aswan to areas of Alexandria.
ii. There is water transport on the Nile, L. Nasser, Mediterranean and Red seas.
iii. The Suez Canal was opened to connect the Red Sea to the Mediterranean Sea. It was opened in 1969 by Queen Elizabeth of England.

The main seaports of Egypt are:

i. Port Said. ii. Alexandria. iii. Port Suez.

There are some roads. Camels are also used.
There is air transport also. The country has over 75 airfields.

Egypt's communication is one the most developed in the world.

11. SUDAN.

a) Brief history:

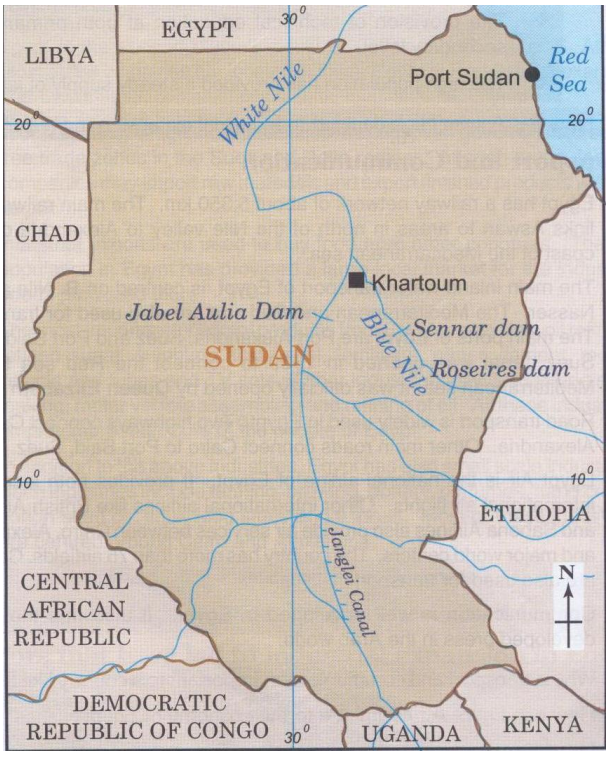
Sudan was colonised by Anglo-Egyptians (British and Egyptians).
Sudan got her independence in 1956 under the leadership of General Ibrahim Abboud.
Today, Sudan is a member of the Arab league. It's an Islamic state ruled by the Sharia.

b) Position:

Sudan is the largest country in Africa with an area of 2,506,000 km2. It is found to the North of Uganda. It is not landlocked because it borders the Red Sea.
The chief seaport is **Port Sudan**. The capital city is **Khartoum**.
Her neighbours are:

N – Egypt.
NW – Libya.
W – Chad.
SW – Central African Republic.
NE – Red Sea.
S – DR Congo, Uganda, Kenya.
E – Eritrea, Ethiopia.

LOCATION OF SUDAN:



c) Relief and climate:

Most of Sudan lies on the plateau and there are some mountain ranges towards the Red Sea. There are no lakes in Sudan. River Nile and its tributaries flow through it. It has a coastline with the Red Sea therefore it's not landlocked.
The North lies on the desert and has desert climate. There is a small area in the South with tropical climate.

d) Transport:

There is a railway line and there is water transport also on the Nile where there are no suds. There is an international airport at Omdurman. Camels are the chief means of transport. The Janglei canal was constructed to avoid the suds on the White Nile.

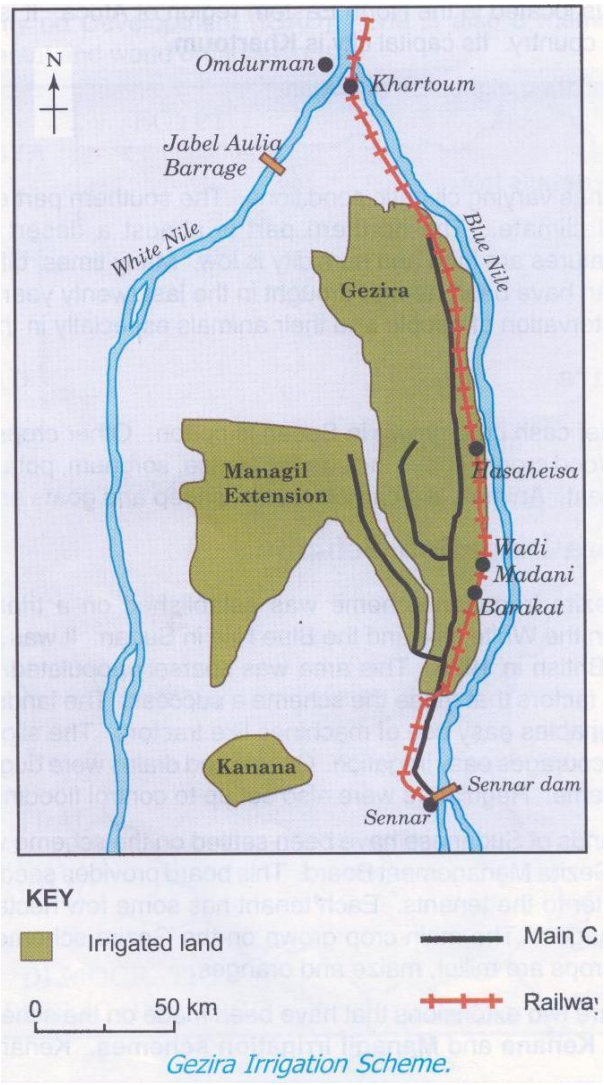
e) Farming:

Farming in Sudan is dependent on the Nile. Dams have been constructed on the Nile and its tributaries to supply water for irrigation.
Cotton is the main cash crop and export crop. It is mainly grown on the Gezira irrigation scheme. Most industries in Sudan deal with the processing of cotton.
Other cash crops grown are:

i. Gum Arabic.
ii. Groundnuts (Managil extension)
iii. Sugar cane (Kenana)
iv. Wheat (Rahad)

Cattle, goats and sheep are also kept.

IRRIGATION IN SUDAN:



Gezira Irrigation Scheme.

f) The Gezira irrigation scheme:

It is the largest irrigation scheme in the world. It is found between the White and the Blue Nile. The Gezira was started by the British in 1925 when the Sennar dam had been built. More water for the dam was got from the Rosoires dam that was built on the Blue Nile in 1966.
Managil extension was started in 1966. It grows groundnuts mainly and cotton.

g) Factors that helped to start the scheme:

i. Availability of water from the Sennar dam.
ii. The soil doesn't silt.
iii. The area is flat so machines can be used.
iv. The area slopes gently from the Blue Nile to the White Nile allowing easy gravitational flow of water.

h) Why it was not easy to start the Gezira irrigation scheme:

i. It wasn't easy to get water from the Nile before the dams were built.
ii. There was lack of labour because it wasn't easy to change the nomads to crop farming.

The Gezira has about 76,000 people. Each tenant farmer has about 40 feddans. A feddan is less than a half hectare. The farmer grows food crops. The chief food crop is millet (dura) and sorghum (lubia). The Gezira board of management:

i. Provides seeds to the farmers.
ii. Provides fertilizers to the farmers.
iii. Collects the crop and sells it.
iv. Distributes the money to the farmers.

The tenant farmers:

i. Plant, weed, spray and harvest the cotton.
ii. Remove the plant residue material and burn to control pests.
iii. Practise crop rotation and keep livestock.

i) Problems of the Gezira irrigation scheme:

i. The scheme spends a lot of money in maintenance i.e. spare parts for the machinery.
ii. Fluctuation of cotton prices on the world market.
iii. Pests e.g. cotton stainer, ball warms, and leafhopper.
iv. Diseases e. g leaf curl and black arm.
v. Farmers are attacked by diseases like bilharzias.

j) Advantages of irrigation:

i. Crops are grown all the year round since there is no need to wait for rainfall.
ii. Crops are not destroyed by storms.
iii. Crops get enough water since the water supply is controllable.
iv. Harvesting is easy.
v. Crops are not so much attacked by diseases due to the aridity of the place.

k) Kenana irrigation scheme:

The main crop is sugar cane. 300,000 tones of sugar are produced annually. Water for the scheme is got from the Rosoires dam.

l) Rahad irrigation scheme:

It is near the Gezira. The main crops are wheat and cotton.

12. ETHIOPIA.

a) Brief history:

Ethiopia was not colonised. The Italians who had tried were defeated in the battle of Adowa. The headquarters of the OAU / AU are in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in recognition of Ethiopia's resistance against colonial rule.

Ethiopia was not colonised because:

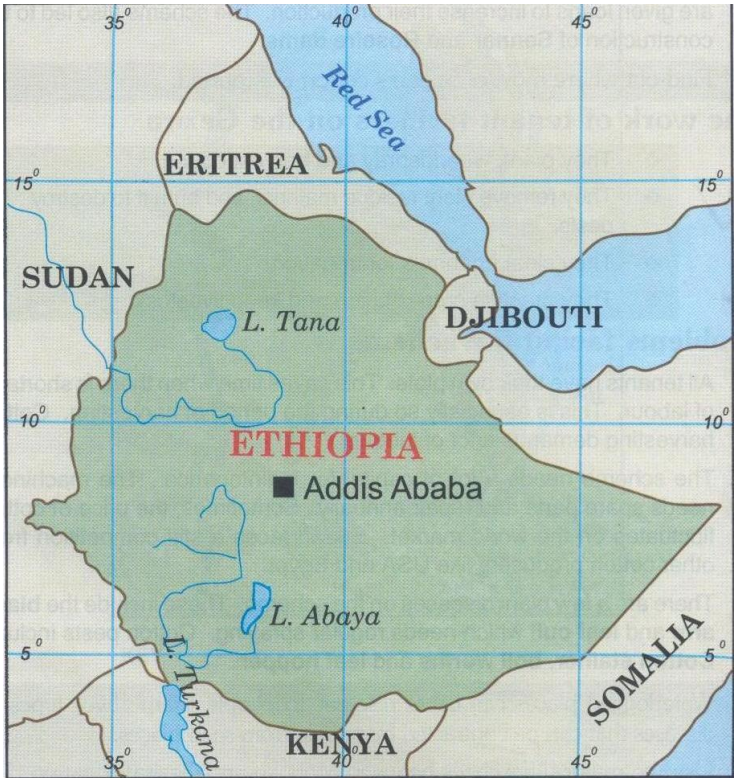
i. It had strong rulers like Menelik, Haile salassie etc.
ii. It is mountainous.
iii. The people were united.
iv. It had a strong army.

b) Location:

Ethiopia is found in Northeast Africa. It became landlocked in 1993 when Eritrea became independent.
Ethiopia lies between 3^0 N & 18^0N and 33^0E & 48^0E.
Her neighbours are:

N – Eritrea.
W – Sudan.
S – Kenya.
E – Somalia.
N E – Djibouti.

LOCATION OF ETHIOPIA:



c) Relief and climate:

80% of Ethiopia is covered by highlands (mountains) making the most mountainous country in Africa. Most parts receive mountain climate with cool temperatures and plenty of rainfall.

There are some rivers that start from the Ethiopian highlands e. g. the Blue Nile that starts from L. Tana in Ethiopia. There are two lakes i.e. L. Tana and L. Abaya.

Road and railway transport are not developed in Ethiopia because.

i. The place is mountainous.
ii. There is a rift valley.
iii. There are thick forests.
iv. There are many waterlogged areas.

Forests are being cleared in Ethiopia resulting in the recent/ current drought that has hit Ethiopia. Air transport should be developed, animals should be used and winding roads should also e constructed.

d) Farming:

Ethiopia is an agricultural country. Ethiopia has rich volcanic soils with reliable rainfall throughout the year. The main cash crop is coffee. Other crops are barley and wheat.

Food crops are maize, beans, millet, fruits and cassava etc.
Ethiopians were traditionally pastoralists but they changed to mixed farming. They keep cattle, sheep, goats and donkeys.

e) Problems faced by the farmers in Ethiopia:

i. Lack of near and ready market for farmers' produce.
ii. The mountainous terrain does not permit modern/-mechanized agriculture.
iii. There is soil erosion.
iv. Processing industries are not enough so:
    - Farmers should be taught and helped to control soil erosion.
    - Investors should be attracted to set up processing industries.

TOPIC 9:

AFRICA'S CHALLENGES:

Africa is one of the least developed continents of the world. The continent is less industrialised. Many people are illiterate. Medical care is not enough. Diseases are rampant and few people eat balanced diet.

The continent exports unprocessed goods that are cheap and unreliable while on the other hand the continent imports manufactured goods that are expensive.

The **Gross National Produce** per person is low (GNP). ***The GNP par capita is the total value of goods produced and services provided divided by the total number of people.***

The GNP is assessed by considering the country's health conditions, life expectancy, education, diet, population growth etc.

However, Africa's major challenges are:

i. Illiteracy:

Most people can't read and write. This makes modern development difficult.

ii. Famine:

Many parts of Africa are hit by famine e.g. Somalia, Ethiopia, Sudan etc.
Causes of famine:

i. Drought.
ii. War.
iii. Laziness.
iv. Cultural beliefs.
v. Religious beliefs.

iii. Foreign debt:

Most African countries depend on foreign donors. The loans have to be paid but government officials misuse the money.

iv. Civil wars:

Many African countries are engaged in border conflicts, civil wars, etc. wars lead to loss of life (Rwanda genocide), destruction of infrastructure, refugees and disruption of economic activities.

v. Refugees:

They are people who have been forced to leave their homeland due to problems beyond their control. The main cause of refugees in Africa is civil wars. UNHCR takes care of the refugees.

vi. Low life expectancy:

Life expectancy refers to the number of years an average person born in a certain country is expected to live. Poor medical care and poor feeding are main causes of low life expectancy. HIV/ AIDS is just worsening.

vii. Poor transport and communication:

Poor roads hinder development by making the transportation of farmers' produce to the buying centres impossible leading to the rising of food prices in urban areas.

viii. Low technology:

Africa can't do things like heart transplant etc. most of the work is still done by hand labour.

ix. Biting poverty:

Most people in Africa carry out subsistence farming that doesn't generate income. There is also a lot of unemployment.

x. Rampant diseases:

There are many diseases affecting people in Africa the worst being HIV/ AIDS.

Indicators of development in a country:

i. Heavy industrialization.
ii. Long life expectancy.
iii. Controlled inflation.
iv. Good social services.
v. Increased income per person.

vi. Wide spread urbanization.
vii. Political stability.
viii. Maximum utilization of resources.

Indicators of underdevelopment in a country:

i. Biting poverty.
ii. Rampant diseases.
iii. Corruption.
iv. Poor leadership (dictatorship)
v. Poor roads.
vi. High levels of illiteracy.

Comparison between the poor and rich countries:

NO	POOR COUNTRIES	RICH COUNTRIES
1	Produce less manufactured goods and services	Produce more manufactured goods and services
2	Depend on loans and grants from developed countries.	Have a lot of income due to manufacturing.
3	There is a lot of unemployment.	There are a lot of employment opportunities.
4	Have abundant resources but can't exploit them.	Most of their resources have been exploited; have to buy from poor countries.
5	Depend on crafts in industries.	Have developed industries.
6	Use a lot of manual labour	Use modern technology
7	People work for long hours a day but gain little.	People work for short periods a day and gain much.

Africa's way forward (How to solve her problems):

i. By promoting good governance:

Most of Africa's problems are caused by bad leadership. Democratically elected presidents should protect people's rights and promote good governance.

ii. By modernising agriculture:

Africa largely depends on farming but farmers still use poor traditional methods. Farming should be modernised. Research stations should be set up in farming areas and research findings should be delivered to farmers.

iii. By promoting unity among people:

Leaders should avoid nepotism; tribalism and corruption etc. public jobs should be given to people with the right qualifications.

iv. By modernising infrastructure:

It's difficult for Africa to develop without infrastructure. Roads and communication lines should be extended to all parts of the continent and especially rural areas. More power stations should also be set up to promote industrialization.

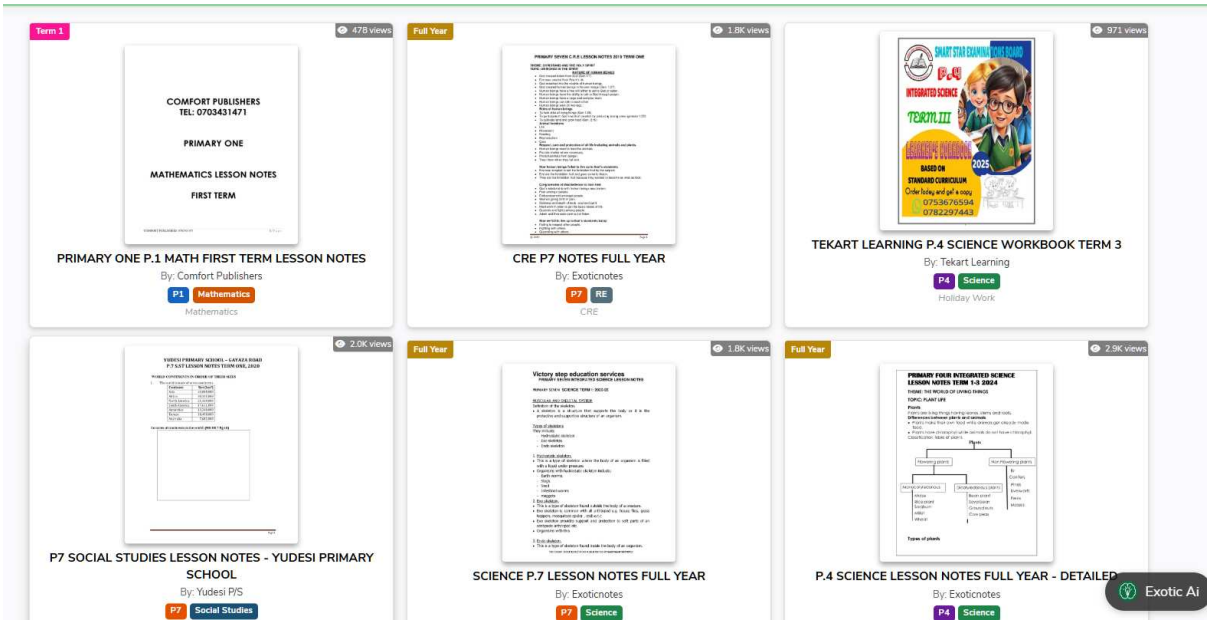
v. By promoting education:

Education forms the foundation of development in a country. More schools technical institutions and colleges should be established. Universal primary education and adult literacy campaigns should be promoted.

vi. By improving life expectancy:

Governments lose a lot when their citizens die at an early age. Health and diet sensitization and creation of a healthy environment and promotion of nutritious food production, and using peaceful means of solving conflicts should be encouraged. Medical care and political stability also promote life expectation.

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