



# Southern and Eastern Africa

**Scott Pearson**  
**Professor Emeritus**  
**Stanford University**

This essay is drawn from eight lectures that I presented in Southern and Eastern Africa during the past two decades. In each talk, I deal with political, economic, and cultural dimensions of African history.

I begin with South Africa (written in 2008). I first discuss the settlement of South Africa, the pattern of Afrikaner 19<sup>th</sup>-century expansion, and British colonization. Then I seek to explain the causes and overthrow of Apartheid and how its legacies constrain South Africa. I next turn to Namibia (2003), looking at how southwestern Africa was settled, the impact of German and South African colonization, and the challenges facing independent Namibia. I move on to Madagascar (2012) and investigate the Malagasy settlement of that unique island, the rise and fall of the Merina Empire, the legacies of French colonial rule, and the political cycles and economic decline in independent Madagascar. Next I examine the explorations of David Livingstone and Henry M. Stanley (2008) and the consequences of British conquests in southern and eastern Africa (2008). I wind up with an analysis of political and economic development in independent Tanzania (2015). I

append a time line, a bibliography, and a description of sites that I have visited in Southern and Eastern Africa.

### **South Africa – Settlement and Conflict (1652-1902)**

**South Africa's First Inhabitants.** The original inhabitants of Southern Africa were the small, light-skinned Khoisan peoples, who practiced a hunter-gatherer way of life in the western regions of the area. They were permanently on the move in loose social associations that would fragment or coalesce depending on the environment's ability to sustain them. The San peoples maintained their hunter-gatherer lifestyle, but the Khoikhoi gradually adopted pastoralist practices from peoples further to the north.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Buschm%C3%A4nner\\_\(Namibia\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Buschm%C3%A4nner_(Namibia).jpg)>

### *San Men and Boys – Southern Africa's First People*

Due to the greater availability of meat and the introduction of dairy products into their diets, the Khoikhoi peoples grew taller and stronger. Their transhumant mode of production allowed temporary settlements leading to stronger political institutions, enabling the Khoikhoi pastoralists to dominate the San hunter-gatherers.

Bantu-speaking groups migrated from East and Central Africa to the eastern part of Southern Africa, bringing mixed-farming practices



and technologies for extracting and using copper and iron. They lived in permanent settlements, practicing both slash-and-burn agriculture and cattle production. This pattern enabled the development of strong, lineage-based social and political structures, eventually leading to a number of large, powerful kingdoms (notably the Zulu and the Xhosa).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Zulu\\_dancers.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Zulu_dancers.jpg)>

### *Bantu-speaking Zulu Dancers – Kwazulu Natal Province, South Africa*

By the time Europeans arrived in Southern Africa, these three groups – the San hunter-gatherers, the Khoikhoi pastoralists, and the Bantu mixed-farmers – had developed complex political and economic

relationships. Pastoralists and mixed farmers, in particular, were readily assimilated into each other's groups, extending familial loyalties and alliances as well as trade networks. Copper and iron trade occurred. But the most important metric of status and wealth was cattle.

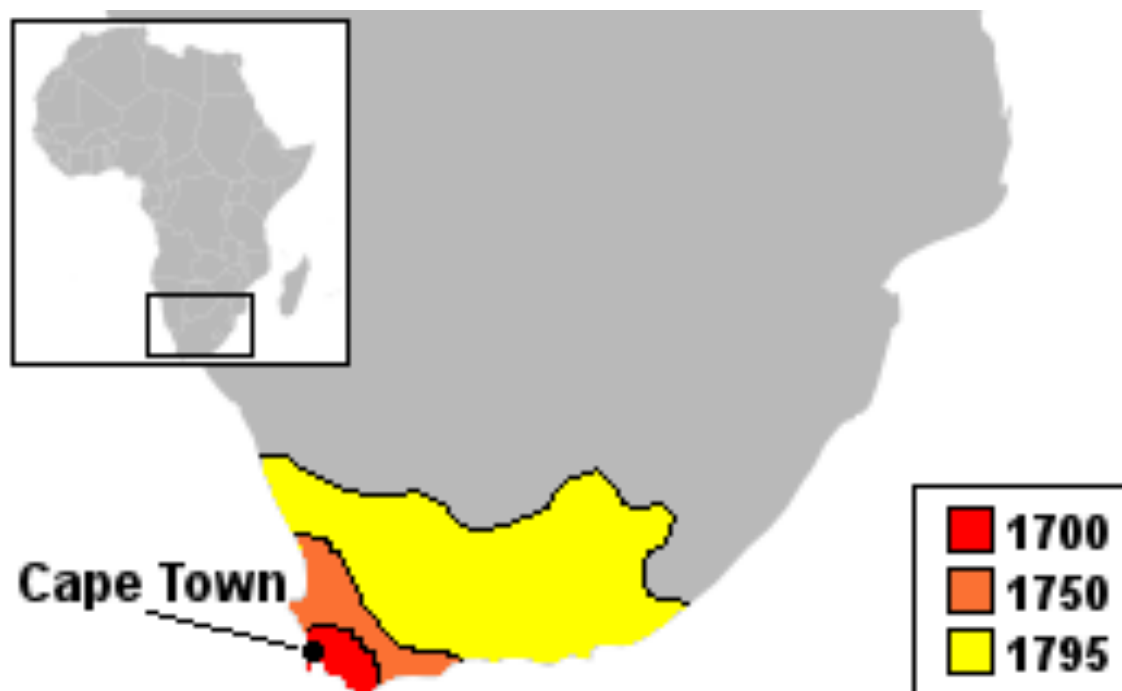
**European Arrival in South Africa.** Following Vasco da Gama's first trip around the Cape of Good Hope in 1498, the Portuguese and later the English used the area as a provisioning stop, but did not create a permanent settlement. The Dutch East India Company sent Jan van Riebeeck in 1652 to establish a settlement for the purpose of stocking Company ships on the way from the Netherlands to the East Indies.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Aernout\\_Smit\\_Table\\_Bay,\\_1683\\_William\\_Fehr\\_Collection\\_Cape\\_Town.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Aernout_Smit_Table_Bay,_1683_William_Fehr_Collection_Cape_Town.jpg)>

*Ships of the Dutch East India Company in Table Bay, Cape Town, 1683*

Although the settlement was only intended to be a small base, the colony expanded beyond the control of the Dutch East India Company. A few of the employees were given the status of free citizens and some land in the Cape. At the settlers' request, the Company imported slaves to assist in agriculture. Initially the settlers and original inhabitants tolerated and assisted each other. But eventually the settlers came to dominate the pastoralists, taking their land and cattle and forcing many of them into servitude.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Dutch\\_Cape\\_Colony.png](https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Dutch_Cape_Colony.png)>

*Dutch Settlement in the Cape – In 1700, 1750 and 1795*

When Britain grew more powerful at the expense of the Dutch in the 18th century, Britain decided in 1795 to take over the Cape colony to prevent it from falling into French hands. In 1815, British sovereignty over the colony was agreed to by European powers.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cape\\_Peninsula.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cape_Peninsula.jpg)>

### *The British Defeated the Dutch at the Battle of Muizenberg, 1795*

However, Britain had little interest in the region and expended a minimum of time and resources on its administration. The original



Dutch settlers and the few English who now joined them thus were left free to develop the colony as they wished. Although Britain abolished the slave trade (1807) and then slavery (1833) in its dominions, race relations in Southern Africa did not change. The settlers, instead, became adept at drafting laws and requirements that maintained a racial system in practice, even though they complied superficially with British, non-racial legislation.

**Afrikaner Expansion.** In the eastern region, the Zulu kingdom under Shaka came to dominate its neighbors and grew into a powerful and aggressive entity. Shaka's policy of disrupting neighboring chiefdoms led to mass population movements known as the *Mfecane*, leaving vast areas of central Southern Africa very sparsely populated. This temporary phenomenon led to the Afrikaner mythology that the Voortrekkers entered an empty, unclaimed territory when they moved inland from the Cape.

As the European colonists moved further east, they came into contact and conflict with the Bantu peoples. The process of conquest was similar in each instance. An initial attack against the invaders

would be successful in driving them back, but eventually superior weaponry would give the settlers the upper hand against the Africans. The colonists would focus their efforts on destroying the Africans' food supplies, forcing them into submission to avert starvation.

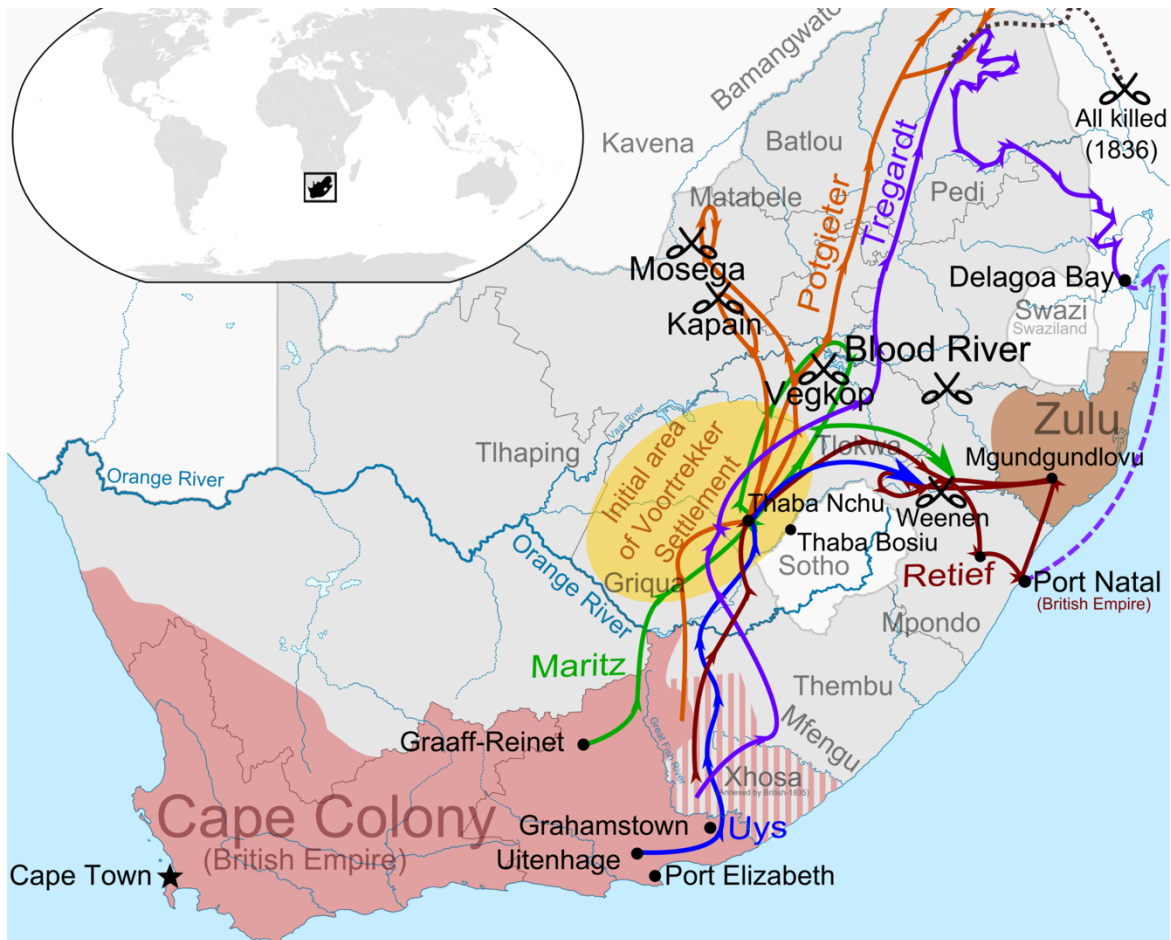


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:TrekBoers\\_crossing\\_the\\_Karoo.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:TrekBoers_crossing_the_Karoo.jpg)>

*The Afrikaner Great Trek, 1835-1840 – Trekboers Crossing the Karoo,  
Painting by Charles Davidson Bull, 1898*

Although the British paid minimal attention to the Cape colony, their policies were resented by most of the original settlers – the Dutch-speaking population who had begun to identify themselves as Afrikaners. In 1835, 5,000 Afrikaners embarked on what was later

called the Great Trek – a mass migration inland to establish their own territories, beyond the control of the British administration in the Cape.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Great\\_Trek\\_map\\_full.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Great_Trek_map_full.png)>

### *Afrikaner Great Trek, 1835-1840*

The Afrikaners proclaimed the Natal Republic in 1842. The British, concerned with Afrikaner autonomy, occupied Port Natal and annexed the Republic to the Cape Colony. In response, the Afrikaners moved further inland and established the Orange Free State (1854) and

the Transvaal Republic (1860). However, because those independent areas relied on imports, especially guns and ammunition, through British areas, they were at the mercy of the British Empire.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:BoerGriquaRepublics.svg>>

*The Afrikaner Republics in 1860 – Natal, Orange Free State, Transvaal  
(South African Republic)*

**Diamonds, Gold, and War.** The discovery of vast quantities of diamonds (Kimberley, 1867) and gold (Witwatersrand, near Johannesburg, 1886) in the north-central region of South Africa propelled South Africa into a position of global economic importance.





Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Open\\_pit\\_mine.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Open_pit_mine.jpg)>

*“The Big Hole,” Kimberley – Mined for Diamonds, 1867-1914*

By 1899, the gold mines around Johannesburg were producing 28 percent of the world’s output of gold. In Kimberly and Johannesburg, the racial systems already in place in South Africa were adopted by the mining industry. Black laborers were restricted to mining camps, where they were housed in all-male compounds. Their wages were minimal, their opportunities for advancement were nil, and pension and disability

programs did not exist. Whites received high wages, had higher-level jobs reserved for them, and received generous benefits.

The British became more interested in the affairs of the Southern African colonies and states. Threatened by the rise of other industrial powers, such as the United States and Germany, and concerned about Afrikaner dominance in the gold- and diamond producing-areas, the British pressured the Afrikaner Republics to give English-speaking populations a greater say in politics. In 1877, the British annexed the Transvaal, although military pressure from the Afrikaners led them to relinquish the territory in 1881.



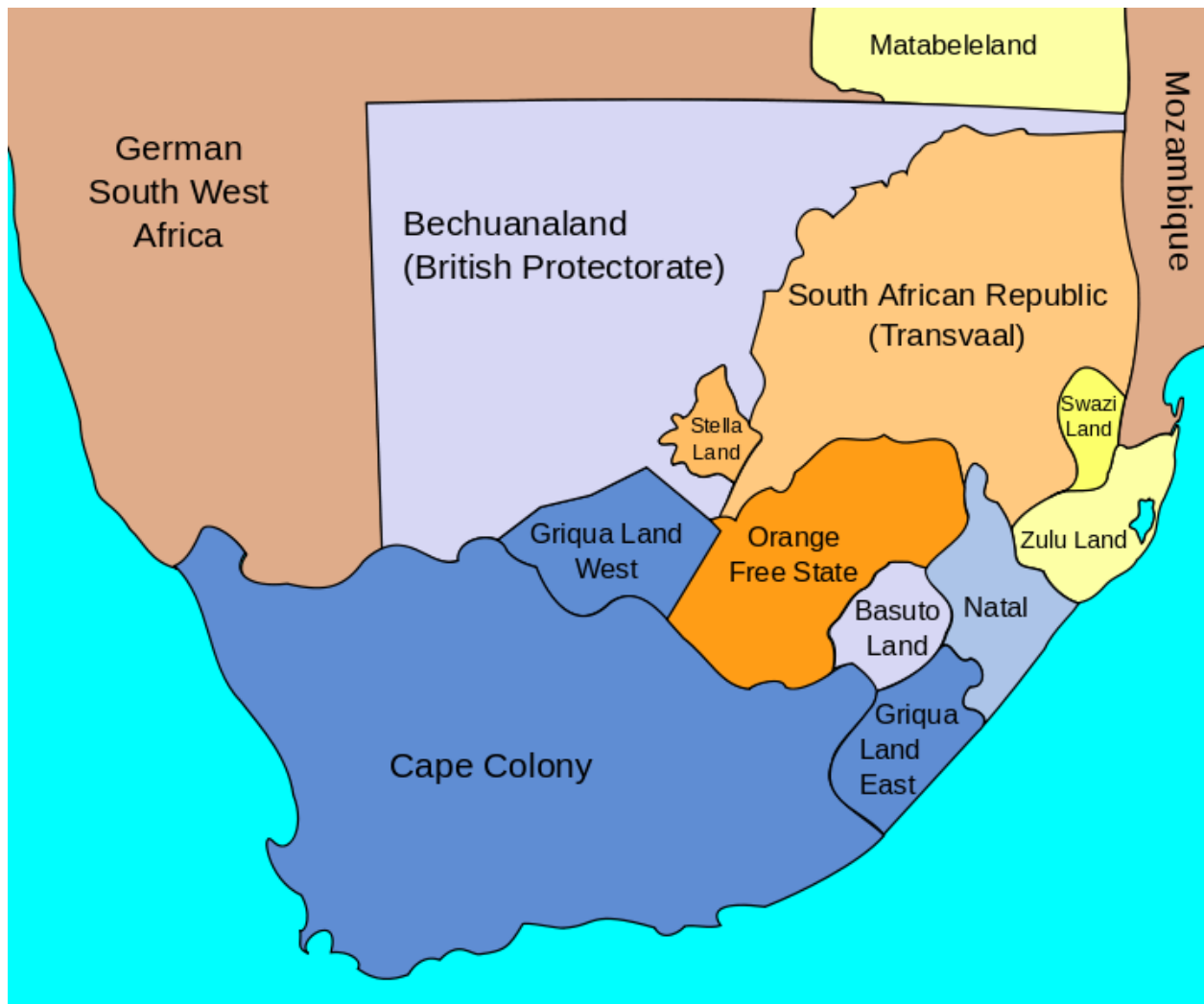


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:SA1899\\_pg268\\_Commissioner\\_Street,\\_Johannesburg.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:SA1899_pg268_Commissioner_Street,_Johannesburg.jpg)>

*Wealthy, Booming Johannesburg, Center of Gold-mining –  
Commissioner Street, c. 1899*

In response to the British attempt to reassert control over the area, the South African War erupted. The war – called the Boer War by the English and the Second War of Freedom by the Afrikaners – lasted from 1899 until 1902. The British expected an easy victory, but the Afrikaners’ skills at guerrilla warfare frustrated initial British campaigns. By employing the “scorched earth” tactics that the

Afrikaners had used earlier to subjugate the Africans, the British forced the Afrikaners to surrender. The Boer Republics became British dominions, but Afrikaners remained the majority among the white population in South Africa.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:SouthAfrica1885.svg>>

*Southern Africa in 1885*



## South Africa – Origins and Ending of Apartheid (1902-present)

**The Union of South Africa.** The settlement that concluded the South African War provided for united self-government of the Cape, Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal. Because the British agreed that the political role of non-whites would be decided after the introduction of self-governance, white domination was ensured.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_of\\_the\\_provinces\\_of\\_South\\_Africa\\_1910-1976\\_with\\_English\\_labels.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_the_provinces_of_South_Africa_1910-1976_with_English_labels.svg)>

*Provinces of the Union of South Africa, 1910-1976 –  
Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal*

The Union of South Africa (1910-1948) was governed first by the South Africa Party under the leadership of Afrikaner nationalists, Louis Botha and Jan Smuts. Political expediency forced them to accept membership in the British Empire. During World Wars I and II, the South Africa Party committed the country to alliances with the British, although many Afrikaners felt a more natural bond with Germany. Smuts' decision to fight on the side of the Allies in World War II split the United Party, and Barry Hertzog, who wanted South Africa to remain neutral, led the original National Party in a breakaway from the governing coalition. English speakers and Afrikaners were split along economic lines. Generally, Afrikaners comprised the rural poor and lower level mining workers, while the English dominated the higher echelons in business, industry, and mining.

Afrikaner miners went on strike in the mid-1920s, seeking more job protection and higher wages in the face of competition from large supplies of cheap, black labor. Those strikes were suppressed ruthlessly by Smuts' South Africa Party government, leading to his loss in the

following election to a coalition between the National and Labour Parties.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Black, Chinese and White laborers in a gold mine in South Africa\\_LCCN2001705558.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Black,_Chinese_and_White_laborers_in_a_gold_mine_in_South_Africa_LCCN2001705558.jpg)>

*Afrikaner, Black, and Chinese Gold Miners in South Africa, c. 1923*

Although numerous discriminatory laws were passed from the time of Union until 1948, after World War II the ruling Union Party started calling into question the practicality of some segregation and discrimination laws. The hard-line Afrikaners were then mobilized into

an effective opposition force, and in the 1948 election the National Party gained political dominance in South Africa.

**Apartheid.** The Afrikaner-dominated government of South Africa after 1948 instituted Apartheid through numerous laws and executive decisions. Four racial groups (White, Coloured, Indian, and African) were treated differentially to maintain white political and economic domination. Laws prohibited intermarriage as well as sexual relations between members of different racial groups. The 1950 Group Areas Act designated specific areas where members of the races were permitted to live. In 1953, the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act legislated unequal provision of public facilities and services for different races.



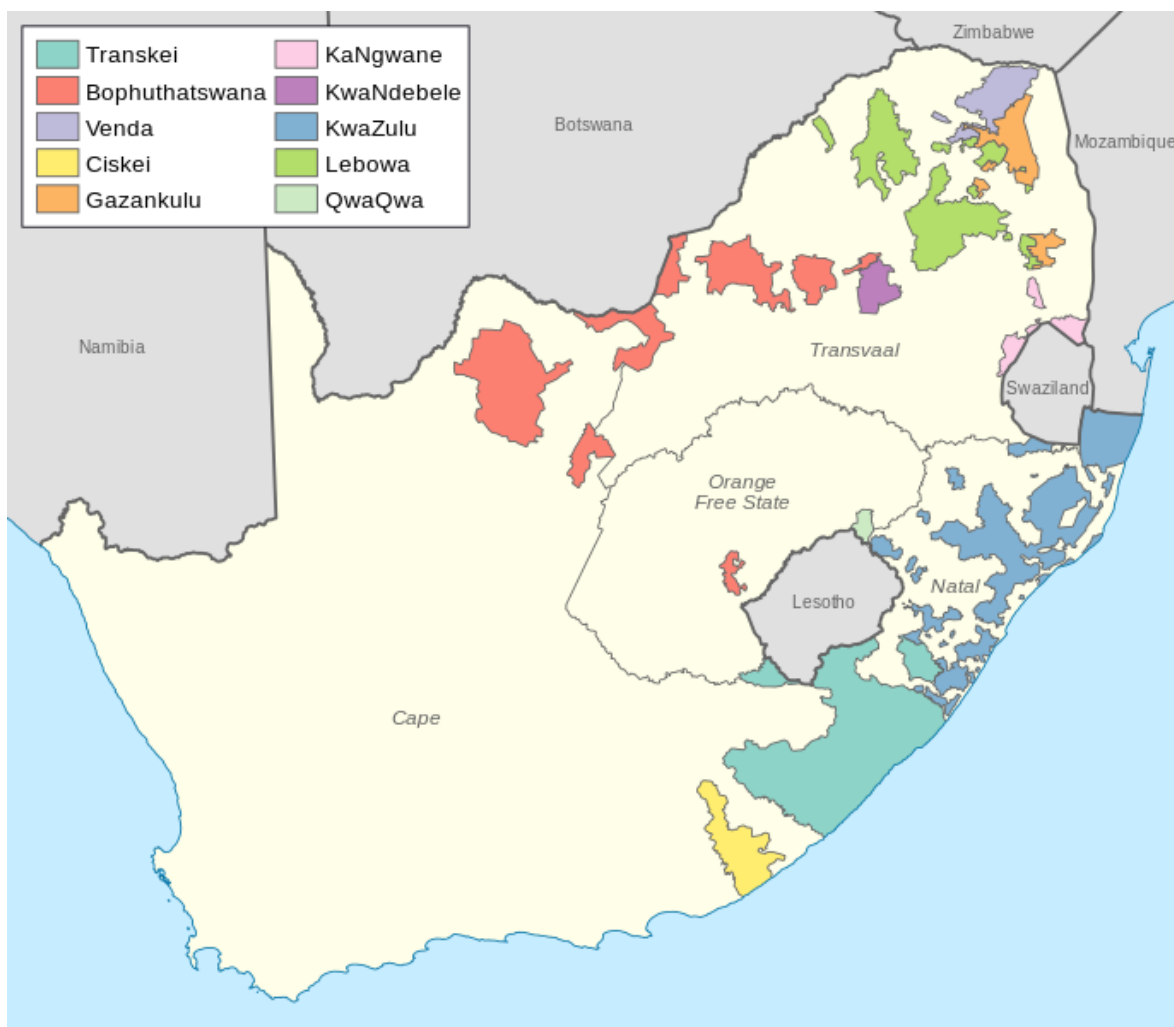


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:ApartheidSignEnglishAfrikaans.jpg>>

### *Apartheid Sign of Racial Segregation in South Africa*

Other laws permitted arbitrary arrest and detention without trial and severely limited judicial bodies from investigating police actions. Political activity was also restricted by government ability to ban organizations and prohibit meetings. The South African government

attempted to soften the image of the Apartheid regime by instituting the Homelands. Those areas were designated as African territories, with the potential for self-governance and eventual independence from South Africa. However, the Homelands were fragmented areas in regions with poor productive potential.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bantustans\\_in\\_South\\_Africa.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bantustans_in_South_Africa.svg)>

*Ten Homeland “Nations” (Bantustans) in South Africa, 1953-1993*

Some religious movements and other, small white civic organizations, such as the Black Sash movement, were critical of the Apartheid regime, but remained largely ineffectual. Black organizations, led by the African National Congress and the Pan-Africanist Congress, attempted to effect change through peaceful demonstrations and strikes. But they were met with brute force, as in the Sharpeville massacre (1960) and the repression of the Soweto demonstrations (1967). In 1960, convinced that non-violent methods were not going to be effective, the ANC embarked on a campaign of sabotage and guerrilla warfare. Although that resistance never seriously threatened the regime, it greatly increased the costs of maintaining the Apartheid system.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Murder\\_at\\_Sharpeville\\_21\\_March\\_1960.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Murder_at_Sharpeville_21_March_1960.jpg)>*

*The Sharpeville Massacre, March 21, 1960 –  
Painting by Godfrey Rubens*

**The New South Africa.** The international community disapproved of the Apartheid regime. The United Nations established permanent committees to examine South Africa's Apartheid system and the occupation of South West Africa, which produced condemnatory reports and assessments. In 1973, the General Assembly declared Apartheid "a crime against humanity," and in 1977 the Security Council enacted a mandatory arms embargo against South Africa. But South



Africa's role as a supplier of strategic minerals and its claim to be a defense against communism in Southern Africa meant that Western powers were unwilling to exert pressure for change until the mid-1980s.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:9\\_2\\_018\\_0127\\_001-Leeuwenhof-The\\_Cape-s.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:9_2_018_0127_001-Leeuwenhof-The_Cape-s.jpg)>

*Leeuwenhof, Official Residence of the Premier of the Western Cape –  
South Africa's Afrikaner Government Ruled Through the 1980s*

Domestic pressures prompted the United States and European countries to impose broad economic sanctions, cutting trade and investment links with South Africa. In the late 1980s, President F. W. de Klerk began to soften the oppressive regime in South Africa. Bans on black organizations such as the ANC were removed, some Apartheid



laws were retracted (including the Land Acts, the Group Areas Act, and the Population Registration Act), and the state of emergency was lifted.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Frederik\\_de\\_Klerk\\_with\\_Nelson\\_Mandela -  
\\_World\\_Economic\\_Forum\\_Annual\\_Meeting\\_Davos\\_1992.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Frederik_de_Klerk_with_Nelson_Mandela_-_World_Economic_Forum_Annual_Meeting_Davos_1992.jpg)>

*President F. W. de Klerk and President-to-be Nelson Mandela –  
World Economic Forum, Davos, Switzerland, 1992*

Following negotiations with Nelson Mandela, in February 1993 the National party and the ANC agreed to hold elections (in April 1994) for a parliament with the task of drafting a new constitution. In November 1993, twenty parties agreed on an interim constitution. The main features of the interim constitution were: the new South Africa would be divided into nine provinces, incorporating the Homelands; there

would be eleven official languages (Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, Sesotho sa Leboa, Sesotho, siSwati, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, isiXhosa, and isiZulu); it would be possible for a special commission to return to Africans land that had been expropriated since 1913; and there would be an emphasis on protecting individuals from discrimination.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Nelson\\_Mandela\\_1994.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Nelson_Mandela_1994.jpg)>*

*President Nelson Mandela (1994-1999) – Washington, D. C., 1994*

**Political and Economic Trends in South Africa.** The generally smooth transition to a multi-racial democracy in South Africa represents

an enormous achievement. But legacies of the Apartheid era challenge the country's efforts to sustain economic growth and employment creation. The economy continues to suffer from the enduring distortions of Apartheid: the low skill base of the majority of the population contributes to persistent, high unemployment; the skewed distribution of income keeps national savings and investment rates exceedingly low; and land-ownership patterns preclude broad-based rural development. Political and macroeconomic stability in South Africa did not translate into increasing standards of living for the majority of the population.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Working\\_singing\\_and\\_eating\\_happy\\_farm\\_workers\\_2017\\_2017-03-02.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Working_singing_and_eating_happy_farm_workers_2017_2017-03-02.jpg)>

*Cleaning and Packing Maize – The Staple Food in South Africa*

Frustrated expectations on the part of this majority may be eroding the political stability that South Africa expended so much effort to preserve during the transition from Afrikaner rule. That political stability rested on the popularity of Nelson Mandela, who transferred ANC party leadership to Thabo Mbeki in 1997 and the presidency to Mbeki in 1999. In 2004, Mbeki was re-elected for a second five-year term. Jacob Zuma replaced Mbeki as head of the ANC in 2007 and served as president from 2009-2018. Zuma's period in office was marked by personal corruption, political favoritism, infighting within the ANC, and the lack of effective leadership. Cyril Ramaphosa, a highly respected businessman and ANC political leader, was elected president in 2018. But Ramaphosa has faced a daunting challenge in trying to repair the damage left by his predecessor.





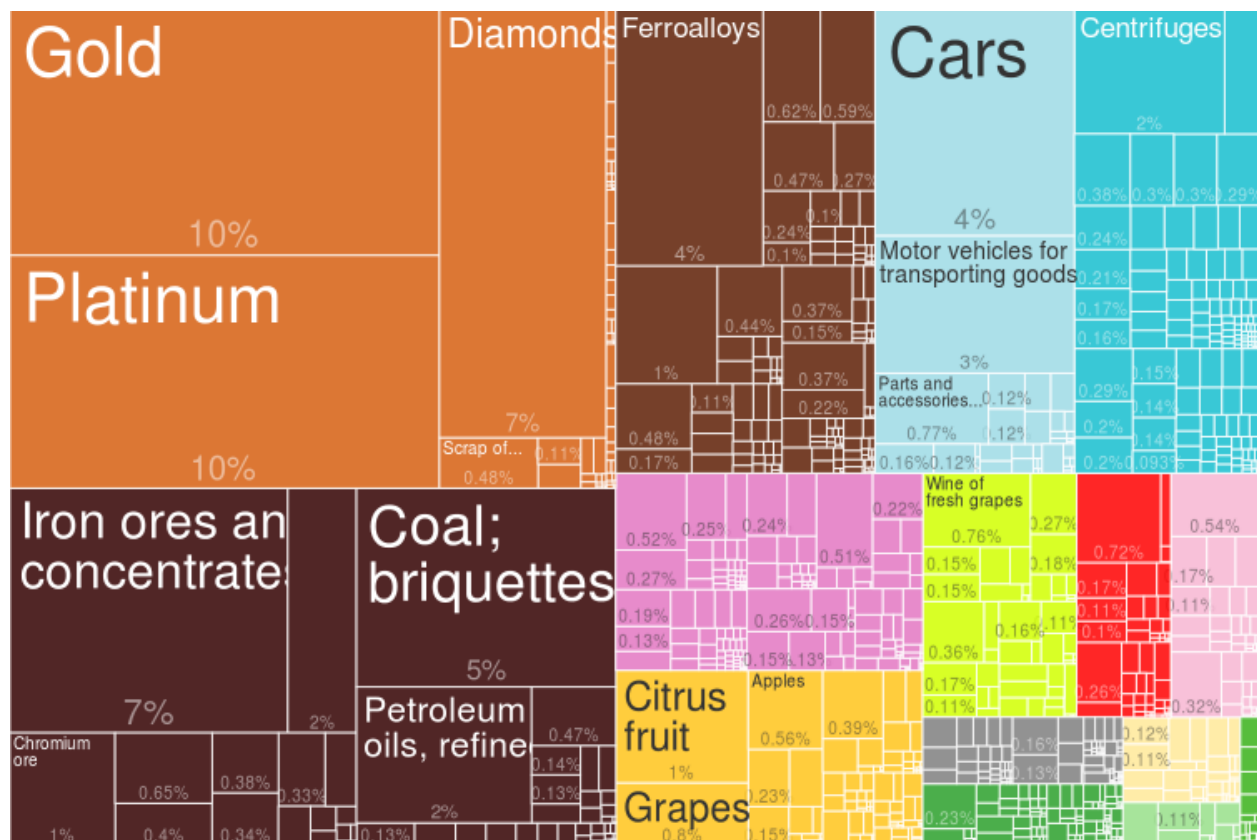
*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mr. Houlin Zhao, ITU Secretary-General\\_with\\_H. E. Mr. Cyril Ramaphosa, President, South Africa \(cropped2\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mr._Houlin_Zhao,_ITU_Secretary-General_with_H._E._Mr._Cyril_Ramaphosa,_President,_South_Africa_(cropped2).jpg)>*

*Cyril Ramaphosa, President of South Africa (2018 –) and Head of the African National Congress (2017 –) – Pictured in 2018*

Between 1993 and 2008, the South African economy grew modestly, but steadily. The average annual rate of growth of per capita income (measured by the World Bank at Purchasing Power Parity in constant 2017 dollars) was 2 percent during the first 15 years of ANC leadership. Unfortunately, South Africa has experienced no growth in per capita income since 2008. In 2019, South Africa's 56.8 million



residents earned an average income (adjusted for purchasing power) of \$13,034 – just 20 percent of the level in the United States. The main engines of growth in 2019 were exports (\$104.9 billion, mostly of platinum, gold, automotive vehicles, iron ore, iron and steel, and coal), tourism (\$9.8 billion from 10.5 million tourists), foreign direct investment (\$4.6 billion), emigrant remittances (\$1 billion), and foreign aid (\$1 billion).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at

<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:2014\\_South\\_Africa\\_Products\\_Export\\_Treemap.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:2014_South_Africa_Products_Export_Treemap.png)

>

*Proportional Representation of South Africa's Export Earnings, 2014*

South Africa's economy faces daunting challenges. The World Bank's estimate of the share of South Africans with incomes beneath the poverty line in 2014 was a shocking 55.5 percent. In 2019, life expectancy was only 64 years, the rate of adult literacy was 87 percent, and the rate of unemployment was 28.5 percent. In that same year, South Africa ranked only 114<sup>th</sup> of 189 countries in the United Nations' Human Development Index, 84<sup>th</sup> of 190 countries in the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index, and 70<sup>th</sup> of the 198 countries listed in Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index. To create productive jobs, the government needs to increase vocational training, control corruption, and improve competitiveness.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
< <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sf-map.png> >

### *Contemporary South Africa*

## **Namibia – Settlement and Conflict (Early 19<sup>th</sup> century-present)**

**Geography and Climate.** With an area of 318,261 square miles, Namibia is twice the size of California. But the country has a population of only 2.5 million people. Due to its extremely arid climate, vast expanses of Namibia are uninhabited. The only permanent rivers are along Namibia's borders, with South Africa to the south, Botswana to the east, Zambia to the northeast, and Angola to the north.





the east, this plateau slopes down to the Kalahari Desert. Because rainfall throughout the country is highly variable and multiyear droughts are regular, water is a limiting factor everywhere.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Dune45\\_Sossusvlei\\_Namib\\_Desert\\_Namibia\\_Luca\\_Galuzzi\\_2004.JPG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Dune45_Sossusvlei_Namib_Desert_Namibia_Luca_Galuzzi_2004.JPG)>

### *World's Highest Sand Dunes – Namib Desert, Sossusvlei, Namibia*

About two-thirds of the country may be used for pastoralism, but less than one percent of the land area is arable. Intensive pressure on the limited fertile areas is reducing land cover, causing erosion, and

lowering the water table. The northern part of the country receives adequate rainfall, is more hospitable, and is home to about half of the population. Another quarter live in Windhoek, the capital, and in nearby commercial ranching areas. Ten percent of Namibians live in former black homelands, and the remaining 15 percent inhabit the coastal and mining towns.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Windhoek\\_aerial.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Windhoek_aerial.jpg)>

*Windhoek, the Capital of Namibia –  
Population, 325,000 (13 percent of Namibia's total of 2.6 million)*



**Early Inhabitants.** The San people, nomadic hunter-gatherers living in small clan groups, were the first inhabitants of Namibia. The Nama, a Khoikhoi group, migrated northward from what is now South Africa about 2,000 years ago. That livestock-based society forced the San to move to remote parts of the country. The Nama remained the dominant power until about 1500 when the Herero, a Bantu pastoral group from central Africa, settled in the northeast and central portions.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Nama\\_Woman\\_Smoking\\_Kalahari\\_Desert\\_Namibia\\_Luca\\_Galuzzi\\_2004.JPG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Nama_Woman_Smoking_Kalahari_Desert_Namibia_Luca_Galuzzi_2004.JPG)>

*Nama Woman, Kalahari Desert, Namibia, 2004 –  
The Namas Are Namibia's Largest Khoi Ethnic Group (300,000)*

The Herero introduced complex political systems, with interlocking clan structures that were unified under a paramount chief. A second Bantu group, the Ovambo, also settled in the north and established several kingdoms. The Ovambo culture was based on mixed farming and copper smelting. Geography discouraged European intervention in Namibia until late, relative to the rest of Africa, since the desert coast dissuaded European settlement and exploration. Portuguese navigators, such as Bartolomeu Dias, landed on the coast en route to the Cape of Good Hope. But no real contact between Europeans and Africans took place until the late 17<sup>th</sup> century.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ovambo\\_girl.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ovambo_girl.jpg)>

### *Ovambo Girl, Weaving Mats – Northern Namibia*

After 1670, Afrikaner explorers, traders, and settlers moved north from the Cape Colony, reaching the southern portions of the Ovambo kingdoms. However, Afrikaners and other Europeans did not become a substantial presence until after 1860. In the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, a new group of Africans moved north into Namibia from the Cape region. The Oorlam-Nama, a Khoi people who had adopted Afrikaner military



technology and organization, rapidly came to dominate the other peoples in the region with the use of horses, guns, and well-organized commando units. They established a strong kingdom based in Windhoek. But Central Namibia remained an area of conflict between the Oorlam-Nama and the Herero. This rivalry subsided only when a new force, Germany, asserted itself in the region.

**Namibia under Germany (1884-1915).** In the 1870s, the British seemed poised to assert colonial dominion over Namibia. They had already established an outpost of the Cape Colony at Walvis Bay. However, the British elected to eschew the expense of administering what appeared to be a territory of little value. Instead, Germany extended its control over the area through negotiations as well as land theft and coercion. In 1884, Germany annexed what the Germans called South West Africa.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Colonial\\_Africa\\_1913\\_German\\_South\\_West\\_Africa\\_map.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Colonial_Africa_1913_German_South_West_Africa_map.svg)>

*German Colonies in Africa, 1913 – South West Africa (Dark Green),  
and Togo, Cameroon, and Tanganyika (Light Green, Left to Right)*

The imposition of German control did not go uncontested. In 1904, the Herero launched a rebellion, joined later by the Oorlam-Nama.

Under General Lothar van Trotha, the Germans relied on extermination, torture, hangings, and concentration camps to suppress the African populations. After defeating the main Herero army at the Battle of Waterburg, the Germans drove Herero women and children into the Kalahari desert, where most perished. By 1910 Germany's merciless assault had killed 80 to 85 percent of the Herero population and driven 5 to 10 percent into exile. When the Germans vanquished the Oorlam-Nama in 1907, survivors were herded into concentration camps, and the combination of war, starvation and the camps reduced the Oorlam-Nama population by about two-thirds. The Germans then distributed the highest quality ranching land to German and Afrikaner settlers and restricted Africans to reserves.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Herero\\_women.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Herero_women.jpg)>

*Herero Women in German-influenced Attire –  
Despite German Slaughter (1904-1910)*

Meanwhile, copper and zinc mining had begun in 1906, and diamond mining started near Lüderitz in 1908. Further diamond operations began at Oranjemund, at the mouth of the Orange River, a few years later. The burgeoning mining sector, as well as ranching and construction, required reliable supplies of cheap labor from the African reserves. The Germans did not extend their direct control to the

Ovambo region in the north, but that area became a source of migrant labor due to collapsing wildlife populations, the spread of disease among cattle, and excessive royal consumption.



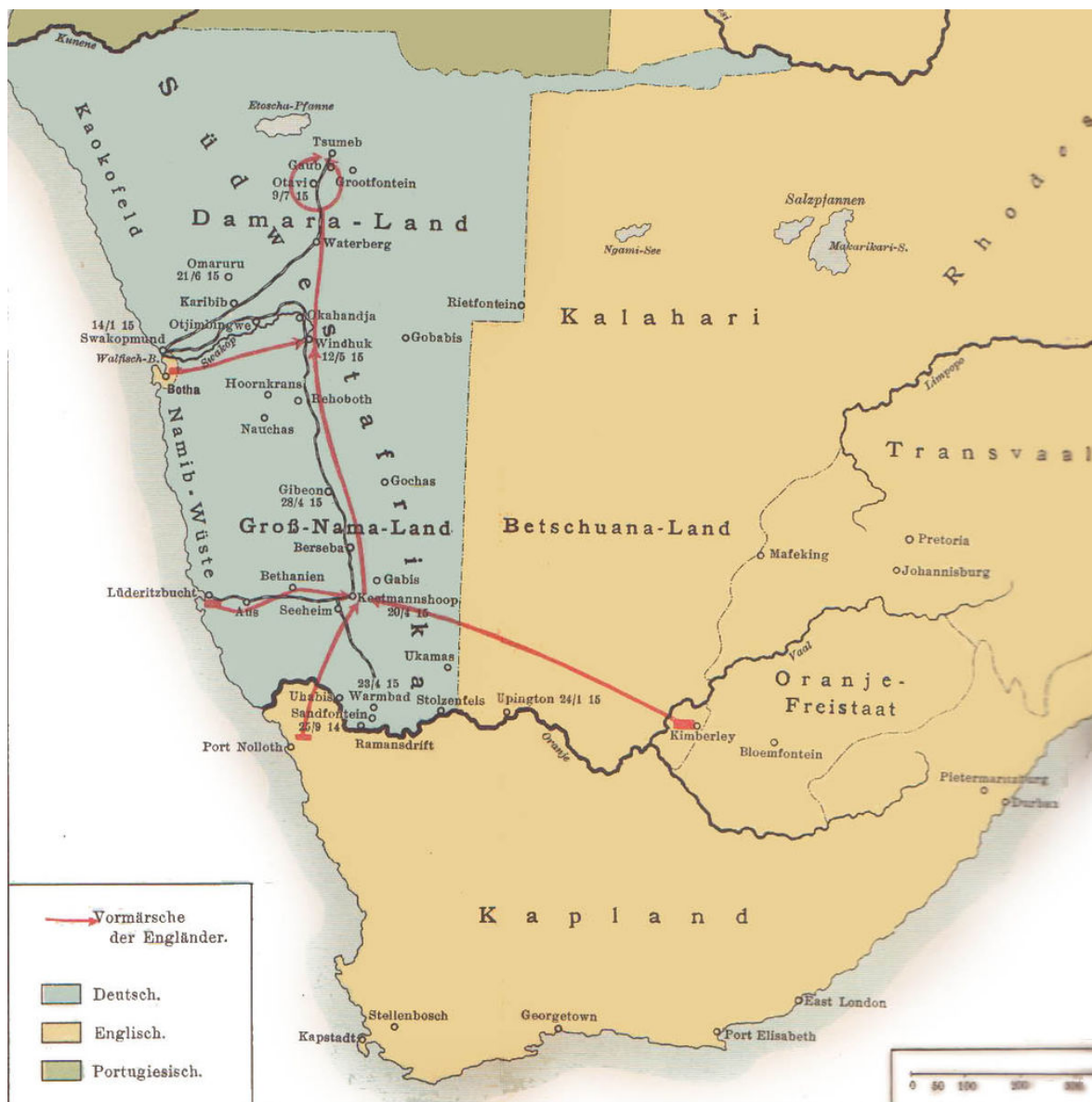
Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Goerke-Haus,\\_L%C3%BCderitz.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Goerke-Haus,_L%C3%BCderitz.jpg)>

*Haus Goerke, Lüderitz, Built in 1910 –  
Now a Guest House for the Namibia Diamond Corporation*

The Germans invested heavily in railway development to support the mining and ranching industries, connecting Lüderitz, Swakopmund, Tsumeb, and Windhoek. However, in 1914-1915, South Africa invaded South West Africa, as part of the World War I campaign to capture



Germany's African colonies, and ended Germany's official presence, although much of the land and other assets in Namibia remained in German hands.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:S%C3%BCdwestafrika\\_1915.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:S%C3%BCdwestafrika_1915.jpg)

*South West Africa Campaign (1914-1915) –  
 South Africa Took Control from Germany*

**Namibia in South Africa (1915-1989).** After World War I, South West Africa was administered by the Union of South Africa on behalf of Great Britain, which had received a mandate over the territory from the League of Nations. The terms of the mandate did not envision a process leading to independence. Instead, through settlement and exploitation, South Africa treated the area as a de facto province. The railway system was extended to link Namibia to the South African economy, the government encouraged Afrikaner settlement, and the African population received no rights. South Africa extended direct rule north and northeast to the Kunene and Okavango rivers, meeting the Portuguese at the Angola-Namibia border.

But South West Africa did not become a profitable colony until after World War II. Until then, world markets for cattle and sheep products were glutted, prices for base metals were low, and De Beers suppressed diamond output in the country to support world prices. During two years in the 1930s, Namibia produced no diamonds at all.

After 1945, recovery of the prices for beef, wool and base metals spurred an economic boom. A fourfold increase in world demand for

diamonds prompted rapid output growth in De Beers' Namibian mines. Rich fishing grounds off the Atlantic coast provided the foundation for a boom in fishmeal and canned pilchard production. As a result, the European population prospered, achieving a per capita income of \$20,000 by the late 1970s. However, per capita income for the African population at that time was only \$150. The contract labor system paid African workers a subsistence wage, and growing populations were intensifying pressure on the resource base and eroding productivity.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sperrgebiet\\_02.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sperrgebiet_02.jpg)>

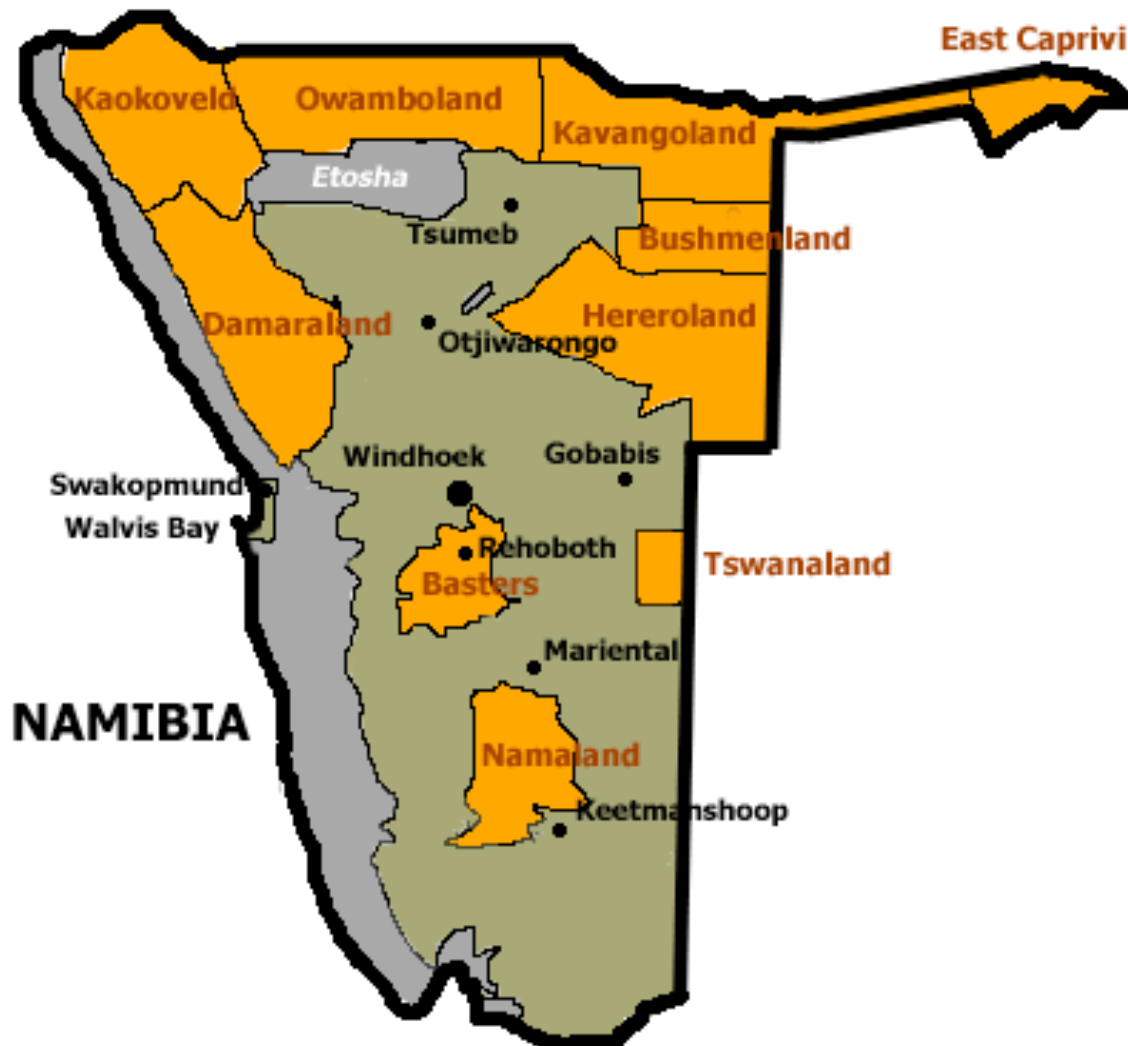
*Derelict Equipment (Sieves) Formerly Used to Sift Diamonds –  
Sperrgebiet National Park, Southwestern Namibia*

With the male workforce locked into contract labor in mines, canneries, and ranching, social and civil structures in the homelands deteriorated. Inadvertently, the contract labor system also made possible the emergence of a network of communications and solidarity that provided the foundation for the liberation movement. Trade unionism and activism dated back to the 1920s, and as early as 1947 Namibians began to appeal to the United Nations for an end to South African rule.

**Resistance and Liberation.** Toward the end of the 1950s, resistance to oppressive and exploitative South African rule evolved into an explicit liberation movement. This process accompanied the politicization of resistance, as leadership transferred from traditional chiefs to a more formal party structure rooted in organized labor. The first major liberation party was the Ovamboland People's Organization, established in 1958, which became the South West African People's Organization (SWAPO) in 1960. Trade unions became increasingly active in the 1960s, and 1971-72 saw a major strike motivated by the contract labor system, apartheid, and the failure of the first independence petition to the International Court of Justice in 1966. Subsequently,



petitions to the United Nations and cases before the International Court of Justice led to UN assumption of sovereignty over Namibia.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Plan\\_Odendaal.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Plan_Odendaal.png)>

*South African Plan To Create Bantustans (Orange Areas) in Namibia  
(South West Africa) – Odendaal Commission, 1964*

Although South Africa remained in political control, in the 1970s the international community expected a process that would lead to

Namibian independence. Most of the SWAPO leadership had been tried for terrorism and sent to Robben Island in 1968, and thereafter the South African government responded to the growing liberation movement with torture and detentions. Armed resistance by SWAPO, however, did not become a substantial threat to South African control until the end of the 1970s. Then the armed resistance expanded from small-scale guerilla raids across the Angolan border to an organized campaign of sabotage and terrorism.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
 <[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:SWAPO\\_and\\_SA\\_operations\\_1981-1984\\_Angola\\_civil\\_war\\_es.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:SWAPO_and_SA_operations_1981-1984_Angola_civil_war_es.png)>

### *SWAPO and South Africa Defense Force Operations in Namibia and Angola, 1981-1984*

This evolution began to impose substantial military and economic costs on South Africa. From 1977 to 1988, per capita income in Namibia declined by 3 percent per year, and South Africa's annual cost of fighting the liberation movement grew to about \$1 billion. In 1988, South Africa attempted to invade Angola, but was repulsed by forces that included units of SWAPO's People's Liberation Army of Namibia. By the end of the year, South Africa had been forced to agree to a UN-supervised transition to independence for Namibia. South Africa agreed to withdraw its forces from Namibia in return for Cuba's agreement to remove its troops from Angola. In 1989, the UN oversaw elections that brought SWAPO leader Sam Nujoma to the presidency, and Namibia attained independence on March 21, 1990.





Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sam\\_Nujoma.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sam_Nujoma.jpg)>

*President Sam Nujoma (1990-2005) –  
Namibia's Founding Father and Leader of SWAPO*

**Independent Namibia.** During its three decades of independence, Namibia has been governed by SWAPO leaders. Sam Nujoma served three terms as president (1990-2005). He was succeeded by Hifikepunye Pohamba, who served two terms (2005-2015). Hage Geingob was elected president in 2014, re-elected in 2019 and continues in office.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:H.E.\\_Hage\\_Gottfried\\_Geingob.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:H.E._Hage_Gottfried_Geingob.jpg)>

*Hage Bottfried Geingob, President of Namibia (2015 –) and President of SWAPO(2017 –)*

The first priority after independence was to create an atmosphere of national unity, and the second was to achieve a workable relationship with South Africa. To reassure the settler community, the new government retained 15,000 redundant white civil servants, deferred issues of land ownership, and extended amnesty for all acts of violence committed prior to independence. As a result, Namibia achieved a rapid

normalization of public administration and the economy, and income growth reached 3 percent in 1990, the first year of independence.

Namibia and South Africa reached agreement on fishing rights, redrew the border along the Orange River to ensure Namibian water rights, and agreed on the transfer of Walvis Bay from South African to Namibian sovereignty.

The economy remained highly dependent on a small number of key activities. Mining contributed about 30 percent of GDP, commercial farming (principally cattle and sheep production for export) about 11 percent, and manufacturing no more than 5 percent. The mining sector concentrated on diamonds, uranium oxide, base metals, and gold. The Namibian economy was highly dependent on trade, and about 90 percent of all goods produced were exported to South Africa, Europe, Japan, and the United States. South Africa accounted for the bulk of Namibia's imports.





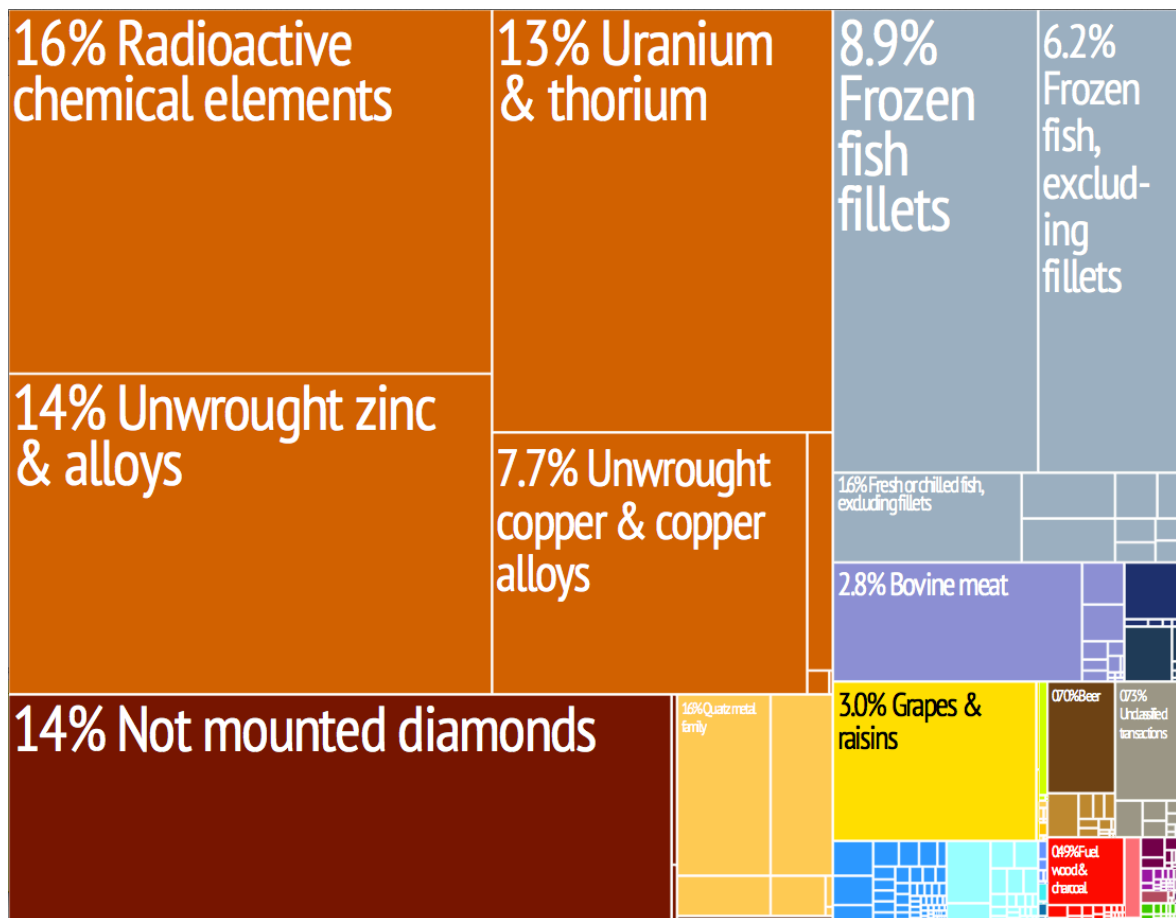
*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Navachab\\_Gold\\_Mine.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Navachab_Gold_Mine.jpg)>*

*Navachab Gold Mine, Erongo Region, North-central Namibia –  
Owned by AngloGold Ashanti and in Production Since 1989*

**Challenges Facing the Namibian Economy.** Between 1990 and 2015, the Namibian economy grew steadily. The average annual rate of growth of per capita income (measured by the World Bank at Purchasing Power Parity in constant 2017 dollars) was 2.4 percent during the first 25 years of SWAPO leadership. Unfortunately, per capita income in Namibia fell by 8.1 percent between 2015 and 2019. In 2019, Namibia's



2.5 million residents earned an average income (adjusted for purchasing power) of \$10,064 – only 15 percent of the level in the United States and three-fourths of that in South Africa. The main underpinnings of growth in 2019 were exports (\$4.4 billion, mostly of copper, diamonds, gold, zinc, lead, uranium, white fish and mollusks, and cattle), tourism (\$0.5 billion from 1.5 million tourists), and foreign aid (\$0.2 billion). Copper, diamonds, and uranium account for 60 percent of Namibian exports. Fluctuations in prices for the main mining outputs leave the economy vulnerable, and persistently low prices for base metals limit the capacity of the sector as a long-term engine of growth.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
 <[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Namibia\\_treemap.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Namibia_treemap.png)>

### *Proportional Representation of Namibia's Export Earnings, 2012*

Namibia's economy faces many challenges. The World Bank's estimate of the share of Namibians with incomes beneath the poverty line in 2015 was 17.4 percent. In 2019, life expectancy was only 63 years, the rate of adult literacy was 92 percent, the rate of population increase was 1.9 percent, and the rate of unemployment was 20.6 percent. In that same year, Namibia ranked only 130<sup>th</sup> of 189 countries

in the United Nations' Human Development Index, just 104<sup>th</sup> of 190 countries in the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index, and an encouraging 56<sup>th</sup> of the 198 countries listed in Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index. To create productive jobs, the government needs to increase vocational training, reduce dependence on mineral exports, promote tourism, and improve competitiveness.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Environmental\\_education\\_to\\_learners\\_in\\_Namibia.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Environmental_education_to_learners_in_Namibia.jpg)>

### *Environmental Education in Namibia*

**Tourism and Conservation in Namibia.** One bright spot for Namibia's future lies in the tourism industry. Tourism's share of national income (GDP) in 2019 exceeded 15 percent, and tourism accounted for more than 18 percent of employment.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Namibie\\_Etosha\\_Leopard\\_01.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Namibie_Etosha_Leopard_01.jpg)>

*Leopard in Etosha National Park –  
One of Namibia's Leading Tourist Attractions*

The tourism sector relies on Namibia's unique scenic assets and its wildlife. Specific destinations include the 21 parks and reserves in

Namibia's state-controlled protected area network, accounting for almost 14 percent of Namibia's total land area. Other protected areas include conservancies, in which multiple landholders pool their holdings to create and manage a tourism asset. Conservancies have been established on commercial, or private, land as well as communal, or tribal, lands. An example of a communal conservancy is that managed by San people along the eastern boundary of the Skeleton Coast Park, with a size of nearly 18,000 km<sup>2</sup>. Namibia has 14 communal conservancies with a total area of 40,000 km<sup>2</sup>. Most conservancies combine conservation-based enterprises, such as ecotourism and sport hunting, with ranching or traditional farming. Namibia also contains more than 150 private reserves and game farms, which cater to hunters, supply game meat, or sell live animals to other hunting enterprises.





Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
 <[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:State\\_Protected\\_Areas\\_with\\_names\\_in\\_Namibia\\_in\\_2011.gif](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:State_Protected_Areas_with_names_in_Namibia_in_2011.gif)>

### *Protected Areas in Namibia – Essential for Conservation and Tourism*

A unique feature of the protected area system in Namibia is the *Sperrgebiet*, also known as Diamond Area 1, which stretches about 300 km north along the coast from the border with South Africa and 100 km

inland from this coastal strip. Since 1908, this 26,000 km<sup>2</sup> block in southwest Namibia has been off limits to anyone other than the mining concessionaire operating in the area. Since diamond extraction took place only along the coast and near the Orange River, the interior of this block has been well preserved. It features a rich assemblage of flora and fauna not found anywhere else in the world. The commercial diamond deposits are nearly exhausted. In 2004, the *Sperrgebiet* became the Tsau Ilkhaeb National Park. But diamond mining continues and public access to the park remains restricted.

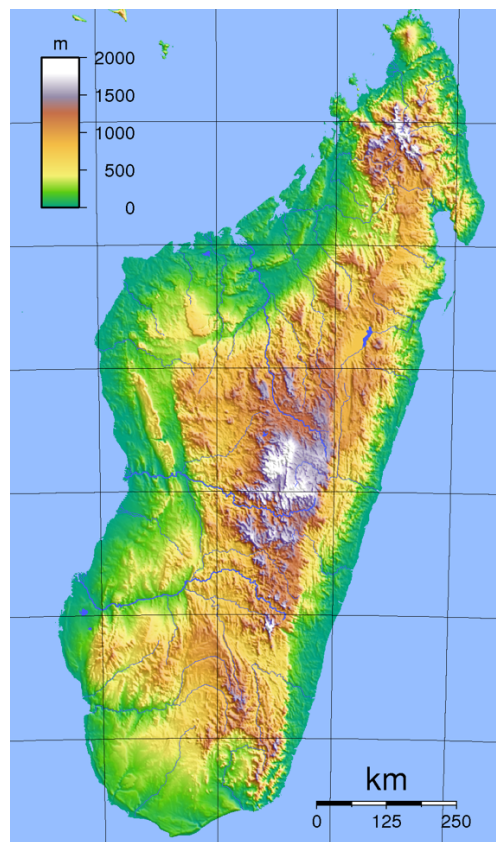


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Namibia\\_map.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Namibia_map.png)

*Contemporary Namibia – Formerly South West Africa*

## Madagascar (7<sup>th</sup> century-1895)

**Human Settlement.** The Malagasy people of Madagascar trace their genes to both Indonesia and East Africa, and Malagasy is a Malay language. Asian crops – bananas, taro, and yams – had moved to East Africa by the 2<sup>nd</sup> century BCE. But it is not known when the Austronesians (Malayo-Polynesian-speaking people) first migrated from the Indonesian islands to East Africa.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Madagascar\\_Topography.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Madagascar_Topography.png)>

*Madagascar – No Human Habitation before the 7<sup>th</sup> century CE*

In the 7<sup>th</sup> century CE, a large wave of emigrants, likely escapees from the new Sumatran kingdom of Srivijaya, migrated to East Africa, probably via Sri Lanka. They brought their swidden (slash-and-burn), rice-and millet agriculture to the East African coast, intermarried with Africans, learned African animal husbandry of zebu cattle, added African vocabulary to their Malay language, and settled the Comoro Islands.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Malagasy\\_girls\\_Madagascar\\_Merina.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Malagasy_girls_Madagascar_Merina.jpg)>

*Merina Children Speak the Malagasy Language – Related to Barito  
Language of Central Borneo*



The earliest archaeological evidence of human settlement in Madagascar – in the late 7<sup>th</sup> century CE – comes from a dig near Diego Suarez on the north coast. The earliest settlers probably came from the Comoros to Madagascar's northwestern and northeastern coasts. The proto-Malagasy people were predominantly of Austronesian origin, and they retained a Malay-based language.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Austronesia\\_Map.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Austronesia_Map.jpg)>

### *The Austronesian (Malayo-Polynesian) Diaspora – 3000 BCE-1100 CE*

An archaeological excavation at Andranosoa provides evidence that the southern interior region of Madagascar was settled in the 10<sup>th</sup> century, by a culture based on rice agriculture, iron tools, and pottery.

The central plateaux that dominate Madagascar's interior began to be settled in the 12<sup>th</sup> (or possibly 13<sup>th</sup>) century after the coastal regions had been occupied. Gradually, the interior highlands became dominant as the Malagasy there evolved monarchies based on rice agriculture, cattle husbandry, and iron tools and weapons. In the 13<sup>th</sup> century, hunters drove two large meat animals – the dwarf hippopotamus and the aepyornis (a huge ostrich) – to extinction.

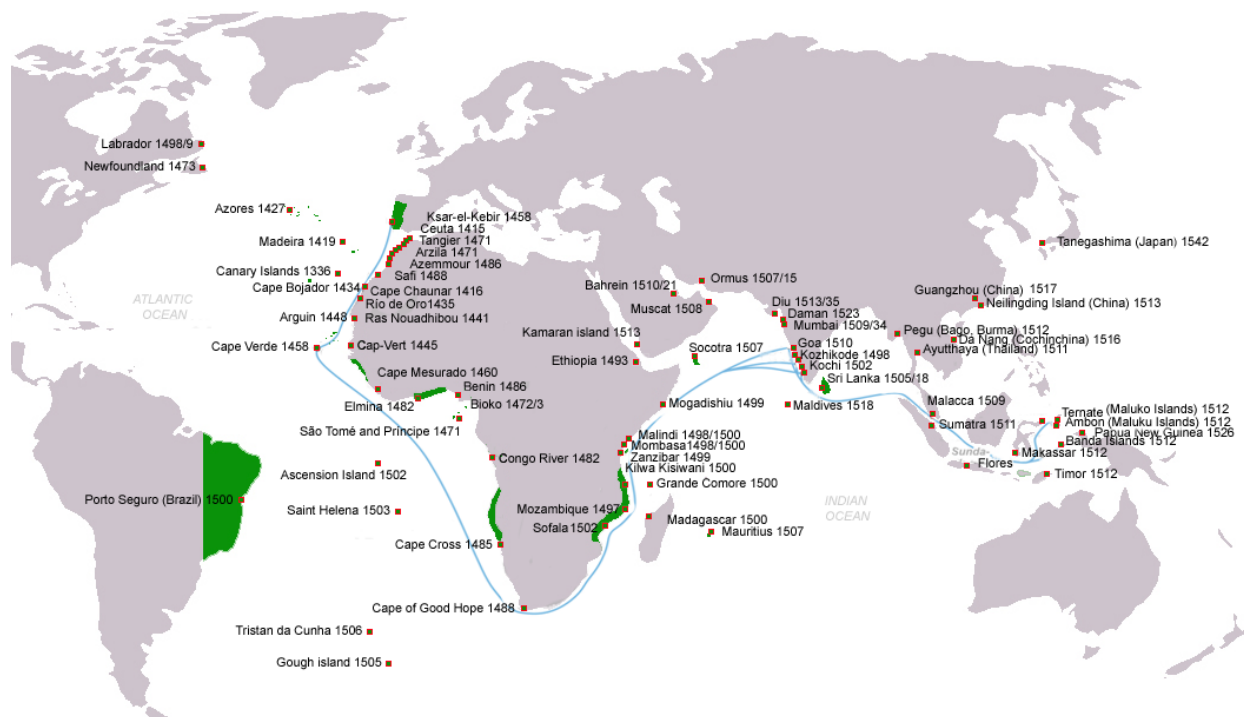


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Aepyornis\\_white\\_background.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Aepyornis_white_background.jpg)>

*Elephant Bird (Aepyornis maximus) –  
Ten Feet Tall, Weighed 1600 Pounds, Extinct by 13<sup>th</sup> century*

**European Incursions.** The Europeans discovered Madagascar by accident. In 1500, one of Portugal's thirteen ships in its second fleet

bound for India, commanded by Diogo Dias, was blown off course as it rounded southern Africa. Dias named the island São Lourenço (St. Lawrence), but Portuguese mapmakers called it Madagascar, inaccurately citing Marco Polo. Europeans then established coastal bases to supply ships trading in the Indian Ocean, and British ships stopped regularly in Madagascar until Britain claimed Cape Town from the Dutch in 1795.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at

<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese\\_discoveries\\_and\\_explorationsV2en.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese_discoveries_and_explorationsV2en.png)>

### *Portuguese Trade Routes and Settlements – 1415-1543*



Between the 1690s and the 1720s, Madagascar was a haven for 400-800 European pirates raiding in the Indian Ocean. Most of those buccaneers had been expelled from the Caribbean region and had shifted venue. Their prey were ships sailing into the Red Sea with Muslim pilgrims bound for Mecca and commercial ships operating in the Malabar Coast of southwestern India or the Arabian Sea. St. Mary's Island, off central-eastern Madagascar, was the main pirate lair where the corsairs could obtain local food and trade for European firearms.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pirate\\_Cemetery,\\_Ile\\_Sainte-Marie.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pirate_Cemetery,_Ile_Sainte-Marie.jpg)>

*Pirate Cemetery, St. Mary's Island, Near Madagascar*

At the request of the English East India Company, the British Royal Navy suppressed piracy in Madagascar in the 1720s. In the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, Madagascar's main export was slaves. About 4,000 slaves were exported annually. In the west, a number of Sakalava kingdoms raided for and exported slaves to buttress their cattle-based wealth. Tsimenata (1668-1709) established the Kingdom of Boina, captured the island's key port (Mazalagem Nova), and exported Malagasy slaves to the Middle East, India, and the United States. In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, Madagascar's main slave market shifted to the Mascarene Islands (Mauritius and Réunion) to supply labor for sugar plantations.





Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Duyfken\\_Replica\\_Under\\_Sail.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Duyfken_Replica_Under_Sail.jpg)>

*Replica of the Dutch East India Company's Slave-raiding Ship Duyfken*

### **Merina Monarchy – Founding and Expansion, 1787-1828.**

Andrianampoinimerina (ruled 1778-1809) militarily united the small Merina kingdoms in the central highlands and founded the Merina Empire in Madagascar. He was an effective militarist, an able administrator, and a keen strategist. His social compact was to promise not to enslave Merina people (the main victims of earlier slave-raiding) in return for their allegiance.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Andrianampoinimerina.jpg>>

*Andrianampoinimerina (r. 1778-1809) – Founder of Merina Monarchy*

The economic bases of the Merina Empire were irrigated rice cultivation, unpaid forced labor (*fanompoana*) used in irrigation, and monopoly control of the export of non-Merina slaves and the import of arms. Radama I (ruled 1809-1828), Andrianampoinimerina's son, was an intelligent, if arrogant, expansionist and visionary. By 1814, he quintupled the territory under Merina control through conquest, capturing areas that provided slaves and cattle pasture or gave access to ports.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Radama\\_I\\_portrait\\_by\\_Ramanankirahina.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Radama_I_portrait_by_Ramanankirahina.jpg)>

*Merina King Radama I (r. 1809-1828) – From Open Trade to Autarky*

In 1817, Radama concluded a treaty with Great Britain, then the world's leading naval and industrial power. Robert Farquhar, the British governor of Mauritius (which Britain took from France in 1810), had wanted Britain to colonize Madagascar. But he was rebuffed by Parliament. He then pressed for a treaty that would give Britain significant influence. In return for Radama's promise to ban slave exports, Britain provided military, trade, and industrial assistance. In 1820, the London Missionary Society (LMS) began introducing a significant program of education and craftsmanship. However, in 1825,

suffering from the lack of slave export revenue, Radama switched course and adopted a policy of autarky. He hoped that the widespread use of unpaid forced labor and state monopolies on craft production and trade would lead to self-sufficiency in textiles and armaments and underpin the strength of his empire.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:HMS\\_Queen,\\_by\\_Robert\\_Strickland\\_Thomas.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:HMS_Queen,_by_Robert_Strickland_Thomas.jpg)>

*HMS Queen, 1842 –  
The British Navy Aided Radama I's Conquests*

**Merina Monarchy – Evolution and Downfall, 1828-1895.**

Queen Ranavalona I (1828-1861) succeeded Radama I after a military coup. Her unfortunate reign was marked by xenophobic independence, political repression, expulsion of missionaries, oligarchic control of trade, and slave-raiding by military leaders. She continued Radama's



autarky policy and hired a French industrialist, Jean Laborde, to build and operate a remarkable, machine-based industrial complex at Mantasoa, which produced armaments, cannons, glass, pottery, silk, sugar, charcoal, and leather.



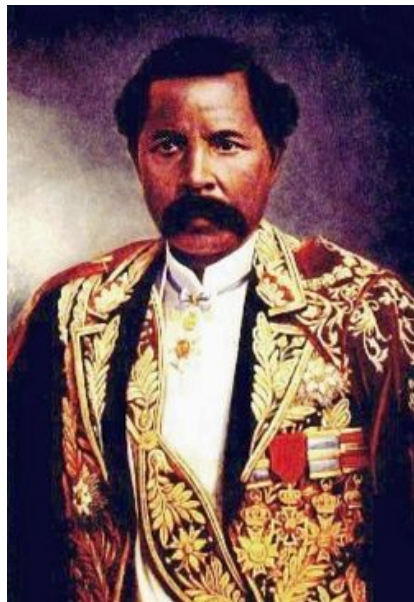
Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ranavalona\\_I.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ranavalona_I.jpg)>

*Queen Ranavalona I (1828-1861) – Autarky, Oligarchy, and Repression*

Her son, Radama II (1861-1863), reversed course and opened the Merina Empire to free trade and religious tolerance. Subsequently (1863-1895), Madagascar was ruled nominally by two other queens,



Ranavalona II and III. But effective power was assumed by the Prime Minister, Rainilaiarivony, a shrewd, self-made dictator who married both queens. He and his first queen converted to Christianity in 1869, instituted a Protestant state church, and used it to expand *fanompoana*, unpaid forced labor. Farmers and artisans were forced into the military and, in the mid-1880s, into working in the gold fields, thereby undercutting the rice-based economy.

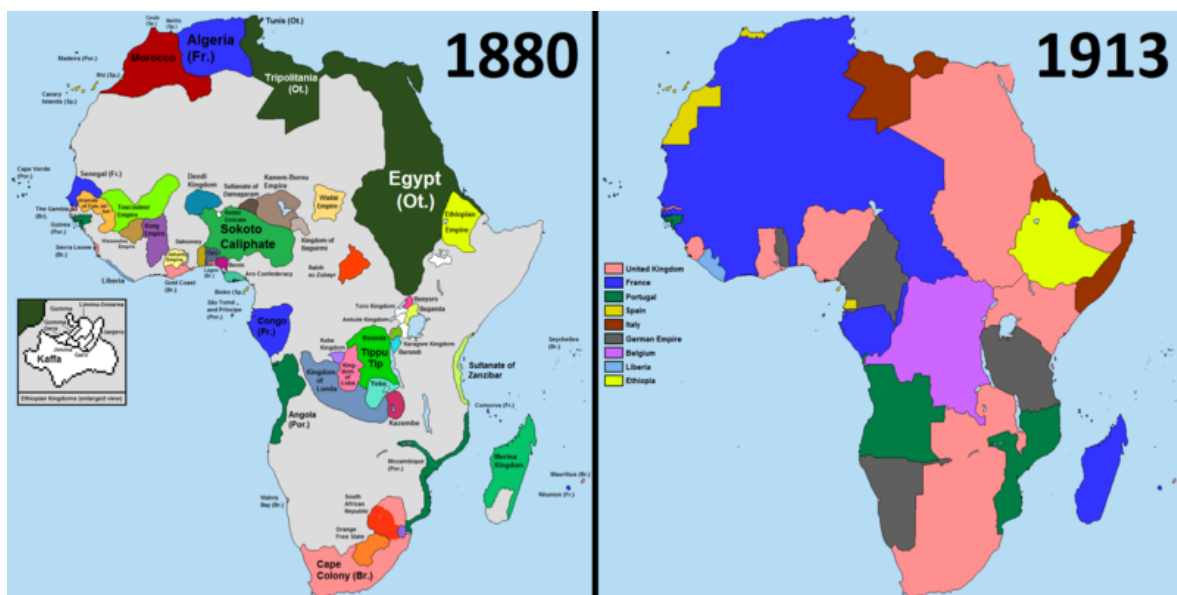


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Rainilaiarivony.jpg>>

*Rainilaiarivony, Prime Minister (1864-1895) –  
Married Queens Ranavalona II and III*

In the 1870s, the expansion of LMS missions led to British dominance of trade in the Merina Empire. After an incompetent

invasion by France (1883-1885), the Merina court agreed to cede the port of Diego Suarez and pay France an indemnity of \$2 million. In 1890, Britain gave France hegemony in Madagascar in return for France acceding to British dominance in Zanzibar. Madagascar was expendable because Britain already controlled the Suez Canal and Mauritius. France conquered Madagascar in 1894-1895, largely because alienated Merina troops deserted en masse.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Scramble-for-Africa-1880-1913.png>>

*European Colonialism in Africa, 1880 and 1913 – France (Blue),  
Britain (Pink), Germany (Brown), Portugal (Green), Belgium  
(Lavender), and Italy (Red)*

## **Colonial and Independent Madagascar (1896-2012)**

### **French Colonial Rule – Imperial Control and Nationalist**

**Response (1896-1960).** In 1896, France installed General Joseph-Simon Galliéni as governor of its new colony in Madagascar. With only 7,000 troops, Galliéni pacified the areas formerly under Merina rule by 1897 and the rest of the island before his departure in 1905. Galliéni pursued a policy of enlightened development, promoting roads, a railroad, hospitals, education, and agricultural research. But he used corvée labor, whereby Malagasy workers were taxed for up to three months per year, and he introduced heavy poll and cattle taxes on farmers and herders.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Gen. Gallieni\\_LCCN2014697689\\_\(cropped\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Gen._Gallieni_LCCN2014697689_(cropped).jpg)>

*General Joseph-Simon Gallieni, French Governor of Madagascar  
(1896-1905) – Brutal Conqueror and Effective Administrator*

Malagasy nationalism began in 1913 with the formation of a secret society, the VVS. French authorities responded by arresting 500 Malagasy intellectuals by 1915. In the 1920s, Jean Ralaimongo, who had fought for France in World War I and later roomed with Ho Chi Minh in Paris, promoted assimilation – the granting of French citizenship to all Malagasy. After France refused independence following World War Two, Malagasy nationalists in Paris formed the

Mouvement Démocratique de la Rénovation Malgache (MDRM), a pro-independence party that soon attracted 200,000 members.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Presidential\\_Standard\\_of\\_Madagascar.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Presidential_Standard_of_Madagascar.svg)>

*Mouvement Démocratique de la Rénovation Malgache (MDRM) Party –  
Independence Now*

MDRM leaders led an insurrection in 1947, which French officials brutally suppressed. Thereafter, Madagascar's transition to independence was peaceful. In 1956, French Socialists passed the *loi-cadre*, creating self-rule and universal suffrage in all French colonies. When General Charles de Gaulle came to power in 1958, he offered



French colonies the right to vote on self-government within or outside of the French Community. The vote in Madagascar was 77 percent in favor of freedom within the Community. Madagascar wrote a constitution in 1959 and gained independence in 1960.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bundesarchiv\\_B\\_145\\_Bild-F010324-0002\\_Flughafen\\_K%C3%B6ln-Bonn\\_Adenauer\\_de\\_Gaulle-cropped.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bundesarchiv_B_145_Bild-F010324-0002_Flughafen_K%C3%B6ln-Bonn_Adenauer_de_Gaulle-cropped.jpg)>*

*Charles de Gaulle, President of France (1959-1969) –  
Oversaw Independence Votes in French Colonies*

### **Political Evolution in Independent Madagascar (1960-1993).**

In 1960, Malagasy citizens and French advisers held very high expectations. Independent Madagascar had an educated elite, a strong civil service, and a solid set of government institutions on which to build

political and economic success. The reality of the French colonial legacy, however, should have been sobering – slow annual per capita income growth in the 1950s (0.7 percent), a weak rate of investment (14 percent of GDP), and a mostly agricultural economy with low productivity.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Slash\\_and\\_Burn\\_Agriculture,\\_Morondava,\\_Madagascar.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Slash_and_Burn_Agriculture,_Morondava,_Madagascar.jpg)>

*Tavy (Slash-and-Burn) Agriculture, Morondava, Madagascar –  
Low Productivity, High Deforestation/Erosion*

Philibert Tsiranana (1960-1972), Madagascar's moderate and pro-French first president, had founded the Parti Social Democrate in 1957. His political support came from rural, coastal areas, rather than the

urban, Merina-dominated highlands. Tsiranana permitted French military bases, hired French advisers in government ministries, and joined the Franc Zone (so that Malagasy monetary policy was decided in Paris). Economic progress was only moderate, disappointing most Malagasy. Tsiranana was forced to resign after a ruthlessly-suppressed peasant rebellion in 1971 and a student-inspired general strike in 1972. General Gabriel Ramanantsoa (1972-1975) headed an interim military government that expropriated French-owned plantations.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Philibert\\_Tsiranana\\_1962.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Philibert_Tsiranana_1962.jpg)>*

*Philibert Tsiranana, President of Madagascar (1960-1972) –  
Pro-rural Cotier and French Toady*

Didier Ratsiraka (1975-1993) introduced Marxist socialism and nationalized strategic industries, banks, insurance companies, and large estates. In 1978, Ratsiraka implemented a disastrous invest-to-the-hilt program, which doubled investment, selected unproductive white-elephant projects, and quintupled the government's foreign debt. Economic decline led to general strikes and widespread discontent. Ratsiraka's power was truncated in 1991, after his troops killed 30 demonstrators in front of his palace.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Didier\\_Ratsiraka.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Didier_Ratsiraka.jpg)>

*Didier Ratsiraka (1975-1993) – Disastrous Marxist Policies*

## **Political Evolution in Independent Madagascar (1993-2019).**

In 1992, a new constitution, supported by church-led groups, reduced the powers of the president and led to new elections. Albert Zafy, a professor of medicine and leader of the anti-Ratsiraka Forces Vives, was elected president in 1993. However, the General Assembly, which continued to be dominated by Ratsiraka's AREMA party, impeached Zafy in 1996.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:President\\_Albert\\_Zafy.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:President_Albert_Zafy.jpg)>*

*Albert Zafy (1993-1996) – Reformist and Professor of Medicine*

Ratsiraka defeated Zafy in the 1997 presidential election and returned to power. He oversaw the writing of a new constitution in 1998



which strengthened presidential power. The presidential election in 2001 resulted in a deadlock with both sides claiming victory. That political crisis was not resolved until July 2002, when Ratsiraka went into exile in France.

Marc Ravalomanana (2002-2009), a self-made Merina businessman who had made his fortune producing dairy products (his Tiko firm employed 5,000 and contracted with 10,000 dairy farmers), became president. A former mayor of Antananarivo, Ravalomanana introduced pro-market and anti-corruption reforms to revive the economy. In 2006, he was re-elected in a landslide victory. But, following mass demonstrations in 2009, he was removed in a military coup and went into exile in France.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Marc\\_Ravalomanana\\_\(cropped\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Marc_Ravalomanana_(cropped).jpg)>

*President Marc Ravalomanana (2002-2009) –  
Businessman, Reformer, and Conservationist*

The military installed Andry Rajoelina (2009-2014), the mayor of Antananarivo, as the President of the High Transition Authority (HAT). Most foreign powers, including the US, did not recognize the Rajoelina government, and the African Union placed sanctions on it. The Southern African Development Community (SADC) tried to broker a solution to the political crisis, but the HAT government refused to honor the terms of the brokered agreements – return of Ravalomanana, free

elections, and a general amnesty. Hery Rajaonarimampianina, an ally of Rajoelina, served as president for five years, starting in January 2014. Rajoelina defeated Ravalomana, winning 56 percent of the votes, in the election of October 2018 and January 2019, returned to the presidency, and has been back in power since January 2019.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Andry\\_Rajoelina\\_portrait\\_UN.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Andry_Rajoelina_portrait_UN.jpg)>

*Andry Rajoelina, President of the High Transition Authority (HAT),  
(2009-2014) and President of Madagascar (2019 –)*

### **Economic Decline in Independent Madagascar (1960-2012).**

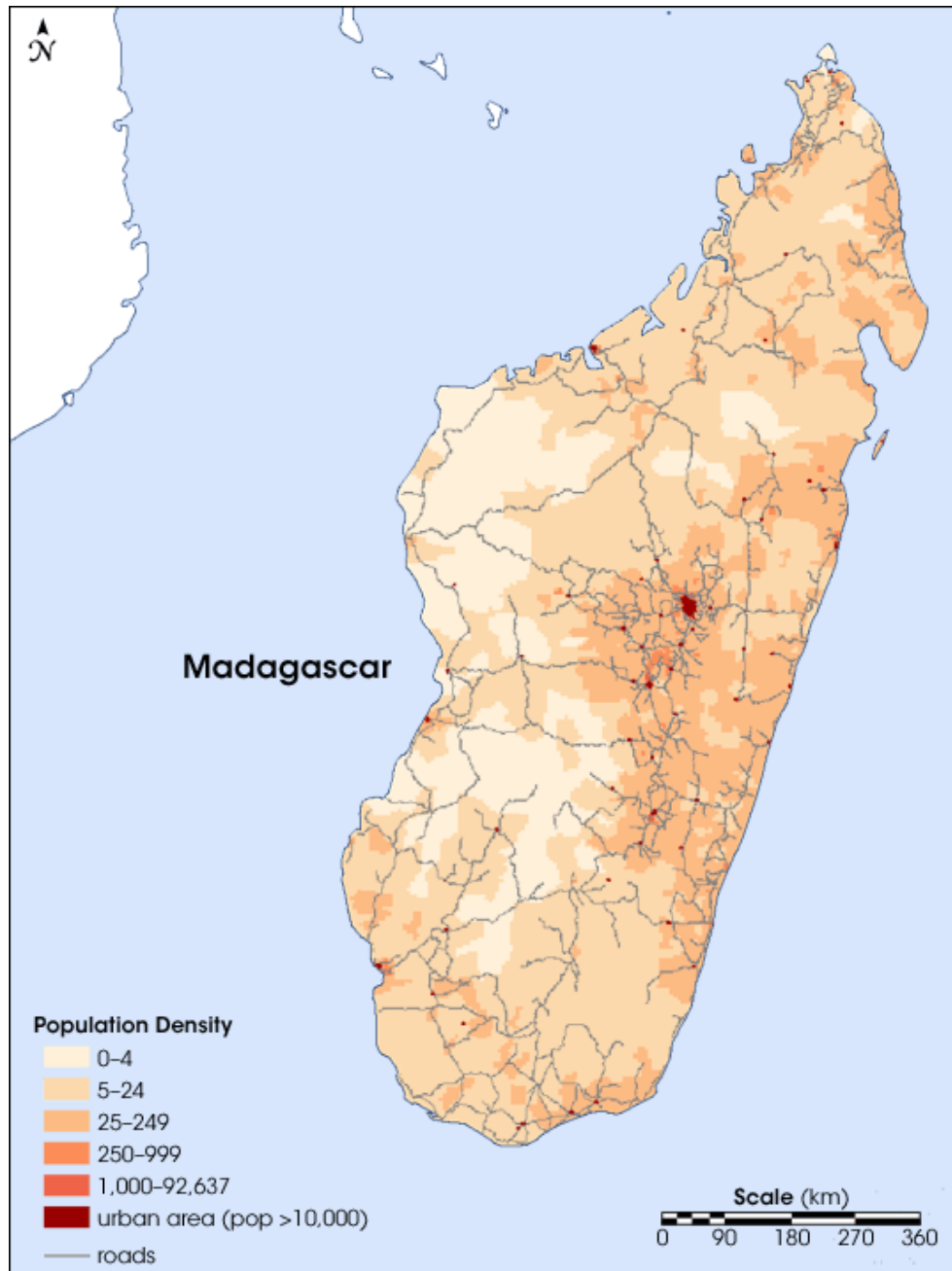
Madagascar's economy has performed dismally since independence.

Between 1960 and 2013, per capita income declined by one-fifth. For the six years between 2014 and 2019, income per capita (measured by the World Bank at Purchasing Power Parity in constant 2017 dollars) grew – but at an annual average rate of only 1.2 percent. Madagascar now is one of the poorest countries in the world. In 2019, Madagascar ranked only 164<sup>th</sup> of 189 countries in the United Nations’ Human Development Index (based on income, education, and health indicators), just 161<sup>st</sup> of 190 countries in the World Bank’s Ease of Doing Business Index, and an abysmal 175<sup>th</sup> of the 198 countries listed in Transparency International’s Corruption Perceptions Index. The World Bank estimates that 75 percent of Malagasy live beneath a poverty line and that only 13 percent have access to electricity. Population growth, political instability, and policy errors together have created this disastrous outcome.





to 21.3 million in 2011 and 27 million in 2019. Improvements in public health and negative growth of income combined to produce that discouraging result. If that dismal situation is to improve, Madagascar will have to find ways to improve political leadership, reduce rampant corruption, increase education and training, slow the rate of population increase, and return to the promise that the country had at independence.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Madagascar\\_popdens\\_2004.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Madagascar_popdens_2004.png)>

### *Population Densities in Madagascar – 27 Million People (2019)*

Political instability has curbed investment. Madagascar has had three prolonged political crises since independence – during 1972-1975,

1991-2002, and 2009-present. Peasant rebellions and mass urban demonstrations have occurred intermittently. Malagasy leaders have made harmful policy errors. The most egregious was the failed experiment with socialism in the 1970s and 1980s. Excessive government controls led to corruption and waste. The inattention to agriculture, ignoring Green Revolution techniques and high-yielding rice varieties, caused a need to import rice.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Imerina\\_countryside\\_riziere\\_rice\\_paddies\\_Madagascar.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Imerina_countryside_riziere_rice_paddies_Madagascar.jpg)>

*Terraced Rice Fields in Madagascar – But No Green Revolution*

Inappropriate agricultural marketing policies and the expropriation of estates led to a decline in agricultural exports. Since 2009, the HAT deadlock has created political uncertainty, caused donors to put foreign aid on hold, and forced the loss of 30,000 apparel jobs after the US government withdrew duty-free access to the US market.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Madagascar\\_map.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Madagascar_map.png)>

### *Contemporary Madagascar*



## David Livingstone and Henry M. Stanley in Africa (19<sup>th</sup> century)

**Livingstone's Background.** David Livingstone was born in 1813 in Blantyre, Scotland, the son of a poor tea merchant. Despite working full-time in a cotton mill from age ten, Livingstone received a good education in Protestantism, Latin, science, and math.

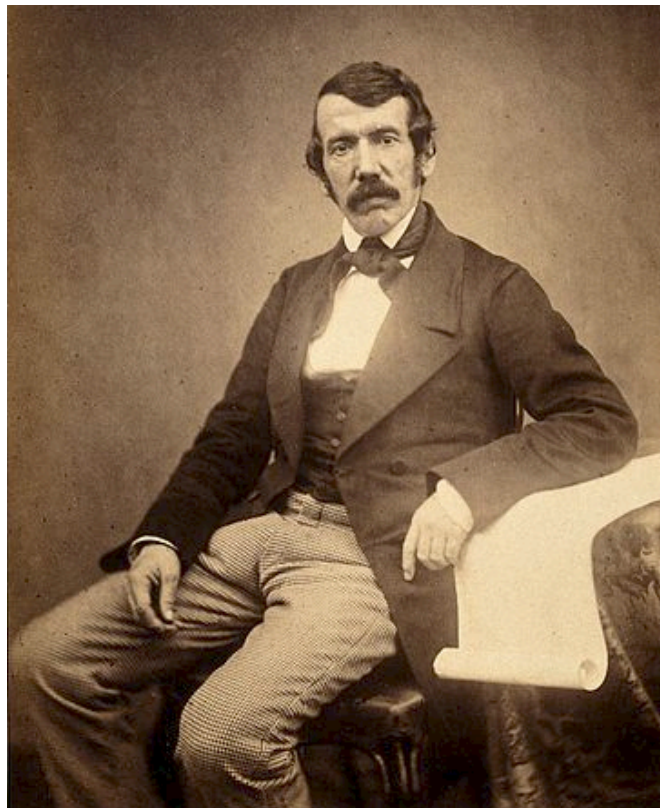


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:David\\_Livingstones\\_birthplace\\_\(geograph\\_4530192\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:David_Livingstones_birthplace_(geograph_4530192).jpg)>

*David Livingstone's Birthplace in Blantyre, Scotland –  
With Period Furnishings*

Between 1836 and 1840, Livingstone trained as a medical doctor and prepared to become a missionary. His personality traits reflected his

difficult childhood and conflicted brilliance. Livingstone was extremely self-confident, resilient, and courageous, and he demonstrated great empathy for Africans. But he also was intolerant of others' shortcomings, had a horror of failure, was prone to manic depression, and could be callous and deceitful.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:David\\_Livingstone.\\_Photograph\\_by\\_Maull\\_%26\\_Po lyblank.\\_Wellcome\\_V0026725.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:David_Livingstone._Photograph_by_Maull_%26_Po lyblank._Wellcome_V0026725.jpg)>

*David Livingstone – Brilliant, Courageous, Deceitful, and Paranoid*

Livingstone's guiding philosophy was that Europeans should colonize Africa in small Christian settlements. He believed that the

development of European commerce in Africa would end the slave trade, undermine tribal society, and open the way for conversion to Christianity. He came to see his own role as transcending work in missionary settlements and serving instead as God's chosen instrument to explore and open Africa for European settlement.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Medicine\\_chest\\_used\\_by\\_David\\_Livingstone,\\_Europe,\\_1860-1873\\_Wellcome\\_L0058636.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Medicine_chest_used_by_David_Livingstone,_Europe,_1860-1873_Wellcome_L0058636.jpg)>

### *Medicine Chest Used By Dr. David Livingstone*

Livingstone began his missionary work in southern Africa in 1841. He went first to Kuruman, where Robert Moffat had developed a small

missionary settlement (seen by the London Missionary Society as a model). Livingstone was chagrined to learn that Moffat had converted only 40 Africans to Christianity in 20 years, but Livingstone converted only one African in 32 years. He married Mary Moffat, Robert's daughter, in 1845 and began 17 years of an indifferent marriage. Disinterested in his wife and family, Livingstone focused on exploration, observation of African people, fauna, and flora, and ending slavery.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mary\\_Moffat,\\_wife\\_of\\_David\\_Livingstone,\\_Africa,\\_ca.1845-1860\\_\(imp-cswc-GB-237-CSWC47-LS16-024\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mary_Moffat,_wife_of_David_Livingstone,_Africa,_ca.1845-1860_(imp-cswc-GB-237-CSWC47-LS16-024).jpg)>

*Mary Moffat – Married David Livingstone, 1845*

**Livingstone's Explorations in Africa.** In 1849, Livingstone was the first European to see Lake Ngami (in northern Botswana), and in 1851 he claimed European discovery of the Zambezi River (which had been observed in 1848 by a Portuguese trader, Silva Porto). Livingstone hoped that the river would serve as a “God-given highway” to provide access for a British colony. In 1853-1854, he sought a trade route to the Atlantic Ocean, traveling from Linyanti on the Zambezi to Luanda in Portuguese Angola.

On a tortuous journey (1854-1856), Livingstone was the first European to cross Africa. He survived 27 attacks of malaria to travel 2,500 miles from Luanda to Quilimane (on the Indian Ocean in Portuguese Mozambique). En route, he discovered Victoria Falls (“the smoke that thunders”) in 1855.





Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at<  
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Victoria-Falls-BG.jpg>>

*Victoria Falls (“The Smoke That Thunders”) –  
Discovered by David Livingstone, 1855*

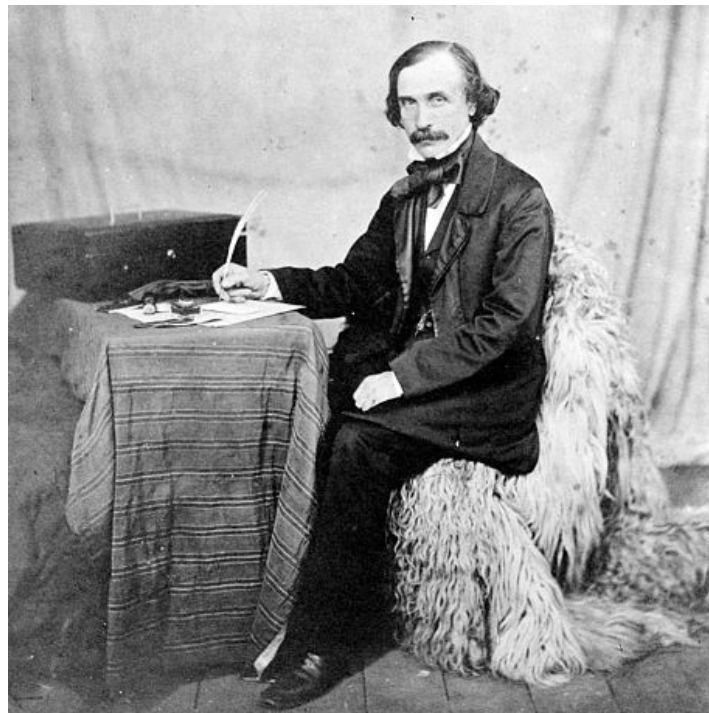


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_Showing\\_David\\_Livingstone%27s\\_Journey\\_Africa,\\_ca.1852-ca.1856\\_\(imp-cswc-GB-237-CSWC47-LS16-030\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_Showing_David_Livingstone%27s_Journey_Africa,_ca.1852-ca.1856_(imp-cswc-GB-237-CSWC47-LS16-030).jpg)

### *David Livingstone's Journeys in Southern Africa, 1851-1856*

After being lionized in Britain for two years, Livingstone led the ill-fated Zambezi Expedition (1858-1863), financed by the British Treasury. Livingstone had promised rich lands for British settlement.

But his discovery (in 1858) of the Kebrabasa Rapids proved that the Zambezi was not navigable from the Indian Ocean to the Barotse Valley and the Batoka Plateau, his targeted areas for settlement. Between 1859 and 1863, he shifted focus to the Shire Highlands and discovered Lake Nyasa.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:David Livingstone. Photograph. Wellcome M0017994.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:David_Livingstone._Photograph._Wellcome_M0017994.jpg)>

*David Livingstone – At Work, Exploring Southern and Eastern Africa*

Livingstone spent the last seven years of his life (1866-1873) searching for the source of the Nile River. In 1862, John Speke had claimed (correctly) that Lake Victoria was the source of the Nile.



Livingstone believed that the true source was Lake Bangweulu (west of Lake Nyasa). Between 1866 and 1868, he proved that Lake Bangweulu was connected to Lake Moero, the source of the Lualaba River. For the next five years, in poor health he tried unsuccessfully to prove that the Lualaba (the Congo River) was the Nile.



Source: *Wikimedia Commons*, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_livingstone\\_travels\\_africa.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_livingstone_travels_africa.jpg)>

*David Livingstone's Explorations in Central-East Africa, 1851-1873*

**Stanley's Background.** Henry Morton Stanley was born in 1841 in Denbigh, Wales as John Rowlands, an illegitimate son who was soon rejected by his 18-year-old mother. Stanley grew up in St. Asaph's workhouse on the bottom rung of the British societal ladder. In spite of the lack of parental guidance, he received a decent education in writing, math, geography, and accounting. In 1859, Stanley jumped ship in New Orleans, took the name of a prominent cotton broker (Henry Stanley), and became an American citizen. He fought first for the Confederacy and then for the Union in the American Civil War.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry\\_Morton\\_Stanley\\_1.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry_Morton_Stanley_1.jpg)>*

*Henry Morton Stanley – At Age 31 in 1872*



Throughout his life, Stanley tried desperately to escape the stigma of being a workhouse bastard. Although he craved love and security, he did not marry until age 49 (in 1890). Stanley sought adventure and fame to escape his difficult past, and he aggressively took risks and used deceit to succeed. He often was ruthless with European or American colleagues, but he was tolerant with Africans. Lacking a guiding philosophy, Stanley dedicated himself to causes that would further his career – finding David Livingstone in Tanganyika, tracing the Lualaba (Congo) River to the Atlantic Ocean, helping King Leopold of Belgium colonize the Congo, and rescuing Emin Pasha in Uganda.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Trans-Atlantic\\_Slave\\_Trade\\_Artifacts.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Trans-Atlantic_Slave_Trade_Artifacts.png)>

*Henry M. Stanley Unshackled Himself from His Unhappy Past –  
Shackles Used in the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade*

Before he embarked on those adventures, Stanley had limited experience. He led two friends in a fiasco in Ottoman Turkey in 1865, where they were robbed, jailed, and luckily freed. Stanley briefly visited Ethiopia in 1868, as a temporary reporter for the *New York Herald*. Because he was the first to report Britain's victory over Emperor Tewodros II at the Battle of Magdala (1868), Stanley earned a permanent position as reporter from James Gordon Bennett, Jr., the wealthy owner of the *Herald*.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:James\\_Gordon\\_Bennett\\_Vanity\\_Fair\\_15\\_November\\_1884.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:James_Gordon_Bennett_Vanity_Fair_15_November_1884.jpg)>

*James Gordon Bennett, Jr., Owner of the New York Herald –  
Caricatured in Vanity Fair, 1884*

**Stanley's Explorations in Africa.** Stanley then convinced Bennett to finance an expedition to find David Livingstone in East Africa. Employing 110 Wangwana (free Zanzibari) porters, Stanley ran an efficient expedition from Zanzibar to Lake Tanganyika and found Livingstone at Ujiji in 1871. The two men formed a father/son bond and explored Lake Tanganyika, finding no northward outlet (and thus no Nile source). When Stanley returned to Britain in 1872, he was lionized and his writings began the myth of Livingstone as a noble missionary.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry\\_Morton\\_Stanley\\_meeting\\_David\\_Livingstone\\_at\\_Ujiji\\_in\\_Wellcome\\_V0006855.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry_Morton_Stanley_meeting_David_Livingstone_at_Ujiji_in_Wellcome_V0006855.jpg)>

*“Dr. Livingstone, I Presume.” –  
Henry M. Stanley Met David Livingston in Ujiji, Tanganyika, 1871*



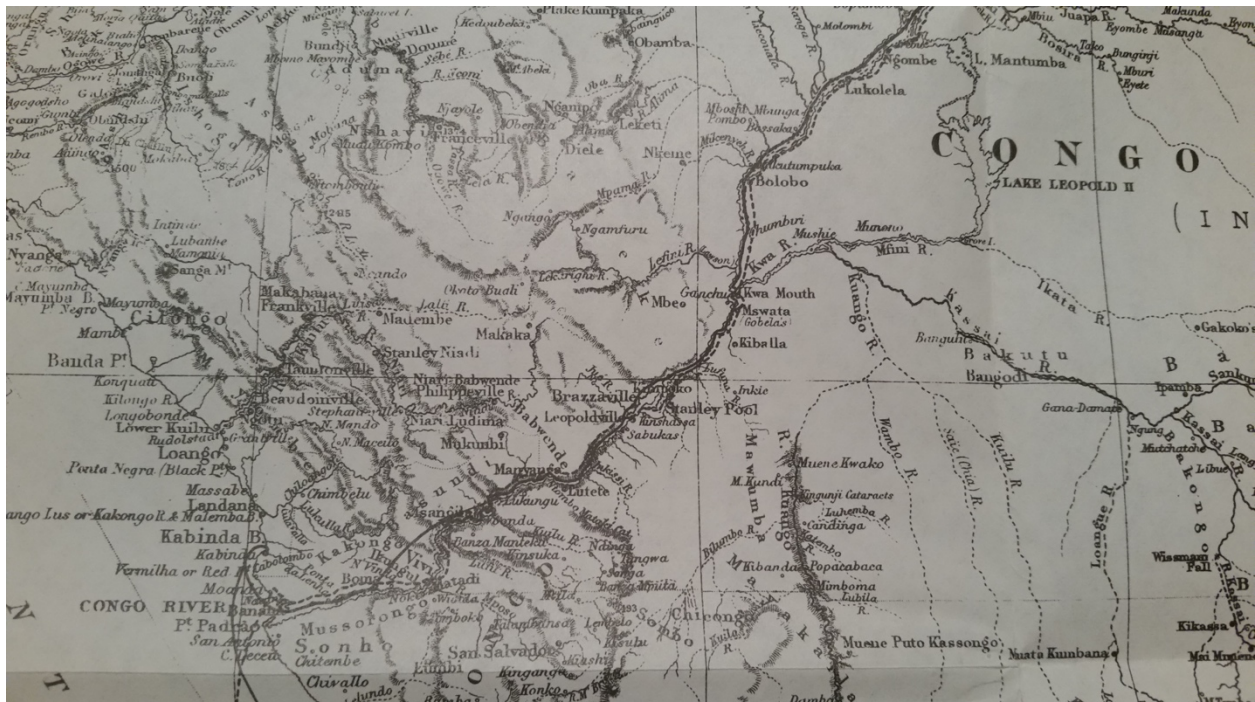
After Livingstone died in 1873, Stanley was determined to complete his search for the Nile's source. Funded by the *New York Herald* and the *London Daily Telegraph*, Stanley circumnavigated Lake Victoria (1875), corroborating Speke's Ripon Falls as the true source, and Lake Tanganyika (1876), finding no outlet other than a branch of the Lualaba River.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry\\_Morton\\_Stanley,\\_1872.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry_Morton_Stanley,_1872.jpg)>

*Henry Morton Stanley, Explorer of Central Africa,  
and Kalulu, His Ex-slave Servant, 1872*

Stanley followed the Lualaba (Congo) for 1500 miles to the Atlantic Ocean. He transported a steel boat, the *Lady Alice*, from Zanzibar, hired 700 porters from Tippu Tib (an Arab slave-trader), and arranged a rescue from the Liverpool trading firm, Hatton & Cookson.



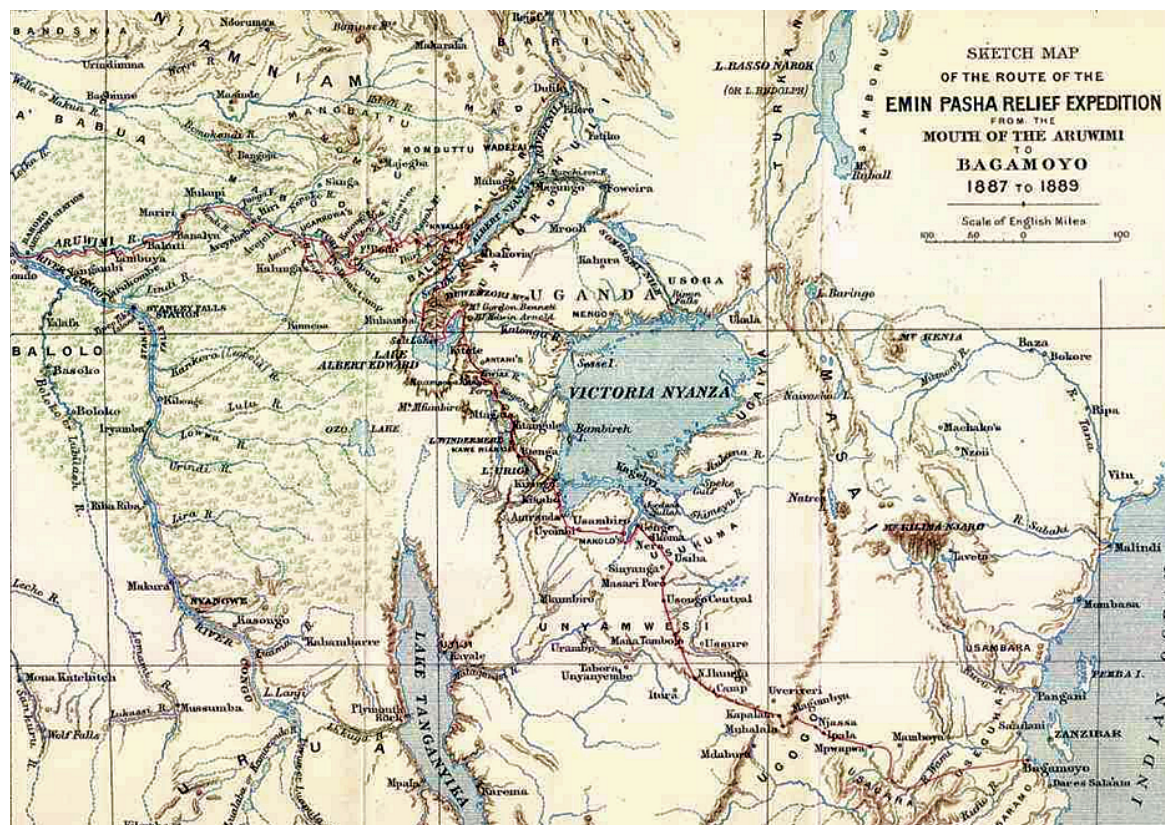
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Congo\\_Map\\_by\\_Stanley.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Congo_Map_by_Stanley.jpg)>

*Henry M. Stanley's African Explorations, 1874-1877 –  
Stanley's Congo Map in His Book, Through The Dark Continent, 1878*

Between 1879 and 1884, Stanley helped King Leopold II of Belgium establish the Congo Free State. To create a “Livingstonian highway” to promote trade and Christianity up the Congo River, Stanley



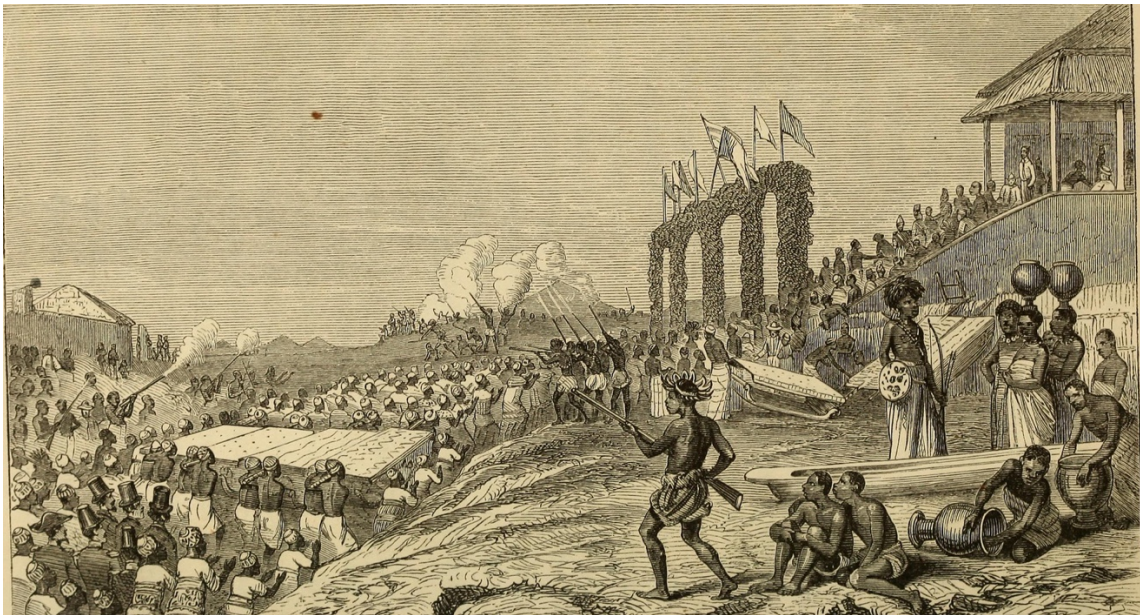
built a 200-mile road and five trading stations and beat the French to control Stanley Pool. Between 1887 and 1889, Stanley led a huge expedition up the Congo River to relieve Emin Pasha, the German governor of British Equatoria (southern Sudan) who was fighting the Mahdi (an Islamic leader). Stanley met Emin at Lake Albert, and at a cost of 400 lives, rescued 50 Egyptian soldiers and their families.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Emin\\_pasha\\_relief\\_expedition\\_map\\_1890.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Emin_pasha_relief_expedition_map_1890.png)

*Emin Pasha Relief Expedition, 1887-1889 –  
 Map By Henry M. Stanley, 1890*

**The Legacies of Livingstone and Stanley.** David Livingstone and Henry Morton Stanley were the two most prominent European explorers of Africa in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Livingstone lived in Africa for 30 years, crossed south-central Africa from west to east (1854-1856), and traced the course of the Zambezi River. Stanley spent 11 years exploring Africa, crossed the center of the continent from east to west (1874-1877), and traced the course of the Lualaba/Congo River. Their legacies in African history were significant.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Narrative\\_of\\_an\\_expedition\\_to\\_the\\_Zambesi\\_and\\_its\\_tributaries;\\_and\\_of\\_the\\_discovery\\_of\\_the\\_lakes\\_Shirwa\\_and\\_Nyassa.\\_1858-1864\\_\(1893\)\\_14793169003.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Narrative_of_an_expedition_to_the_Zambesi_and_its_tributaries;_and_of_the_discovery_of_the_lakes_Shirwa_and_Nyassa._1858-1864_(1893)_14793169003.jpg)>

*Livingstone's and Stanley's Anti-Slavery Crusade – David Livingstone, Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi and its Tributaries, 1865*

With the publication of his book, *How I Found Livingstone*, in 1872, Stanley introduced the popular myth that Livingstone was a flawless icon – a saintly missionary, courageous explorer, and tireless anti-slavery crusader. Stanley hoped this myth would sell more newspapers and books. But he also believed in Livingstone’s philosophy that European commerce, Christianity, and colonization together could improve African welfare. Both explorers crusaded against the Arab/African slave trade that was devastating eastern Africa. Livingstone’s reports, especially of massacres in Nyangwe, influenced the British Government’s decision to ban slavery in 1872. Stanley’s forceful writings and effective lobbying helped convince European governments to oust the Arab slavers in the 1880s and 1890s.



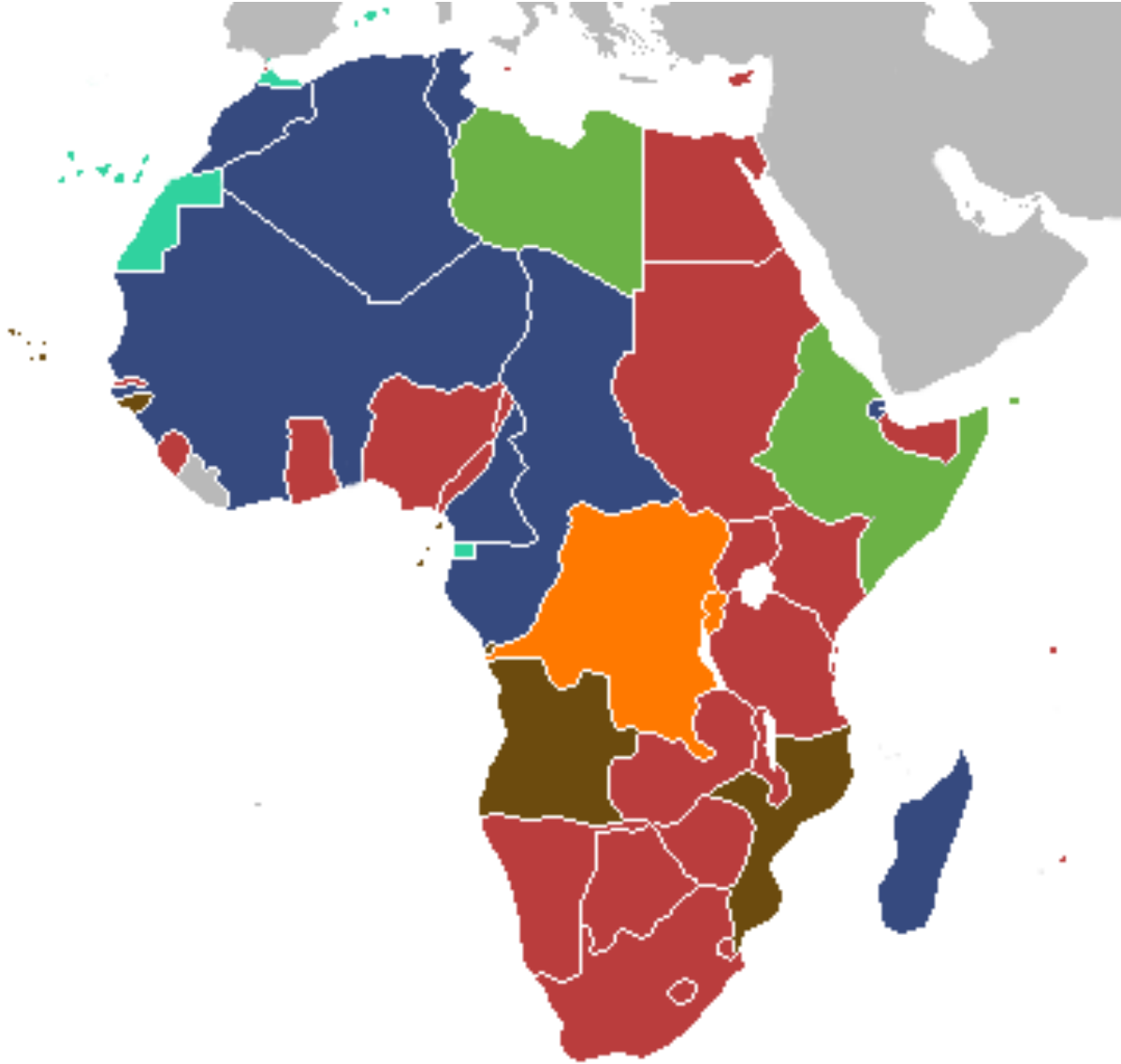


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The\\_Slave\\_Trade\\_by\\_Auguste\\_Francois\\_Biard.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Slave_Trade_by_Auguste_Francois_Biard.jpg)>

*The Slave Trade – by Francois-Auguste Biard, c. 1833*

The most important legacy of Livingstone and Stanley was their rationale that British imperialism could be justified morally – by a humanitarian imperative to help Africans. Livingstone wanted small Christian settlements that would convert surrounding African villages through trade. Stanley preferred large chartered companies that would

monopolize trade and rule. Their explorations and writings led to the British colonization of Nyasaland (1891) and Uganda and Kenya (1900).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_of\\_Africa\\_in\\_1939.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_Africa_in_1939.png)>

*Britain's African Colonies (Red Color) – Cape-to-Cairo, 1939*



## Great Britain in Africa (17<sup>th</sup>-19<sup>th</sup> centuries)

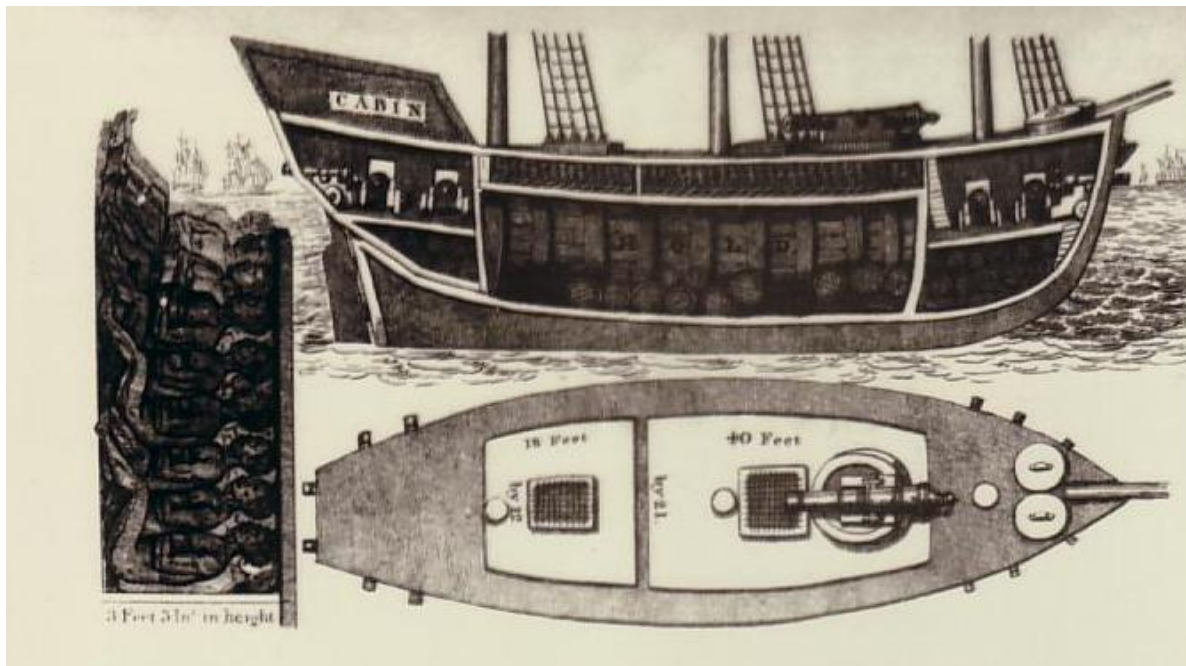
**The Atlantic Slave Trade.** After the opening of labor-intensive plantations in the Americas to produce sugar and cotton in the late 16<sup>th</sup> century, Great Britain, France, Portugal, and the Netherlands became involved in the African slave trade across the Atlantic Ocean. Slavery in Africa had long pre-dated the Atlantic slave trade. But the demand for African slaves in the Americas accelerated slave-raiding in Africa.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Triangle\\_trade2.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Triangle_trade2.png)>

*Triangle Trade Route in Atlantic Slave Trade – Europe, Africa, America*

The Atlantic slave trade followed a triangular pattern – European cloth and other manufactures were sent to Africa and exchanged for African slaves, the slaves were shipped to the Americas and traded for sugar, rum, and other American commodities, and the American goods were carried to Europe and swapped for European manufactures. About 9.5 million African slaves survived the horrendous Atlantic crossing. Of that total, 300,000 slaves were transported in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, 1.3 million in the 17<sup>th</sup>, 6 million in the 18<sup>th</sup>, and 1.9 million in the 19<sup>th</sup>.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Diagram\\_of\\_a\\_slave\\_ship.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Diagram_of_a_slave_ship.jpg)>

*Diagram of a British Slave Ship – British Library*

Most of the slaves were shipped to the Caribbean (3.8 million) and Brazil (3.7 million). The Guianas (in northern South America) took 1.6 million African slaves, whereas the United States received only 400,000. The slave trade devastated raided areas (especially the Middle Belt of West Africa and the Congo Basin) and slowed African adaptation of new techniques to produce legitimate exports. But the sub-Saharan African population grew (to about 60 million by 1800) because of the introduction of American food crops (maize, cassava, and beans).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cassava.jpg>>

*Cassava Roots After Harvest in West Africa –  
Staple Food Crop Introduced from Brazil by the Portuguese*

**Britain and the Scramble for Africa (1870s-1890s).** By the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, European nation states had become the world's leading economic and military powers. The industrial revolution (factory production) and the communications revolution (steamships, railroads, telegraphs) triggered a massive expansion of global trade, which was supported by advances in military technology (steamships, rifles, machine guns). A scramble for African colonies among European competitors occurred in the 1870s and 1880s. Britain wanted to control the Suez Canal in Egypt (and thus its route to India), establish a Cape-to-Cairo corridor, and gain prime areas in West Africa.

France hoped to offset its humiliating defeat in the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871) by establishing an integrated colonial empire in North, West, and Equatorial Africa. Germany wished to divert France's attention away from its losses of Alsace and Lorraine toward colonial gains in Africa and to claim four of its own African colonies in areas dominated by Britain (East Africa, Southwest Africa, Cameroon, and Togo). During the early 1880s, France led the scramble for Africa with aggressive actions in Tunisia, the Niger Basin, and Gabon, Britain



took Egypt and expanded in southern Africa, and Germany claimed its four colonies.



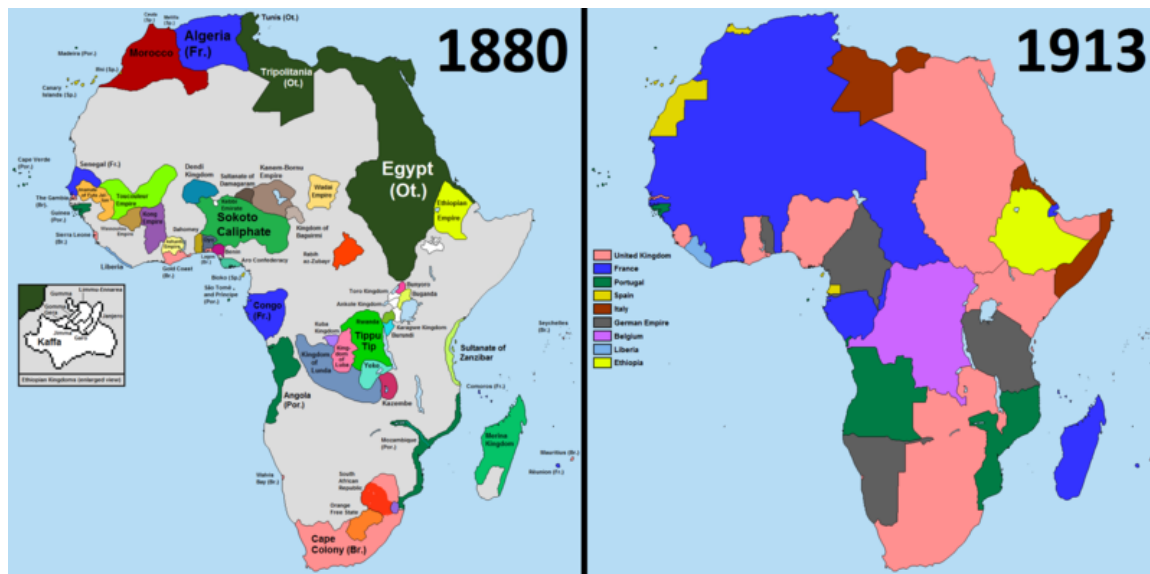
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Europe\\_1878\\_map\\_en.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Europe_1878_map_en.png)>

### *Europe in 1878 – Great Britain, France, and Germany Were Ascending Technically, Politically, and Economically*

In the Berlin Conference (1884-1885), three longtime powers in Africa (Britain, France, and Portugal) joined two recent entrants (Germany and Belgium) to partition Africa and avoid war. The paper annexations were not based on effective occupation. Hence, in the 1890s, the European powers scrambled to define boundaries, especially



in the western Sudan, Lake Chad, and southern Nile. To control imperial costs, all powers limited their spending on development projects in their new colonies.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Scramble-for-Africa-1880-1913.png>>

*European Colonialism in Africa, 1880 and 1913 – Britain (Pink), France (Blue), Germany (Brown), Portugal (Green), Belgium (Lavender), and Italy (Red)*

**British Colonialism in Eastern Africa (1890s-1910s).** In 1890, control of the port and cloves of Zanzibar was the focus of British-German imperial rivalry. Britain ceded the North Sea island of Heligoland to Germany in return for German recognition of British claims to Zanzibar, Kenya, Uganda, and parts of southern and western

Africa. Britain also gave up its claims to Madagascar in exchange for French recognition of British rights to Zanzibar and then declared a British protectorate over the Omani sultanate of Zanzibar, which lasted until 1963.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Stone\\_Town\\_of\\_Zanzibar-108843.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Stone_Town_of_Zanzibar-108843.jpg)>

*Stone Town, Zanzibar, Omani Entrepôt on the Indian Ocean –  
Colonized By Great Britain in 1890*

Earlier, in 1888, the German East Africa Company proclaimed colonial rule of Tanganyika. After Germany lost World War I and all its colonies, Britain gained control of Tanganyika in 1918 under a League

of Nations mandate. Uganda in the 1890s experienced a religious race between European Protestants and African Muslims. The Protestants won by converting the Baganda elite. In the Uganda Agreement of 1900, the British agreed to share power with the new Christian elite in the *Lukiiko* assembly. The British Parliament voted funds to build the Uganda Railway (1895-1902) from Mombasa to Lake Victoria to control Uganda and thus the source of the Nile. The British and the Baganda elite developed cotton as a cash crop to generate taxes to pay for administration, and Britain ruled Uganda until 1962.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:CottonPlant.JPG>>

*British Colonists Introduced Cotton Into Uganda*



Kenya had desirable ports, but a pastoral hinterland with no cash crops. The British government chartered the British East Africa Company in 1888 to exploit Kenya, but the Company went bankrupt in 1893. Under British colonial rule (1900-1963), the government reserved much of the productive land (the “white highlands”) to produce cash crops on plantations. By 1914, 3,000 Europeans had settled in Kenya.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:KIKUYU\\_CULTURAL\\_DANCERS.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:KIKUYU_CULTURAL_DANCERS.jpg)>

*Kikuyu Women in Kenya –  
Celebrating the Re-election of President Uhuru Kenyatta in 2017*

**British Colonialism in Southern Africa (1890s-1910s).** David Livingstone's influential writings had focused British interest in protecting a "missionary road" north from the Cape Colony into interior Central Africa. When Germany annexed South West Africa (Namibia) in 1883, Britain proclaimed a protectorate in Bechuanaland (Botswana), the region to the east of the new German colony. The British wanted to permit northward expansion and protect the diamond production at Kimberley. Lord Salisbury, the British Prime Minister (1885-1892), desired to create a contiguous strip of British territory from the Cape to Cairo to buttress British control of Egypt and the Suez Canal (and thus of India).





Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Robert\\_Arthur\\_Talbot\\_Gascoyne-Cecil,\\_Vanity\\_Fair,\\_1900-12-20.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Robert_Arthur_Talbot_Gascoyne-Cecil,_Vanity_Fair,_1900-12-20.jpg)>

*Lord Salisbury (Robert Gascoyne-Cecil), Vanity Fair, 1900 – Imperialistic British Prime Minister, 1885-1892, 1895-1902*

A leading diamond entrepreneur, Cecil Rhodes, convinced Parliament to charter his British South Africa Company (BSAC) in 1889. Rhodes led his “pioneer column” of white settlers northward across the Limpopo River into Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) in 1890, overcoming both Shona and Ndebele resistance. Rhodes hoped to find a

“second Rand of gold deposits” (Witwatersrand gold had been discovered in 1886) and to settle British farmers in Rhodesia. He moved northward into Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) in 1891 and raced the Belgians to divide control of the Katanga copper deposits.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The\\_history\\_of\\_the\\_nineteenth\\_century\\_in\\_caricature\\_\(1904\)\\_ \(14780476241\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_history_of_the_nineteenth_century_in_caricature_(1904)_ (14780476241).jpg)>

### *Cecil Rhodes Astride Africa – Punch Cartoon, 1904*

By 1914, 10,000 white farmers had settled in Southern Rhodesia and 3,000 Europeans had migrated to Northern Rhodesia. The BSAC governed both Rhodesias until 1923. Britain declared a protectorate in

Nyasaland (Malawi), the region to the east of the Rhodesias, in 1891. A strong lobby of missionaries and traders convinced Britain to govern Nyasaland directly (not under the BSAC). Lacking an African cash crop, Nyasaland hoped to attract white settlers but only a few hundred had arrived by 1914.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Federation\\_of\\_Rhodesia\\_and\\_Nyasaland.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Federation_of_Rhodesia_and_Nyasaland.png)>

*Prior to Independence, Britain Put Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland Into a Colonial Federation (1953-1963)*

## Tanzania (1961-present)

**Julius Nyerere and African Socialism (1961-1985).** Julius Nyerere, the President of Tanzania from 1962 until 1985, was born the son of a minor chief in 1922. Educated at Makerere College and the University of Edinburgh, he founded the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) party in 1954. Nyerere made TANU the only legal party in 1963. Nyerere was charismatic and revered.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The\\_National\\_Archives\\_UK\\_-\\_CO\\_1069-166-21.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_National_Archives_UK_-_CO_1069-166-21.jpg)>

*Julius Nyerere and TANU Supporters –  
Celebrating Tanganyika's Independence in 1961*

In the Arusha Declaration (1967), Nyerere put Tanzania on the road of African socialism. Nyerere felt that poverty could best be alleviated by state-owned industries, equalized incomes, and extensive social services. Aid donors, led by the Nordic countries and the World Bank, applauded Nyerere's emphasis on education, equality, and southern African liberation and provided generous support. By 1985, foreign aid accounted for one-sixth of Tanzanian national income. Nyerere's policy taxed agriculture to pay for urban industries.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at<  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Julius\\_Nyerere\\_\(1965\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Julius_Nyerere_(1965).jpg)>*

*Julius Nyerere (1922-1999), Revered President of Tanzania (1962-1985  
– Pictured in 1965*



TANU leaders cut farm prices by a third and nationalized crop marketing with a bloated, inefficient staff. Nyerere also forced 13 million farmers to resettle into 7,700 *ujamaa* villages away from their dispersed farms. The goal was to provide centralized social and agricultural services in communitarian settlements. Those policies failed disastrously, creating economic collapse and widespread parallel markets for foreign exchange and consumer goods.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mtae\\_Village\\_Tanzania\\_\(7998354676\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mtae_Village_Tanzania_(7998354676).jpg)>

### *Ujamaa Villages (1967-1975) – Tanzania's Farmers Resisted Resettlement*

In the early 1980s, real per capita incomes declined, shortages of food and consumer goods were rampant, and the newly-created

industries were operating at only 25 percent of capacity. Corruption became widespread as civil servants took bribes to allocate import licenses and used the funds as start-up capital in entrepreneurial ventures on the parallel market. Tanzania was in social and economic crisis.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tanzania\\_market.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tanzania_market.jpg)>

*Widespread Parallel (Black) Markets –  
For Food, Consumer Goods, Foreign Exchange*

**First Reforms and Backsliding (1986-1994).** In 1985, Julius Nyerere stepped down as president. Ali Hassan Mwinyi, a pragmatic Zanzibari Muslim, then served as president for ten years. Mwinyi embraced economic reform and negotiated a stand-by agreement with

the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1986. A pre-condition for the agreement was a 58 percent devaluation of the highly-overvalued Tanzanian shilling.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ali-hassan-mwinyi-.jpg>>

*Ali Hassan Mwinyi – Chama cha Mapinduzi  
(CCM) President of Tanzania (1985-1995)*

The first wave of reforms focused mainly on macro-economic adjustments. In exchange for loans from the IMF, World Bank, and bilateral donors, Tanzania agreed to raise taxes, cut spending, and thereby reduce inflation (which had been over 30 percent annually). Complementary reforms included increasing prices paid to farmers,

winding down public marketing of food and export crops, and ending the *ujamaa* villages program.



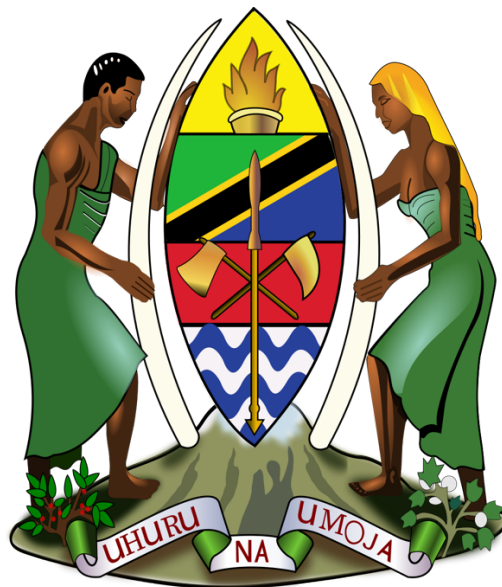
*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bank\\_of\\_Tanzania\\_golden\\_hour.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bank_of_Tanzania_golden_hour.jpg)>*

*First Reforms for Macroeconomic Stability –  
Bank of Tanzania Twin Towers, Dar es Salaam*

The donors provided assistance to offset some of the reform-related hardships to poor consumers. The new funds were provided in tranches. If Tanzania did not meet reform targets, the donors withheld their aid. The Helleiner Report (written in 1994 by a team of foreign experts) helped resolve a crisis between the donors and the government. Tanzania promised to implement reforms if the donors stopped insisting on changes within the political oligarchy.



A division arose within the government between the “reds” (who wanted to maintain many of the socialist controls) and the “experts” (who were convinced that the socialist experiment had failed and wanted to return to market-based capitalism). Ultimately, most bureaucrats supported reform, in part because many had become entrepreneurs as traders or manufacturers in the parallel market. Hence, the transition from single-party socialism to multi-party democracy was smooth.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Coat\\_of\\_arms\\_of\\_Tanzania.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Coat_of_arms_of_Tanzania.svg)>

*Coat of Arms of Tanzania (Freedom and Unity) –  
Most “Red” and “Expert” Civil Servants Supported Reforms*

**Second Reforms and Recovery (1995-2019).** The CCM party  
(Chama cha Mapinduzi, formed in 1977 when TANU merged with the



Afro-Shirazi Party of Zanzibar) won the first four contested presidential elections – in 1995 (62 percent of the vote), 2000 (72 percent), 2005 (80 percent), and 2010 (63 percent). Benjamin Mkapa (1995-2005), a former diplomat, emphasized good donor relations and anti-corruption measures during his two terms as president. He oversaw a second wave of reforms through which Tanzania encouraged private foreign investment, built infrastructure, opened the economy, expanded exports, and rejoined the East African Community.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Benjamin\\_William\\_Mkapa\\_-\\_World\\_Economic\\_Forum\\_on\\_Africa\\_2010\\_-\\_1.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Benjamin_William_Mkapa_-_World_Economic_Forum_on_Africa_2010_-_1.jpg)>

*Benjamin Mkapa, Third President of Tanzania (1995-2005) –  
Led Second Round of Reforms*

Early in his second term, Mkapa led a rapid divestiture of state-owned enterprises (parastatals). By the end of 2002, 326 of Tanzania's 390 parastatals had been privatized – 122 were sold to Tanzanian firms, 14 were purchased by foreign firms, and 190 became Tanzanian-foreign joint ventures. Watch-dog NGOs alleged corruption and favoritism in many of those sales, but those charges have not been proven.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Williamson\\_Diamond\\_Mine,\\_Mwazui,\\_Tanzania\\_02.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Williamson_Diamond_Mine,_Mwazui,_Tanzania_02.jpg)>

*Williamson Diamond Mine, Mwazui, Tanzania – Privatized as a Joint Venture between De Beers (75%) and the Tanzanian Government (25%)*

President Jakaya Kikwete (2005-2015), a former military officer and foreign minister, negotiated a massive relief of \$5.6 billion of

Tanzania's foreign debt and stressed the expansion of social programs (education and health services) with eager donor support. Tanzanian politics took a new turn in 2010.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Jakaya\\_Kikwete\\_2011\\_\(cropped\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Jakaya_Kikwete_2011_(cropped).jpg)>

*Jakaya Kikwete (1950-present) – President of Tanzania (2005-2015)*

Willibrod Slaa, a former Catholic priest with a doctorate in law, formed a new party, Chadema, on an anti-corruption platform.

Chadema, like the CCM, a national party with no ethnic base, appealed

to young, middle-class, urban voters and won 27 percent of the presidential votes and 40 of the 357 seats in the National Assembly.

John Magufuli, the CCM candidate, won the presidential election held in October 2015 and was re-elected by a large margin five years later. The opposition alleged fraud in both elections. Magufuli began serving as Tanzania's president in November 2015.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:John\\_Magufuli\\_2015.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:John_Magufuli_2015.png)>

*John Magufuli, Controversial President of Tanzania (2015-2021)*

Known as “The Bulldozer” because of his strong support for infrastructure projects, Magufuli has been praised for promoting



economic development and better governance and criticized for suppressing the independent media and opposing gay rights. After suffering from a heart ailment, Magafuli died in March 2021.

Samia Suluhu Hassan, the Vice-President, was sworn in as Tanzania's President on March 19, 2021. She is the first woman and the first person born in Zanzibar to serve as Tanzania's President.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Samia\\_Suluhu\\_Hassan\\_in\\_May\\_2017.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Samia_Suluhu_Hassan_in_May_2017.jpg)>

*Samia Suluhu Hassan, Sixth President of Tanzania (March 2021 –) –  
Former Vice-President of Tanzania (2015-2021)*



**Socio-economic Indicators and Challenges.** Between 1995 and 2015, the Tanzanian economy grew steadily and fairly rapidly. The average annual rate of growth of per capita income (measured by the World Bank at Purchasing Power Parity in constant 2017 dollars) was 3 percent during the presidencies of Nkapa and Kikwete, That growth rate increased slightly – to 3.3 percent – during Magafuli’s first term (2015-2019).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sukuma\\_tribe\\_traditional\\_Dance\\_by\\_Mchele\\_Mchelle\\_group.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sukuma_tribe_traditional_Dance_by_Mchele_Mchelle_group.jpg)>

*Sukuma Dancers, Tanzania’s Largest Ethnic Group –  
Tanzania’s Annual Population Growth Rate is 3%*

Tanzania's per capita income in 2019 (adjusted for purchasing power) was \$2,771, only 71 percent of the average for sub-Saharan Africa and 4 percent of the US level. Growth of per capita income is burdened by a very high annual rate of population growth of 3 percent. Life expectancy for Tanzania's 58 million people has increased to 65 years and adult literacy to 78 percent. Three-fourths of Tanzanians live in rural households, yet agriculture contributes only one-third of GDP.

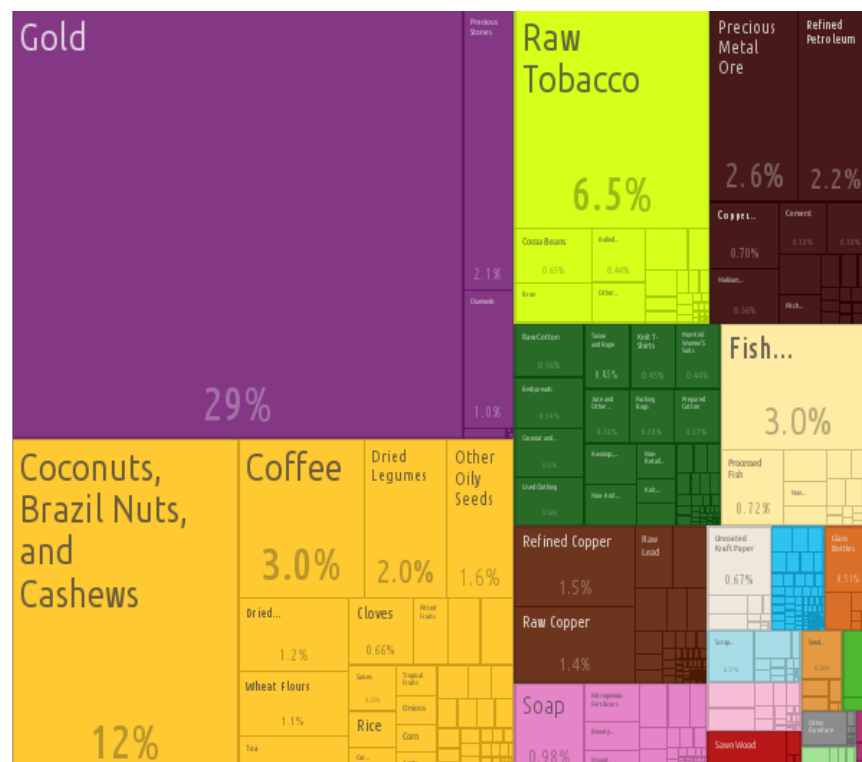


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tanzania\\_agriculture\\_map-fr.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tanzania_agriculture_map-fr.svg)

### *Principal Agricultural Crops Produced in Tanzania in 2008*

The World Bank estimates that 26.3 percent of the population subsist on incomes below the poverty line in 2018. To provide a social safety net, Tanzania has started a cash grant program with World Bank

support. Each year, 700,000 extremely poor households receive \$250 million (about 0.5 percent of GDP or 2.5 percent of government revenue). Tanzania remains dependent on foreign aid. Official development assistance of \$2.5 billion per year is equivalent to 4 percent of GDP. The main Western donors are the World Bank, UK, USA, Japan, and the EU. Wildlife-based tourism (1 million arrivals in 2018) also contributes about \$2.5 billion annually to the Tanzanian economy.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:United\\_Republic\\_of\\_Tanzania\\_Exports\\_Treemap\\_2017.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:United_Republic_of_Tanzania_Exports_Treemap_2017.svg)

*Proportional Representation of Tanzania's Export Earnings in 2017 – The Leading Exports Were Gold, Cashew Nuts, Coffee, and Tobacco*





Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Parks\\_Tanzania.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Parks_Tanzania.svg)

### *National Parks in Tanzania – Wildlife-based Tourism Is An Important Dimension of Development Prospects*

Observers are guardedly optimistic about Tanzania's future.

Natural gas reserves offer huge potential revenues, although full production is seven-to-ten years away. For Tanzania to benefit fully

from future gas production, the financial management of the government will need to improve. Because of continuing corruption, in 2019 Tanzania ranked only 96<sup>th</sup> of the 198 countries in Transparency International's acclaimed Corruption Perceptions Index. Excessive regulation and inefficient bureaucracy have resulted in a very low ranking – 141<sup>st</sup> of 190 countries – in the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index. Future economic success will depend on Tanzania's ability to curb corruption, improve the climate for investors, increase production of natural gas, and slow the rate of population growth.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Songo\\_Songo\\_Gas\\_Plant.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Songo_Songo_Gas_Plant.jpg)>

*Songo Songo Plant for Offshore Natural Gas –  
Tanzania Claims Natural Gas Reserves of 30 tcf*



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
 < <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tz-map2.png> >

### *Contemporary Tanzania*

## **Time Line for Southern and Eastern Africa**

4 <sup>th</sup> century CE	Bantu farmers, migrating from the north, joined indigenous San hunter-gatherers and Khoikhoi pastoralists in Southern Africa
7 <sup>th</sup> century	Austronesian-speakers from Indonesia migrated to East Africa, intermarried with Africans, settled the Comoros Islands
7 <sup>th</sup> century	proto-Malagasy people, Austronesians speaking a Malay-based language, migrated to Madagascar from the Comoros Islands
13 <sup>th</sup> century	mega-fauna in Madagascar – the dwarf hippopotamus and the aepyornis (a huge ostrich) – driven to extinction by humans
1488	Portuguese explorer Bartolomeu Dias explored coast of Namibia and sailed around southern tip of South Africa
1498	Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama sailed around Cape of Good Hope en route to India
1500	Portuguese explorer Diogo Dias discovered Madagascar
c. 1500	Herero and Ovambo peoples, Bantu pastoralists and farmers from central Africa, settled in northern and central Namibia
1652	Jan van Riebeck of the Dutch East India Company founded the Cape Colony



1690s-1720s	Madagascar a haven for 400-800 European pirates raiding in the Indian Ocean – British Royal Navy suppressed piracy in the 1720s
1778-1809	Andrianampoinimerina ruled Merina kingdom in Madagascar
1795	British forces captured the Cape Colony from the Netherlands, following the Battle of Muizenberg
early 19 <sup>th</sup> century	Oorlam-Nama, a Khoi people who had adopted Afrikaner military technology, set up a Namibian, ruled from Windhoek
1806	The Netherlands ceded the Cape Colony to Great Britain
1807	Great Britain abolished the slave trade
1809-1828	Radama I ruled Merina kingdom in Madagascar
1813-1873	life span of David Livingstone – missionary, explorer, and anti-slavery crusader
1815	British sovereignty of the Cape Colony was acknowledged by all European powers
1828-1861	Queen Ranavalona I ruled Merina kingdom in Madagascar
1833	Great Britain banned slavery in its territories
1835-1840	Afrikaner Great Trek – mass migration of 5,000 Afrikaners to establish own territories beyond British control

1841-1904	life span of Henry Morton Stanley – journalist, explorer, and entrepreneur
1841-1872	David Livingstone served as a missionary and explorer in southern and eastern Africa
1842	Afrikaners proclaimed the Natal Republic, but Britain seized the area and incorporated it into the Cape Colony
1845-1862	David Livingstone and Mary Moffat – indifferent marriage
1854	Afrikaners established the Orange Free State
1854-1856	David Livingstone – first European to cross the African continent – 2,500 miles west-to-east, from Luanda to Quilimane
1858-1863	David Livingstone – led ill-fated Zambezi Expedition – discovered Lake Nyasa
1860	Afrikaners established the Transvaal Republic (South African Republic)
1863-1895	Rainilaiarivony ruled Merina kingdom in Madagascar, as Prime Minister and husband of Queens Ranavalona II and III
1866-1873	David Livingstone – unsuccessful search for the source of the Nile River
1867	diamonds discovered at Kimberley

1871	Henry Morton Stanley found David Livingstone – Ujiji, Tanganyika – began the myth of Livingstone as a noble missionary
1874-1877	Henry Morton Stanley – crossed Africa from east to west – followed the Congo River for 1500 miles to the Atlantic Ocean
1877	Great Britain annexed the Transvaal Republic
1879-1884	Henry Morton Stanley – helped King Leopold II of Belgium establish the Congo Free State
1880-1881	First Anglo-Boer War – Britain won, but Transvaal was restored as a Republic
1883	Great Britain proclaimed a protectorate in Bechuanaland (Botswana) – to protect the diamond production at Kimberley
1884	Germany annexed South West Africa (Namibia) – Great Britain annexed Walvis Bay, Namibia
1884-1885	Berlin Conference – Great Britain, France, Portugal, Germany, and Belgium partitioned Africa to avoid imperial war
1886	gold discovered in the Witwatersrand, near Johannesburg
1886-1890	Germany, Great Britain, and Portugal established boundaries of a new German colony, South West Africa (Namibia)

1887-1889	Henry Morton Stanley – led an expedition up the Congo River to relieve Emin Pasha, the German governor of British Equatoria
1888	German East Africa Company proclaimed colonial rule of Tanganyika for Germany
1889	Great Britain chartered Cecil Rhodes's British South Africa Company – settled Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) in 1889, Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) in 1891
1890	Great Britain gave France hegemony in Madagascar in return for France acceding to British dominance in Zanzibar
1890	Great Britain ceded the North Sea island of Heligoland to Germany in return for German recognition of British claims to Zanzibar, Kenya, Uganda, and parts of western Africa
1891	Great Britain declared a protectorate in Nyasaland (Malawi), the region to the east of the Rhodesias
1892-1910	German colonists brutally suppressed uprisings in South West Africa – killed 60-80 percent of the Herero and Nama people
1894-1895	France conquered Madagascar – alienated Merina troops deserted en masse
1895-1902	Great Britain built the Uganda Railway from Mombasa to Lake Victoria – to control Uganda and the source of the Nile

1896-1905	General Joseph-Simon Gallieni, French Governor of Madagascar – brutal conqueror and effective administrator
1899-1902	Second Anglo-Boer War – Britain won – Transvaal and Orange Free State made self-governing colonies in the British Empire
1900-1963	Great Britain colonized Kenya – appropriated the “white highlands” for cash crops – settled 3,000 Europeans by 1914
1908	German firms began mining diamonds in Lüderitz and Oranjemund, South West Africa
1910	Union of South Africa formed – British Cape of Good Hope Colony and Natal plus Afrikaner Transvaal and Orange Free State
1914-1918	World War I – South Africa aligned with victorious Triple Entente (Great Britain, France, Russia) plus Italy and United States
1914-1915	South African forces invaded and took control of South West Africa from Germany
1920	South West Africa (later Namibia), former German colony, was placed under control of South Africa – League of Nations mandate
1939-1945	World War II – South Africa aligned with victorious Allies (Great Britain, France, Russia, United States)



1946	Malagasy nationalists in Paris formed the Mouvement Démocratique de la Rénovation Malgache (MDRM), pro-independence party
1948	National Party adopted Apartheid (separateness) policy in South Africa
1950	Group Areas Act – designated areas where members of the races were permitted to live in South Africa
1953	Reservation of Separate Amenities Act – legislated unequal public facilities and services for different races in South Africa
1958	France, led by President Charles de Gaulle, allowed colonies to vote on independence – Madagascar voted 77 percent in favor
1960	Madagascar gained independence from French colonial rule peacefully
1960	South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) formed to oppose South African rule
1960	Sharpeville Massacre in South Africa – 70 Black protesters killed – African National Congress banned
1960-1972	Philibert Tsiranana – President of Madagascar – moderate and pro-French
1961	South Africa became a republic, left the British Commonwealth – Nelson Mandela led new ANC policy of violent resistance

1961	UN General Assembly terminated South Africa's mandate in South West Africa and demanded future independence
1962-1985	Julius Nyerere of Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) – President of Tanzania
1964	Nelson Mandela, leader of the ANC, was captured and sentenced to life imprisonment
1966	SWAPO began its campaign of armed resistance to South African occupation
1967	Soweto Demonstration – violently repressed by South African government
1967	Arusha Declaration – Julius Nyerere put Tanzania on the road of African socialism – created 7,700 unpopular <i>ujamaa</i> villages
1968	UN General Assembly renamed South West Africa as Namibia
1970s	More than 3 million Africans forcibly resettled in Black “Homelands” in South Africa
1972-1975	General Gabriel Ramanantsoa headed an interim military government in Madagascar – expropriated French-owned plantations
1973	UN General Assembly recognized SWAPO as the legitimate government of Namibia

1975-1993	Didier Ratsiraka, President of Madagascar – introduced Marxist socialism
1977	United Nations Security Council enacted mandatory arms embargo against South Africa
1985-1995	Ali Hassan Mwinyi of Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM) – President of Tanzania
1988	South Africa agreed to Namibia's independence in exchange for removal of Cuban troops from Angola
1989	F. W. de Klerk became President of South Africa– desegregated public facilities – freed many ANC activist prisoners
1989	SWAPO won election for Namibian Constituent Assembly
1990	Namibia became independent in March
1990-2005	Sam Nujoma, SWAPO – President of Namibia
1990	Nelson Mandela released after 27 years in prison – ANC unbanned in South Africa
1991	de Klerk repealed remaining apartheid laws in South Africa– multi-party talks began – international sanctions lifted
1993	all parties agreed to interim new constitution for South Africa
1993-1997	Albert Zafy – President of Madagascar

1994	ANC won first non-racial elections – South Africa rejoined Commonwealth – all sanctions lifted
1994-1999	Nelson Mandela of ANC – President of South Africa
1995-2005	Benjamin Mkapa of Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM) – President of Tanzania
1996-1998	Truth and Reconciliation Commission, chaired by Archbishop Desmond Tutu, adjudicated crimes of anti-apartheid era
1997-2002	Didier Ratsiraka – President of Madagascar
1999-2009	Thabo Mbeki of ANC – President of South Africa
2002-2009	Marc Ravalomanana – President of Madagascar
2005-2015	Hifikepunye Pohamba of SWAPO – President of Namibia
2005-2015	Jakaya Kikwete of Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM) – President of Tanzania
2009-2018	Jacob Zuma of ANC – President of South Africa
2009-2014	Andry Rajoelina – President of the High Transition Authority of Madagascar
2014-2019	Hery Rajaonarimampianina – President of Madagascar
2015-present	Hage Geingob of SWAPO – President of Namibia

2015-2021	John Magufuli of Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM) – President of Tanzania
2018-present	Cyril Ramaphosa of ANC – President of South Africa
2019-present	Andry Rajoelina – President of Madagascar
2021-present	Samia Suluhu Hassan of Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM) – President of Tanzania



## **Bibliography for Southern and Eastern Africa**

Phoebe Barnard (ed.), *Biological Diversity in Namibia – A Country Study*, Windhoek: Namibian National Biodiversity Task Force, 1998.

Norman Robert Bennett, *Arab Versus European, Diplomacy and War in Nineteenth-Century East Central Africa*, New York: Africana Publishing Company, 1986.

M. Reda Bhacker, *Trade and Empire in Muscat and Zanzibar, Roots of British Domination*, London: Routledge, 1992.

David Birmingham, *Portugal and Africa*, London: Macmillan Press, 1999.

Paul Bohannon and Philip Curtin, *Africa and Africans*, Prospect Heights, Illinois: Waveland Press, 1995.

Sugata Bose and Ayesha Jalal, *Modern South Asia, History, Culture, Political Economy*, London: Routledge, 1998.

Edward W. Bovill, *The Golden Trade of the Moors*, Princeton, NJ: Markus Weiner Publishers, 1995.

Mervyn Brown, *Madagascar Rediscovered, A History from Early Times to Independence*, Hamden, Connecticut: Archon Books, 1979.

Gwyn Campbell, *An Economic History of Imperial Madagascar, 1750-1895, The Rise and Fall of an Island Empire*, Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2005.

Andrew Coulson, *Tanzania, A Political Economy*, Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press, 2013.

Philip Curtin, Steven Feierman, Leonard Thompson and Jan Vansina, *African History, From Earliest Times to Independence*, London: Longman, 1995

Tim Ecott, *Vanilla, Travels in Search of the Luscious Substance*, London: Michael Joseph, 2004.

Sebastian Edwards, *Toxic Aid, Economic Collapse and Recovery in Tanzania*, Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press, 2014.

Bill Freund, *The Making of Contemporary Africa: The Development of African Society since 1800*, Boulder, Colorado: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 1998.

Erik Gilbert, *Dhows and the Colonial Economy of Zanzibar, 1860-1970*, Oxford: James Currey, 2004.

Albert Hourani, *A History of the Arab Peoples*, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2010.

Anne Hugon, *The Exploration of Africa: From Cairo to the Cape*, New York: Harry N. Abrams, Inc., 1993.

Tim Jeal, *Livingstone*, New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 2001.

Tim Jeal, *Stanley, The Impossible Life of Africa's Greatest Explorer*, New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 2007.

Jeffrey D. Lewis, *Promoting Growth and Employment in South Africa*, Africa Region Working Paper Series 32, Washington, DC: The World Bank, 2002.

David Livingstone, *The Life and African Explorations of Dr. David Livingstone*, New York: Cooper Square Press, 2002.

Michael F. Lofchie, *The Political Economy of Tanzania, Decline and Recovery*, Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2014.

Nelson Mandela, *Long Walk to Freedom: The Autobiography of Nelson Mandela*, New York: Little, Brown and Company, 1994

Patrick Manning, *Francophone Sub-Saharan Africa, 1880-1995*, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Colin McEvedy, *The Penguin Atlas of African History*, London: Penguin Books, 1995.

John Middleton, *African Merchants of the Indian Ocean, Swahili of the East African Coast*, Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press, Inc., 2004.

John Middleton, *The World of the Swahili, An African Mercantile Civilization*, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1992.

Alfred T. Moleah, *Namibia: the Struggle for Liberation*, Wilmington, DE: Disa Press, Inc., 1983.

Jocelyn Murray (ed.), *Cultural Atlas of Africa*, New York: Checkmark Books, 1998.

Roland Oliver and Anthony Atmore, *Africa Since 1800*, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 2005.

Roland Oliver and J. D. Fage, *A Short History of Africa*, London: Penguin Books, 1995.

Stefano Ponte, *Farmers and Markets in Tanzania, How Policy Reforms Affect Rural Livelihoods in Africa*, Oxford, United Kingdom: James Currey, 2002.

Douglas Porch, *The Conquest of the Sahara*, New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 2005.

Frederic L. Pryor, *Malawi and Madagascar, The Political Economy of Poverty, Equity, and Growth*, Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press, 1990.

Solofo Randrianja and Stephen Ellis, *Madagascar, A Short History*, London: Hurst & Company, 2009.

Andrew C. Ross, *David Livingstone, Mission and Empire*, London: Hambledon and London, 2002.

Malise Ruthven, *Historical Atlas of Islam*, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 2004.

Hillas Smith, *The Unknown Frenchman, The Story of Marchand and Fashoda*, Sussex, England: The Book Guild Ltd, 2001.

Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa*, New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1995.

Stanley Wolpert, *A New History of India*, New York: Oxford University Press, 2000.

World Bank, *Madagascar*, available at  
<<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/AFRICAEXT/MADAGASCAREXTN/0,,menuPK:356358~pagePK:141159~piPK:141110~theSitePK:356352,00.html>>.

World Bank, *Tanzania Overview*, 2014, available at  
<http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/tanzania/overview>.

## **Sites Visited in Southern and Eastern Africa**

**Tanzania Family Adventure**  
**Stanford Travel/Study Program**  
**July 3-15, 2015**  
**Land-based**

### **Arusha National Park, Tanzania**

Arusha is a growing city of perhaps half a million residents, based on tourism, tanzanite mining, and government administration (it is the headquarters of the East African Community). Known in African history as the site of Julius Nyerere's declaration of African socialism in 1967, Arusha today is a melting pot of diverse Tanzanian ethnic groups – Nilotic (Arusha, Masai) and Bantu (Chagga, Meru). Our Stanford family group stayed in the Lake Duluti Serena Lodge, a comfortable, ten-year-old facility sited six miles out of Arusha on the edge of scenic Lake Duluti. Arusha is surrounded by a verdant agricultural region (producing maize, bananas, vegetables, and coffee) in the foothills of volcanic Mount Meru, which at 14,980-foot elevation Tanzania's is second highest mountain. Africa's highest peak, Mount Kilimanjaro, rises 19,350 feet from sea level about 50 miles to the east of Arusha.

Our group of four Stanford families began our safari with a visit to Arusha National Park. From that montane park of 53 square miles, we had excellent views of Mount Meru (to the west) and occasional glimpses through the clouds of Mount Kilimanjaro (to the east). The scenic mountain habitat offered a pleasant setting. We succeeded magnificently in observing black-and-white colobus monkeys (which we will have no further chance to see on this safari). These grim-faced, large primates live entirely in trees, specialize in eating leaves, and grow spectacularly long white tails. The first day of a safari is always filled with excitement as newcomers to Africa see known animals in the wild for the first time. We enjoyed being introduced to Masai giraffes,



zebras, Cape buffalo, warthogs, mongooses, waterbucks, bushbucks, and masses of pink flamingos (on the shores of the alkaline Momella Lakes).

### **Tarangire National Park, Tanzania**

Tarangire National Park, Tanzania's fourth largest park with an area of nearly 1100 square miles, is reached after a two-hour drive southward from Arusha. Tarangire is located in the part of north-central Tanzania that is inhabited largely by half a million Masai people, who remain wedded to their traditional nomadic lifestyle of herding cattle, sheep, and goats. The park features rolling savanna grasslands, studded with acacia and baobab trees, and hills leading down to the Tarangire River basin. We spent two exciting nights in tents at the Tarangire Safari Lodge, sited on a steep hillside with spectacular views overlooking the river. The lodge is owned and operated by a family of former Lutheran missionaries, originally from Minnesota. Tarangire Park is renowned for its large matriarchal herds of elephants that use the river as a source of the 60 gallons daily that each elephant requires.

Our observations of wildlife in Tarangire Park were fruitful. We watched herds of 10-12 elephants drinking in the river and mothers teaching baby elephants how to survive in the wild. From the edge of the lodge, we were fascinated by a pride of 11 lionesses stalking zebras at the river's bank for a late-afternoon hunting opportunity. On a game drive, we came across a crèche of giraffes, in which several new mothers circled around their immature suckling babies to provide protection against predators. Our list of observed wildlife species continued to grow. We added rock hyraxes (ferret-like critters, related to elephants), impalas (medium-sized antelopes), Grant's gazelles, vervet monkeys, and many of Tarangire's 550 bird species – ostriches, southern and red-billed hornbills, crested and white-bellied bustards, red-billed ox-pickers, lilac-breasted rollers, tawny eagles, and African harrier hawks.

### **Ngorongoro Conservation Area, Tanzania**

En route from Tarangire Park to Ngorongoro Conservation Area, we spent a relaxing afternoon and night at the Lake Manyara Serena Lodge and a stimulating day with visits to the home of Iraqw elder Daniel Tewa (who regaled us with stories of the Cushitic Iraqw ethnic group), the Ayalabe Primary School (where our kids played soccer with their students), and the Gibbs Farm (where we observed Arabica coffee production and processing). The Ngorongoro Conservation Area was established in 1959 to protect the extraordinary wildlife in the Ngorongoro Crater, a huge, caldera comprising 102 square miles, formed after a series of volcanic eruptions more than 2 million years ago. The 20,000 former Masai residents were relocated to the rim of the crater (at an elevation of 7500 feet) but permitted to use the floor of the crater (2000 feet lower than the rim) to graze and water their cattle.

Rangers at Ngorongoro Conservation Area estimate that the crater houses 26 adult and six infant black rhinoceroses. Our group was thrilled to observe a female with her infant and a solitary male, fulfilling our largest hope for that day of wildlife viewing. We watched in awe as 15 spotted hyenas stalked zebras across a wide range of treeless grassland, but, alas, chose not to attack. In a pool of water, we saw 16 mostly-submerged hippopotamuses, awaiting a nighttime of nonstop grass-grazing, surrounded by pelicans and herons. Earlier in the morning, we watched expectantly as two young male lions, probably brothers recently ejected from a pride, sized up a lone Cape buffalo and then wisely refrained from pouncing. Along the alkaline shores of Lake Magadi, large numbers of pink lesser flamingoes and whitish greater flamingoes formed a picturesque sight. Ngorongoro Crater was magical.

### **Serengeti National Park, Tanzania**

The Stanford group drove in Land Rovers from Ngorongoro westward to the Serengeti National Park, 5670 square miles of high plains and rich grasslands. Along the way, we stopped at the Olduvai Gorge, where Louis, Mary, and Jonathan Leakey discovered fossils of *Homo habilis*, proving that early man originated in Africa. We then proceeded to the

Serengeti, which houses the world's largest quantity of mammals – estimated at 10 million. Every year, about 2 million wildebeests and 250,000 zebras carry out a migration in search of better grasslands and more water, moving in a clockwise direction from the southern Serengeti northward to the Masai Mara National Park in Kenya and back again in time for the female wildebeests to calve during February. We spent three glorious nights in a private, mobile camp, the Serengeti Nyumba, catered by Thomson Safaris.

Our game-viewing in the Serengeti was spectacular. We drove north to observe the migration of wildebeests and zebras and waited several minutes while an unbroken line of animals crossed the road. We saw four lionesses and four cubs lounging in the tall grass, a pride of eight females sleeping in a tree, two young brothers stalking a Cape buffalo, and a large male with a female hoping to mate. We came upon a female leopard, probably 6-7 years old, and her two cubs, about four months old, resting high in an Acacia tree. On our last day in the Serengeti, we observed two groups of the elusive cheetah – a female and cub in the tall oat-like grass, and a mother with three new cubs (3-4 weeks old) lying under a nearby tree in a kopje (rock-outcropping). In addition, we saw several more antelope species – eland (the largest), hartebeest, topi, steenbok, and dikdik (the smallest) – and a four-foot cobra.

\* \* \* \* \*

**Southern Africa by Private Air, A Family Adventure**  
**Bushtracks Expeditions**  
**July 22-August 1, 2010**  
**Airplane-based**

**Mala Mala and Kruger National Park, South Africa**

South Africa was colonized by the Dutch (1652-1795) and the British (1795-1910). After achieving independence, the country was ruled by Afrikaaner-led governments – first, moderate (1910-1948) and later,

radical (1948-1994). Apartheid was ended in 1989-1994 under the inspired leadership of Nelson Mandela and F. W. de Klerk. Mandela, the leader of the African National Congress, was elected President in 1994 and served until 1999. Under Mandela's charismatic leadership, reconciliation in South Africa was achieved, although economic progress was slow. Economic recovery began in 2002 during the presidency of Thabo Mbeki (1999-2008). In 2009, South Africa's per capita income was \$10,060 (100<sup>th</sup> among 213 countries). South Africa's economy is broadly diversified, although the country relies on mineral exports – platinum, gold, and diamonds. Jacob Zuma, a controversial Zulu leader, was elected president in 2009.

After convening in Johannesburg for a welcome banquet, our group flew east and spent three glorious days in Mala Mala, a 34,000-acre, private game reserve adjacent to the Kruger National Park. Because Mala Mala has been carefully managed for 47 years, the wildlife there are habituated to being accompanied by small groups of vehicles (three maximum, only one moving at a time) carrying quietly excited photographers. Visitors to that plush camp are nearly guaranteed to see Africa's "Big Five" – elephant, lion, leopard, rhino, and Cape buffalo. We had numerous sightings of the Big Five and of other spectacular game (hyenas, mongooses, giraffes, and warthogs) and birds (saddle-billed storks, kingfishers, ibises, and lilac-breasted rollers). Those three days offered some of the best game-viewing I have ever enjoyed in my nearly half century of visiting Africa. The highlight was a close-up observation of a mother leopard teaching her seven-month-old cub how to clean each other simultaneously and affectionately on a night game drive. The guides at Mala Mala were extremely knowledgeable and accommodating (especially for our Young Rangers), and the African staff gave beautiful renditions of their syncopated music during outdoor dinners in the camp's boma.

## **Victoria Falls and Livingstone, Zambia**

Zambia, formerly the British colony of Northern Rhodesia (1888-1964), has had a checkered past. Kenneth Kaunda, the first president (1964-1991), introduced state socialism and nationalized the copper- and cobalt-producing firms. Poor policies, falling copper production, and declining world prices of copper caused Zambia to fall from middle-income status into poverty. Following privatization of the copper/cobalt industry in 2000, production and profitability have increased and the Zambian economy has responded positively. After four years of high copper prices and growing copper output, the country achieved a per capita income of \$1280 in 2009 (189<sup>th</sup> among 213 countries). Rupiah Banda narrowly won the presidential election of October 2008. Banda has embarked on an economic diversification program, aiming to wean the country from its dependence on copper and cobalt by promoting agriculture, tourism, and hydropower.

We visited Zambia to see the Victoria Falls of the Zambezi River, one of the world's widest (1.1 miles) and most spectacular waterfalls, in full flood. The Victoria Falls were unknown to Europeans until their discovery by David Livingstone in 1855. Even though the railroad line north to the copper mines in Northern Rhodesia was routed through Victoria Falls in 1905, the remote area was marginal for agriculture. The town of Livingstone was the capital of Northern Rhodesia from 1907 to 1935 and now lives from tourist revenues. Its impressive museum features Livingstone memorabilia. Near Livingstone, we spent a poignant morning at the Ebenezer Primary School, which educates 305 poverty-stricken students, many without parents because of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. The teaching staff at Ebenezer had selected their best-achieving students to be pen-pals with the children in our group. The meeting of the pairs of pen-pals, the playing of introductory games and exchange of songs, and an all pen-pal soccer game were moving experiences for everyone – both adults and children. Our group also enjoyed a lesson in playing African drums at an outdoor boma dinner, a leisurely cruise on the Zambezi River, above the Victoria Falls, and an opportunity to shop for Zambian crafts.



## **Okavango Delta and Moremi Game Reserve, Botswana**

Botswana, a former British colony (1885-1964), has had only four presidents, and the last three had been vice-president. Botswana has a small population (1.9 million, with 80 percent from the Batswana ethnic group), mostly arid land (1.5 times the size of California), and the world's largest production of diamonds (Debswana, the monopoly producer, is owned half each by De Beers Consolidated and the government of Botswana). Diamonds contribute 70 percent of exports and one-third of national income. Botswana also benefits from tourism and exports of copper and nickel. Ample natural resources, political stability, and good policy have led to the world's fastest growth of income in the past 40 years (9 percent per year) and to a per capita income of \$12,860 in 2009 (86<sup>th</sup> among 213 countries). Botswana's national income declined by 4 percent in 2009 when global recession severely reduced the demand for diamonds.

The Okavango Delta is a large interior delta – an area where rivers flow into and end in an internal depression rather than flow outward to the sea. After the rainy season (November-March), much of the Okavango is under water and the roads are often impassable. Because the Delta serves as an enormous oasis at the edge of the Kalahari Desert, it attracts substantial numbers of wild animals and migratory birds. Hence, the Okavango is a “must-see” on African safaris. Our group stayed at two nearby tented camps – Camp Moremi and Xakanaxa. Both were very comfortable, scenic, and well-organized. We searched for game and birds on Land Cruisers and on small boats. The most memorable sighting was of a pangolin, a small (40-inch-long), scaly eater of ants and insects. Most career guides in the Delta have never seen this unusual animal, which forms a tight circle of impermeable scales as a defensive mechanism. We also observed numerous species of birds (African fish eagles and hammer kops) and large mammals (herds of elephants and African buffalos). The Delta is wetter than it has been for twenty years, so our vehicles occasionally got stuck or had to gun it

through deep water where bridges were out. The Okavango is a unique wildlife habitat in a spectacular setting.

\* \* \* \* \*

**Africa by Air and the Great Rift Valley**  
**Bushtracks Expeditions**  
**September 1-19, 2008**  
**Airplane-based**

**Masai Mara National Reserve, Kenya**

Earlier this year, Kenya experienced a severe political crisis. Followers of the incumbent president, Mwai Kibaki, blatantly rigged the presidential election of December 2007. Supporters of Raila Odinga demonstrated, precipitating a series of brutal clashes. Fortunately, in April 2008 the two sides agreed to share power in a coalition government. Kenya's 38 million people inhabit a potentially rich portion of eastern Africa, which is about 1.5 times larger than California. They export more than \$1 billion annually of horticultural products (green beans, snow peas, cut flowers) to Europe, and their small-scale farmers produce some of the world's highest quality tea and coffee. Despite Kenya's strong touristic attractions (game parks and Indian Ocean beaches), the country is poor, ranking in the bottom quintile in the world in per capita income (\$1560 in 2007).

We began our Great Rift Valley safari in the Masai Mara, an extension of the Serengeti Plain (which houses the world's greatest concentrations of large mammals). The nomadic pastoralist Masai people graze their cattle and goats in areas near the Reserve, but they are not allowed to use the Mara park itself. The Mara is my favorite game park in all of Africa, and I have visited it more than a dozen times. Our group was especially fortunate to observe nearly all of the major species of large animals in the Mara – elephants, hippos, lions, giraffes, black rhinos, and numerous antelopes. Our most memorable sighting was of three cheetah brothers,

about four-years-old, hunting wart hogs. They got too greedy. Instead of triangulating on one prey, they each tried to catch a different wart hog. After three amazing races, all came back empty-handed.

## **Virunga National Park, Rwanda**

Rwanda, the site in 1994 of the world's worst genocide since the Second World War, now is peaceful. About one million people died in three months when extremist Hutus (a Bantu ethnic group) attempted to wipe out the minority Tutsis (a Nilotic ethnic group that had dominated the Hutus during much of the past five centuries). A group of Tutsi exiles from Uganda won the civil war, ended the genocide, and took over. The reconciliation government, led by Paul Kagame, now oversees the cleanest country in Africa. With 10 million people living in an area the size of Maryland, Rwanda has the greatest population density in Africa and enormous problems to overcome. The former German (1899-1915) and Belgian (1915-1961) colony exports high quality coffee and tea, but its per capita income (\$830 in 2007) is among the world's 15 lowest.

Our second safari stop, Volcanoes National Park in Rwanda (part of the Virunga Park in Rwanda, Uganda, and Congo), was for Sandra and me the most memorable. We had seen lowland gorillas in the Central African Republic, but we had never observed mountain gorillas in the wild. The experience was breath-taking. Near Sabinhyo volcano, we hiked through dense bamboo rainforest at 9,500-feet elevation to observe a group of eight habituated mountain gorillas – a 550-pound male silverback, two females, three juveniles, and two babies. We watched the entire group gently cuff and pass around their babies. Although we were supposed to stay at least 23 feet away from the gorillas, they decided the separation distance. For a while we were transfixed within 10 feet of four gorillas, and one of the females grazed Sandra on a descent. It was incredible.

## **Gombe Chimpanzee Preserve, Tanzania**

Tanzania was formed in 1964 when the former German (1884-1918) and British (1918-1961) colony of Tanganyika joined with the former British protectorate of Zanzibar (1890-1963). The large East African country has an area about 1.5 times the size of Texas and 40 million inhabitants who speak Swahili, English, and 80 other African languages. At independence, Tanzania was led by Julius Nyerere, who is often known as Africa's Jawaharlal Nehru. Nyerere was brilliant, charismatic, incorruptible, and well-intentioned. But his attempts to create a version of African socialism in Tanzania led to economic stagnation until he stepped down in 1985. Led by exports of small-holder coffee and cotton, Tanzania's economy has done well during the last 15 years. But the country's per capita income (\$1210) was only 183<sup>rd</sup> of 208 nations in 2007.

Our group visited Kigoma, Tanzania for two purposes – to see Ujiji, where Stanley met Livingstone, and to go to Gombe National Park, where Jane Goodall studied chimpanzee behavior. The mango tree in Ujiji, under which Livingstone and Stanley met and soon bonded, no longer exists, but two new ones have been planted outside the little Livingstone Museum nearby. About 100 chimpanzees still live in Gombe Park, including the troops that Goodall studied. Our chimpanzee trekking there was nearly as exciting as our gorilla trekking had been in Rwanda. From a 10-foot distance, we observed a mother (Gremlin) suckling her twins (Golden and Glitter), while an older sister (Gaya) played nearby. The father (Freud) maintained his distance in the rainforest. After watching this troop, we better appreciate that chimpanzees and humans have 98 percent identical DNA.

### **South Luangwa National Park, Zambia**

Zambia, formerly the British colony of Northern Rhodesia (1888-1964), has had a checkered past. Kenneth Kaunda, the first president (1964-1991), introduced state socialism and nationalized the copper- and cobalt-producing firms. Poor policies, falling copper production, and declining world prices of copper caused Zambia to fall from middle-

income status into poverty. Following privatization of the copper/cobalt industry in 2000, production and profitability have increased and the Zambian economy has responded positively. The country achieved a per capita income of \$1340 in 2007, ranking 182<sup>nd</sup> of 208 nations on the World-Bank scale. Zambia's president, Levy Mwanawasa, died following a stroke in mid-August, and a presidential election will take place next month. The current Vice President, Rupiah Banda, is the favorite to win.

Bushtracks chose to visit South Luangwa National Park for two primary reasons – we could stay in basic yet elegant bush camps, and we could go on safari walks. For most participants, the Mfuwe Lodge Bush Camps were the ultimate in safari lodging. Since no bush camp could accommodate more than eight people, our group split into three camps, each separated by an hour's drive. The safari walks lasted 2-3 hours each morning. They were skillfully guided and aided by an armed guard and a porter. Those of us at Kuyenda Bush Camp were fortunate to see a female leopard outside our camp, at the end of our final night game drive. Immediately thereafter, Sandra and I celebrated our 46<sup>th</sup> wedding anniversary with a Zambian meal in the moonlight. En route to the airport the following day, all participants saw a marvelous leopard propped in a tree.

## **Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe**

The recent history of Zimbabwe is a tragic story of greed and destruction. The former British colony of Southern Rhodesia (1888-1965) declared independence under white leadership in 1965. Following civil war and international sanctions, a democratic election was held in 1980. Robert Mugabe won and ruled sensibly for a decade. Since 1990, Zimbabwe has experienced electoral manipulation, uncompensated land grabs, politically-motivated spending, and unrestrained printing of money. A country with a middle-income economy has been driven into hyper-inflation and poverty. The inflation rate in 2007 was 11,000,000 percent, and the measured per capita income was only \$180, the fifth



lowest in the world. Mugabe's party, ZANU-PF, rigged the recent election and has refused to yield key ministerial positions. The political/economic crisis continues.

We stopped in Zimbabwe to see the Victoria Falls of the Zambezi River, one of the world's widest and most spectacular waterfalls. Given the current political chaos in Zimbabwe, we were surprised that everything operated normally in the small city of Victoria Falls. The magnificent, old Victoria Falls Hotel was replete with British colonial elegance (high tea featured scones, clotted cream, and raspberry jam plus cucumber sandwiches). The staff there greeted us warmly – so long as we paid in US dollars or any other convertible currency. Sandra and I had seen Victoria Falls before in full flood. It is now near the end of the dry season, so the falls were less spectacular because less water was flowing. However, it is also possible to see much more because there is much less mist blocking the wonderful views.

\* \* \* \* \*

### **Casablanca to the Cape by Private Air**

#### **Bushtracks Expeditions**

**January 19-February 9, 2006**

**Airplane-based, Aboard a chartered Convair 580**

### **Gabon, Central African Republic, Namibia, and South Africa**

The magnificent animals, birds, plants, and scenery of Africa were the primary focus of the second and third weeks of our trip. In chronological order, we visited Loango National Park, a coastal rain forest-savanna park in southern Gabon, Dzanga-Sangha National Park, a rainforest park in southwestern Central African Republic, Etosha National Park, a semi-arid salt pan in northern Namibia, the Sossusvlei section of Namib-Naukluft National Park in the Namib desert of southern Namibia, and Kirstenbosch Botanical Gardens, featuring the *fynbos* vegetation of Cape Town, in southwestern South Africa. Among

the wide variety of unusual fauna, flora, and physical geography that we were fortunate to see were forest elephants and hippos and white-sand beaches (in Loango), lowland forest gorillas, forest elephants, and sitatunga and bongo antelopes in the dense Congo Basin rain forest (in Dzanga-Sangha), lions, cheetahs, and jackals in the temporarily flooded salt pan (in Etosha), and springbok and oryx antelopes and the world's highest sand dunes and driest desert (in Sossusvlei), and cycads, ericas and king proteas, South Africa's national flower, in the unique *fynbos* ecosystem (in Kirstenbosch).

Our heads are still spinning with vivid images of the impressive pasts and challenging futures of Africa's peoples and of the continuing presence of the continent's natural beauty. Several personal experiences are firmly etched in our minds – cuddling an orphaned and tamed baby gorilla in the rain-forest lagoons of southern Gabon, net hunting with the BaAka (pygmy) peoples for duikers (small antelopes) in the Congo Basin rain forest of the Central African Republic, observing at close hand the lions and elephants in the salt pan of Etosha Park in northern Namibia, watching the rapidly shifting colors as the sun rose on the enormous sand dunes at Sossusvlei in southern Namibia, and marveling at the panoply of *fynbos* flora, especially the protea and birds-of-paradise flowers, in the Kirstenbosch gardens in Cape Town.

\* \* \* \* \*

**Jewels of the Indian Ocean Expedition, By Private Jet  
TCS Expeditions  
October 28-November 13, 2005  
Airplane-based**

### **Zanzibar, Tanzania**

In 1498, the Portuguese seized Zanzibar and controlled the entire trading nexus in the western Indian Ocean. Zanzibar then was a leading Muslim entrepôt and the wealthiest of the many Swahili city-states that stretched

1000 miles along the eastern coast of Africa. Omani rulers re-gained control of Zanzibar and its trade routes in 1729. During the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries, Omani Arab traders made incursions into the East African interior from their base at Zanzibar in search of human slaves and elephant ivory to export. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, European merchants entered the trade at Zanzibar. Subsequent to the Treaty of Berlin (1885), Germany colonized Tanganyika and Britain colonized Zanzibar, Kenya, and Uganda. Britain brought Tanganyika into British East Africa when Germany lost its colonies after World War I. Tanganyika became independent in 1961 and Zanzibar in 1963. Following a bloody revolution in 1964, Zanzibar elected to join Tanganyika to form Tanzania. Tanzania under Julius Nyerere then suffered from poor economic mismanagement (a failed experiment with African socialism). Tanzania remains extremely poor, but has experienced some growth during the past decade. The main hope for Zanzibar (within Tanzania) is that exiled Zanzibaris – Swahilis and Arabs – will return home, invest their private capital and skill to expand tourism, and reestablish Zanzibar as an island entrepôt for Indian Ocean trade.

## **Maputo, Mozambique**

In 1500, Maputo was a sleepy village located in a potentially important port site in southern Mozambique. The spread of prosperous coastal Swahili city-states had stopped 300 miles north of Maputo, and so the village was not involved in the Muslim-controlled triangular trade in the Indian Ocean. Portugal pioneered a marine route around Africa to end the Muslim monopoly of trade in the Indian Ocean and to spread Christianity by limiting Islam in Asia and Africa. Portugal's concentration on exporting gold from Zimbabwe led to its later colonization of Mozambique. By 1750, Portugal had established its colonial capital in Lourenco Marques (later renamed Maputo) to control trade in gold and African slaves from Mozambique. During the 1950s and 1960s, the Portuguese dictatorship encouraged settlement in Mozambique. The Portuguese revolution of 1974 led to independence for Mozambique in 1975. A brutal and costly civil war ensued between

the ruling party, FRELIMO, and the opposition party, RENAMO. After peace finally was negotiated in 1992, the beleaguered country began a long process of reconstruction. Mozambique has since had a stable government, enacted numerous economic reforms, and enjoyed moderate economic growth. Its future depends on continued political stability, sensible policies to attract private foreign investment and foreign aid, and development of tourism, based on scenic white-sand beaches.

### **Cape Town and Kruger Park, South Africa**

In 1500, Khoikhoi pastoralists and San hunters-gatherers inhabited the western half of South Africa, and Bantu agriculturalists controlled the eastern half. After Vasco da Gama sailed around the Cape of Good Hope in 1498, the Portuguese and the English used the Cape area as a provisioning stop. In 1652, the Dutch East India Company sent Jan van Riebeeck to establish a settlement at the Cape to stock Company ships en route to the Dutch East Indies. By 1750, Dutch settlers had moved less than 200 miles eastward from Cape Town. In 1795, Great Britain took over the Cape colony to prevent it from falling into French hands. Descendants of the Dutch settlers (Afrikaners) trekked northeastward and established the Orange Free State (1854) and the Transvaal Republic (1860). Britain showed little interest in South Africa until the discoveries of diamonds (1867) and gold (1886). Britain defeated the Afrikaner republics in the Boer War (1899-1902) and gave independence to a white-controlled Union of South Africa in 1910. Radical Afrikaners won the election of 1948 and established apartheid to maintain economic control. That discriminatory system was finally ended in 1989-1994 under the inspired leadership of Nelson Mandela and F. W. de Klerk. Reconciliation in South Africa has worked, although economic progress initially was slow. Economic recovery began in 2002, but now the country must deal with its severe HIV/AIDS crisis.

### **Ste. Gilles-les-Bains, Réunion**

The Indian Ocean island of Réunion, located 200 miles east of Madagascar, was uninhabited and undiscovered in 1500. This beautiful volcanic island of cirques and lava flows was discovered by Portuguese mariners in 1512. Settlement of the island began a century later, and the current Creole population of 750,000 residents reflects the admixture of waves of French, Malagasy, African, Indian, and Chinese settlers who migrated to Réunion between the 17<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. The French East India Company, a chartered company that monopolized imports into France from Asia (mainly India and the East Indies), first settled Réunion in 1715. The Company went bankrupt in 1764, and control of the island reverted to the French crown in that year. French planters emigrated to Réunion to establish coffee plantations. Great Britain took control of Réunion (along with Mauritius and the Seychelles) during the Napoleonic Wars (1810-1815), introduced sugar cane plantations, and gave the island back to France. Subsequent French planters introduced vanilla (an orchid) from Madagascar, and that crop is still the most important export of the island. Because the French and Creole residents of Réunion have never shown any desire for independence, the island is now an Overseas Department of France and all residents are French citizens. The economy relies on tourism, exports of vanilla and sugar, and subsidies from France and the European Union.

### **Antananarivo and Anjajavy, Madagascar**

In 1500, Madagascar, the world's fourth largest island, had been settled for about a millennium. Malayo-Polynesian migrants from Indonesia had sailed along the south Asian and east African coasts, intermarried with Khoikhoi people in east Africa to form the Malagasy ethnic group, and moved to Madagascar with their irrigated rice agriculture. Over the centuries, the Malagasy people divided into 18 tribes. The second largest tribe, the Merina, gradually dominated the others. In the 1790s, a Merina king expanded from his home area (around Antananarivo) and conquered Madagascar. Three Merina kings and four Merina queens (all unmarried) then ruled during most of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In 1817, Great



Britain began to protect the Merina kingdom in return for trading privileges and a Merina promise to end slavery on the island. At the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885, Britain agreed to give France a free hand in colonizing Madagascar in return for French support of British colonization of Zanzibar (against German opposition). In 1896, France defeated and abolished the Merina kingdom and colonized Madagascar. After Madagascar gained its independence in 1960, the Malagasy government experimented disastrously with socialism. In four decades, per capita incomes dropped by 50 percent. Helped by good leadership, economic reforms, and expanding tourism, the economy has improved since 2002. But Madagascar remains one of the world's ten poorest countries.

\* \* \* \* \*

**Casablanca to the Cape, A West African Air Expedition**  
**Stanford Travel/Study Program**  
**March 2–25, 2003**  
**Airplane-based, Aboard a Chartered Convair 580**

**Dzanga-Sangha Park, Central African Republic**

In Dzanga-Sangha Park, I experienced one of the most exciting days in my well-traveled life. The Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF) manages the park, and numerous researchers are affiliated with the WWF ecotourism project there. One group of researchers studies western lowland forest gorillas. I was fortunate to be able to go into the rainforest with Angelique Todd (an English biologist who has studied gorillas in Dzanga-Sangha for five years in preparation for her doctoral dissertation on primate behavior), two Bayaka (Pygmy) trackers, and Vivian Gunning (a member of the Bushtracks staff and, like me, an outside observer). We spent about an hour hiking into the forest. The research team is equipped with walkie-talkies and so usually knows where the gorillas are. A group of three gorillas (known collectively as *Munya*, or good thing) has been habituated (i.e., become accustomed to

humans watching them). The male silver back (named *Malima*, or mountain) weighs about 440 pounds and is perhaps 25 years of age. The female (named *Matata*, or problem, since she is edgy and often charges the researchers) weighs about 240 pounds. The juvenile (named *Mdimbelimbe*, after a fragrant forest plant) is 5 years old and weighs perhaps 110 pounds. At distances as close as 40 feet, for four hours we watched this group of gorillas interact, climb trees, and eat termites, leaves, bark, and fruit. When they moved, we followed by crawling through the floor of the forest. The tracking experience was exhilarating.

\* \* \* \* \*

## **Africa and the Indian Ocean**

### **An Expedition by Private Jet**

### **TCS Expeditions**

### **January 14-February 7, 1998**

## **The Seychelles**

The Seychelles, an independent island nation in the Indian Ocean speaking French Creole, appears to be an almost idyllic tropical paradise featuring spectacular beaches, coco de mer palms, and giant tortoises. The islands making up the Seychelles were uninhabited before their discovery by Europeans, and during the colonial period first the French and then the English treated the Seychelles as an appendage of Mauritius (which is located 1100 miles south of the Seychelles). The current population of fewer than 80,000 residents consists mostly of black Africans and people of mixed racial background. In spite of political rhetoric that sounds like African socialism, the Seychellois government has parlayed income from tourism into good-paying jobs for its 80,000 residents. Income growth during the 1990s was strongly positive.

## **Chobe National Park, Botswana**

Our visit to Chobe Park provided a nice complement to our Serengeti experience. While we did not observe anything approaching the numbers of animals and birds that we were fortunate to have seen in the Serengeti, a select number of afternoon river cruisers apparently did see large numbers of elephants. The location of the lodge on the Chobe River also offered a pleasant riverain contrast to the unending vastness of the Serengeti Plain. Conversations with game guides who live on farms near the park confirmed that Botswana is having some success with decentralized management of its wildlife resources, although that country has not been prepared to emulate the CAMPFIRE program of neighboring Zimbabwe. Botswana has achieved average per capita income levels about equal to those in South Africa (about one-fourth of American levels), and the distribution of income in Botswana is much less uneven than it is in South Africa. The 1.5 million people in Botswana continued to benefit from diamond mines and sensible policies and to achieve good economic growth during the 1990s.

\* \* \* \* \*