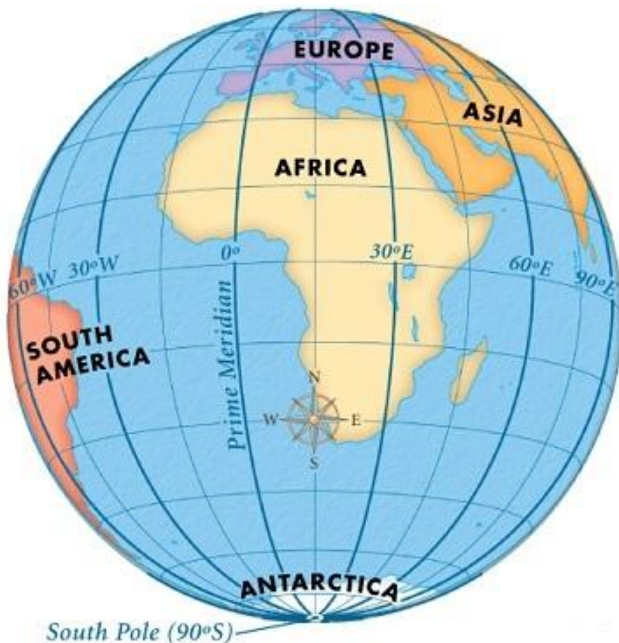


Fr Gregor Schmidt MCCJ
Holy Trinity Parish, Old Fangak

South Sudan Primary 8
Exam Preparation

SOCIAL STUDIES

Revised Edition



Introduction to the 2nd Edition

The primary school subject **Social Studies (SST)** contains knowledge of the fields of geography, geology, ethnology, history, civic education and other social sciences.

In this exam guide, I present the topics from the **Syllabus (from Primary 4 to 8)** together with valuable background information, including additional maps and illustrations not found in the school books. It is a private initiative because text books are not available in sufficient numbers. Furthermore, some paragraphs contain outdated or incomplete information.

Ideally, this exam guide should accompany the study of the text books, but if they are lacking, it also suffices as only source of the exam preparation because it covers all topics.

For students: If you have the SST books, read the pages that correspond to the paragraphs of this study guide. The page numbers are indicated in the following way: for example (P5/p10-13) means *Primary 5, pages 10 to 13*. The page numbers refer to the edition of 2012, not the first print of 2006.

I have corrected obvious errors of the SST school books (*see pages 105-112*), but there are probably more of which I am not aware. If you find any errors in this book, or have other suggestions to improve it, please inform me:

gregor.bogdong@gmail.com

Fr Gregor Schmidt, Comboni Missionary

August 2016 (2nd Edition)

The National Anthem of the Republic of South Sudan

Oh God, we praise and glorify you
for your grace on South Sudan.
Land of great abundance,
uphold us united in peace and harmony.
Oh motherland, arise, raise your flag with the guiding star,
and sing songs of freedom with joy.
For justice, liberty and prosperity shall forever more reign.
Oh great patriots,
let us stand up in silence and respect,
saluting our martyrs whose blood
cemented our national foundation.
We vow to protect our nation.
Oh God, bless South Sudan!

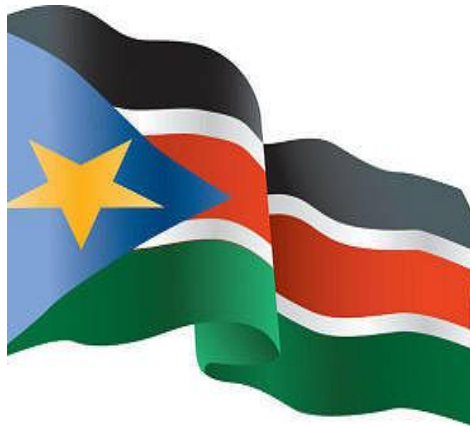


Table of Contents

page

UNIT 1: MAP READING

Continents and Oceans	1
Africa	1
Republic of South Sudan	4
Longitude and Latitude	5
Compass Directions	6
Maps with a Scale	6

UNIT 2: PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Introduction	8
Climate and Weather	8
Climatic Regions and Physical Features	12
Soil	22
Forestry	23

UNIT 3: THE PEOPLE OF AFRICA AND SOUTH SUDAN

Early People	25
The People of South Sudan	26
The People of Africa (Main Language Groups)	29
Migration	32
Census	33

UNIT 4: SOCIAL INTERACTION AND CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

Social Interaction	35
Relations in the Community	38
Festivals and Ceremonies	40

UNIT 5: RESOURCES AND ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

Introduction	42
Farming/Agriculture	33
Animal Husbandry, Livestock-Keeping and Pastoralism	46
Fishing	49

Trade	50
Traditional Industries	50
Modern Industries	51
Mining	52
Hydro-Electric Power	53
Transport and Communication	54
Tourism and Wildlife	57
Urbanization	59
Cooperatives	59
Human Influence on the Environment	60

UNIT 6: CIVIC EDUCATION

National Unity and National Philosophy	61
Citizenship	62
The Three Independent Powers in a Democracy	64
The Government	65
The Constitution	67

UNIT 7: POLITICAL SYSTEM AND DEVELOPMENT (HISTORY)

Ancient Kingdoms outside the Sudan	71
Slavery and Slave Trade	73
The Coming of the Europeans and Colonial Occupation	74
The Struggle for African Independence	78
Ancient History of the Sudan	80
Modern History of Sudan and South Sudan	86
The South Sudanese Liberation Struggle	89
Important African Personalities	93

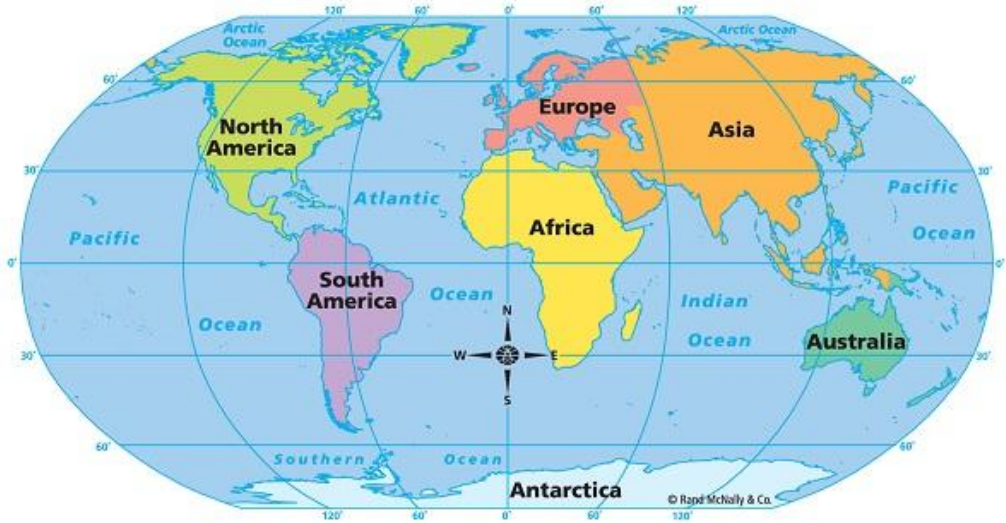
UNIT 8: REGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Regional Cooperation in Africa	96
The African Union (AU)	99
The United Nations (UN)	100

Selected Books	104
-----------------------	-----

Appendix: Correction of the Social Studies School Books	105
--	-----

1. Map Reading



Continents and Oceans (P8/p3)

Continents by size:

- 1st Asia (43.8 million km²)
- 2nd Africa (30.3 million km²)
- 3rd North America (24.5 million km²)
- 4th South America (17.8 million km²)
- 5th Antarctica (13.7 million km²); uninhabited; covered almost entirely with a thick layer of ice; there are no trees and only few plants such as mosses
- 6th Europe (10.2 million km²)
- 7th Australia (9.0 million km²)

Oceans by size:

- 1st Pacific Ocean
- 2nd Atlantic Ocean
- 3rd Indian Ocean
- 4th Southern Ocean
- 5th Arctic Ocean

Oceans cover almost **71%** of the earth's surface and contain **97%** of the water supply. The water is salty because rivers have washed minerals into the oceans for a long time.

Africa (37°N to 35°S; 17°W to 51°E) (P8/p1-2)

- Area of Africa: 30.3 million km² (one fifth or 20% of the world's land mass)
- Length about 8000 km from Cape Blanc (or Ras ben Sakka, Tunisia; **latitude 37°North**) to Cape Agulhas (South Africa; **latitude 35°South**); and width about 7500 km from Cape Verde (Senegal; **longitude 17°West**) to Cape Guardafui (or Ras Hafun, Somalia; **longitude 51°East**); *see capes on page 19*

- 80% of Africa's land mass lies between the Tropic of Cancer (23.5° latitude North) and the Tropic of Capricorn (23.5° latitude South).
- largest desert in the world: Sahara (North Africa)
- highest mountains in Africa: 1st Kilimanjaro in Tanzania, 2nd Mt. Kenya
- longest valley in Africa: Great Rift Valley (East Africa)
- longest river in the world: Nile (North-East Africa)
- largest river basin in Africa: Congo Basin (Central Africa)
- largest lake in Africa: Lake Victoria by surface, Lake Tanganyika by volume (both East Africa; *see page 21*)
- largest island of Africa: Madagascar (East African coast)
- largest countries in Africa: 1st Algeria, 2nd DRC, 3rd Sudan
- countries that lie on the Greenwich (or Prime) Meridian (0° longitude; Greenwich lies near London): Algeria, Mali, Burkina Faso and Ghana (*see map below*)
- countries that lie on the Equator (0° latitude): Gabon, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Uganda, Kenya and Somalia (*see map below*)
- 4 water masses surround Africa (P7/p6): Atlantic Ocean (west), Mediterranean Sea (north), Red Sea (north-east), Indian Ocean (east; *see map below*)
- Africa has 54 independent countries, not counting Western Sahara. (It was annexed by Morocco, but the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic SADR, which controls part of the territory, is recognized as a sovereign state by the AU.)



Map: Physical Features of Africa

Africa has a compact shape and looks like a big comma with its wide northern region. Identify the physical features (landforms): rivers, lakes, seas, mountains, highlands, plateaus, deserts... Find the physical features listed on page 2.



Republic of South Sudan (RoSS) (P7/p1; P6/p3; P5/p14-15)

- lies between 4°-12°N and 24°-36°E
- with an **area** of 644,331 km²

Regions and States of RoSS:

- **Greater Bahr-el-Ghazal**
 - Western Bahr-el-Ghazal (Wau)
 - Northern Bahr-el-Ghazal (Aweil)
 - Warrap (Kuac-Jok)
 - Lakes (Rumbek)
- **Greater Equatoria**
 - Western Equatoria (Yambio)
 - Central Equatoria (Juba)
 - Eastern Equatoria (Torit)
- **Greater Upper Nile**
 - Jonglei (Bor)
 - Unity (Bentiu)
 - Upper Nile (Malakal)



Map above: the 10 States and their capital cities

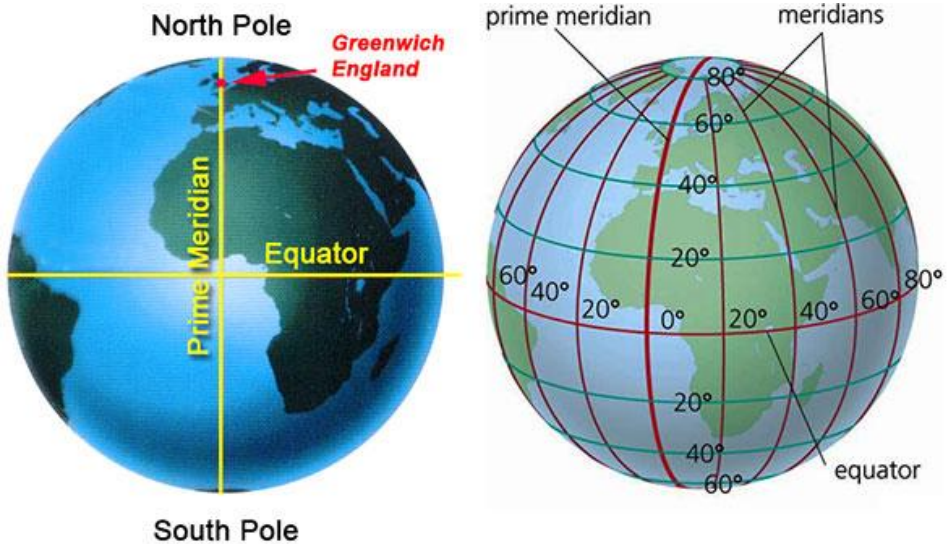
Maps below: the 3 regions of RoSS and neighbouring countries



Neighbouring Countries of South Sudan

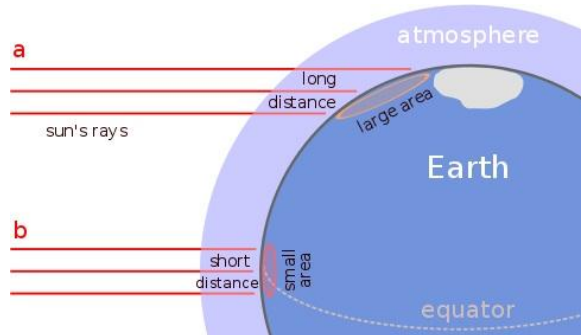
- Sudan in the North
- Ethiopia in the East
- Kenya in the South-East
- Uganda in the South
- Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in the South-West
- Central African Republic (CAR) in the West

Longitude and Latitude (P5/p10-13 & p24; P7/p8-10)



The horizontal lines running from left to right are **lines of latitude** which are parallel and never meet. The main line of latitude is the **Equator** (0° latitude). The North Pole lies at 90° North; the South Pole lies at 90° South. The Equator divides the earth in two halves, the **southern and the northern hemisphere**.

The latitude of a place has an effect on its climate because the rays of the sun reach the equatorial regions in a rather vertical angle and carry more heat (*see illustration on the right*). On average, the temperature is higher in places closer to the Equator, although temperature and climate also depend on the altitude (*see page 8*).



The lines on a map running from top to bottom (north to south) are **lines of longitude**, numbered from 0° to 180° towards the East and towards the West. All of them meet at the two poles. The main line of longitude is the **Greenwich (or Prime) Meridian** (0° longitude) passing through Europe and Africa. It divides the earth in the **eastern and western hemisphere**. 180° East meets at 180° West in the Pacific Ocean. Altogether there are 360 lines of longitude, called **meridians**.

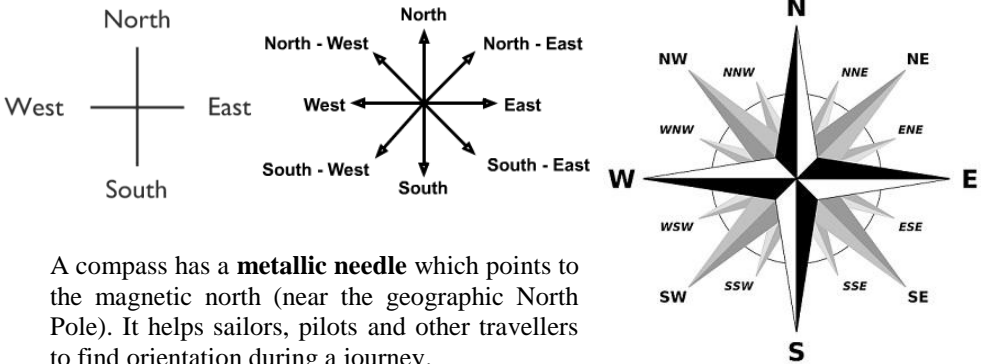
The earth rotates a complete circle in 24 hours; it moves 15° of longitude every hour and 1° of longitude every four minutes. **Time zones** have been established along the

meridians. Large countries like Russia and the USA have several time zones. Because the **earth moves eastwards**, a country that is east in comparison to your place has an earlier sunrise and is ahead in hours depending on the distance to your place (e.g. China is 5 hours ahead of South Sudan). Meridian $180^{\circ}\text{E}/180^{\circ}\text{W}$ is the **International Date Line**. Places on the left side ($^{\circ}\text{E}$) are always one day ahead of places on the right side ($^{\circ}\text{W}$), while they are behind in regard to the hour. For example, if it is Tuesday in the eastern hemisphere, it is Monday in the western hemisphere near the Date Line.

Look at the map on page 2 and study the Prime Meridian, the Equator, and the latitudes of Tropic of Cancer (23.5°N) and Tropic of Capricorn (23.5°S).

Longitude and latitude help to define and locate the position of places on earth. The longitude of a place is indicated with $^{\circ}\text{E}$ (for East) and $^{\circ}\text{W}$ (for West). The latitude of a place is indicated with $^{\circ}\text{N}$ (for North) and $^{\circ}\text{S}$ (for South). For example, Juba's location on a map is 5°N and 31°E .

Compass Directions (P5/p6-8)



A compass has a **metallic needle** which points to the magnetic north (near the geographic North Pole). It helps sailors, pilots and other travellers to find orientation during a journey.

The 4 **cardinal points** of a compass are **North (N)**, **East (E)** → sunrise, **South (S)** and **West (W)** → sunset (*illustration above on the left*).

In between the cardinal points you find North-East (NE), South-East (SE), South-West (SW) and North-West (NW) (*centre illustration*).

If you need a more precise indication of your position, some compasses add 8 more points (*illustration above on the right*). They are **North-North-West (NNW)** and **North-North-East (NNE)**, **East-North-East (ENE)** and **East-South-East (ESE)**, **South-South-East (SSE)** and **South-South-West (SSW)**, **West-South-West (WSW)** and **West-North-West (WNW)**.

The points of a compass form a circle of 360° . If you go 45° clockwise from North, you reach North-East. If you go 90° from North, you reach East. If you go 180° from North, you reach South. From East, moving 180° you reach West, moving 90° clockwise you reach South, moving 45° you reach South-East.

Where do you reach moving 90° clockwise from South? Where do you reach moving 180° from West?

Maps with a Scale (P4/p7)

Maps are pictures (illustrations) of what is on the earth. They can show roads, towns, borders of countries and other things created by people. Or they show the natural environment such as mountains, valleys, rivers, lakes and the oceans.

An accurate map is drawn **to scale** which means that the distances on the map correspond to the real distances on the ground. The person drawing the map needs to scale objects so that they fit on the map. In a scale drawing of your classroom, 1 metre on the ground could be represented by 1 cm on the map. On a map of South Sudan, 10 km or 100 km on the ground could be represented by 1 cm, depending on how large the sheet is. According to the map below, estimate the following distances:

1. Juba – Torit
2. Bor – Malakal
3. Raga – Wau
4. Yambio – Rumbek
5. Aweil – Kuacjok



2. *Physical Environment*

Introduction

The environment refers to the area in which people live, everything that surrounds them and affects them. The **physical environment** consists of natural or man-made features, the soil, vegetation and climate of a region. Natural **physical features (landforms, see page 16)** have developed without human intervention like lakes, rivers and mountains. Man-made features are built by people like villages and roads.

Another word to describe what is around us is the term **biological environment**. It consists of all living beings and the conditions of their survival. Living beings are humans, animals and plants (vegetation). They depend on each other, interact with each other and are called the **biotic environment** (= everything that lives). Food also belongs in this category because it is made of plants or animals.

The other part of the biological environment (the conditions that support life) is called the **abiotic environment**. These are forces that do not have life in themselves but allow organisms to live, e.g. the climate, temperature, amount of sunlight, radiation, atmosphere, and spaces for living such as soil and water.

Climate and Weather

The science of studying the climate and weather is called **meteorology**. The people who observe the weather are called **meteorologists**.

What is the Climate? (P6/p10-14; P5/p19-24)

The climate is the average weather condition at a place over a period of many years (long-term pattern of weather, 30-35 years). It is affected by latitude, altitude, mountain terrain (relief), vegetation (for example forests) and wind currents, as well as large bodies of water and their currents.

The latitude refers to the distance of a place from the Equator or the two Poles. Generally, average temperatures are higher near the Equator where the noonday sun is always high in the sky. The coldest regions on Earth are the two Poles with temperatures far below 0°C because the sun is never high in the sky. The sun's rays fall at an angle which provides little energy/heat (*see illustration on page 5*).

The altitude (elevation) is the height above sea level. The higher the place, the cooler it is. For example, it gets cooler from Katire to Gilo in Eastern Equatoria.

Usually, the north and south side of a **mountain** have different climates because of relief rainfall (*see page 9*) and because one side always receives more sunshine.

Ocean and wind currents move heat around the planet. **The distance from a large body of water** (oceans, big lakes) determines whether the winds are moist or dry. Coastal regions receive more rain than inland regions because the air near to the sea has more water vapour. The Nile and Lake Victoria are South Sudan's main bodies of water which make the air humid.

What is Weather? (P6/p10; P5/p19)

Weather is the condition of the air (atmosphere) at a particular place and time. The weather changes from day to day, whereas climate change takes years to be noticed. The following adjectives describe weather: **hot or cold, dry or humid, sunny or cloudy or rainy**

Factors that influence the weather (P5/p22-23; P6/p10; P7/p14): temperature, rainfall (= precipitation), winds, sunshine, humidity and atmospheric pressure.

Weather stations all over the world keep records of the amount of rain, humidity, the number of sunny days, and the highest and lowest temperature of the day or a longer period of time (a month, a year...). Knowing average temperatures of a place and the amount of rainfall help decide which type of crops can be grown.

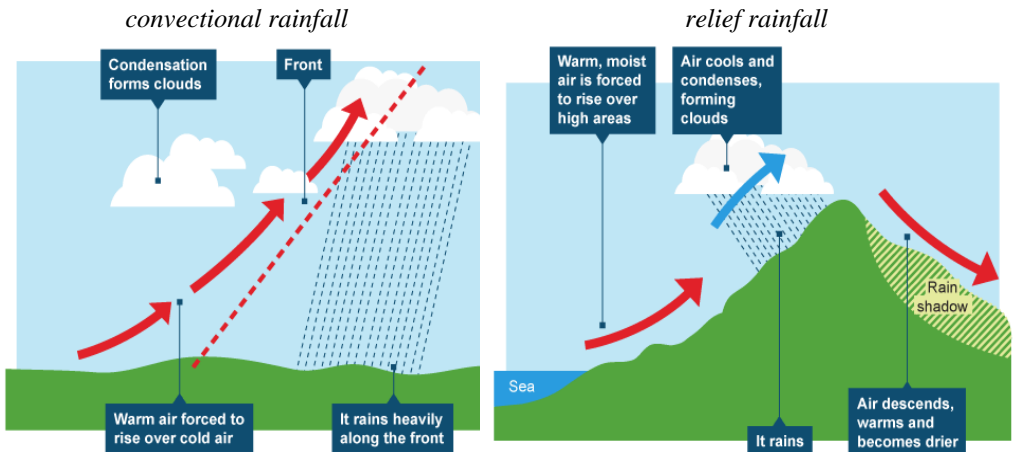
Rain (P4/p14-15)

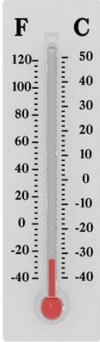
Rain is important for plants to grow. The amount of rain determines the type of vegetation in a place. But rain also causes erosion, and too much rain spoils roads and causes floods. It is measured with a **rain gauge** (see illustration on the right) that indicates how many millimetres it has rained. Humidity is measured with a **hygrometer**.



2 Types of Rainfall (P6/p10-12; P5/p20-22)

- **Convective** rainfall: The sun heats the ground and water evaporates from rivers and lakes. The clouds rise and meet cooler air. When the vapour cools, it rains. Most areas in South Sudan receive convective rainfall because there are few mountains.
- **Relief** rainfall: Warm and moist winds blow from the sea and reach mountains or highlands. The wind with the water vapour cools when it rises high so that clouds form and rain falls. Relief refers to higher parts of the land. The side of the mountain where most of the rain falls is the **windward side**. The side with little rainfall is the **leeward side** (or rain shadow).

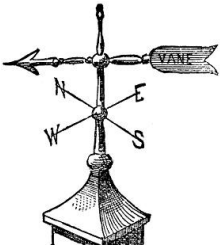




Temperature (P5/p22)

Temperature refers to how cold or hot it is. It is measured in **degree Celsius** (°C) or in degree Fahrenheit (°F) with an instrument called **thermometer**. Noon (12 pm) is the hottest time of the day because the rays of the sun reach the earth vertically from above. Sunrays in the morning or evening arrive more horizontally and are weaker. Therefore, it is cooler.

On the left: a thermometer to measure air temperature and another to measure fever



Winds (P4/p18-19; P5/p23; P6/p13-14)

Wind is moving air. Its direction is measured with a **wind vane**. The speed (strength) is measured with an **anemometer** that rotates faster the more the wind blows. A **wind sock** can indicate both wind direction and speed. The stronger the wind, the more the sock stretches out parallel to the ground (its tip flies higher).

On the left: a wind vane above and a wind sock below



The direction and the temperature of the wind affect weather and climate. Winds blowing across oceans and lakes carry moist air and bring rain. Winds blowing over deserts carry hot, dry air. Winds blowing over mountain ranges are cool. People make use of winds to sail, to power machines or to winnow grain removing the chaff. Storms, tornados and hurricanes (devastating storms) are dangerous because they can destroy buildings and harvests.

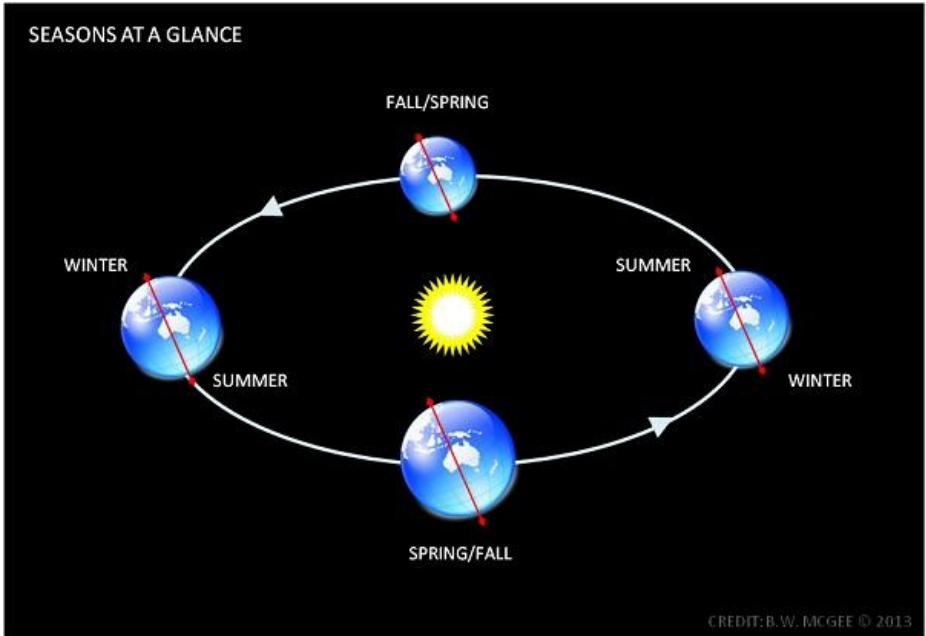
What is a Season? (P7/p14)

A season is a **period of two to six months** with similar weather conditions. We have seasons because the earth is tilted on its axis at an angle of 23.5°.

During six months while the earth revolves around the sun, the North Pole is tilted towards the sun and the **northern hemisphere** receives more heat and light. It is warmer and the days are longer. We have **summer** in the north and **winter** in the south (*see two illustrations on page 11*). The other six months, the South Pole is tilted towards the sun and it is warmer in the **southern hemisphere**. Then it is summer in the south and winter in the north. The season between winter and summer is called **spring**; the season between summer and winter is called **autumn** or **fall**.

People living **near the Equator** barely notice the difference between summer and winter because the earth's axis moves only a little. The hours of daylight increase only marginally, and the sunrise and sunset are more or less at the same time.

Near the Equator, instead of four seasons, there are two main seasons: the wet (or rainy) season and the dry season (P4/p21-22). In South Sudan, some places have a long dry season like Northern Bahr-el-Ghazal, others have a shorter dry season like Western Equatoria (P6/p12).



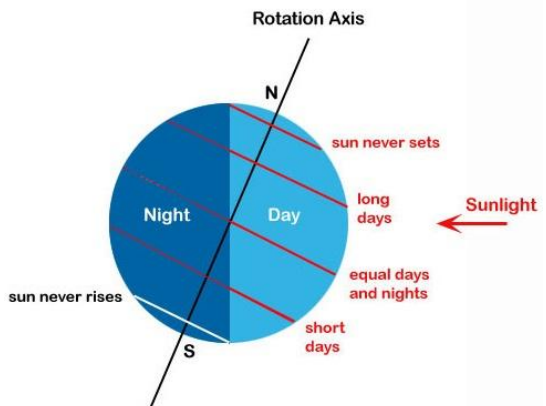
Movement of the Earth in Space: Rotation and Revolution (P7/p15-16)

The earth is a **planet** and moves around the sun. Planets have no light of their own, but reflect the light of the sun. All the planets together with the sun are called the **solar system**. The word “solar” refers to anything connected with the sun.

The nearer a planet is to the sun, the more heat it receives. **Mercury** is the nearest planet with 58 million km from the sun, while the **Earth** is about 150 million km away. **Neptune** is the furthest planet and therefore the coldest in the solar system.

All planets **rotate around their axis** like a spinning coin turning around itself. The axis goes through the centre of an object. For the earth, the ends of the axis are the North Pole and the South Pole.

One rotation takes 24 hours. The earth rotates from West to East which makes the sun appear in opposite direction, moving from East the West. The side of the earth turned towards the sun receives **light (day)**, while the side turned away from the sun lies in **darkness (night)**. At some areas near the two poles the sun does not rise or set for a long time because the earth is tilted. *Study the illustration on the right.*



The second movement of the planets is the **revolution around the sun**. The Earth needs **365.25 days** to complete one revolution. That is what we define as **one year** and divide into **12 months**. In comparison, Mercury needs only 88 Earth days to complete one year, and Neptune needs several hundred Earth years to complete its revolution around the sun.

As the Earth travels on its orbit (= path) around the sun, the sun is overhead at the Equator in March and September, overhead at the Tropic of Cancer in June and overhead at the Tropic of Capricorn in December (*see latitudes of Tropic of Cancer & Capricorn on the map on page 2*).

Climatic Regions and Physical Features

Climatic Regions in Africa

according to P8/p5-6:

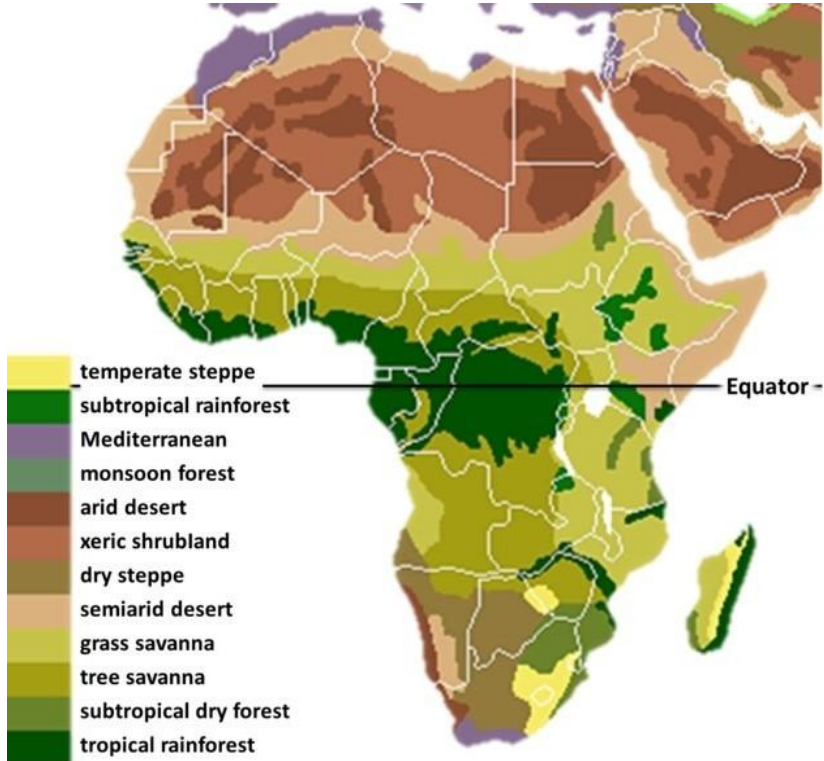
- **equatorial** climate: lowlands near the equator; hot temperature; heavy rainfall
- **savannah** climate: largest climatic region; hot temperature; seasonal rainfall
- **tropical desert** climate: Sahara, Kalahari & Namib desert; hot temperature during the day; low rainfall, sometimes no rain for several years; difficult to plant, settle, and live there
- **Mediterranean** climate: northern and southern African coast; hot summers and mild winters

according to P7/p16-21:

- **equatorial** climate: between 6°N and 6°S, about 10% of Africa's surface such as the Congo region and West-African lowlands; hot, wet and rainy the whole year; average temperature 29°C with less than 2°C annual range; up to 2000 mm annual rainfall, usually afternoon thunderstorms
- **tropical (savannah)** climate: about 40% of Africa's surface; wet summers with 25°C, dry winters with 15°C, annual range up to 11°C; between 400-1500 mm rainfall annually with one rainy season in the summer
- **Mediterranean** climate: coast of Mediterranean sea and Western Cape Province in South Africa; hot and dry summers up to 21°C, cool and wet winters down to 10°C; annual rainfall between 500-1000 mm mainly in the winter caused by winds blowing south-west
- **desert and semi-desert** climate: desert (Sahara, Kalahari, Namib), semi-desert (Somalia, northern Kenya and northern Nigeria); hot and dry days, nights are very cold as low as 5°C because clear sky lets heat escape; scanty clouds and rainfall, less than 250 mm annually; "Harmattan" north-east trade winds bring dust storms
- **warm temperature** climate: coast from South Africa to Kenya; warm winters, hot summers, annual average temperature about 20°C, small range; coasts are warmed by moist winds passing over the Mozambique Current
- **cold temperature** climate: interior of South Africa and east of Kalahari; summers drier and colder than those of warm temperate regions; relief rain from south-east trade winds

- **high tropical (mountain)** climate: East-African highlands near the Equator from Ethiopia to Burundi; similar to tropical climate, but cooler because of higher altitude; rainfall often similar to equatorial climate; relief rain from south-east trade winds but also convectonal rain

Map: Climatic Regions and Vegetation in Africa (Biomes)



Climatic Regions (P6/p14-16; P5/p25-26) and **Vegetation** (P6/p4-6 & p17; P5/p27-28) in South Sudan

- **woodland and savannah climate:** many regions of South Sudan; temperatures 25°-30°C; seasonal heavy rainfall between 700 and 1000 mm
- **savannah grassland:** most common vegetation in South Sudan; grassland with scattered bushes and trees (e.g. acacia, bamboo, baobab), tall grasses
- **equatorial climate:** mostly Western Equatoria; Tombura, Maridi and Yambio counties near CAR and DRC; Kajokeji, Morobo and Lainya counties near Uganda (*see "greenbelt" on the map on page 42*); average temperature 30°C; heavy rain mostly from April to November about 1700 mm
- **equatorial tropical vegetation:** thick tropical rainforests with evergreen vegetation and tall trees (over 10 meters) because of constant rains, e.g. teak, ebony and cedar; trees grow taller where there is more rain

- **semi-desert climate:** parts of Upper Nile, Northern Bahr-el-Ghazal and Eastern Equatoria (Kapoeta); average temperature 28°-30°C; low rainfall from April to July only about 150-250 mm, possibly no rain for several years
semi-desert vegetation: scattered grasses, small trees and thorny bushes/scrubs that can store water for many years (e.g. cacti, course grass); dormant seeds which germinate in the rainy season
- **mountain climate:** Imatong and Gilo in Eastern Equatoria; decreasing temperature with rising altitude (range from 5°-20°), sometimes down to freezing point 0°C at night; heavy rains at the windward side (relief rainfall)
mountain vegetation: moderate density of medium-size trees (lower than 12 meters)

Vegetation refers to plants in general such as trees, bushes and grass. **Vegetation growth** is influenced by the climate, the altitude and the soil.

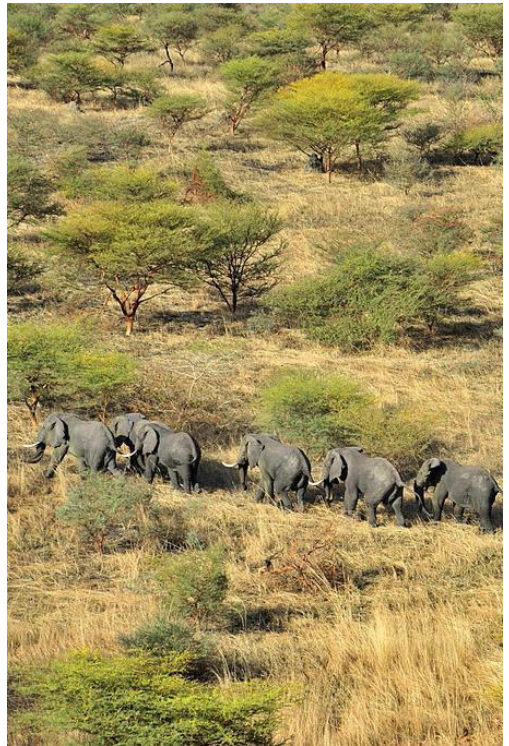
Photos of the Climatic Regions of South Sudan and their Vegetation:

The Sudd is the huge wetland along the Nile with its own vegetation, e.g. reeds, papyrus, water lilies (*see photo below on the left and map on page 16*). It is part of the savannah climate.

Sudd with settlements under water



savannah vegetation (Jonglei)



equatorial vegetation (Western Equatoria) *semi-desert vegetation (Eastern Equatoria)*



mountain vegetation (Eastern Equatoria)



Natural Physical Features (Landforms) of South Sudan (P5/p17-18; P6/p 4 & p8-10)

- **Plains:** most parts of Greater Bahr-el Ghazal and Greater Upper Nile
- **Highlands and Plateaus:** near Uganda, DRC and CAR
- **Mountains and Hills:** Imatong Mountains (highest peak is Mt. Kinyeti with 3187 m); Dongotona, Acholi and Jebel Gumbri; Boma Hills
- **Valleys** between two mountains or hills
- **Rivers:** White Nile; Bahr-el-Ghazal with Jur, Sue and Lol; Sobat with Baro and Pibor; Bahr-el-Zeraf; Adar; Aswa; Bat, Yei, Atapi, Eba/Ibba...
- **Lakes:** Lake No is the largest. Many lakes are found in Lakes State.
- **Swamps (see page 22):** flat land (seasonally) flooded by heavy rains; the swamp area along the White Nile (“Sudd”) is the largest wetland in Africa
- **Forests:** e.g. Aja and Bangaingai tropical forests in Western Equatoria

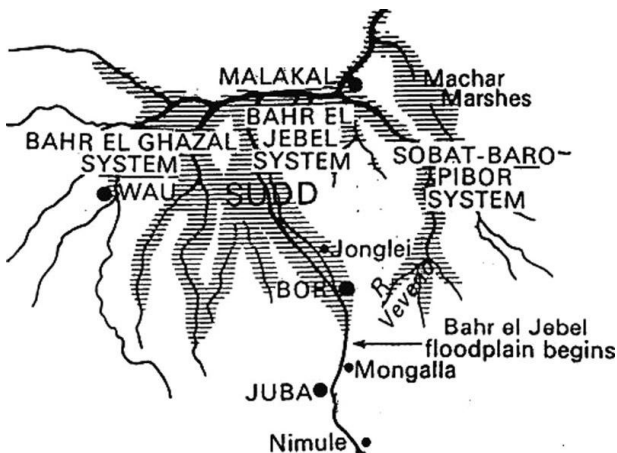
South Sudan is characterised by **broad flat plains** with few highlands.

Mountains are important because they are the source of rivers, attract rainfall, have fertile slopes, facilitate the growth of thick vegetation in the lower regions and sometimes contain minerals. But they cause problems on the leeward side which remains dry and is unsuitable for agriculture, and they obstruct infrastructure projects like road construction.

Rivers and lakes provide water, fish and hydro-electric power. But they are also breeding grounds for dangerous insects, and floods cause damage to houses and fields.

South Sudan lies in the Nile basin. The **Nile basin** refers to the low lands that drain into the river (*see map on page 19*). **Drainage** means the way that water flows from the land into oceans, seas or lakes. The **Nile-Congo plateau** divides water flowing west into the Congo River and east into the Nile. The Nile basin has its eastern border at the Ethiopian highlands and its northern border at the Nuba Plateau.

The lowest part of South Sudan is covered with clay soil and Sudd vegetation. The area was once a huge lake but it silted up with soil which eroded from the East-



African Plateau and the Ethiopian highlands. The Nile basin is composed of rocks and rich in oil reserves. **Lake No**, South Sudan's largest lake, and Lake Shambe are remains of the old large lake. Some lakes have an ox-bow shape like Lake Yirol and Lake Bukana. But few people live there because of the swamps.

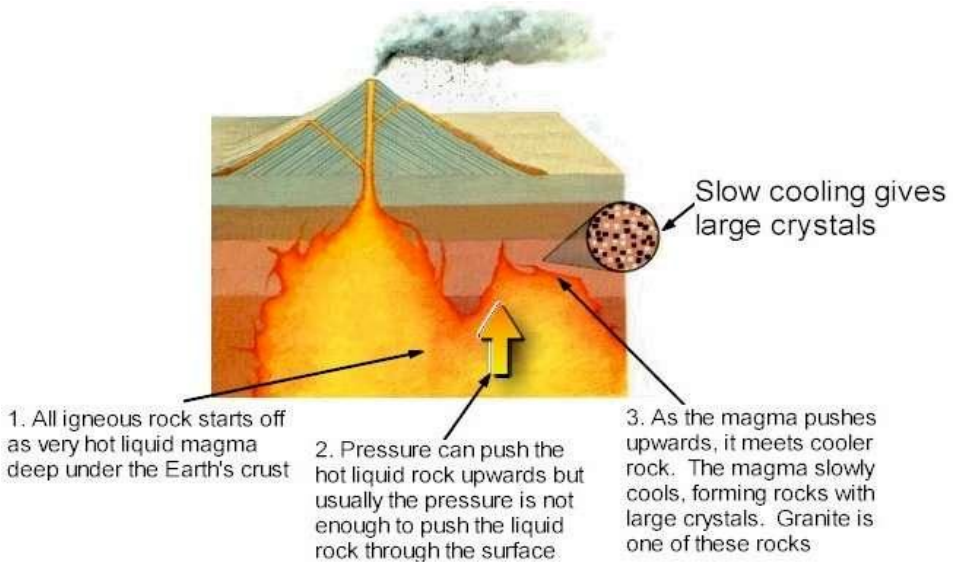
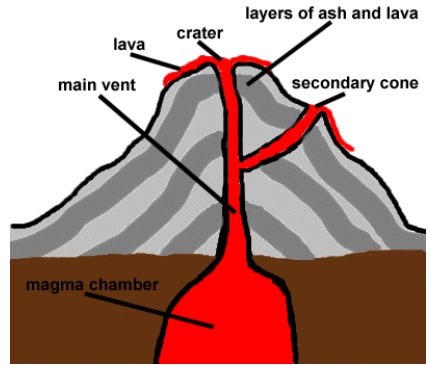
The **annual flood in the Nile basin** is caused by heavy rainfall and the rising of the rivers, especially the Nile.

The **Sudd region** lies between the rivers Sobat and Bahr-el-Ghazal. From there the land rises in the south-west, giving way to ironstone, forest and woodland, merging into Congo's tropical rainforest (*see map on page 42*).

Volcanic hills are formed when lava (underground molten rock) is pushed out to the surface of the earth. The liquid **lava and ash** cool down and form hills, or even mountains like Kilimanjaro. In South Sudan, the high, generally flat **Boma Plateau** was formed as a result of long volcanic activity. A **plateau** is a flat area of land higher than the surrounding area. South of Juba, **Rajaf** is a well-known volcanic hill.

When lava cools underground, it forms hard rock called **granite**. Later, the granite is pushed towards the surface of the earth. Examples of such hills are Bangu (Juba-Yei road), Gumbiri (Yei), Maridi and Awodo (Mundri).

A simple cross section of a volcano



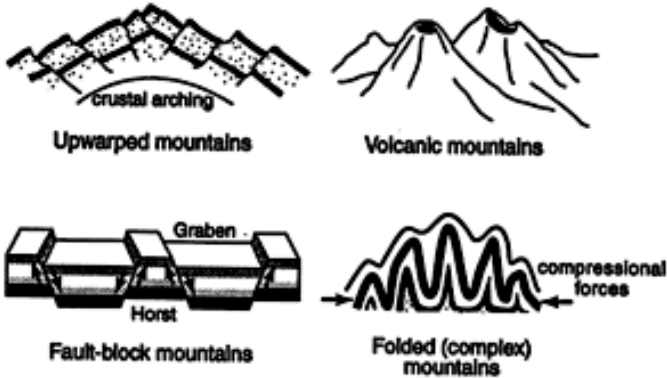
Types of Mountains in Africa (P7/p12; *see illustration next page*)

- **Block mountains:** result of process called faulting; land sinks because faults in earth's crust are weak, and other sections are forced upwards which form mountains; valleys in between are called rift valleys; examples: Usambara Mountains in Tanzania and Rwenzori Mountains in Uganda
- **Fold mountains:** compression of the earth's crust over a large area to form mountain chains; found near the edges of continents; sometimes over 4000 metres high; act as barrier to clouds so that the leeward side often has a desert;

examples: Atlas Mountains next to the Sahara and Cape Fold Mountains next to the Namib Desert (*see map next page*)

- **Volcanic mountains:** result of volcanic activity; rock melts underground under pressure and high temperatures and reaches the earth's surface where the crust is weak; mountains form from cooled lava after many years of eruptions; examples: Mt. Kilimanjaro, Mt. Kenya, Mt. Cameroon

Types of Mountains



Drainage Basins in Africa (P7/p6-7; *see map next page*)

- Congo Basin (largest in Africa: 4.1 million km²)
- Sudan Basin (surrounded by highlands of Ethiopia, Congo and Darfur)
- Kalahari Basin (southern Africa)
- Chad Basin (central Africa)
- El Djouf Basin (western Africa)

Drainage basins are **shallow depressions** separated by mountain ranges, mountain plateaus or ridges called **horst-blocks** (*see illustration above*). **Through erosion** of thousands of years, rock material from the highlands is deposited there and carried away by the rivers causing the land to **gradually sink**. Africa's basins are between 300-900 m above sea level.

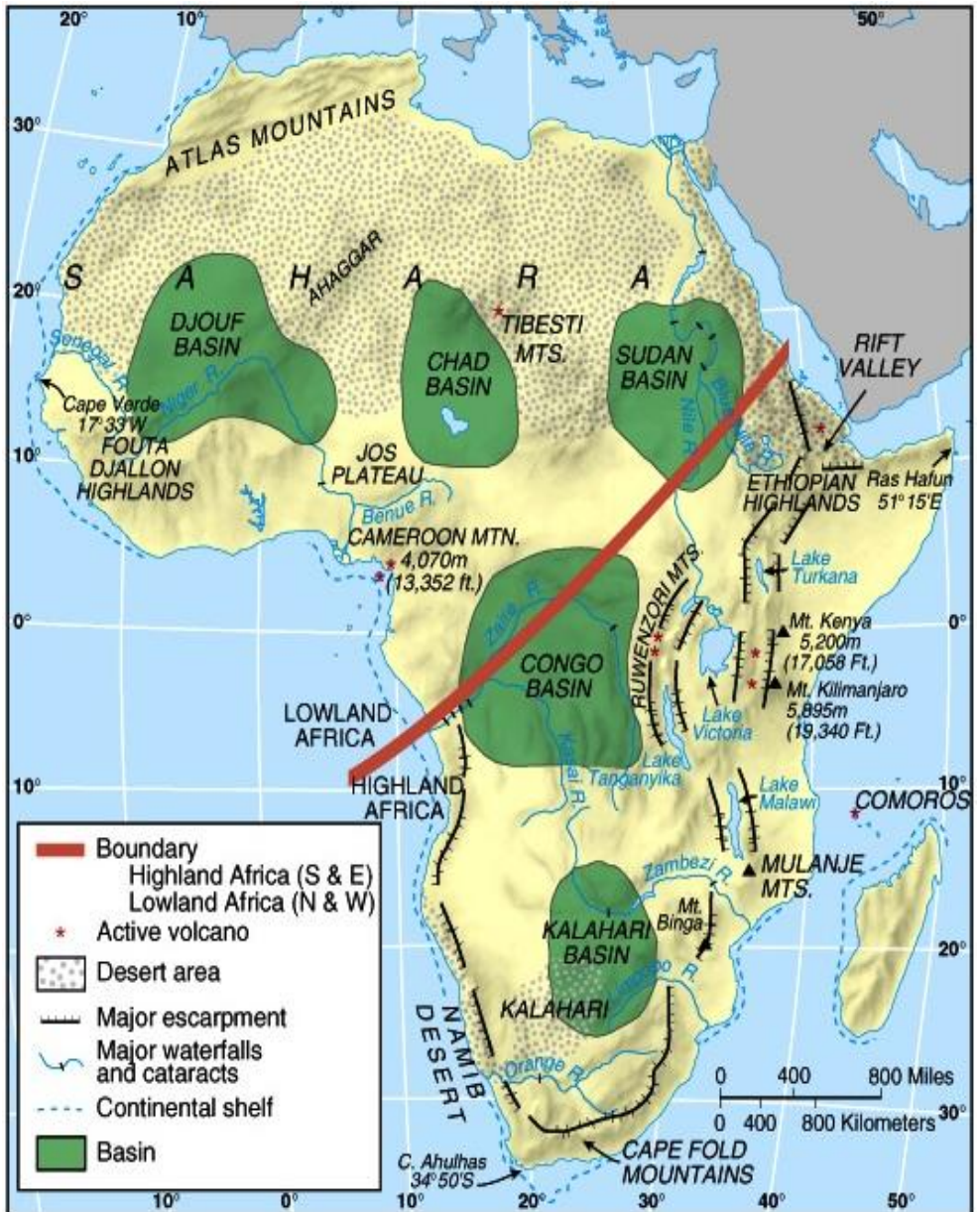


The Great Rift Valley (P7/p12)

This valley (*see map on the left and next page*) stretches about 5600 km from Mozambique northwards; **branching west** through Lake Tanganyika and other lakes (*see page 21*) reaching almost the South Sudanese border; and **branching east** through Tanzania, Kenya, Ethiopia, Djibouti, the Red Sea and the Jordan valley. The width is between 30 and 100 km; altitudes rise up to 2000m. The valley was formed because the earth's crust moves against each other and causes the faults to sink. Pressure cracks the hard rock. Volcanoes have erupted in the valley and formed Mt. Kilimanjaro, Mt. Kenya and Mt. Longonot.

Map: Physical Features of Africa

the 5 main drainage basins; the Rift Valley; the main rivers, lakes, mountains, mountain ranges, deserts, highlands and plateaus; 3 of the capes which mark the westernmost, southernmost and easternmost points of the continent

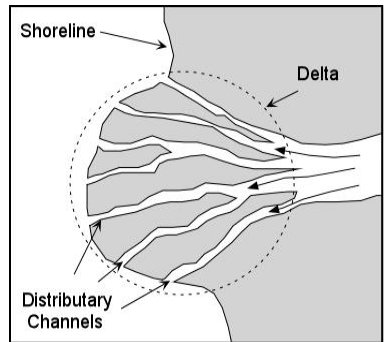


Main Rivers in Africa (P7/p2-4)

Almost all African rivers start in highland areas. They slow down near the sea and deposit silt which forms deltas. A **delta** is a large, fan-shaped landform at the mouth of a river where it enters the sea (*see map on the right*). Deltas don't provide good locations for harbours.

Navigation of ships on most rivers is difficult because of waterfalls and rapids. Exceptions are the Congo River and long parts of the Nile.

The rivers provide water for domestic use, farming and for **hydro-electric power** (*see pages 53-54*)

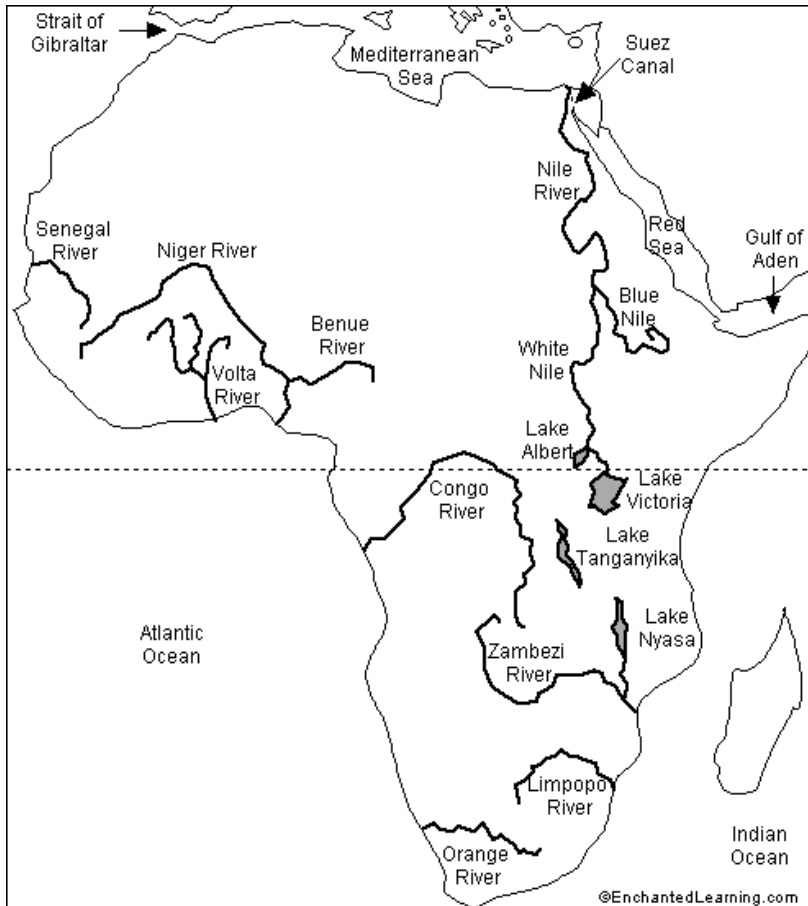


The 8 longest rivers of Africa:

1. **Nile River** (*see map*): **White Nile** over 6500 km long from **Lake Victoria** through Uganda, South Sudan, Sudan and Egypt into the Mediterranean Sea; **Blue Nile** from the Ethiopian Highlands joins the White Nile at Khartoum; main tributary: Atbara river
2. **Congo River**: about 4800 km long from the **Katanga Plateau** to the Atlantic Ocean; tributaries: Ubangi and Kasai
3. **Niger River**: about 4000 km long from Guinea, through Mali, Niger and Nigeria into the Atlantic Ocean. The **Niger Delta** is the largest in Africa.
4. **Zambezi River**: about 2100 km long from **Katanga Plateau** eastwards through Zambia and Mozambique into the Indian Ocean
5. **Orange River**: almost 2000 km from Lesotho westwards through South Africa into the Atlantic Ocean
6. **Limpopo River**: about 1700 km long from South Africa eastwards through Mozambique into the Indian Ocean
7. **Senegal River**: about 1700 km long from Guinea (**Fouta Djallon Plateau**) westwards through Senegal into the Atlantic Ocean
8. **Volta River**: about 1100 km long rising from the **Fouta Djallon Plateau** and

flowing south-east through Burkina Faso and Ghana into the **Gulf of Guinea**

Map: the longest rivers and largest lakes in Africa



Lakes in Africa (P7/p5-6 & p13)

- **Lake Victoria:** world's second largest fresh water lake (by surface area, not volume) after Lake Superior in North America
- **Lake Tanganyika** (670 km long): world's second deepest and second largest fresh water lake (by volume) after Lake Baikal in Russia
- **Lakes of the Rift Valley** (south to north): Lakes Malawi (Nyasa), Tanganyika, Kivu, Edward, Albert; in *Tanzania*: Eyasi, Manyara...; in *Kenya*: Magadi, Baringo, Turkana...; in *Ethiopia*: Abaya, Zway...
- **Lakes resulting from inland drainage:** Lakes Chad, Ngomi, Turkana...
- **Salt water lakes:** Lakes Nakuru and Bogoria in Kenya ... (salty minerals enter through underground sources)
- **Human-made lakes:** Lakes Nasser (Egypt), Masinga (Kenya), Kainji (Nigeria)...

Lakes receive water through rain, rivers and springs (underground water).

Swamps in Africa (P7/p7-8)

- Sudd along the Nile River (South Sudan)
- Okavango (Botswana)
- Lorian (Kenya)
- Kyoga (Uganda)
- mangrove swamps grow along the coast where rivers enter the sea

Swamps are created when rivers cannot flow smoothly. The water gathers seasonally or permanently where the land is flat or where the soil (clay, rocks) doesn't allow water to pass. Permanent swamps cannot be used for agriculture unless they are drained. Then, they are very fertile. Vegetation found in swamps: types of reed like papyrus, lilies, water hyacinth, Sudd vegetation...

Coastal Plains in Africa (P7/p13)

Most of Africa's coastline is smooth which is not good for docking ships. Therefore, many artificial harbours have been built, e.g. Takoradi/Ghana. Examples of natural harbours are Freetown and Banjui in West Africa and Mombasa in East Africa.

Soil (P8/p44-47)

Soil is the top layer of the earth in which plants grow. It is formed from rock through a process known as **weathering**. Plants and animals break down rock into smaller pieces. The layers of soil are known as the **soil profile**. The **composition of soil** is influenced by the rock material it came from and the climate, which determines the type of vegetation growing in an area.

Types of Soil

- **sandy soil:** large and loose particles, contains air, cannot hold water
- **clay soil:** fine particles, little air, stores water, cracks open in the dry season
- **loam soil:** mixture of sandy and clay soil, rich in minerals, **good for farming**
- **volcanic soil:** from lava, good for coffee and tea bushes
- **alluvial (sedimentary) soil:** water removes different types of soil and deposits them in valleys and river beds

Uses of Soil

- enables germination of seeds & provides anchorage for plants
- holds moisture and carries nutrition (food) for plants
- salty soils nurture animals
- people use soil for bricks, tiles and house walls

Soil erosion is the loss of fertile soil from the surface by water or wind.

Causes of Soil Erosion

- overgrazing
- clearing the vegetation cover
- poor farming methods
- running water
- mono-cropping

Reasons for Soil Conservation

- to stop or reduce soil erosion
- to prevent spread of deserts
- to improve farming methods to obtain enough food
- to maintain wildlife balance (to protect ecosystem and promote tourism)

Measures of Soil Conservation

- keep balance of livestock and vegetation
- proper farming methods: crop rotation, intercropping, use of mulch (*see photo next page*)
- digging terraces (*see photo next page*)
- afforestation: planting trees
- building gabions: stop path of running water with stones



Photo above: gabion made of stones

Forestry (P8/p38-39; P4/p42-43)

A **forest** is an extensive piece of land covered with trees. It provides a home for many land animals and birds. Trees also provide fruits and local medicines. Wood that is cut from trees is called timber. Timber is used to build houses, to make furniture, and for fencing. Trees are also needed to make paper.

2 Types of Forests:

- 1) **Natural forests** have indigenous trees and grow on their own, depending on the climatic conditions. In South Sudan, there are the following:
 - equatorial forests (e.g. Aja forest in Maridi, Biki in Yambio County)
 - grassland forests (e.g. of acacia trees or neem trees)
 - semi-desert scrubs
 - mountain vegetation
- 2) **Man-made forests** are planted by people, e.g. Katire in Eastern Equatoria, Yambio and Maridi in Western Equatoria, Tonj in Warrap. There are trees like teak which mature quickly and are grown in plantations (*see photo next page*).

Forest Conservation

Conservation means to **protect the forests from disappearing**. Forests attract rain and keep the air moist. Land without trees loses soil through erosion. Trees protect rivers from silting and provide shade from the heat of the sun.

- Creating natural reserves so that trees cannot be cut down, or only with permission from the authorities.
- Educating the public to protect the landscape environment (e.g. in schools, mass media)
- Restricting the cutting of trees and planting one or more for each tree cut
- Replacing firewood by other fuels such as solar energy and biogas

*Mulch to protect the base of plants
and to stop weeds growing*



Teak Plantation in East Africa



Photo below: Terraces in Vietnam



3. *The People of Africa and South Sudan*

Early People (P5/p29-34; P4/p26-27)

The origin of humanity lies in Africa. Early people used tools made of stone. Therefore, the first period of history is called the **Stone Age**. People learned to **make fire** by striking certain types of stones against another or by rubbing dry pieces of wood together. The discovery to make and control fire enabled people to develop in many ways. Fire is needed to cook food; it keeps warm; it protects from wild animals; and it helps in making advanced tools. With fire, people learned to melt bronze and iron to make blades and shields. In the progress of humanity after the Stone Age, we call the following periods the **Bronze Age** and the **Iron Age**.

Early people did not know how to cultivate crops and lived by **hunting** animals and **gathering** fruits and plants. They lived in groups of 25 to 50 members and moved from place to place. If they found enough food, they built shelters and stayed for some time. They also lived in caves. We find their paintings on cave walls where they drew their activities. Some groups specialized in making tools for hunting, and some collected fruits and other plants. Groups rarely came across other groups. During a lifetime, a person saw few people outside his or her group.

Religion

Early people performed religious activities. At a burial, they put food, tools and ornaments in the grave, believing that these items were needed by the deceased in the after-life. Sacrifices were offered and dances performed to enhance fertility and make hunting successful.

Agriculture (Crop Production)

About **9000 BC (11,000 years ago)** people began to plant seeds of wheat, barley, beans and other crops. This happened first **in the Middle East** in the regions of Iraq, Israel and Turkey. Because it takes time for the plants to become ripe, **people settled** in one place and built houses. **Tools** were invented to make farming easier such as grinding stones, hoes, axes and sickles for cutting grain.

The first farmers continued hunting. Later, some cultures gave up hunting because agriculture was more productive. **Water irrigation** was invented by the people of Egypt along the Nile valley and the people of Mesopotamia (modern Iraq) who used the land between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. Then, about 3000 BC these two cultures invented the **ox plough**. This increased the production of crops enormously.

Domestication of Animals

We don't know exactly how people started to domesticate wild animals. It is probable that hunters took young animals whose mother had been killed. The **dog** is the first domesticated animal (P4/p27), long before the invention of farming. Later, people were able to gather larger numbers of animals because they could provide shelter and pasture to graze. Cattle, goats, sheep, pigs, chicken and cats were all domesticated. In different parts of the world, different animals were kept.

When the number of people and animals increased in a settlement (village) that there was not enough land for cultivation and grazing, some families moved away. This led to the formation of clans and tribes.

Forms of Leadership (Government)

Before there were institutions to govern countries and large territories, the earliest form of government consisted in independent families, each having a leader. When the power belongs to men, it is a **patriarchal** culture (or patriarchy). When the head of the family is a woman, it is a **matriarchal** culture (or matriarchy).

When people settled down and produced enough food, some were freed from farming and hunting and developed new skills. Some became craftsmen or merchants (traders). With many people living together in one place doing different things, it became necessary to appoint people to **manage community affairs**. Villages grew into towns and later into cities when the leadership was successful and trade flourished. Cities required **higher forms of government**. The early cities in the Middle East became the birthplace of civilization.

The People of South Sudan (P8/p9)

Since 2012, the **world population** exceeds **7 billion people** (= 7,000,000,000). There will be probably 8 billion people in 2026. The world's most populous country is China with over 1.3 billion people, the second largest population is found in India with over 1.2 billion people.

There are over **1.1 billion Africans** (about 15% of the world population). The 178 million Nigerians are the largest population in Africa. Lagos (Nigeria) is the largest African city with about 20 million people. The population density of Africa is 36 persons per km² (*see map on page 34*). Its population is the youngest among all continents; half are 19 years old or younger. It has almost 2000 languages.

South Sudan has a **population** of over 11 million people with an annual **growth rate** of about 4 % (statistics differ). The **population density**: About 18 persons live on average on every km².

South Sudan has **over 60 languages or ethnic groups (peoples)**; some count **72 ethnic groups** (*see selection on the map, next page*).

Language Groups in South Sudan (P5/p35-38; P6/p19-22)

Chari-Nile (branch of Nilo-Saharan languages):

- Nilotes:

- **River-Lake Nilotes (Western Nilotics)**:

- Dinka, Nuer, Shilluk, Acholi, Luo...

- **Plains Nilotes (Eastern or Para-Nilotics)**, formerly called 'Nilo-Hamites':

- Murle, Toposa, Didinga, Boya, Lopit, Lango, Lotuko, Nyepu, Jiye...

- and **Loi speakers**: Bari, Mundari, Kuku, Kakwa, Pojulu, Nyangbara...

- Sudanic languages:

- **Central (and Western) Sudanic**: Bongo-Baka, Kreish, Mundu...

- **Easten Sudanic**: Moru-Madi, Kaliko, Avukaya, Lugbara...

Niger-Congo (Bantu languages):

- Azande (or Zande), Ndogo-Sere, Belanda-Bviri, Feroge, Golo, Togoya, Bai...

Afro-Asiatic:

- Arabs

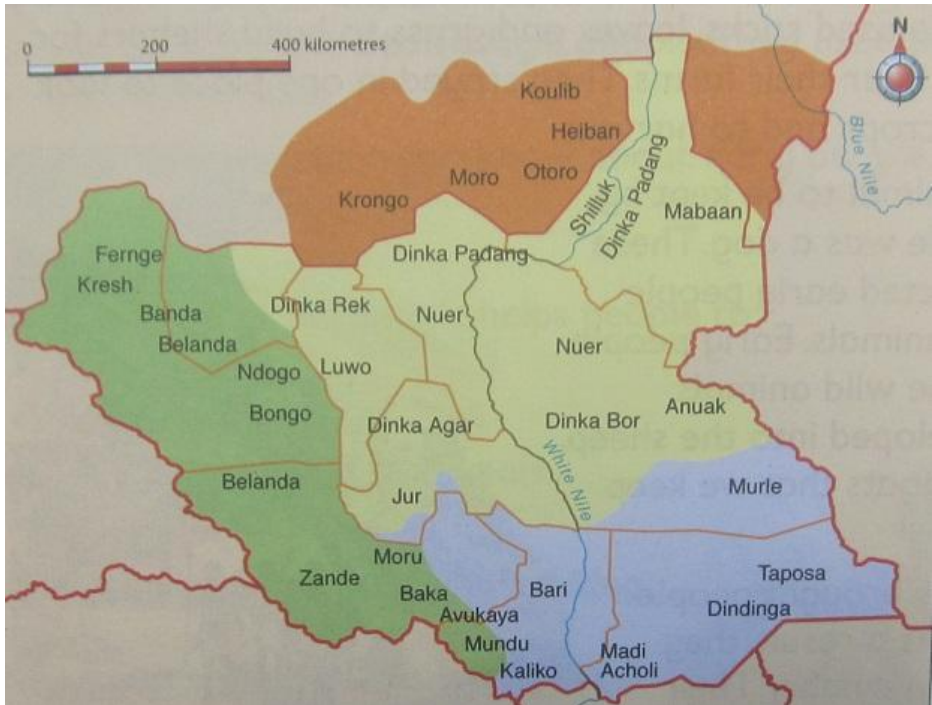
Migration of Peoples in South Sudan

5000 years ago, people began to settle down in Sudan and cultivate the land.

River-Lake Nilotes

The River-Lake Nilotes were originally cattle keepers and fishermen. When they came into contact with agricultural communities, they learned to grow crops. Because their number increased, they began to move from their home area in the north of Sudan. Other factors of migration were escape from enslavement and drought. The **Dinka** migrated from Gezira, the **Nuer** from Kordofan. River-Lake Nilotes were found in Aweil (Bahr-el-Ghazal region) since 1300 AD and moved across the area of South Sudan in search of pasture from about 1400 AD. They brought with them humped backed cattle (originally from India) which could survive severe droughts as well as grain (caudatum: sorghum), suitable for a dry environment. They also brought their iron tools and weapons. Some tribes, such as the **Acholi** and **Luo**, went towards Uganda and Kenya. Today, Nilotes are the biggest language group in South Sudan.

Map below: languages and ethnic groups in South Sudan (P4/p28)



Plains Nilotes (formerly ‘Nilo-Hamites’)

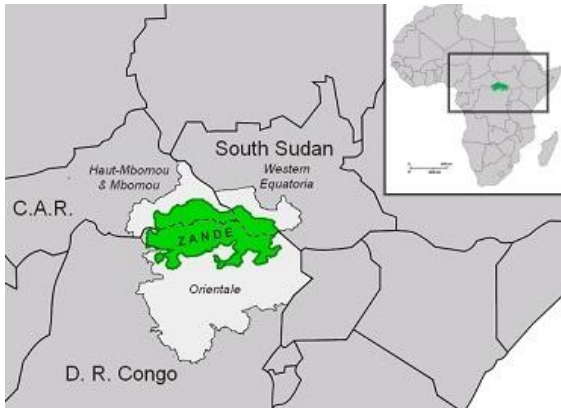
The Plains Nilotes live on farming, cattle and fish. Some have specialized more in agriculture, while others depend more on cattle. They live in East Africa from Ethiopia in the north down to Tanzania in the south. Originally, they settled in Ethiopia north of Lake Tana. Their route to Ecuatoria was to the east of the Nile between the Ethiopian highlands and the Sudd. For example, the **Bari** were forced to move when the Oromo invaded their territory.

Plains Nilotes brought with them a new form of government: a warrior system of age-sets mixed of different clans and the early form of kingdom with a lineage system of hereditary rule. The warriors were controlled by a group of wise elders to protect the social order and to keep a balance of power among clans. For centuries, Plains Nilotes have suffered from conflicts with Arabs and River-Lake Nilotes.

Sudanic peoples

Sudanic tribes were the first to arrive in South Sudan. They migrated southwards from Sahara in the pre-Christian area (more than 2000 years ago) as the desert was spreading. South Sudan had vast natural forests at that time which were cleared into savannas by the people. The Sudanic people changed their new environment to become similar to what they had left behind. It is believed that they were mixed farmers around 1000 BC and lived on crops as well as cattle. Today, most of them practice exclusively farming and have abandoned cattle herding.

The **Moru-Madi** live in Mundri and Maridi. **Madi** live around Opari in South Sudan and in Moyo in Uganda. The **Bongo** came from CAR through the Uele River.



Map: Azande land; some tribes live across modern borders

Bantu

The Bantu spread across Africa eastwards and southwards from eastern Nigeria and Cameroon (*see map on page 31*). They entered South Sudan from the west and the south at different times.

The **Azande** (meaning “the people which possess much land”) were the most powerful Bantu group and arrived in the 18th century from DRC and CAR. They are the last main

South Sudanese people to arrive here. The Azande were more exposed to external influences and are therefore more open to modernization than other tribes. They have mixed with smaller tribes in the region and their customs reflect the heterogeneous nature of their communities. Lacking cattle, their currency in customary law is principally money.

The **Ndogo-Sere** settle near Wau and speak a language related to Mundu who live in Maridi County.

Population Density and Settlement Patterns (P6/p4; P5/p38-46; P4/p11-13)

The population density is the number of people in a given area (usually calculated for one square kilometre). It is affected by the **physical features**, the **climate** and the **natural vegetation**. Other factors are security, infrastructure, urbanization, etc.

The climate influences the type of vegetation, and the vegetation influences settlement patterns. Therefore, the population in South Sudan is not evenly distributed. There are areas that are densely populated and others with few people. Places with high population density have enough rainfall (average of 750 mm) and fertile soil such as Morobo, Kajokeji, Rumbeck Centre, Aweil East and Twic. Instead, the counties of Raga, Wulu, Nagero and Maban have few people because of difficult climatic conditions and an unfavourable environment.

People migrate and prefer to settle in places with a **moderate climate** (neither too hot, nor too cold) and **fertile land**. It should neither be too rocky, nor a desert or a permanent swamp (like the Sudd; *see pages 16 & 22*) because people cannot grow crops in such a place. When a place has thick forests, people can only settle and cultivate there after the forest is cleared (trees are cut down). Tropical rainforests do not favour settlements; the savannah is ideal for pastoralists and their cattle.

The **landforms** (physical features; *see page 16*) affect where people can live. For example, mountain tops have little vegetation and cannot sustain large settlements. Rather, people settle at the foot of mountains and hills. They plant crops at the foot of hills because fertile soil is washed away from the slopes and deposited on the flat land. Goats and sheep graze on mountain slopes because grass is able to grow there.

People often settle near rivers or lakes because they need water to irrigate crops, and because they can fish. But water also is a breeding place for mosquitoes and other insects that bring diseases. And floods can destroy houses and crops. Therefore, houses near water places are built on higher ground.

Today, young people often want to live in **towns and cities** in order to find employment and live a comfortable life. But city life has its own problems, for example overpopulation, poor housing, unemployment, crime and pollution. Shanty towns (slums) develop and unemployment leads to crime, theft, robbery and prostitution. Other problems are water shortages, garbage on the streets and harmful wastes from industries which pollute the drinking water (*see page 33*).

The People of Africa (Main Language Groups) (P7/p22-27; P6/p19-22)

East Africa (Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, South Sudan) and North-East Africa (Somalia, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Sudan):

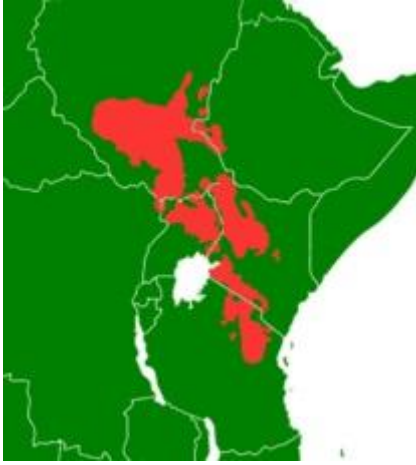
- **Bantu** (**origin:** Cameroon-Congo region)

Kenya: Kikuyu, Embu, Meru, Luhya, Kamba...

Uganda: Baganda, Banyoro, Banyankole, Batoro, Bagisu, Basoga...

Tanzania: Sukuma, Hehe, Yao, Ngoni, Wanyamwezi...

South Sudan (Western Equatoria): Azande, Ndogo-Sere...



- **Nilotes (origin: Sudan; settle along the Nile and the Great Lakes region of East-Africa)**
 - **River-Lake Nilotes:**
 - Kenya:* Luo...
 - Uganda:* Acholi, Langi, Alur, Japadhola...
 - South Sudan: Dinka, Nuer, Shilluk...**
 - **Highland Nilotes (East-African Plateau):**
 - Kenya:* Kalenjin, Pokot, Kipsigis, Tuken...
 - Tanzania:* Datooga, Agiek...
 - **Plains Nilotes (formerly 'Nilo-Hamites'):**
 - Kenya:* Samburu, Turkana, Massai...
 - Uganda:* Teso, Iteso, Karamojong, Jiye...
 - South Sudan: Bari, Mundari, Kuku, Toposa, Didinga, Boya...**

Map: Nilotes in East Africa (red spots)



- **Cushites**
 - Kenya:* Borana, Oromo, Ogden...
 - Ethiopia:* Galla...
 - Somalia and Djibouti:* Somali
- **Tigre and Amhara (Ethiopia)**

The Axum Kingdom marks the beginning of the Ethiopian civilization from about 100 BC. Amharic and Tigrinya are Afro-Asiatic languages resulting from earlier arrivals of Arabs in this region.
- **Semites (Arabs; origin: Arabic peninsula)**

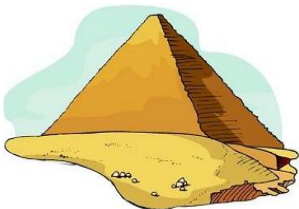
Arabs entered Africa and influenced the culture and language in many places. In **Tanzania and Kenya**, they intermarried

with Bantu tribes to form the **Swahili** people. **Kiswahili**, a Bantu language, is the most spoken language in Africa, known by about 150 million people as a first or second language (see regions marked in **green** on the map).



North Africa (the countries of the Mediterranean: Egypt, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco; the region of the Sahara):

5000 years ago, the Egyptians living in the Nile Valley were the advanced civilization in Africa. Their rulers are known as pharaohs who built huge **pyramids** as their tombs (see drawing on the left). Probably, the ancient Egyptians had a black skin colour. Later, the **Arabs** invaded the region and



converted people to Islam. By 1500 AD, the Egyptians had become a mixed race though intermarriage and spoke Arabic. West of Egypt lies the Maghreb where the **Berbers** live. They are nomads and were joined by the Arabs in the 7th century. Together, they are active as traders in the Sahara region and spread Islam.

West Africa (from Senegal to Nigeria):

In about 1500 AD, West Africa was populated by different ethnic groups who lived in the coastal forests and in the savannah south of the Sahara desert. The Sonike, Malinke and the Bambara, sometimes also called **Mandingoes** because they spoke the Mande language, built the Ghana Empire (*see page 71*). The **Songhai** founded their empire at the Niger River. Gao was a famous city there. Towards the coast lived the **Hausa** who built cities like Kano, Katsina and Agadez. As grassland people, they kept cattle and were farmers. Further south lived the **Yoruba**. Their Oyo kingdom was the most populous in Yoruba history. Their ruler was called Alaafin, and their God Olorum.

Central Africa (from Cameroon to Mozambique):

The original people living there were the **Pygmies** and **San (Bushmen)**. The pygmies settle in the equatorial forests of the DRC and neighbouring countries. They are **nomadic hunters and gatherers**. On average, they are less than 1.5 m tall. The San also are hunters and gatherers (*see photo on the right*) but have adapted to farming because of government intervention. Pygmies and San suffer under discrimination until today.



The **Bantu** migrated before 1500 AD into this region. Some groups are:

Congo: Bakongo, Balunda, Baluba...

Angola: Mbundu, Ovimbundu...

Zambia: Bemba...

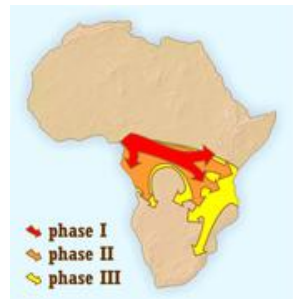
Malawi: Nyanja...

Zimbabwe: Mashona, Ndebele...

Mozambique: Yao, Makia...

Bantu empires: Mwene Mutapa in Zimbabwe (*see pages 71-72*); Balunda of Kazembe in DRC and northern Zambia

Map: Bantu migration from 1000 BC to 500 AD

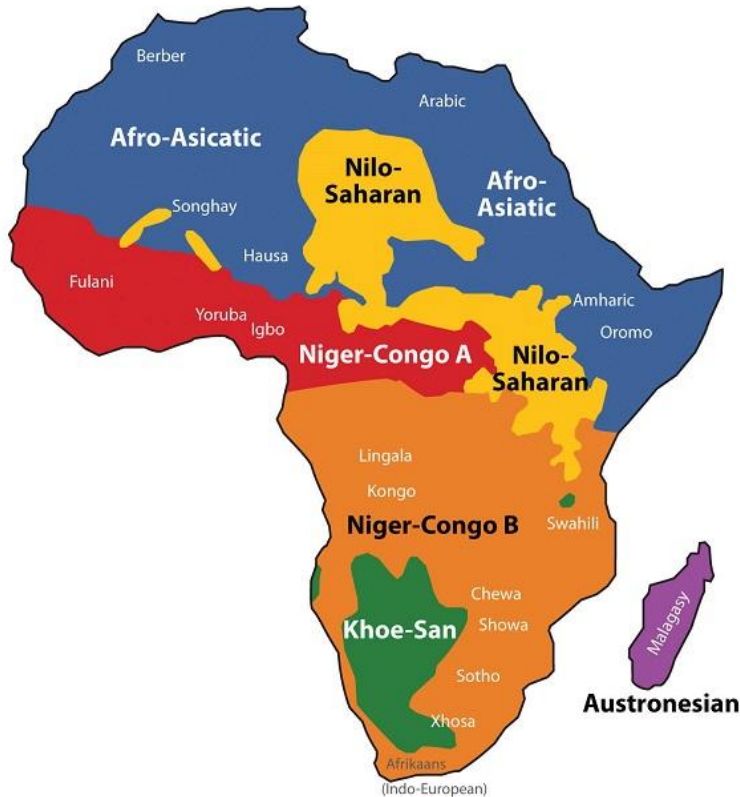


Southern Africa (Namibia, Botswana, South Africa, Lesotho, Swaziland):

- original people: **Khoi and San (Bushmen)**
- **Bantu** migration:
 - Namibia:* Ovambo, Herere...
 - Botswana:* Tswana...
 - Lesotho:* Sotho...
 - Swaziland:* Swazi...
 - South Africa:* Xhosa, Zulu...

Map: Language Families in Africa

*Niger-Congo B = Bantu languages
among Nilo-Saharan → Nilotic languages*



Factors influencing the distribution of language groups (P7/p27)

- tribal hostilities: migration because of conflict
- pasture/water: migration because of drought or famine
- disease: migration because of epidemic diseases in congested areas

Migration (P8/p7-12)

Types and Reasons of Migration:

- **Rural to Urban:** people move from villages to towns; **reasons:** farming and cattle does not sustain families; poverty; need to earn money; people look for jobs, education and medical care
- **Urban to Rural:** people move from towns to villages; **reasons:** city life is congested and too expensive; outbreak of epidemics (diseases) in slums and environmental degradation; the countryside offers a simple but healthy alternative

- **Rural to Rural:** people are on the move in the countryside; **reasons:** They want to continue their life-style and keep their cattle, but look for a better place when their grazing areas are scarce and farming land has become infertile.
- **Urban to Urban:** people move from town to town; **reasons:** They want to keep the modern life-style; they look for better employment or business opportunities.

Migration may be **voluntary** (a free decision) or **forced** (because of conflict, war, lack of land to settle, famine or drought/lack of water).

The **effects** of migration can be **positive or negative**:

positive:

- in towns: improvement of living standard
- in towns: provide cheap labour and customers to stimulate economy and industrial production
- in towns: intermarriage, national unity among ethnic groups

negative:

- in towns: increase of urban population; congestion causes higher living costs and outbreak of diseases/epidemics such as Cholera or sexually transmitted diseases (STDs); pollution and improper waste disposal
- in towns: unemployment and dependency; rise of crime and prostitution in order to survive; shortage of public services (water, schools...)
- in towns: assimilation; loss of one's culture, identity and values
- in rural areas: soil erosion and environmental degradation through excessive farming and animal rearing
- in rural areas: armed conflict because there is not enough space or water

Census (P8/p13; P5/p47-48)

A **census** is a systematic survey to collect data about the population. It shows the **population structure** in terms of age, sex, ethnicity, type of education or housing, etc. These statistics are important for the **national planning** of the government and the **distribution of services**, such as schools and hospitals. Accurate population data helps to offer the right development programs, for example polio vaccines. Those benefitting from the data are agricultural officers, medical staff (doctors) and scientists.

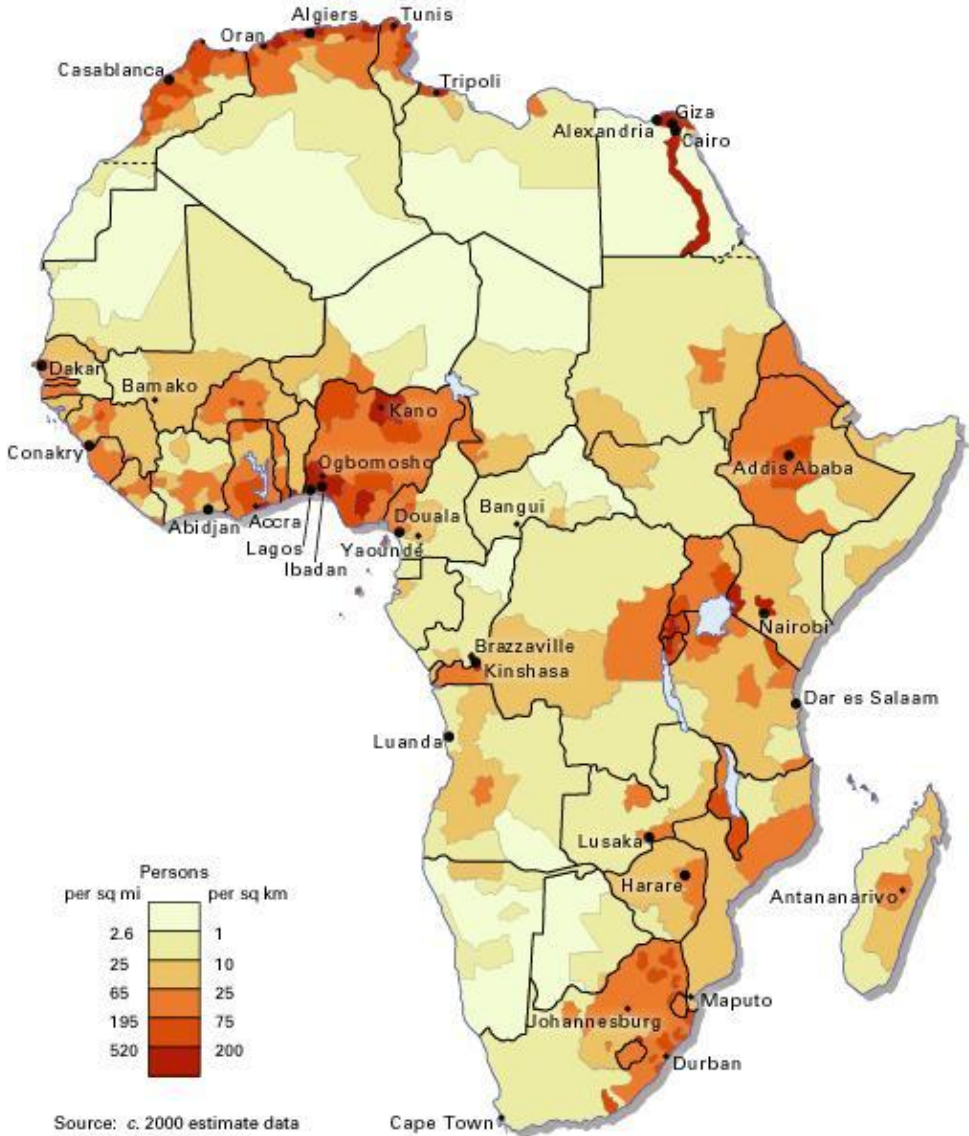
A census should be organized on a regular basis, e.g. every 10 years.

The government gathers information such as:

- the total number of people
- number of men and women in different age groups
- the birth and death rate
- the level of education
- the movement of South Sudanese from one community to another
- the number of immigrants, foreign workers and refugees

Map: Population Density of Africa

The higher populated areas are coloured dark: the Mediterranean coast, Nile valley, Nigeria, and parts of East-Africa. The largest African cities are Lagos, Cairo and Kinshasa-Brazzaville with populations between 10 and 20 million. The average population density of Africa is 36 persons per km² (square kilometre).



Source: c. 2000 estimate data

- Cities over 1,000,000
- Cities 550,000 to 1,000,000

4. *Social Interaction and Cultural Activities*

Social Interaction (P6/p23-25; P8/p14-15)

Social interaction refers to the way people mix freely and share their lives. They learn from each other and about each other. They may adapt and assimilate while interacting. But sometimes, they dislike the customs of other people.

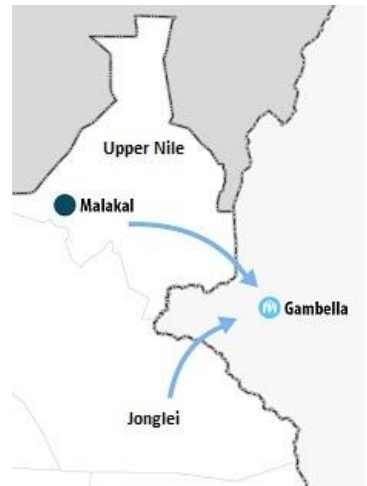
The people of South Sudan interact with people from other countries. Many ethnic groups found in South Sudan also live in neighbouring countries, or they migrated from Sudan and settled nearby. The Luo originate from Sudan and moved to Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Also the Turkana, Pokot, Kalenjin and Maasai migrated from Sudan to settle in Kenya. On the other hand, Bantu like the Azande came from the Congo Basin to settle in Sudan.

Examples of Social Interaction

- **Intermarriage among different ethnic groups** (P8/p14; P6/p23-24)
It promotes brotherhood, peace and unity because cultures mix and people learn another language.

- **Migration and Refugees** (P6/p24)
Wars in South Sudan and DRC force people to flee across borders. They come into contact with other cultures and ideas.

Map: Gambella in Ethiopia has welcomed many refugees from Jonglei and Upper Nile.



- **Trade** (P8/p15-16; P7/p31; P6/p24; P5/p53; page 50)
South Sudan has resources such as oil, minerals, timber and cattle which are **exported** to China, Uganda, Kenya, DRC and other countries. **Imports** are clothes, sugar, medicine, school materials, vehicles and machines. Non-African countries that have economic ties with South Sudan and offer assistance are the USA, EU, Great Britain, Canada, Australia and the Scandinavian countries.



In the past, people made pottery, baskets and tools at home on a small scale. There were no factories. They traded by exchanging goods because there was no money. It is called the **barter trade system**. If they needed money, they had to go to distant markets to sell their products. Today, many products are produced in factories and sold in large quantities (big numbers). Money is the accepted form of payment, although people still exchange goods in remote villages because they don't have jobs to earn money.

Picture: barter trade – a fish is exchanged for grain

• **Education** (P8/p21; P6/p24; P5/p55-57; P4/p38-39)

Even before children go to school, they learn from adults through watching and imitating. This is equally important as learning how to read and write. Traditionally in Africa, grandparents played an important role in educating. They told stories about the past, about famous people and about religious beliefs. Before children went to school, they learned **practical skills** which included:



- good behaviour towards elders
- songs and dances
- digging
- building huts
- identifying herbs for medicine
- hunting
- basketry (*see drawing above*)
- blacksmithing (*see page 50*)
- pottery (*see page 51*)
- protecting crops and livestock
- defence against enemies

Modern education was introduced first by **European missionaries**. They learned local languages and wrote books to teach the people. In 1857, the Catholic missionary Daniel Comboni (later bishop in Khartoum) opened the Holy Cross mission near Shambe which offered school education (*see his portrait on page 78*). In 1906, the Protestant Church Missionary Society (CMS) started a mission at Malek with archdeacon Shaw teaching boys to read and write.

The school is a community because teachers and students have a common purpose and interest. The school is also integrated in the larger community of the families that send their children to learn. **Teachers** should know the student families, and **parents** should be informed about the school activities. They can serve on the school committee or in the parent-teacher-association (PTA). **Students** can help as prefects or games' captains. The **head teacher** is the most important person because he coordinates all activities. If teachers, students and parents feel that the school belongs to them, then you have a good community school.

Education in South Sudan is structured in the following way:

head teacher → Payam Education Officer → County Education Director → State Minister of Education → Minister of General Education and Instruction

Education has created **national unity** in South Sudan because the different ethnic groups see themselves more as one people with one destiny and want overcome their problems together. Education has **broken down ethnic barriers and created equal opportunities**. It has brought changes in the traditional way of life, and customs such as age-groups (*see page 39*) and initiation ceremonies (*see page 40*) are disappearing in some communities.

South Sudanese students like to study in Uganda, Kenya, Ethiopia and other countries that offer a high standard of education. This has created strong social interaction between South Sudan and its neighbouring countries.

- **Sports, Games and Tournaments** (P8/p16; P7/p30; P6/p25; P5/p52)
 - good for physical health, relaxation and refreshing the mind
 - good to develop teamwork skills (cooperation), leadership skills and character
 - good to become tolerant and accept defeat
 - good for promoting social interaction (friendship, unity and peace)
 - good for promoting patriotism

A **tournament** is an event where sport teams compete to find out who is the best. Teams that lose leave the competition until one winner is left. Countries send their national teams to international tournaments (e.g. Football World Cup).

Photos below: girls playing football and rope skipping



Examples of sports and games:

athletics/running, football (soccer), basketball, volleyball, rugby, netball, rope skipping, hide-and-seek, tug-of-war, traditional wrestling and dancing, traditional games such as bows and arrows or Mungula...

Try to name the games which you can play with the balls shown below!



- **Religion** (P5/p54; P4/34-37)

Religion holds communities together. People come together to worship God and pray to him. In the past, there were no buildings to meet. **Traditional religion** often believes in spirits besides God. In some parts of Africa, shrines are built to remember the dead. Followers of traditional religion believe in life after death, and many believe that the recently deceased (the “living-dead”) are in

contact with those who are alive. Therefore, they make food offerings to keep good relations with the dead. Each ethnic group or tribe has a different name for God, but they all believe that he is the creator of the world.

The traditional society had rainmakers, fortune tellers and healers. **Rainmakers** were consulted when there was a drought. They performed rituals to bring rain. People didn't know how the weather is influenced by natural factors.

Fortune tellers were consulted to explain why something bad had happened (sickness, bad harvest, social problems...) or to give advice before taking an important decision. Bad things were thought to be caused by evil spirits or unsatisfied spirits of dead relatives. Knowledge of science has helped to solve problems for which people had no answer before.

Traditional healers cure with natural medicine diseases such as headache, stomach ache and diarrhoea. They use local plants, herbs, roots and tree bark. Sometimes the cure is effective. At other times, a doctor at a hospital needs to be consulted because modern medicine has more power to fight germs. Although traditional healers belong to the traditional society, they are not part of the traditional religion. A Christian can continue to work as a healer with natural medicine, but he cannot be a fortune teller or rainmaker because in those cases supernatural powers are invoked. The traditional healer (or herbalist) just uses what nature provides.



Christianity was introduced by European and American missionaries. They are people from other countries who preach the Gospel of Jesus (*see pages 77-78*). Arab traders brought **Islam** to South Sudan. Today, many South Sudanese have become Christians, and some are Muslims. There are others who only practice the African traditional religion, but many mix their traditional beliefs with Christianity or Islam. Therefore, we speak of a church with an African face.

Relations in the Community (P7/p28-29; P5/p49-51)

- **Community** (P4/p28-33)

A **community** is made of people who have a **common way of doing things** and speak the same language. They eat the same food and know the same songs and dances. Sometimes, the name tells you from which community the person comes.

Particularly important for a community are its **moral laws** which bind the people together and help them to live in peace. Each community teaches the children customs and traditions, the things people should do and what they should not do. Often, the moral laws are similar from one community to another. But some customs such as marriage can be very different in other parts of the world.

All religions have moral laws to teach what is right so that the community is not harmed. Christianity teaches us to love our neighbours as we love ourselves. We should be honest and mindful of other people.

- **Culture**

Culture is the **totality of thought and practice** of a people, passed on to each generation. It is characterized by a **common way of life, customs, attitudes, and beliefs**, and finds expression in language, art, music, dress code, social and political organization, religion, etc. Culture gives groups and individuals identity.

- **Clan**

A clan is a group of families who have descended from a **common ancestor**. If the society is patriarchal as in South Sudan, the clan founder is a male.

Usually, members of a clan cannot marry each other. The bridegroom looks for a bride of another clan and meets the parents to show them the quality of the cattle that he can offer. Depending on the ethnic group in South Sudan, the social status of the family and beauty of the woman, the dowry lies between 10 and 250 cattle. For example, it is possible to marry a Moru woman with 10 cows; the marriage of a Dinka woman may demand up to 250 cows. In patriarchal clans, the children belong to the father and his clan because he paid the dowry.

Clan members share everything. Land belongs to the clan, not to individuals. They work, build houses and collect the harvest together. They take care of each other during famine and insecurity. In the past, they protected each other because there was no government to do that. The clans governed themselves. In case of an offence, the elders judged the offender and decided the punishment, which usually consisted in a number of cattle to be paid. If the offender did not have enough cattle, his relatives had to pay the fine. In a modern state with written laws, courts have authority to sentence those who break the law, but the clan system in South Sudan is still applied by many groups.

In African culture, obedience and respect for elders is still highly regarded. In the past, everybody lived by the rules of the clan. Generally, boys and girls did not have sexual affairs before marriage. Today, this has changed because of modern culture which has influenced the traditional customs.

- **Tribe**

A tribe (ethnic group) is a group of clans with common customs and a common history. Some tribes have a king whose authority is accepted by all clans, for example the Shilluk and Azande (*see pages 84-85*).

Other tribes are united through their language and their customs, but each clan governs itself. The highest authority are the elders or the family father. With the introduction of the modern state, which was introduced by the British, these tribes have adopted to the system of chiefs who sometimes have responsibilities that were not part of the original culture.

- **Age-group**

An age-group is formed of people **born around the same time**. Together, they do communal work, go hunting, etc.

- **Age-set**

An age-set is a group of youth who took part in the same **initiation ceremony**. The youth are between 12 and 18 years



old and come from different parts of the community (from different clans) which enables them to enter into relationships outside one's own clan.

From the time of initiation, each age-set is given a name. These names are used in rotation. The members of an age-set are **loyal and supportive** of each other for all their lives. They progress together through the **age grades** (from junior warriors to senior warriors to junior elders to senior elders).

If there is any form of marking or cutting (*see below*), the youth are not allowed to cry or show weakness. They have to prove how brave they are.

- **Taboo**

A taboo is a custom that does not allow people to do or use something. For some, marriage within the same clan is a taboo. Or, pregnant women are not allowed to eat certain types of food. Or, sexual intercourse is a taboo from the time of pregnancy until the child is born and is able to walk. It is believed that something bad will happen to the person that breaks a taboo, or to his/her family. For example, marriage among close relatives supposedly contracts leprosy. Any disease, accident or death can be interpreted in such a way.

Science cannot find any connection between breaking taboos and getting diseases – they are caused by germs – or accidents – they happen because of carelessness. People who know science don't believe in the power of taboos anymore.

Festivals and Ceremonies (P8/p17-20; P7/p31-32; P6/p26-28; P4/p35)

Festivals and ceremonies are very important for our communities and a good example for social interaction. Food is prepared for the visitors. Examples are:

- **Naming** a child (after close relatives or events that took place at the time of birth)



- **Initiation:** rite of passage from childhood to adulthood; youth learn what they need to know about the customs of their tribe.
 - Sometimes the forehead is marked with a knife, e.g. Nuer, Dinka, Shilluk, Mundari... (*see Mundari women on the left*)
 - Sometimes the foreskin of the penis is cut off which is called **circumcision** (e.g. Azande...); some African communities circumcise girls, but should stop it.
 - Sometimes some lower teeth are removed.
- **Girl reaching puberty:** When a girl can get pregnant, the girls of her age-group and other women of her clan celebrate her.

- **Marriage:** It is a **binding relationship** between a man and a woman with the aim to get children and to provide companionship. Marriage is the **foundation on which family life and the society is built**. Marriage gives legal rights to the spouses and their children. It begins with a wedding ceremony in which the couple exchanges vows, promise to love each other and to be faithful, in the presence of witnesses.

2 Types of Marriage:

- **customary according to local traditions:** with dowry in the form of cattle, money or other gifts; heads of families need to agree; the wedding day is a feast where the bride is handed over to the clan of the husband; divorce is possible if dowry was not fully paid or the wife is infertile (*photo: decoration of hands and feet for the wedding*)
- **religious:** exchange of wedding vows before God and the community; conducted by a religious leader in a place of worship such as church or mosque; a marriage certificate is issued; **Christian spouses** promise to be **faithful until death**; the teaching of Jesus does not allow divorce.



In a **polygamous** family one man marries several women (polygyny) or one woman marries several men (polyandry). Traditional African culture and Islam practise polygyny. A Muslim can marry up to four wives. In a **monogamous** family one man marries only one wife. Christians, Jews and Hindus practise monogamy. The **Muslim marriage** is based on the Sharia (Islamic Law) and conducted by a pakh, while the **Christian marriage** is based on laws which are derived from the Bible and is conducted by a priest or pastor.

Dowry (or bride wealth, bride price) (P8/p20-21; P4/35)

advantage:

The dowry brings relatives of two families together and promotes social ties.

disadvantage:

A lot of young men don't marry because they cannot afford to pay dowry. They have to migrate and find jobs first to earn enough money.

Sometimes, men compete and the highest bidder wins the girl. Generally, dowry carries the risk to reduce girls to an asset which can be sold to bring wealth. But the dignity of a woman is of uncountable value.

- **Harvest festival:** thanksgiving for abundant food; people eat and drink, sing and dance together as a sign of happiness

Seasons determine activities of the people (P4/21-22)

In South Sudan, farmers adjust their work to the wet and dry season. When the first rains start, people go to the fields and plough the land with hoes. Then, they plant crops and later weed them. The harvest is at the beginning of the dry season. After the food is gathered, people relax and organize feasts and marriage ceremonies because there is plenty to eat. Hunting is done during the dry season with spears and arrows. But this is not allowed in game reserves (national parks).

- **Rainmaking ceremony** to end a drought or long dry season
- **Funeral and burial ceremony** for someone who died; community show solidarity by digging the grave and by giving support in the form of money, food or advice
- **Sacrifices for the ancestors:** slaughter of an animal, e.g. after the new harvest

5. Resources and Economic Activities

Introduction

The environment (physical features and the climate, *see Unit 2*) determines largely the type of economic activities people carry out (P6/p1 & 6-7; P8/p7). In Africa, **Bantu** mainly practice agriculture (P6/p20-21), **Nilotes** mainly practise pastoralism/cattle-keeping (P6/p20), and the **San (or Bushmen) and the pygmies** mainly practise hunting and gathering (P7/p24 & p27).

In South Sudan, areas with little rain don't allow people to plant crops, so they depend on animals (e.g. parts of Upper Nile, Bahr-el-Ghazal and Eastern Equatoria). They are mainly pastoralists moving with their cattle from place to place looking for grazing land: in the dry season to river banks, in the rainy season on the highlands.

In areas with enough rainfall people practice agriculture, e.g. in Western and Central Equatoria. Some still keep animals, but depend mainly on crops to survive. At the foot of mountains with fertile soil, people are farmers and plant a variety of crops.

Along the shores of rivers people depend on fishing. They also grow crops.

Map: agro climatic zones and main economic activities in South Sudan



Farming/Agriculture

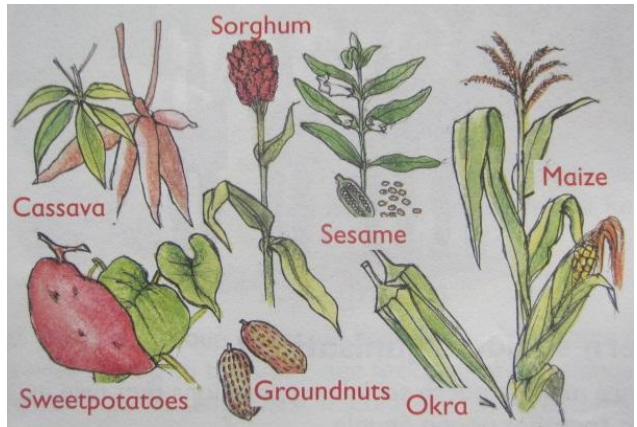
(P8/p22; P7/p33-34 & 41;
P5/p58-60; P4/p40)

South Sudan is an agricultural country. Until today, much of farming is done only with the help of rain and without machines.

Crop Farming

Crop farming refers to plants that are grown in large quantities. **Most crops are food** like sorghum, maize, millet, beans, cassava, rice, sweet potatoes, yam, groundnuts, simsim/sesame, etc.

(see picture above: P3/p26) Vegetables are pumpkin (see photo next page), cabbage, tomato, eggplant, okra...; fruits are banana, guava, mango, papaya, pineapple, orange... **Non-food crops** are cotton, tobacco, tea or coffee.



Crop rotation means that a different crop is planted the following year so that the soil can regenerate its fertility and has enough nutrients.

Cash crops are those crops which are grown to be sold for money. But in South Sudan, most farmers practice **subsistence farming**, which means food is used to feed the family, and not to be sold. They don't have modern machines like tractors, but use local tools like hoes, axes, pangas and the ox-plough. Some people don't even know how to plough with oxen and use their bare hands.

Cash crop farming is practised mainly in Greater Equatoria and Bahr-el-Ghazal (e.g. coffee and tea in Yei and Maridi; cotton in Tambura and Yambio; tobacco in Rumbek, Tonj and Yirol); subsistence farming is practised in the whole of South Sudan.

Photo: different kinds of fruit – Try to name them!



Photos below: ox-plough, coffee beans, tea leave plucking and a huge pumpkin



Conditions for Good Growth of any Crop:

- fertile soil
- adequate rainfall (enough but not too much, according to the type of crop)
- favourable altitude (depends on the type of crop)
- moderate climate (not too hot, not too cold; depends on the type of crop)
- **dangers** to be avoided: diseases which spread through insects (pests) or fungi

Examples of Cash Crop Farming (P8/p23-33)

1. **Aweil Rice Scheme** (Northern Bahr-el-Ghazal) to cultivate **rice** through **flood irrigation** which started in the 1960s; rice is nutritious; it flourishes in low flooded areas; the necessary conditions for its growth are constant soil moisture (flooded fields), stagnant water on plain lands or terraces along slopes (*see photo on page 24*), sunshine, and a long warm growing season (average over 20°C).



Photo: ripe cotton

2. **Cotton** farming in **Gezira** south of Khartoum (Sudan) between the White and the Blue Nile, the biggest cotton production in the country; **long-staple cotton** is

Sudan's most important export product; the **Sennar Dam** (built from 1913 to 1925) provides the water needed because Sudan is mainly a desert and semi-desert; **irrigation canals** distribute the water under the force of gravity to the fields; profits are shared between the tenants of the fields, the government and the Sudan Gezira Board which manages the project.

3. **Maize** plantations through **mechanized farming** on large-scale farms in the “**Corn Belt**” of the USA (see map on the right: the States in yellow from Nebraska to Ohio) the most productive farming region of the country; average farm size over 100 hectares (1 hectare = 100m × 100m); region has subtropical climate (rainfall over 800 mm, temperature about 25°C); planting in April/May, harvesting in September (about 800 kg per hectare); region supports other cash crops (wheat, barley, soy beans, hay...) and cattle/livestock production; industries connected to livestock are hide processing plants, tanneries and bone meal manufacturers



4. **Coffee** is a major export of **Brazil**; coffee needs a hot climate, wet season and elevated location (frost and drought destroy coffee plant); 22% of Brazilian population work in agricultural sector; rainforest is cut to get more farming land which leads to soil erosion with the effect that harvests yield less crops



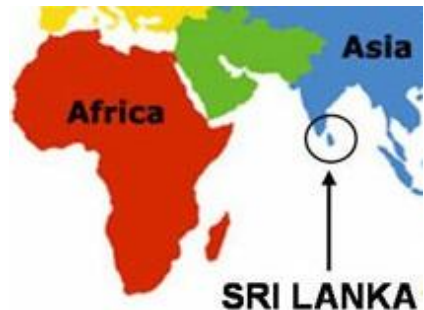
Map: the two flags show the location of the USA in North America and Brazil in South America

5. **Tea** growing in **Sri Lanka** (a small island near India; see map below) on small-scale farms and plantations; climate similar to the highlands in Kenya and Greater Equatoria; tea is grown in nurseries and later transplanted; the bushes are ready for harvest after 3-4 years; tea leaves are plucked by hand (see photo on page 44) all year round and then processed in tea factories.

Conditions for Tea Growth:

- fertile soils (e.g. friable loam soil)
- good rainfall (1500-3000 mm) and humidity
- good drainage (on hill slopes)
- altitude 600-1800 m (better above 1200 m)
- moderate temperatures (warm, not too cold)

Other crops grown in Sri Lanka: rice, vegetables, citrus fruits...



Irrigation Farming (P5/p58-59)

- water is diverted from its natural source for the purpose of growing food
- **methods:** canals, pipes, pumps, buckets
- necessary in dry areas where the fertile soil does not get enough water through rain; if crops might be destroyed through floods and storms, green houses offer protection, and water irrigation provides the right amount of water needed
- examples: sorghum (Renk), sugar cane (Melut) and vegetables in Upper Nile using water pumps along the Nile; cotton in the Nuba Mountains using the river Abu Habil; wheat and groundnuts in Blue Nile area using water pumps; rice (Aweil); cotton (Gezira; *see page 44*)
- crops are sold in towns, for example sorghum from Renk in Malakal
- problems: pumps run short of fuel or break down

Photo: large-scale irrigation with water sprinklers



Animal Husbandry, Livestock-Keeping and Pastoralism (P8/p34-37; P6/p29-31; P5/p69-70; P4/41)

Livestock-keeping is the rearing of cattle or other animals. Livestock are animals such as cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, or camels that are kept for **subsistence or commercial purposes**.

The majority of South Sudanese (about 85%) are **pastoralists**, although many of them also grow crops today. Dinka, Nuer, Shilluk, Anyuak, Mundari, Toposa and other groups keep large herds of cattle (especially people in Greater Upper Nile and Greater Bahr-el-Ghazal). If people of Greater Ectoria have herds, they are mostly **semi-pastoralists**, which means they cultivate farms and keep some livestock.

During the **wet (rainy) season**, cattle are moved to the higher areas where they graze on the open grasslands. During the **dry season**, cattle are moved to the river banks where they graze on the plains while the people live in temporary cattle

camps. Sufficient water and grazing land (pasture) is very important. The land where pastoralists move belongs to the tribe or local community. Pastoralists are **nomads** (moving constantly) or **semi-nomads** (moving during the dry season).

Photo: Mundari people, Tali Payam, Terekeka County



Importance of Pastoralism (cattle-keeping or other livestock)

- Cattle are used as dowry and court fines.
- Cattle and other livestock are slaughtered on important occasions like marriages or as sacrifices in traditional rituals.
- Cattle and other livestock provide meat, milk and butter for home consumption.
- Cattle and other livestock products can be sold or exported to generate income.
- Cattle and other livestock skins (hides) are processed into shoes and bags.
- Oxen can plough fields and gardens.

Cattle raise the **social status** of the owner in the community; the more animals the higher the status because he is considered rich.

Other animals that people need are **donkeys** for transportation.

Problems

- Overgrazing destroys the ecosystem. As a consequence animal populations reduce in numbers.
- Lack of grazing land creates conflicts among clans and tribes.
- Lack of water forces people to move great distances with their cattle. Sometimes they need to cross the territory of another tribe, but are denied access.

- Cattle rustling, cattle raiding (armed robberies)
- Tsetse flies and other insects transmit diseases.
- Movement of cattle can spread epidemics.
- The population growth claims more land for settlements so that the grasslands for cattle are reduced.
- Other economic activities compete for space with pastoralists such as transport and oil production.

New Developments: The government...

- encourages a more settled life-style by providing boreholes so that pastoralists don't need to move around in search of water.
- encourages them to grow crops.
- provides veterinary assistance to improve the health of their animals.
- provides hospitals and schools so that pastoralists can settle down.

Photo: Mundari people, Tindilo Payam, Terekeka County



Cattle-Keeping in Australia (P8/p35)

There are many countries that rely on cattle rearing (including dairy farming) of which Australia is one example. Dry pastures cover about 58% of the area. Cattle are kept in tropical grasslands or temperate woodlands, mainly in the north-west, east and south where rainfall is abundant. Besides cattle, Australia produces wheat, cotton and wine. It is also rich in minerals (bauxite, coal, copper...).

Other Forms of Animal Husbandry:

Poultry Farming (P8/p36)

Poultry are birds that are kept for their meat and eggs; most commonly chicken but also geese, ducks, turkeys, guinea fowls and other birds. The poultry industry in South Sudan is not developed and still a small-scale activity.

Bee-keeping in Greater Ekuatoria (P8/p37)

Bees are insects that live in hives. They make honey from nectar which they collect from flowers.

Bee-keeping is an economic activity mostly in Greater Ekuatoria. The traditional way is to place hives on trees where the bee swarm will settle and produce honey. Today, some NGOs train people to produce honey commercially for the sale in neighbouring countries.

Honey is used to sweeten drinks, porridge and bread, or to make medicine.

Pig-farming in Denmark (P8/p36)

Pigs are reared for their meat (pork) and pork products such as bacon, ham and sausage. Pig fat is refined to make lard. Pig bristles are made into brushes. The carcasses are ground and used as fertilizer or pig feed. Pigs need to be fed, they do not graze. They also need housing (pig sty) with steady temperatures and a clean environment. Pig rearing is an important industry in Denmark (Europe). The hotel industry backed by tourism is a large consumer of pig products.

Muslims and Jews do not eat pork because their religion considers it as unclean.

Fishing (P7/p42-44; P6/p32; P4/p44-45)

South Sudan has many rivers (*see page 16*), and fishing is an important activity. Major fishing grounds are Lake No and the rivers Nile, Sobat and Bahr-el-Ghazal.

Types of water animals that are fished: 1) fresh water fish, 2) sea fish, 3) shell fish and crustaceans. South Sudan has **fresh water fish** and a few **shell fish**.

- 1) Types of fresh water fish in South Sudan: Tilapia, Nile perch, Mudfish, Electric fish, Tiger fish, Cichlids, Catfish... (over 100 species)
- 2) Types of sea fish: white fish (mullet, stock fish, shark...), oily fish (mackerel, sardines, tuna...)
- 3) Types of shell fish: oysters, clams...

Types of crustaceans: lobsters, crabs, shrimps, prawns...

Methods of Fishing

People use nets, spears, fishing hooks, fishing baskets or the lampoon method. A fishing boat that uses a large net is called a trawler. Another method is to rear fish in ponds where they are fed. It has the advantage that the fish don't need to be caught.

Preservation of Fish

Drying in the sun, smoking using fire or salting. Fish can also be frozen in boxes of ice or in a freezer and transported long distances with boats and lorries.

Photos: smoking fish (left) and drying fish (right) for preservation



Problems

- Droughts cause lakes to dry up.
- Fishing areas are in remote places.
- Fishermen lack good equipment and canoes.
- Fish cannot be transported by lorry because there are few roads.
- Fish cannot be preserved in large quantities because there are few fish processing factories.
- Overfishing does not allow the fish population to regenerate.

Trade (P7/p34-35; P6/p33; see page 35)

Trade is the **exchange of goods**, today usually for money. Trade involves a person who sells something and a person who buys it. Before money was introduced, people exchanged goods for other goods they needed (e.g. weapons, tools, baskets or animals). This is known as **barter trade**.

South Sudan trades with neighbouring countries. Among other products, it **exports** (= sells) animals, timber, coffee, groundnuts, Lulu oil and minerals and **imports** (= buys) food, clothes, medicine, vehicles and bicycles. Inside the country, the Equatoria region sells crops to the Bahr-el-Ghazal region and buys cattle in return.



Traditional Industries (P4/p46-47)

- **Blacksmiths** make tools from iron, for example cooking pots, hoes, hammers, knives and spears. With fire, they heat the iron and hammer it into different shapes (see picture on the left).
- **Wood carvers (carpenters)** work with timber to make furniture, shelves, doors, pestles, musical instruments or the handles for hoes and hammers. Any item of wood is made by them.

- **Potteries** are earthen vessels made from clay, for example pots and plates. Clay is mixed with water and moulded in different shapes (*see photo on the right*). Then it is left to dry in the sun or burnt in an oven under high temperatures.



Afterwards, the pots can be decorated with paint.

- **Weaving cloth** from cotton or wool (*see photo on the right*) and **making baskets, mats, ropes and hats** from materials such as palm leaves, sorghum stalk, bamboo, reed or papyrus. These activities are usually done in the dry season when people do not have to work on their farms.



Modern Industries (P6/p29; P5/p61-62)

The economic activity of **changing raw materials into finished goods** (products) is called an **industry**. Raw materials are the things that nature provides, for example wood, clay, minerals or crops. In the 1970s and 1980s, Mangala (or Mongalla) near Terekeka in Central Equatoria State had a **sugar cane processing** factory and a **textile manufacturing** industry (clothing factory). Due to the civil war, the production was stopped. Today, South Sudan has almost no industries.

- **Processing industries** use agricultural products, for example tobacco processing at the Haggar Factory (Juba County)
- **Manufacturing industries** make new products, using machinery, for example furniture
- **Assembly industries** put together different parts of items, for example bicycles.

South Sudan has no factory for assembling products.

- **Service industries** provide help that other industries can do their work well, for example **banks** provide loans (money) for businesses and **means of transport** (*see page 54*) connect different places in the country.

Picture: People deposit or withdraw money at a bank.



Banks (P5/p67) are a safe place to keep money because they are insured against robbery and disaster (e.g. fire). If money would get lost there, you still can claim your savings which you have deposited in the bank account. Banks also offer loans using the money which other people have deposited. In order to make a profit, the interest rate on savings (what the banks gives to customers) is lower than the interest rate on loans (what the banks takes from debtors). The **interest rate** is an amount that is added, for example 1000 SSP with an annual rate of 10% make 1100 SSP after one year. If you borrow money, you have to pay back more than what you received from the bank.

Benefits of Industries

- increase the wealth of a country
- provide quality goods, e.g. soap, shoes, clothes, vehicles...
- provide employment for skilled and unskilled labourers
- create income for the government and local communities through taxation
- promote exports and imports (create good international relationships)
- encourage development by using natural resources in an efficient way

Problems

- Industries invite people to migrate, but because of low pay/wages they end up living in slum areas (shanty towns).
- Industries cause pollution and can destroy the ecosystem for many years.
- Industries can be very noisy and disturb the neighbourhood.
- Industries such as the oil companies have displaced many people from their homeland (land grabbing). They got the land from the government without the consent of the local communities.

Mining (P8/p40-42; P7/p 35; P6/p31-32; P5/p68-69)

Mining is the act of removing natural resources (minerals, metals...) from the ground.

Minerals are valuable substances such as gold, diamonds, copper, iron, nickel, mercury, uranium, gas or oil/petroleum... Products like mobile phones and computers cannot be produced when certain metals are missing. But mining also destroys the landscape and clears the vegetation, leaving it unsuitable for agriculture.

There are **2 methods**:

- Underground Drilling: Tunnels are dug deep down below the earth's surface.
- Opencast method: The surface soil is removed to extract (dig out) the minerals. If people don't have machines, they just dig with a spade.

South Sudan has many minerals and metals, for example:

- oil (Unity and Upper Nile States)
- copper and uranium (Bahr-el-Ghazal region)
- gold and potassium (Kapoeta East County)
- nickel ()

Photos: on the left “opencast”; on the right “underground drilling”



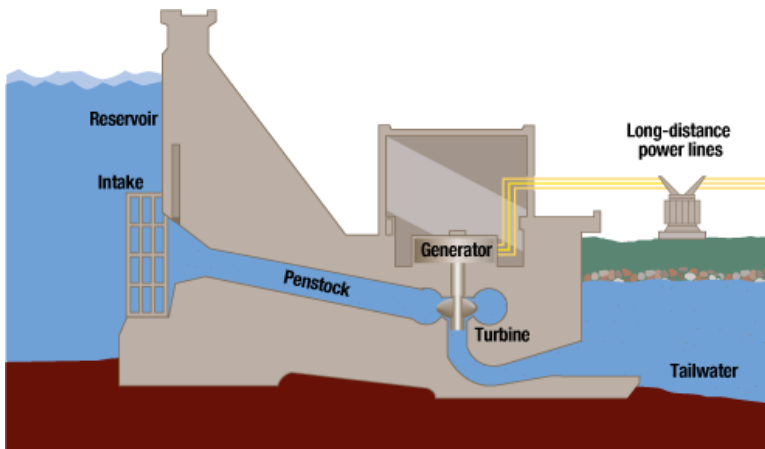
Important minerals (natural resources) which don't need mining: soda ash, salt, sand and stones. Soda ash and salt are scooped from lakes and piled into heaps. The sun makes the water evaporate, and the pure mineral remains behind.

By exporting minerals, countries earn foreign currencies and support their economies. **South Sudan's principle export is oil.** It is refined to serve as fuel. Plastic is another product from oil. Tarmac is made of waste oil (tar) mixed with small stones. Potassium is used for making electric wires and coils.

Hydro-Electric Power (P7/p37-41)

The word “hydro” is connected with water. When people use the power of water to produce electricity, we speak of hydro-electric power. Several African countries have constructed dams. A dam is a barrier built across a river in order to create a water reservoir (= a lake) and to produce electricity.

Illustration: hydro-electric dam; water moves the turbine so that the generator produces electricity.



Examples

- Sudan: Roseires Dam
- Kenya: **Tana River project** with seven dams to generate hydro-electric power (two-thirds of Kenya's electrical needs) and to store water for irrigation
- Uganda: Owen Falls Dam, Nile River near Lake Victoria
- Egypt: **Aswan High Dam** which created **Lake Nasser**; completed in 1970; 3.6 km long and 100 m high; built to control the flood waters of the Nile; Lake Nasser reaches over the border of Sudan.
- Ghana: **Volta River project**; largest power scheme in West-Africa; provides electricity for the aluminium smelting industry
- Nigeria: Kainji Dam, Niger River
- Zimbabwe: Kariba Dam, Zambezi River
- South Africa: Gariep Dam, Orange River (formerly H. Verwoerd Dam)

Transport and Communication (P5/p62-67 & p71-76; P4/p48-49)

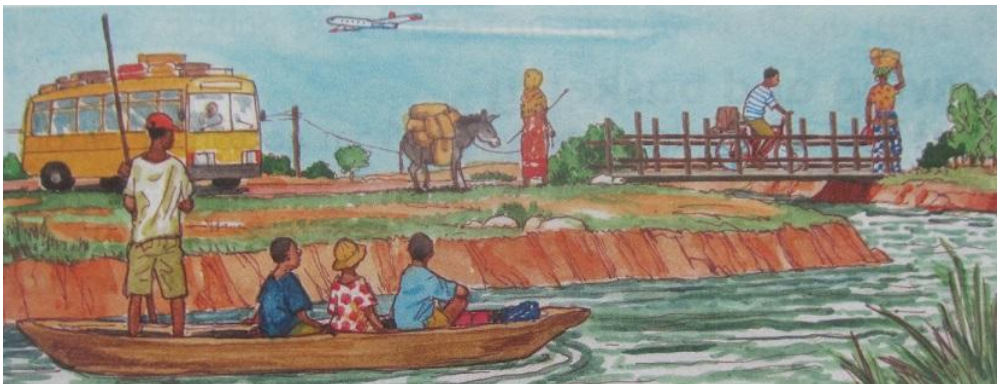
Transport means moving goods and people from one place to another. Modern means of transport were introduced by the British colonialists. They built most of the roads in use today and the railway. Modern means of transport allow traders and farmers to reach the big markets and sell their goods.

Types of Transport

- carrying things on foot
- using a cart (with or without the help of an animal)
- donkey or camel
- bicycle or motorcycle
- car, pick-up, bus or lorry
- boat, canoe or ferry
- train (Wau was connected in 1963 with Khartoum and Port Sudan.)
- airplane or helicopter

What types of transport do you see in the picture? (P4/p48)

Which one is missing from the list above?



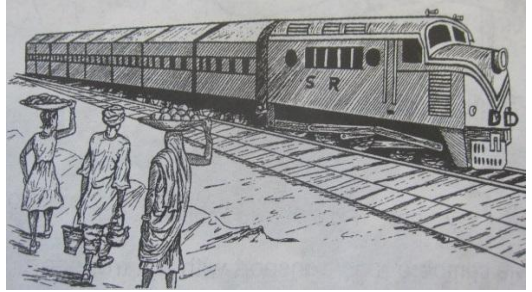
Comparing Road and Rail Transport

advantages of roads:

- Roads are cheaper to build.
- Vehicles can stop at the exact place needed.

advantages of railroads:

- Goods are transported safely and fast in large quantities for a low price.
- Railways don't have bumps and potholes. They don't get spoilt so easily like roads.
- Trains have fewer accidents.
- Trains are environmental-friendly (cause less pollution).



Drawing: A train stops at a station. (P5/p63)

Road Safety (P5/p74-76)

Many roads in South Sudan can only be used in the dry season. When the soil gets wet, vehicles get stuck. The road between Juba and Nimule (Ugandan border) has tarmac so that it can be used the whole year.

Many roads need to be repaired and some drivers drive too fast. This is dangerous and often causes **accidents**. Walk on the side of the road where you see the traffic moving towards you so that you can jump off the road if a vehicle comes too close.

In a pick-up truck always sit down, and never sit on the edge so that you are not thrown off because of a bump or pothole.

Do not ride a bicycle when the breaks are not good, or when your legs are too short so that you cannot reach the pedals. Practice riding in a place without cars.

Road accidents are caused by:

- people driving too fast (ignoring the speed limit)
- people driving drunk (alcohol makes people react slower)
- people overtaking another vehicle in corners (sharp bends)
- people stepping suddenly on the road
- vehicles not properly maintained (e.g. poor brakes, old tyres...)

Road accidents can be prevented when drivers and pedestrians obey the traffic rules. Vehicles need to be checked frequently by a mechanic.

Examples of Road Signs:





Water Transport

Cheaper than road transport, but usually slower. Boats can only stop at places along the river (Juba, Malakal, Wau, Terekeka, Shambe...). Ferries remain at one location and travel from one side of the river to the other side back and forth.

Photo: Check-point along the Nile River

Air Transport

This is the fastest transport over long distances, but also the most expensive. Air transport is useful to carry passengers from one country to another, and to supply areas that have no road or river access. Goods that spoil quickly (become bad) such as fresh fruit are often carried by airplane. Patients needing urgent medical treatment can be flown to a hospital. Air travel is the most polluting type of transport because it needs a lot of energy.

In South Sudan, Juba has the only international airport. Other big towns have regional airports, for example Rumbek, Wau and Malakal. Many villages prepare their own landing strip in order to get supplies from the UN, WFP and NGOs.

Communication (P4/p49; P5/71-73)

Communication means **to pass on a message (spread information) to another person**. The most common form of communicating is **speaking**, but also our body movement sends signals that others interpret.

In the past, some people used **drums and horns** to send messages over large distances. Drums announced the death of a person or invited people to a marriage ceremony. Horns informed about a hunting expedition or warned about an enemy.

With the invention of alphabets, people share messages through **letters**. Today, telecommunications allow us to send text messages with mobile phones and emails through the Internet. But the most popular form of communication is speaking on the **phone**. Regions that are not connected to the mobile phone network rely on radio communication and satellite dishes.



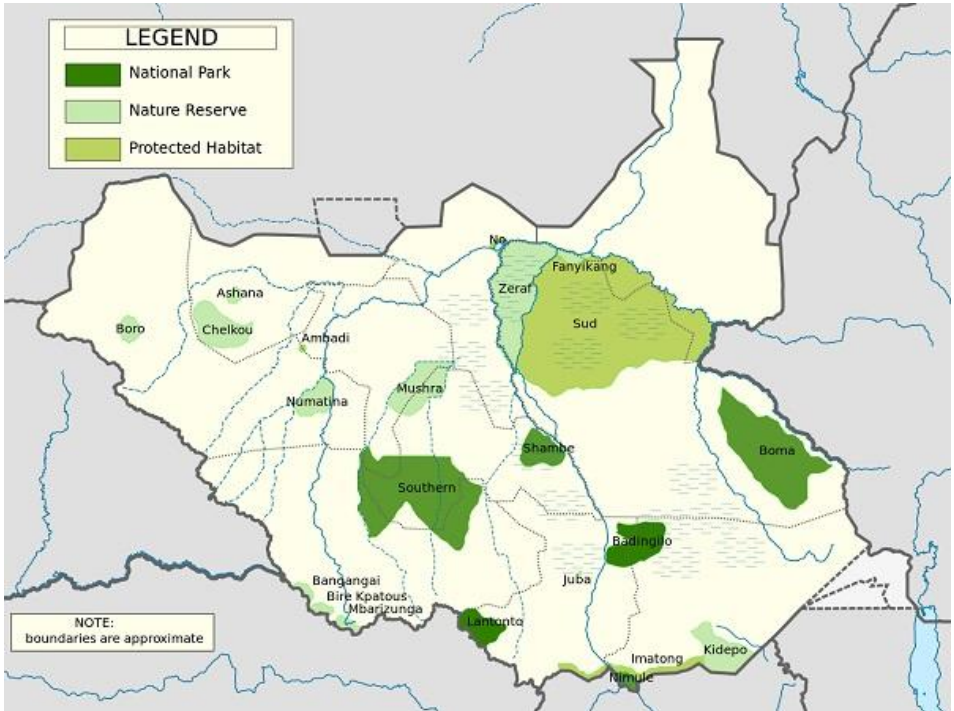
Other modern forms of communication are short wave and FM-radio, television (TV), newspapers and magazines (published daily, weekly or monthly), and the **postal service** which sends letters and parcels to all countries. At the post office, you have to buy a stamp equivalent to the cost of the transport fees and stick it on the letter or parcel. Then, it will be carried by land, sea or air and delivered to the address that is written on the envelope.

In the past and today, people act as **messengers**. For example, parents may send their child with a message to the neighbour.

Picture above: a satellite dish has an antenna that captures signals from a satellite in space, for example to access the Internet or watch television programs.

Tourism and Wildlife (P6/p34; P7/p36)

Tourists are people who visit a place (in their own country or in another country) for a short period of time for cultural or recreational reasons. Tourists usually like to enjoy beautiful scenery, see wildlife (wild animals), visit historical sites and monuments, climb mountains, get to know a new culture and its people, or just want to relax. South Sudan has several national parks with a lot of game (wild animals) such as national parks in Boma, Nimule and Badingilo.



Tourism is beneficial because it is a source of income for the government and for local people who work in the tourism sector (e.g. hotels, restaurants...).

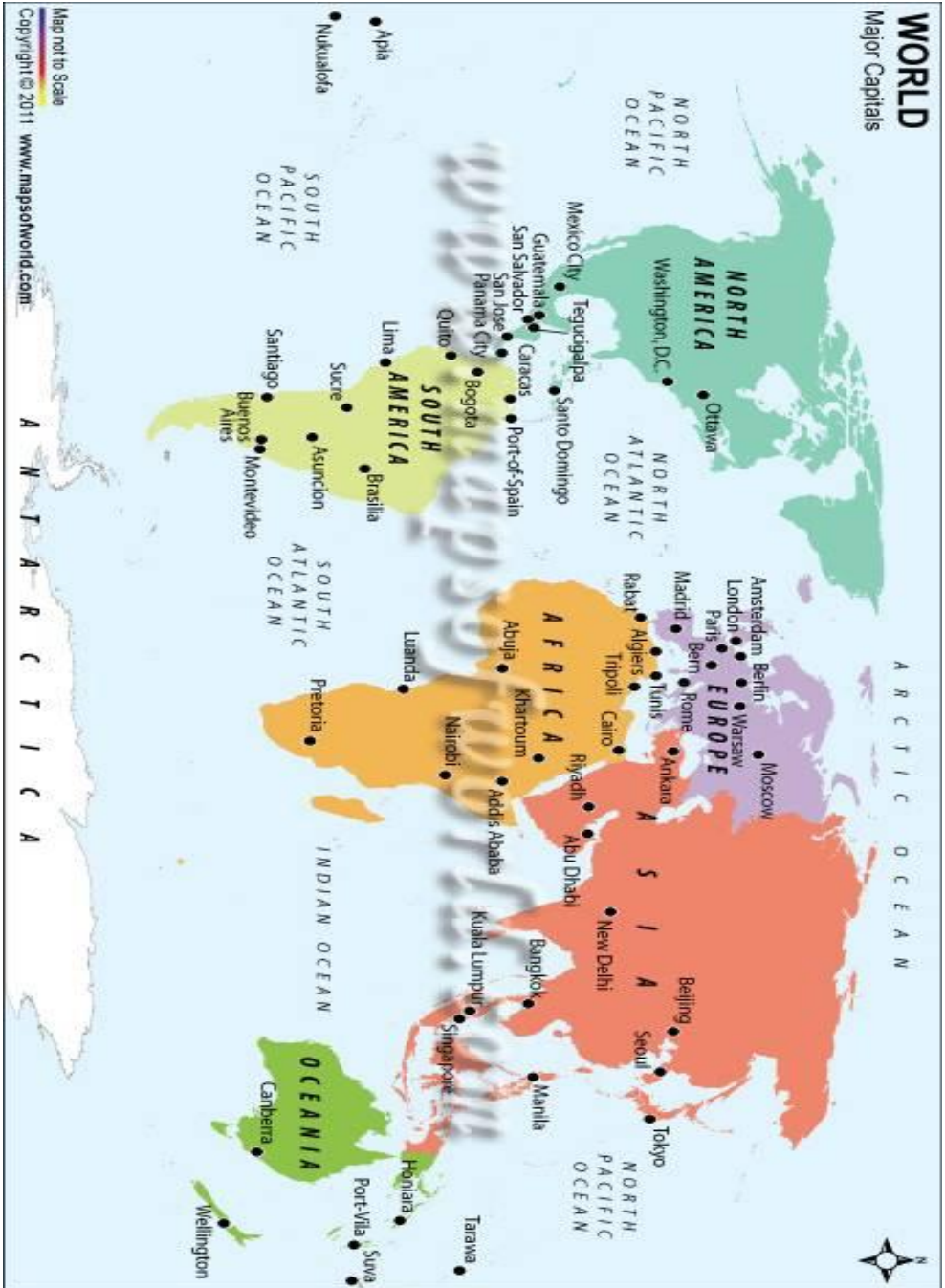
Problems in South Sudan

- Insecurity in South Sudan and hostilities among tribes prevents tourists from visiting.
- There is a shortage of capital to develop the tourism sector and build proper facilities for tourists. They don't find proper accommodation.
- The road and transport system is underdeveloped.

Drawing: Rhinos are almost extinct in Africa because of poaching (illegal hunting for profit)



Map: major capital cities; Find out to which countries they belong!



Urbanization (P8/p42-44)

Urban centres are the towns and cities of a country. **Urbanization** means the growth and development of low populated areas (the countryside, villages) into towns. In South Sudan, some garrisons (place of soldiers) like Juba became towns. Other places grew into towns because of trade.

Functions of a Town or Urban Centre

- administrative centre (government offices)
- trading centre (big markets)
- industrial centre (manufacturing)

Characteristics of a Town or Urban Centre

- residential areas (where people live in houses or apartments)
- a centre with offices, shops and markets
- a variety of human activities and types of employment
- services such as transport, schools, hospitals, electricity and water supply
- recreational areas such as parks, sport fields, cinemas, theatres...

Factors that Encourage the Development of Towns and Cities

- trade & employment opportunities
- communication
- security
- favourable environment (enough water)
- enough land to settle

Problems

- housing problems (overcrowding)
- crime and social evils
- environmental pollution

Cooperatives (P8/p47-49)

A cooperative society is an organization whose members work together for a common purpose. It is formed in the spirit of the communal good and to achieve benefits.

Types of Cooperatives in South Sudan

- agricultural cooperate societies (coffee, tea, sugarcane, cotton, dairy, fisheries...); members purchase farm equipments and fertilizers
- consumer cooperate societies (buy commodities and re-sell them)
- producer cooperate societies (joint production)
- savings and credit cooperate societies (micro-credit, loans for members)

Functions: collect, store, process, transport, sell products

Benefits: accessible services for members, including loans

Problems

- mismanagement of funds
- corruption by officials, misuse of administrative powers
- lack of experience, lack of qualified staff
- lack of trust
- high operational costs
- irregular payments to members

Human Influence on the Environment

As the environment has an influence on human activities (*see pages 42 and 29*), so the **human activities described in Unit 5** can change the environment. Often, this has negative effects on the lives of people. **Environmental degradation** is the condition where the quality of the environment is reduced, in particular soil (land) and water.

Man-made Causes of Land Degradation

- **Over-cultivation:** Land loses its fertility because it cannot rest; common in overpopulated areas.
- **Overgrazing:** Too many animals graze in a place and increase soil erosion.
- **Mining:** Infertile underground soil is moved on top of fertile soil.
- **Waste Disposal:** Waste is dumped in places that could be of use for farming or settlement; household wastes are plastic bottles, metal tins, etc; industrial wastes are chemicals and toxic substances.
- **Pollution:** Harmful substances are released and contaminate the air, water and soil; health risk for humans.
- **Deforestation:** massive logging = cutting down trees (*see page 23*)
- **Wildlife destruction:** Poaching reduces animal populations and disrupts the natural food chain.

Man-made causes need to be distinguished from **natural** causes such as flooding, landslides, drought and earthquakes. But some natural disasters occur more frequently because of man-made **climate change**. Industrial production has released **green-house gases** that raise the average temperature on earth. As a result, weather conditions are more extreme, storms are more destructive, droughts last longer and flooding is more frequent.

Effects of Environmental Degradation

- loss of life (humans and animals)
- destruction of property; poverty spreads
- outbreak of diseases and epidemics (e.g. Cholera)
- forced migration because damage of natural environment

Environmental Conservation (*see page 23*)

- making laws to protect the environment
- re-forestation and afforestation
- avoid pollution and improper waste disposal

6. *Civic Education*

National Unity and National Philosophy

What is a Nation? (P8/p53)

A nation is a group of people that share a common identity in terms of culture, history and language, and live under one government sharing a common territory. In international relations, a nation refers to a country or sovereign state.

The **nationality** refers to the status of an individual in relation to one's country. It has the same meaning as **citizenship** (*see next page*).

The National Philosophy (P8/p54-56)

The national philosophy is a **set of values and objectives** acceptable in society that guides attitudes and conduct. It strengthens the unity among citizens and enhances development. At present, South Sudan is facing problems such as war and poverty that are hindering development. The most important values are:

- **Unity:** promoting harmony, spirit of working together, love, peace, being mindful of one another, and avoiding corruption, nepotism and tribalism
- **Equality:** fair and equal distribution of resources, services, schools, health centres, tax money, jobs, scholarships, loans...
- **Progress:** improvement on all levels such as the living standard by exploiting the available resources and working hard; progress means movement towards a goal, for example when a country develops its economy.

Vision and Objectives of the SPLM (P8/p76)

- Building a free, just, democratic and secular nation
- The guiding principles are based on the liberation of the individual and the society from all forms of political, economic and social constraints.
- All people irrespective of ethnicity, sex or religion are entitled to freedom, development, pursuit of happiness, self-fulfilment, social justice, human rights and equality.

Factors Promoting National Unity (P8/p50-53)

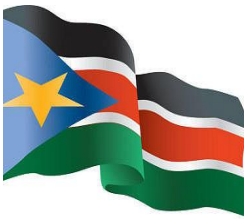
South Sudan's people come from different ethnic groups, cultures, religious communities and social backgrounds. The government works for the promotion of national unity which is the basis for economic and social development.

- **National language** enables people from different ethnic groups to unite and to communicate; since independence in 2011, the national language is **English**, used in offices and schools (public institutions).
- **Education** (*see page 36*) creates a common identity; ethnic barriers are broken down through learning and progressing together.
- **Equal distribution of resources and social services** enhances cooperation, love and unity, and brings balanced development.
- **Games and sports** (*see page 37*); national teams are made up of players from different communities and unite the fans of different tribes.

- **Freedom of worship:** Each individual has the right to profess his or her religious belief of choice; religious organizations and churches draw members from various communities.
- **Symbols of national unity:** the flag, the national anthem (*see page before table of contents*), the loyalty pledge, national celebrations (May 16 *SPLA Day*; July 9 *Independence Day*; July 30 *Martyrs' Day*)



- **Coat of arms** (badge of identity), *see on the left*: the eagle signifies strength, resilience and vision; the shield and weapons signify protection; the scroll has the motto “justice, prosperity, liberty” and the name of the country on it
- **the Presidency:** All citizens owe their loyalty to the head of state who is commander in chief of the armed forces and the chairman of the SPLM (*see below page 66*); sign of South Sudan’s oneness and independence
- **the Constitution** that guarantees equal rights and protects every citizen against discrimination (*see below page 67*)



The Colours of the Flag (P7/p48-49)

- **black:** Sudanese people
- **white:** living in peace and finding peaceful conflict resolutions
- **red:** remembering the martyrs; duty to defend freedom
- **green:** fertile land and other resources
- **blue:** the Nile River
- **yellow:** guiding star of hope towards building a new nation

Citizenship (P7/p45-48)

A **citizen** is a legally recognized person as a member of a country (a state). He has certain rights and privileges, as well as obligations and duties, which are defined in the constitution and other laws. Every individual has the need of belonging to a country which protects him/her.

How to Become a Citizen

Citizenship is the legal right of a person to be a member of a country. This happens usually by **birthright**. Foreigners can become citizens through **naturalization**, which means they acquire citizenship as adults. These adults need to pass a citizenship test and vow loyalty to the country.

Becoming a citizen by birth (information of P7/p45-47 is outdated with the **Nationality Act of 2011**):

This applies to people who have at least one South Sudanese parent, or belong to one of the indigenous ethnic communities. Sudanese citizens who had their domicile (*see next page*) in South Sudan since 1956 are considered citizens by birth. This applies to the people who fled to the north of Sudan or to other countries during the two civil wars. Citizenship acquired by birth cannot be lost.

Becoming a citizen by naturalization (registration):

This is a process by which an alien (foreigner) wants to become a citizen. It applies to people who have close connections with South Sudan which justify granting them citizenship. The following conditions must be met:

- being over 18 years old
- residing at least 10 years without interruption in South Sudan
- proving the intention to remain a permanent resident if naturalized
- not having been convicted of a serious offence or immoral behaviour
- being of sound mind (reliable, can be trusted)

People may lose South Sudanese citizenship that was granted by naturalization (registration). By renunciation a person makes a declaration upon which he or she becomes alien again. But also the state can deprive a person's citizenship if

- the person obtained citizenship by fraud or false representation of the facts about himself;
- the person has been disloyal to the country;
- the person has communicated or traded with an enemy state (with which South Sudan is at war), or is engaged in espionage;
- or the person has been convicted of a serious offence within the first five years of naturalization.

Dual citizenship refers to people who are citizens of two countries, for example when the parents are from different countries. In order that these people are not subject to two different laws, the law of the place of residence is applied (**master nationality**). Foreigners living in South Sudan also are subject to its laws, and not to the laws of their home countries.

A **domicile** is the place where a person chooses to live most of the time (main or permanent residence). This can be in another country and therefore is distinct from citizenship or nationality.

Elements of a Good Citizen (P6/p36-37; P7/p48-49)

- **Loyalty:** faithful support towards the nation, the constitution and the government; loyal citizens volunteer in times of disaster to help others
- **Justice:** citizens have equal rights; social justice is the basis for a peaceful society; all citizens should treat others fairly; fair decisions made by the courts (judges and magistrates); government has duty to enforce the law fairly; lawyers defend citizens whose rights have been ignored
- **Patriotism:** love towards one's homeland and willingness to defend it; patriots respect the national symbols (*see last page*) and obey the law
- **Obedience:** as children obey their parents and students obey teachers, citizens need to follow the rules and laws of a country; laws protect the life and property of the people; good citizens respect public property; this promotes order and stability
- **Honesty:** being transparent and accountable, especially with money; no cheating, stealing or lying; honest people do not hide the truth

The Three Independent Powers in a Democracy

Legislature, Executive and Judiciary (P8/p91-100; some information in the P8 book is outdated because it was written before independence)

Democracy works if these three powers are **independent and control each other**. In particular, the **executive needs to be accountable** to avoid misuse of power.

- **The Legislature:** Here, the laws of the country are written, passed or rejected. South Sudan has two houses which form the National Legislature: the **National Legislative Assembly** (Lower House: directly elected assembly) and the **Council of States** (Upper House: appointed representatives). Laws define the rules of conduct for the government, for other institutions and all citizens.
- **The Judiciary:** The court system is responsible for interpreting laws, settling disputes and awarding punishment for violations of the law. People can appeal to a court if they feel that their rights have been violated.
 - South Sudan Supreme Court: highest court, chaired by the Chief Justice
 - High Court: highest court in a state
 - County court: highest court in a county
 - Chief court: consists of executive chief and sub-chiefs (payam level)
 - Chief's court of appeal: highest court applying local law and customs
- **The Executive:** the government and its law enforcement organs that manage community affairs (e.g. tax collection...); Government officials are allowed to establish order in accordance with the constitution and the laws of the country. They are not allowed to transgress the law. **The president** has power to appoint the cabinet, governors and other senior government officials. He can declare a state of emergency in times of war or disaster. He has the power to govern by decree and bypass the legislative, but this should be a rare measure.

The police are a law enforcing organ to maintain order. They have authority to arrest people. This does not mean that the accused are guilty. A **court trial** has to find out if they will be convicted or acquitted. The police protect the lives of the citizens, in particular persons serving the public. It also protects government institutions (assets) and people's properties from thieves and corrupted government employees. Policemen are expected to be loyal and not to criticize the system of the country.

Criminals are kept in **prisons** to protect the public. A prison sentence is a **punishment** for the wrong that was done, but it should also be an opportunity of **rehabilitation**. Prisoners should be helped to reflect on their lives and become good citizens who will serve their communities by the time of their release. If possible, prisoners should be offered to learn **vocational skills** such as carpentry, masonry and auto-mechanics. When they have completed their prison sentence, they can earn money in an honest way. Rehabilitated criminals even can work in the administration of the government.

The army protects and defends the country from outside enemies.

The Government

A government is a system to manage the affairs of a country from the national to the local level. Different countries have different forms of government. The most popular form today is a **democratic** government where people elect their political representatives.

The government of South Sudan (GoSS) was established in 2005. The power of the government originates from the will of the citizens of South Sudan, the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), the interim constitution and the interim national constitution.

What are the **duties and responsibilities of a government?** (P8/p53-54)

- The government has the **duty to protect the citizens**, their lives and their property so that they can carry out their activities without fear or threat as long as they obey the laws of the country. The police and the judiciary (*see last page*) are state institutions which help the government to ensure this protection.
- Besides security, the government is responsible to **distribute opportunities fairly** in the areas of education, health services, employment, clean water, etc. All citizens have a right to access these services.

South Sudan has the following layers in a state: county – payam – boma. Urban areas have municipalities and town councils. **Functions of the local government:**

- preparation of strategic development plans
- submission of budgets and transparent accounts of income and expenditure
- collecting taxes
- monitoring and evaluation of performance
- issuing licenses and permits
- investigating complaints such as corruption
- settling conflicts among citizens and groups
- mobilizing communities to develop the area

Administrative Structures of South Sudan (from the lowest to the highest level) (P8/p88-90 & p96-99)

- **Headman:** administrator in a village and chairman of the council of elders
- **Sub-chief:** assistant of the chief, community mobilizer and labour organizer
- **Chief:** often a traditional leader respected by the community; mobilizes communities and coordinates between government and the community; assists in tax collection; local people bring their issues to the chief that the administration needs to solve; disputes related to land and clan should be solved first by the chief
- **Boma administrator:** reports to the payam administrator; supervisor on taxes, rules and regulations of the boma

- **Payam administrator:** reports to the commissioner; supervisor on taxes, rules and regulations of the payam
- **Commissioner (county secretary):** the most senior administrator of a county with the right to set and implement policies and laws (rules and regulations) with his Executive Council; oversees public order and security of the county; organizes service delivery and local development; coordinates activities of governmental and non-governmental partners (private sector, NGOs...); reports to the governor
- **Governor:** the senior administrator and head of the executive organ of one of the 10 states in South Sudan; appoints the State Council Ministers and his Deputy; supervises and directs state policies to be implemented in the counties
- **Head of State: the President,** head of the national government, commander-in-chief of the army; represents the government and the people of South Sudan; preserves the security and territorial integrity of South Sudan; supervises executive institutions and provides leadership; presides over the South Sudan Council of Ministers; appoints his advisors and senior officials in the executive and judiciary; initiates legislation and signs legislative bills passed by the legislative assembly

Another important post is the **Vice President**. He is a member of the South Sudan Council of Ministers and South Sudan Security Committee and performs duties assigned to him by the President. In the absence of the President, he acts in his place.

Each administrator in the list is appointed by the official above him.

Social, Economic and Political Challenges and their Solutions

Social Challenges

- Nepotism (giving relatives jobs or positions of power)
- Inter-tribal conflicts and cattle raiding
- Internally displaced persons (IDPs) and refugees
- Inadequate social services (schools, hospitals)
- Absence of clean water sources
- Land mines injure or kill people; they were planted during the civil war in the front lines to prevent an enemy attack
- HIV/AIDS spreads as South Sudanese mix with people of neighbouring countries and get infected. When they return to their village, they might infect the local population because of promiscuity.

Solutions to Social Challenges

- Discouraging nepotism and tribalism
- Settling inter-tribal conflicts through peace and reconciliation commissions

- Repatriating IDPs and refugees
- Opening more schools and clinics (medical centres)
- Drilling more bore holes
- De-mining affected areas
- Opening Voluntary Counselling and Testing Centres (VCTs) for HIV and sensitizing the population with awareness campaigns

Economic Challenges

- Inadequate physical infrastructure (roads, bridges...)
- Poor agricultural productivity due to primitive tools and political instability
- Limited exploitation of natural resources (oil, timber, gold...)
- Corruption and mismanagement of funds that prevent effective delivery of services to the citizens
- Inadequate labour force (many citizens are not trained competently)

Solutions to Economic Challenges

- Rehabilitation and re-construction of existing roads and bridges
- Modernizing agriculture
- Making corruption transparent
- Training people with vocational skills and increasing the literacy rate (helping students to complete primary and secondary school)

Political Challenges

- The recent civil war since December 2013
- Differences in political ideology
- Different armed groups operating outside the SPLA structure

Solutions to Political Challenges

- Promoting peace, unity and reconciliation in legislation and governmental policies
- Setting up a Peace and Reconciliation Commission based on the principals of justice, forgiveness and patience
- Disarming illegally armed groups (demobilization, disarmament, re-integration)

The Constitution

South Sudan has a **transitional constitution** since its independence in 2011. It is the fundamental and supreme law. It is an agreement of the citizens reflecting the vision and values how the country should be governed. Other laws must be consistent with the constitution. Everyone must obey the constitution, respect and defend it. This applies to all citizens including community leaders, local authorities, government institutions, the president, the army and the police.

The transitional constitution includes

- **a vision and principles** which describe the country's goals, objectives and values to guide decisions, for example, South Sudan is a multi-ethnic, multi-

cultural, multi-lingual, multi-religious country where these diversities co-exist peacefully;

- **a definition of citizenship** stating the rights and duties of South Sudanese;
- **guarantees for basic rights and freedoms** (*see below*);
- **the organization of government** which describes the different government institutions and how they relate to each other, for example the three branches executive, legislature and judiciary, and the three levels of government (national, state and local);
- **the selection and election of government leaders** which describes how authorities are elected or appointed, how long they stay in office and how often they can be re-elected;
- **the distribution of powers and responsibilities** which defines how the government exercises its power on different levels, the limits of these powers, the obligation to act within the law and how to hold accountable authorities for their actions and decisions;
- **the distribution of resources and wealth** which defines how resources are used and how the country's wealth is shared;
- **requirements to amend or revise the constitution** which usually needs a two-thirds majority in parliament.

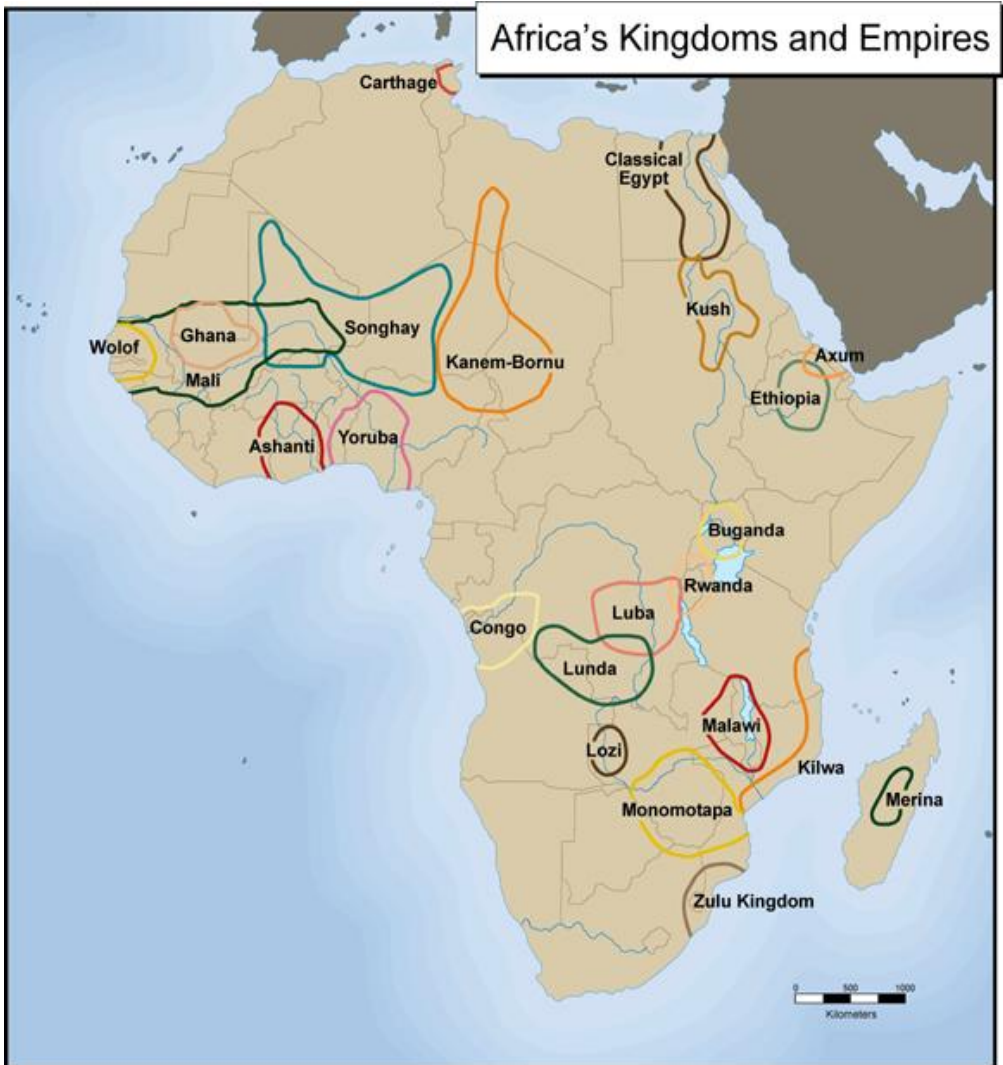
Citizen Rights and Responsibilities in the Constitution

The law of the country gives its citizens certain **rights and privileges**. Some are:

- **Right to Life:** The state protects the life of each individual.
- **Freedom of Expression:** People are free to say what they think, even criticizing the government and local authorities, so long as there is no hate speech or call to violence.
- **Freedom of Assembly:** People are free to hold meetings anywhere in private and also in public, as long as the gathering does not become violent.
- **Freedom of Association:** People are free to join parties and associations.
- **Freedom from arbitrary Search and Detainment:** Nobody shall be arrested without a justified reason (court order). The police need a search warrant to enter a house or office.
- **Freedom from Discrimination:** It is not allowed that a person is discriminated against on the basis of skin colour, race, sex, religion or political opinion.

Citizens also have **collective responsibilities**, for example:

- Obeying the law
- Respecting the rights of fellow citizens, maintaining a fair society
- Using the national wealth for the common good
- Paying taxes to the state
- Promoting education
- Protecting democracy and human rights
- Taking part in elections
- Fighting epidemic diseases such as HIV/AIDS
- Fighting drug and substance abuse



Africa had decentralized or stateless political societies (e.g. the San in southern Africa or the Igbo in Nigeria), city states (like the Mombasa and Lamu in East Africa) and **centralized kingdoms** (shown on the map above). Of these, some were ruled by a king who controlled external and internal affairs directly (e.g. Rwanda), others had kings controlling external affairs and appointed chiefs overseeing internal affairs (e.g. Ghana), and others had independent chiefs in the provinces with no permanent administrative link to the king (e.g. Lunda and Luba). In some kingdoms, the only link between central authority and the provinces was paying a tribute (e.g. Congo, Mali and Wolof) and other kingdoms were organized as federations like the Ashanti Union. Carthage was an oligarchic republic.

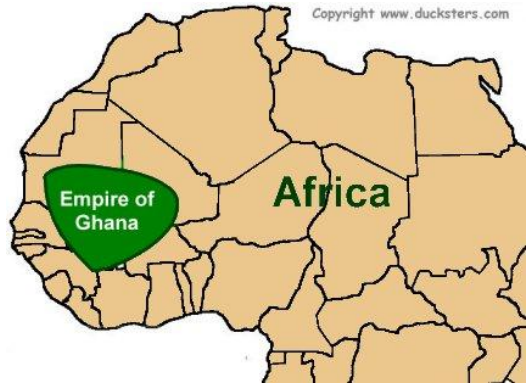
7. *Political Systems and Development (History)*

Ancient Kingdoms outside the

Sudan (P7/p50-53; P6/p42-48)

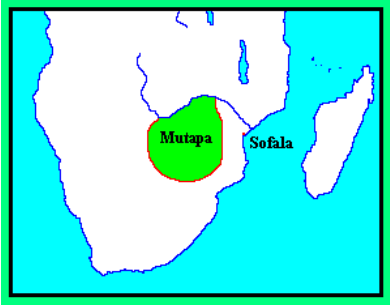
Old Ghana (P7/p50-51)

- Who? Soninke people; language: Mande
- boundaries of Old Ghana: River Senegal (west), River Niger (east), the Sahara (north), tropical forests (south)
- Al-Bakri wrote a report on Old Ghana during the reign of king Tinka Manig who came to power in 1063.
- Ghana was the title of the king and the name of the kingdom (or empire).
- capital city: Kumbi Saleh
- A council of ministers advised the king; the king himself appointed his agents in the provinces.
- The kingdom was governed well with a strong army that provided protection and security.
- Taxes on imports and exports made Old Ghana rich.
- Before the rise of their empire, the Soninke traded with the Romans and Phoenicians. They offered ivory and gold in exchange for clothes and jewellery.
- famous gold mine at Wagara
- Soninke of Ghana and the Berbers of the Sahara desert were partners in trade. The most important trade route was from Kumbi Saleh to Awadaghust in Morocco.
- Old Ghana conquered Awadaghust in the 10th century.
- The Sanhaja chief Yahyaidu Ibrahim (a Berber) and the Muslim teacher Abdullah Ibo Yasin initiated an Islamic movement like the Jihad of later years and united the Berbers who recaptured Awadaghust.
- Old Ghana was attacked by the Almoravid (Berbers) in 1076 for economic and religious reasons. This is the beginning of the decline of the kingdom. After conquering Old Ghana, the Almoravid took most of North-Africa which became Muslim until today.



Mwene Mutapa Empire (P7/p51-53) or “Monomotapa” (*see map on page 70*)

- Around 1000 AD, the Karanga tribe (Shona people) entered from the south the area today known as **Zimbabwe**. By 1400, they were well settled.
- About 1425, king Mutota founded the Mutapa Empire.



- boundaries: Kalahari Desert (west), Indian Ocean (east)
- Mwene Mutapa means “master of the conquered lands” (given by the Tavala people who were defeated by Mutapa)
- The king had absolute power and decided who should live or die.
- People had to show reverence and submission. A visitor had to crawl on his stomach in order to approach the king.
- The court of officials included the queen mother, chancellors and religious leaders. The king had 9 principal wives, besides other wives and concubines.
- Showing loyalty, the court officials copied the king. They laughed when he laughed, and coughed when he coughed. People paid tribute (made gifts) in form of cattle, crops and hard labour.
- Royal fires were kept burning in the whole empire as long as the king lived to show that the king was a thinking person. The king poisoned himself when he became old because Mutapa had to be young at all times. At the king’s death, the fires were put off.
- Mutapa was viewed as semi-divine (like a small god). Mwari was the name for God. A priest from the Ronwi clan contacted Mwari through the spirits of the ancestors. A clan spirit called Mhondoro was supposed to protect the clan from oppression of bad government.

East-African Kingdoms (P6/p42-46)

There were two systems of government. One was **centralized**, ruled by a king. The other was **decentralized** where small communities each lived with clan leaders or local chiefs. There second system did not have a king to unify the communities.

- Bunyoro-Kitara Kingdom (Uganda)



The kingdom was formed by the Bachwezi people who believed they were ruling from heaven. It was located between the large lakes of Uganda. In the 16th century, the Bachwezi lost their power to the **Babito** people. Their king **Omukama Kabalega** came to power in 1870 and tried to take back provinces which had been lost to neighbouring kingdoms (the Buganda and Ankole) or had broken away (the Toro kingdom in 1830). The Babito prospered until 1890 when they were conquered by British.

Map: borders of Ugandan kingdoms under British administration (Bunyoro centre-left)

Political organization:

The king's title was **Omukama** who controlled all the land. The symbols of the king's rule (royal regalia) were the crown, drums, spears, stools, animal skins and walking sticks. The kingship was inherited by a son of the king or a clan member of the Babito. The kingdom was divided into provinces headed by chiefs. They had to maintain law and order and collect taxes. The army was called Abarusura.

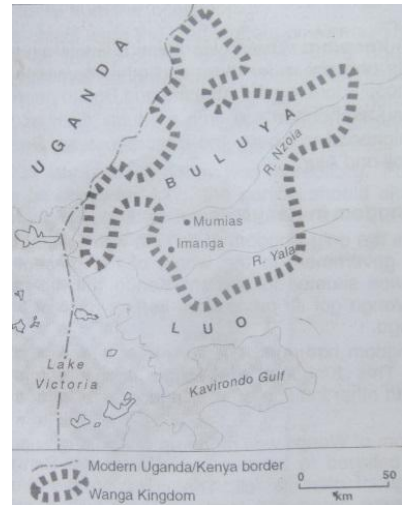
Socio-economic activities:

agriculture (beans, maize, bananas...), **livestock** (cattle, goats, sheep...) and **trade** with the Baganda, Iteso and Acholi (salt, iron products...)

- **Wanga Kingdom** (Kenya)

The kingdom was made up of the **Abaluhya people** and got its name from its first ruler who was called Wanga. It was situated in western Kenya, north of lake Victoria, and was the only kingdom of present day Kenya with a **centralized system of government**.

The Abaluhya are believed to have migrated from the Bunyoro-Kitara kingdom. The king's title was **Nabongo** who inherited his rule to one of his sons. The chiefs of Wanga were paramount leaders and also ruled over neighbouring tribes such as the Nandi, Kipsigis and Luo. A well-known chief was **Kavirondo** who worked together with Swahili and Arab traders and extended his territory. **Mumias**, the capital city, was named after him. The Wanga dynasty ended in the 1880s when the colonial government rejected its ruler.



Map: area of the Wanga kingdom (P7/p46)

Slavery and Slave Trade (P7/p54-55)

Muslim countries benefited for over 1000 years from the slave trade, Europeans and Americans engaged 400 years in the trade until the end of the 19th century.

In the Sudan, the organized slave trade started soon after the Turko-Egyptian conquest in 1821 (*see page 86*). Sudan was conquered by **Mohammed Ali Pasha** who had in mind to build the Osman Empire in the Middle East. He wanted army recruits from the brave and strong Sudanese population to achieve his aim. But he also abducted black people as slaves and sold them in Egypt. Many slaves died on the way and in captivity due to lack of medical care or food. **Dhem Zubeir** became a **slave trade centre** in Bhar-el-Ghazal. In 1898, the Anglo-Egyptian conquest stopped the slave trade officially. Then in 1956, it was resumed by the Arabs who used to raid Dinka areas in Bhar-el-Ghazal abducting women and children. The slaves were sold to Arabs in the north where they were assigned to work in

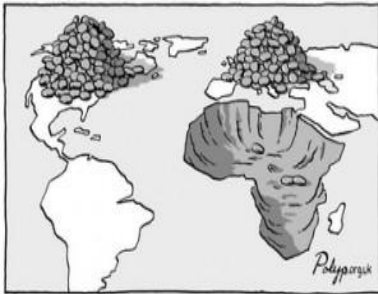
households or on farms. The Khartoum government never acknowledged this trade. But this inhuman act of depriving people of their right to live in liberty, and coercing them to forced labour, is still being practiced until today.

Negative Effects of Slave Trade:

- It reduced the population.
- It traumatized the people who were abducted and the families who were left behind. Societies were deeply harmed and cultures destroyed.
- It harmed the economy and prevented the ability to develop.
- It caused strong enmity and hatred against the Arabs who considered themselves as a race of rulers over the black population.

The Coming of the Europeans and Colonial Occupation (P7/p55-67)

Africa and Europe had many ties. Some were peaceful such as trade links and European explorations. But Europeans also invaded Africa for political and economic reasons. Trade is based on a mutual agreement. For centuries, things like gold and ivory were exported from Africa in exchange for other goods. But later, European powers looted the raw materials (natural resources) which they needed for the industries. Trade had become exploitation.



Europeans settled in Africa first along the coast (e.g. the Portuguese in Angola and Mozambique; the Dutch in South Africa) because the climate was easier to cope with. They entered the African inland from the north through the River Nile and from the southern tip of Africa northwards.

Scramble and Partition of Africa

In the 19th century, European nations competed over the African resources. Each country rushed to own parts of Africa and founded colonies as quickly as possible in order to get a larger territory. Because this competition caused political tensions in Europe, Africa was divided in **1884-85** at the **Berlin Conference** according to their interests. By 1914, the beginning of the First World War, the whole continent was colonized with the **exception of Ethiopia and Liberia**. The following countries were involved: Great Britain, France, Belgium, Portugal, Germany, Italy and Spain.

Examples of Colonialism

British Rule in Kenya

- The Imperial British East Africa Company (IBEA) was entrusted with the duty to establish a colonial administration, but failed to do so effectively.
- In 1895, Britain declared a territory from the coast to Gikuyu land as the East African Protectorate, later known as Kenya Colony.
- Many communities in Kenya resisted, but the British had superior weapons and crushed the rebellion by force.

- In 1876, the king invited geographers, traders and explorers to a conference in order to exploit the Congo Basin.
- Stanley headed an expedition between 1879 and 1884 where they set up trading posts and made agreements with local rulers who unknowingly handed over their territory to Belgium.
- As a result, a colony was established.

Portuguese Rule in Mozambique

- The Portuguese came to Africa earlier as other European nations, already in the 16th century, because they were a sea power that could sail around Africa.
- They came in a friendly manner as to establish mutual relationships with different tribes before conquering them.
- They were interested in the gold and ivory trade between the coast of the Indian Ocean and the hinterland. To achieve this, they established settlements along the coast of Mozambique.
- Arabs and Swahili traders were chased away.
- They banned traditional African rulers and implemented their orders by force.
- They established the **Praza system** whereby large pieces of land were granted to individual Portuguese settlers. Each settler had full powers over the Africans living on “his” land.
- A Portuguese group known as fortune hunters penetrated Mozambique to establish farms and to find gold.

German Rule in Tanganyika

- The Maji Maji (meaning water in Kiswahili) was the largest resistance in East Africa against colonial rule. The warriors believed that their magic would turn German bullets into water. But the magic was ineffective, and many rebels were killed.
- In 1902, a cotton program was initiated by the colonial governor in order to supply German textile companies. This was to cover the costs of the colonial administration. But the program failed because the land was not productive.
- Then, Arab administrators were instituted. Their harsh behaviour provoked resistance.
- The German rulers did not have respect for the Africans and their leaders. They killed local leaders easily like the Hehe chief Mkawa.
- In 1905, there were several violent clashes with heavy losses on the side of the local population. In one battle, 32 German soldiers fought against 400 Tanganyika soldiers and killed 200 of them. But not a single German was killed.
- In 1906, the Tanganyika made a last attempt to fight the Germans with clubs and spears, but had no chance against German rifles. At the end of 1907, the remnants of the resistance were finally crushed.
- When Germany lost the First World War, its colonies were taken by Britain and France. German East Africa (Tanganyika) went to Britain.

Italian Rule in Eritrea

- Menelik became king of Shoa in 1865 and emperor of Ethiopia in 1889.
- His empire was threatened by the Italians, British and French. To stay in power, Menelik signed a treaty with Italy to recognize him and to supply him with weapons. In return, he allowed the Italians to control an area north of Ethiopia (part of modern Eritrea).
- But in 1894, Italy invaded Tigray, a section of the empire. The military campaign culminated in the Battle of Adwa on March 1st, 1896. Up to 120,000 Ethiopians defended their territory, killing about 7000 Italians and taking 3000 prisoners of war. About 4000 Ethiopians were killed.
- This led to the Treaty of Addis Ababa in 1896. Italy kept Eritrea as a colony with strictly delineated borders and recognized Ethiopia's independence.

Reaction to the Colonial Occupation (P7/p65-66)

Resistance

In all parts of Africa, there was strong opposition against the colonial rule, the loss of autonomy, the ruthless behaviour and the exploitation of resources. Resistance movements were more or less successful in their efforts, but it took until the 1960s that African countries were able to gain independence.

Collaboration

Some African communities cooperated with the Europeans and became their allies. They expected benefits and security from this collaboration, for example when they were at war with other African communities. The Maasai, who were in conflict with the Gikuyu, are such an example. The Maasai leader Lenana was appointed paramount chief in 1901 for his support of the British colonial rule.

Effects of the Colonial Occupation (P7/p56 & p67)

Negative effects

- European colonization of Africa oppressed the people.
- European culture destroyed many indigenous cultures or marginalized them.
- Europeans were part of the slave trade before they helped to stop it.
- The black continent was looted and its resources were transported to Europe.

Positive effects

- Education enabled Africans to acquire knowledge and develop new skills.
- Modern government systems were established.
-

Christian Missionaries in Africa (P7/p57)

The activities of the churches in the modern era cannot be separated of the European colonial project. Many times, missionaries, with good intentions, wanted to bring "civilization" to Africans and disregarded the rich heritage of the local cultures. The missions in the 19th century were rather European in appearance. Today, the African churches are more and more contextualizing and inculturating the Gospel message and have developed their own ways of expressing the faith.



Of all the European groups involved in Africa, the missionaries were the first to fight for the equal dignity of every human being and the end of slavery. Mission schools were the first places where Africans learned to read and write. Several missionaries invented alphabets for indigenous languages.

With the focus on foreign missionaries in the 19th and 20th century, it needs to be remembered that Africa has a history of Christianity of 2000 years and, at times, has sent missionaries to Europe.

Picture: Daniel Comboni, missionary in Sudan and first Catholic bishop in Khartoum, worked with passion for the African liberation from oppression and slavery.

The Struggle for African Independence (P8/p57-65 & p77-79)

Some examples:

Kenya (Independence Day: December 12th, 1963)

In the fight for an independent Kenya, some members of the trade union Kenya African Union (KAU) formed the **Mau Mau** guerrilla movement in 1950. These freedom fighters defended the population against racial discrimination, evictions and forced labour. Some were former soldiers of the Second World War and had acquired military knowledge. An oath of loyalty helped to unite them. They were supported with food by the civilian population and were able to obtain sufficient guns and ammunition. Their resistance was successful against the British, and in 1963 Jomo Kenyatta (*see page 94*) was elected president.



Mozambique (Independence Day: June 30th, 1975)

In 1752, the Portuguese established a slave trade centre in Mozambique and ruled the colony for over 200 years (*see page 76*). Then in 1962, the liberation movement united under the umbrella of **Frelimo (Mozambique Liberation Front)** with Dr. Edward Mandilane as their leader. The Portuguese army was getting exhausted as they also fought in Angola and Guinea Bissau, the other Portuguese colonies. In 1974, the army in Portugal staged a military coup and opened negotiations which led to independence in 1975.



Eritrea (Independence Day: April 27th, 1993)

Eritrea was merged with Ethiopia into a federation by colonial powers in 1950. In 1962, Emperor Haile Selassie annexed Eritrea. Since 1961, Eritreans struggled for self-determination and formed links with other liberation movements. The main movement was the **Eritrea People Liberation Front (EPLF)** that established a network of hospitals, schools and factories in the liberated areas. It finally defeated the Ethiopian forces in 1991. As a result, the regime of Mengistu Haile Mariam collapsed. The Eritrean people were allowed to vote for independence under the observation of the international community in April 1993.



South Africa (end of Apartheid on May 10th, 1994)

The Boers were Dutch settlers (from the Netherlands) and first arrived in South Africa in **1652** under the leadership of **Jan van Riebeck**. They built permanent settlements along the coast, and later inland. Local tribes like the Khoikhoi (Hottentots), the San (Bushmen) or the Xhosa tried to resist but could not succeed against the superior weapons of the settlers. The British took control of the land in **1795**, although the Boers (or Afrikaners) tried to resist for over a century. Since **1835**, the Boers left their Cape settlement in 6 waves and moved to Orange Free State and Transvaal. It was a mass exodus known as the **Great Trek**. The discovery of gold and diamonds caused new conflicts between the Boers and the British, which the British won. In **1934**, South Africa became an **independent country under white rule**, leaving black African people without political power. In 1936, the political rights of blacks were restricted even more. The aim was to build a modern state under white minority rule. Black Africans were only used as cheap labour for the work in mines, industries and on farms.



Since 1948, the white government began to pass apartheid laws. **Apartheid means “living apart” or “separate development”**. People were not allowed to marry between races, went to different schools and hospitals, and lived in different neighbourhoods. They were not allowed to use the same bus or sit on the same bench. Black Africans in the country protested with mass demonstrations and riots for several decades. The **African National Congress (ANC)**, founded in 1912, became the main protest movement. They also used sabotage and guerrilla tactics to fight the white rule. One guerrilla leader was **Nelson Mandela** who was sentenced to life imprisonment in 1964 (*see page 94*). **Steve Biko** founded the **Black Consciousness Movement** in 1968 which emphasized the need for black people to be proud of their culture and to fight for their rights. Some major protest campaigns:

- the defiance campaign of 1952 to protest the separation of blacks and whites
- the **Freedom Charter** of the ANC in 1955 inspired by Albert Luthuli who stood for a non-violent protest, “South Africa belongs to all who live in it, blacks and whites. There should be a free South Africa based on political equality and power sharing between races.”
- the anti-pass campaign of 1960 where 69 unarmed protesters were shot dead and about 200 wounded (“**Sharpeville massacre**”, 21st of March)
- a mass demonstration of students in Soweto in 1976 led by Steve Biko
- a boycott of 15,000 students who refused to go to class in June 1976; the police killed 25 unarmed students, and riots broke out all over the country

Apartheid was not only challenged by the black population, but also by white South Africans and by the international community. **Economic and sports sanctions** were imposed to isolate the Apartheid regime. The countries of the Commonwealth excluded South Africa as a member of their organization. In 1978, **P.W. Botha** became prime minister and began to dismantle apartheid. He organized a referendum in 1983 which opened the way to constitutional reforms. Whites and blacks were allowed to marry again. The ANC, the Pan African Congress (PAC), the

Communist Party and over 30 other organizations previously banned were legalized in 1990, the same year that Nelson Mandela was released from prison after 26 years. In 1993, negotiations led to an agreement to hold free elections for all races. The ANC won these elections with 62% in May 1994, and Mandela was sworn in as president. The former white Prime Minister F.W. de Clerk became vice president.

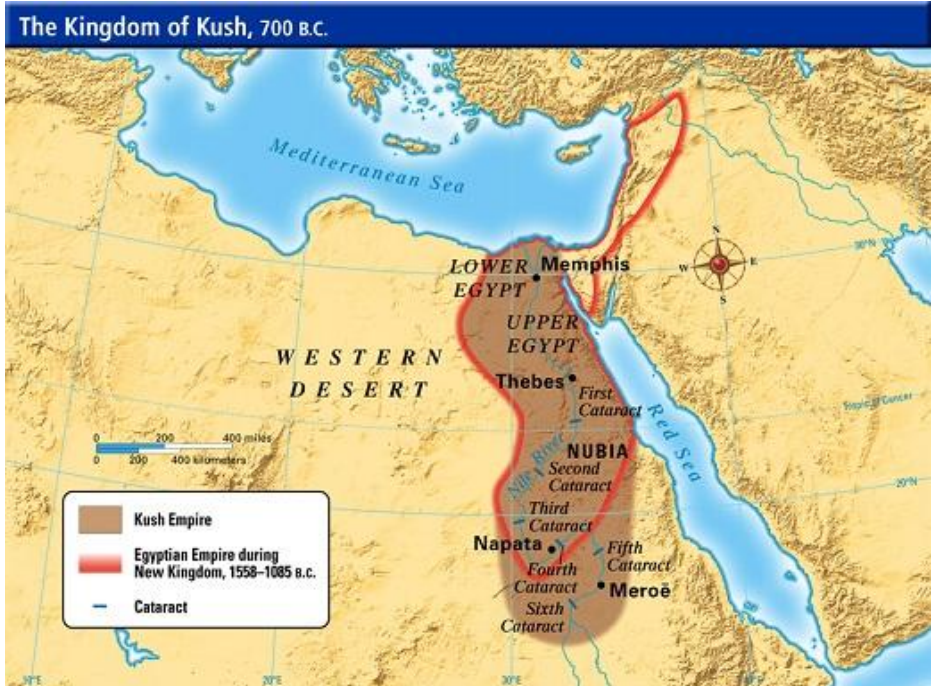
Ancient History of the Sudan (P6/p39-42; P5/p77-81; P4/51-58)

Kush 2000 to 350 BC (P5/p77-78)

The Nile Valley has always been the centre of many economic, cultural and political activities. The people who occupied the valley south of Egypt from around 6000 BC are known as Nubians (P6/p39).

Kush was situated along the Nile (north of present day Khartoum). It existed as early as 2000 BC and lasted until 350 AD when it was conquered by the kingdom of Axum. It was an **important centre for trade and exchange of ideas** among people from the Mediterranean to the north (e.g. Greeks and Romans) and African civilizations to the south. Kush exported cattle, gold, ivory and slaves to the Mediterranean. Knowledge about agriculture, arts, politics, religion and the use of metals was exchanged, and the people of Kush benefited from these new ideas. When the Kushites discovered **iron ore**, they were able to make stronger weapons and become more powerful.

Map: conquest of Egypt southwards and conquest of Kush northwards



About 1500 BC, the Egyptians conquered Kush who then adopted the Egyptian culture. Later, the Kushites conquered Egypt in 750 BC and **ruled as pharaohs** (during the 25th Egyptian dynasty) until about 670 BC when they were driven out by the **Assyrians**.

Meroe 350 BC to 350 AD (P5/p78-79)

About 350 BC, the Assyrians destroyed the capital **Napata**, and the Kushites moved it to **Meroe** (*see map on last page*). That town was the meeting point for commercial routes between east and west. As internal trade of the region became more important than the external trade with the Mediterranean, Meroe replaced Napata as the centre of the kingdom. But Egypt remained a trading partner.

When the Greeks came into the region, they called it “**Ethiopia**” which means “land of the burnt faces” (because of the black people). Meroe is mentioned in the Bible when an official of **Queen Candace** (or **Kandake**, meaning “king’s mother”) of Meroe visits Jerusalem and converts to become a Christian (Acts 8:26-39). Although the man is described as an Ethiopian, meaning just a black man, he came from the north of Sudan, not from present day Ethiopia.

The Meroitic area lasted 700 years. The people of Meroe settled at fertile places along the Nile and were **good farmers**. They irrigated their crops (sorghum, millet and barley) with Nile water through canals, and built ships with which they traded along the Red Sea, the Middle East, India and China. They also knew to make beautiful pottery.

The **iron ore** which was discovered in the region and smelted in large quantities made them rich, and iron tools made farming easier. But it caused also an environmental catastrophe. Deforestation for charcoal and iron smelting led to soil erosion and the land lost its fertility.

The Meroe continued worshipping Egyptian gods and built pyramids to bury their leaders (*see pictures below*). But they replaced the Egyptian hieroglyphics with another script. Because today we don’t know the meaning of its words, little is known about the history of Meroe.

The kingdom was attacked and invaded by tribes from the Nuba Mountains and the Beja tribe from the east over a long period of time. Finally, Meroe was destroyed by the Christian **kingdom of Axum** (Abyssinia) in about 350 AD.

Below: photo of pyramids of Meroe and a drawing how they might have looked in the past

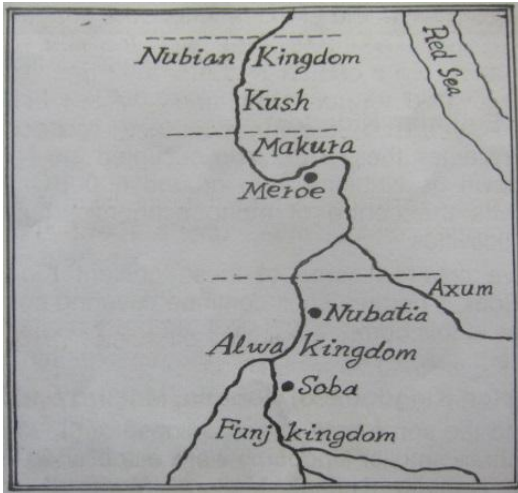


The Nubian Kingdoms 450 to 1504 AD (P6/p39-41)

When the kingdom of the Meroe collapsed, three smaller kingdoms emerged in the area of Sudan: Nobatia (Nubia), Makura (Muqurra) and Alwa (Alodia). All three kingdoms became powerful and wealthy. Along the Nile the people lived in permanent houses. They were farmers, fishermen and hunters (*see below: economic activities*). Some Nubian people were nomads, raising cattle and camels. The Nubian kingdoms reached their peak around 900 AD.

Nobatia was the northern kingdom on the border of Egypt with its capital Faras. **Makura** was the middle kingdom, located at the second cataract at the big bend in the Nile, with its capital **Old Dongola**. It was an important town on the caravan routes leading south. **Alwa** was the southern kingdom with its capital Soba, near Karthoum. The territory included parts of the Blue and White Nile. The inhabitants of Soba lived in houses made of burnt brick and imported glass from Europe. Some houses in Old Dongola had pipes carrying hot water to bathrooms.

Map: ancient kingdoms near the Red Sea: Nobatia, Makura, Alwa and Funj (P6/p40)



Economic Activities:

- agriculture: palm trees, sorghum, bananas and wheat; fields and gardens were irrigated with Nile water
- fishing
- hunting: elephants, buffaloes and antelopes
- trade with Egypt: **export** of ivory, ebony wood, giraffes, leopard skins, ostrich feathers and ostrich eggs; **import** of clothes, glass and guns
- livestock: cattle, camels, sheep and goats

The Nubians became Christians through the church in Egypt. The official of Queen Kandake who visited Jerusalem in the 1st century left no trace. But there were already monasteries in the Meroitic kingdom in the 3rd century. The Nubian kings accepted Christianity officially when the **Byzantine Empress Theodora** sent a missionary in 540 AD. The **Coptic patriarch of Alexandria** became the head of the Nubian church. Through this collaboration, the contact with the Mediterranean region was reopened again. The church encouraged literacy. A writing system, using the Greek alphabet, was developed for the Nubian language. But the priests and language of the liturgy remained foreign imports.

Christianity was only the religion of the urban population and the ruling class, i.e. the educated people. Ordinary people in the countryside kept their traditional beliefs. When Egypt was conquered by Arab Muslims, the Nubian Christians of the Sudan failed to develop into a self-sustaining church.

Arab Settlement in the Sudan (P6/p47-48)

The Arabs came from the Arabian Peninsula to Africa in order **to trade and to search for fresh pasture** for their cattle. They were in contact with the Nubians long before the Islamic era. As Muslims, **Arabs conquered Egypt and invaded Nubia** twice in 642 and 652 AD. Because the Nubians could defend themselves, the two sides agreed on a peace agreement and **treaty (faqt)** which is unique in the history of Islam. The treaty governed relations between the two peoples for more than 600 years. It ensured free trade and travel across the border and contained security arrangements because both sides feared to be attacked by the other party. They exchanged an annual tribute of slaves (Nubians) and grain (Arabs) as a symbol of good will.

The **arabization of the Nile Valley** took place gradually over a period of 1,000 years. For a long time, Muslims traded with Christian Nubians and married their daughters. The Nubian culture was **matrilineal** according to which property was passed through the Nubian mother to her sons by an Arab father, transferring it permanently into the hands of the Arab community. Muslims also opened Islamic schools and were employed by Nubian rulers. Slowly, Arab sons born of Nubian women of the ruling class became kings. In 1315, a Muslim became king in Dongola. As Islam spread among Nubians through **intermarriage and assimilation**, Christianity went into decline. By 1500, most of the people had become Muslims.

The **Ottoman Empire** was not able to conquer the Nubian area. Instead, it controlled only parts of the Red Sea and traded with the Nubians for three centuries. But with the trade, Arabs moved into Nubia and became more influential. They settled near Kordofan, Darfur, Dongola, the River Atbara and other regions.

The **social and political impact** of the Arab settlement:

- intermarriages
- expansion of the Arabic language
- expansion of Islam, the Quran, the Sharia law and Islamic schools
- introduction of Arabic culture, such as circumcision and wearing certain clothes
- introduction of Islamic architecture
- expansion of slave trade

The Darfur Kingdom (P6/p41-42)

The vast area between the Nile and modern Chad is occupied by the **Fur clans** who are mostly nomads (*see "Fur" area on the map*). The ancient kingdom was ruled by 3 groups: the Daju, the Tunjur and the Keira. The Muslims overthrew the Darfur kingdom and **Suleiman Solong** became the first sultan (1596-1637). The capital was **Alfashir**. Taxes were collected from the slave trade with Egypt. The people were mainly cattle keepers.



The Funj Kingdom 1504 to 1821 AD (P5/p79-81)

The origin of the Funj people is uncertain, but they may have descended from the Shilluk (*see green area on the map, last page*). The rise of the Funj began in the early 1500s. In **1504**, **Sennar** in the southern kingdom of Alwa became the capital of the new Funj kingdom, ruled by Amara Dunqas, the first Sultan. This marked the end of the Nubian Kingdoms. The Funj kingdom had its height of greatness at the end of the 16th century where it included most of present day Sudan.

The Funj were ruled by a **sultan** who was helped by a **council** of 20 elderly men to decide on important matters. Among the **king's officials** was the **Vezir** (chief minister) who signed all documents and led the king's army to war. Other people working for the sultan were an interpreter, a body guard, secretaries, treasurers and keepers of the royal seal.

The provinces were divided according to tribes and were ruled by **sheikhs**. Once a year, they had to pledge their allegiance (loyalty) to the sultan. The children of the sheikhs were educated at the sultan's court. We know more details about the Funj because Germany sent missionaries to Sennar in the 18th century who described the life of the people and the political system.

Sennar attracted many people. **Slavery** was the cornerstone of Funj's wealth and power. Merchants came from different countries. Sudanese merchants gained influence. The government of the sultan began weakening because these merchants together with the **local sheikhs** controlled the trade. The sheikhs claimed their independence, and the central government could not manage the vast territory of the kingdom because of a poor communication system over long distances.

With the arrival of Islam, most **tribal customs were abandoned**. Arabic became the common language in Sennar. Finally, the Funj considered themselves as Arabs, and their own customs and language disappeared. The Funj kingdom was conquered in **1821** by the Egyptian Mohammed Ali Pasha in the Ottoman period.

The Collo Kingdom (P4/p51-53)

The Collo people are the **Shilluk**. This kingdom is the oldest in South Sudan (*see yellow area on the map, last page*). It started about 1000 AD and was divided into two regions: **Lwak** (south) and **Gar** (north). Lwak occupied the area of Malakal. The capital **Fashoda** is present day Kodok. **Golbanyo** was the capital of Gar. Gar reached up to Gezira in Blue Nile province. The Collo/Shilluk were and still are cattle keepers, fishermen and craftsmen.

The king was called **Reth**. He was not only a ruler of worldly affairs but also a **spiritual leader**. When he spoke, everybody in his presence turned their faces down to avoid looking into his face. **Reth Nyikang** was the first king. Each king was succeeded by a son, brother or cousin. The king founded his own village with his many wives and children, and returned to Fashoda when he had to make important decisions.

The Collo were **skilled canoeists and brave warriors**. They defended their territory against other African tribes. In 1684, the Collo raided and destroyed Islamic Schools as far north as Khartoum and still controlled Aba Island near Kosti in the

early 19th century. But in the end, they were not strong enough against the Arabs and Europeans. As a result, the Collo kingdom became weak. But it still exists.

The Collo (Shilluk) and the **Anyuak** are the only people in South Sudan today who still have kings. It is believed that the two groups could have a common origin. The Anyuak settle along the **River Akobo** since the 18th century. Their territory lies in South Sudan and in Ethiopia.

The Azande Kingdom (P4/p54-58)

The Azande (or Zande) migrated in the 16th century from the present Democratic Republic of Congo and the Central African Republic to South Sudan. Their Kingdom once included portions of South Sudan, north-eastern DRC and southern CAR (*see map on page 28*). European colonizers broke up the region into different countries, but the Azande remained in their rainforest homeland where they farmed fruit, coffee and hardwood trees. When the population increased, some moved to find new farming land.

The Azande were formed by military conquest, beginning probably in the first half of the 16th century. They were led by two different dynasties that were similar in organization, yet differed in origin and political strategy. The Azande were organized into small kingdoms, only united by their language called Pazande. In 1750, the small kingdoms were united in one kingdom by **King Basenginonga** from the Avongara clan. He became famous for his wisdom, kindness and fair judgments at his own court. Because of that, many Azande moved away from their chiefs and joined Basenginonga's kingdom.

The last ruler of the Azande was **King Gbudue**, who died in 1905. As a symbol of his rule, he carried a curved knife and two spears and wore a decorated straw hat (*see picture*). Two dogs stood by his side. The king's court stretched about eight kilometres and was surrounded by trees which provided shade. The council of elders discussed matters of taxation, war and peace. The king's army consisted of young men from 20 to 35 years. During peace times, they worked in the king's gardens. The Azande showed respect to the king by offering termite oil and meat.



King Gbudue conquered tribes in the Maridi area such as the Abaka, Amundu, Bongo and Amitu. The Zande language was used in all the conquered areas. But the **Moru** defended themselves on the top of hills by shooting arrows and rolling big stones down so that it was not possible for the Azande to defeat them.

Arab **slave traders** reached Zandeland between 1850 and 1900. They first asked to buy ivory and food, but later they enslaved the Azande. Their guns were better weapons than spears and arrows. Then the Arabs demanded ivory in exchange for the freedom of the slaves.

In **1905**, British soldiers arrived and killed many Azande in a battle. King Gbudue was injured and sent to prison in Wau where he died. With his death, the Azande kingdom ended. But the Anglo-Egyptian government instituted his sons as provincial governors.

Modern History of Sudan and South Sudan (P8/p66-70; P5/p82-84)

Turko-Egyptian Rule from 1821-1885 (P8/p66-68)

In 1517, the **Ottoman Turks** conquered Egypt and the country became part of the Muslim Ottoman Empire. The Turks attacked Sudan to gain control of trade routes and the Nile River. In the early 19th century **Muhammad Ali Pasha** made himself the ruler of Egypt. He **conquered Sudan** for 2 reasons: He needed **money (gold)** and strong **men to form a powerful army** to defend his country. Furthermore, he intended to increase trade between Egypt and Sudan. By the late 1820s northern Sudan was controlled and administered by the **Turks** through Egypt. The slave trade continued as the most important economic activity.

During the Ottoman period, the **British** built the **Suez Canal** which was opened in 1869. In order to protect the trade route from Europe to India through the canal,

they had an interest to control Egyptian affairs.

The British were powerful enough to appoint their own governors. One of the goals was to

stop the slave trade which had become very unpopular in Europe and America. In 1877,

Charles Gordon (*see photo*) became Sudan's Governor-General. He succeeded in stopping the

slave trading of the most powerful slave trader in Bahr el Ghazal, **Al-Zubeir Rahaman**. But other

governors after him were less able to control the region. This atmosphere of unrest allowed the

Mahdi to come into power with his promise of expelling the Turks, Egyptians, and British.



Mahdist Rule from 1885-1899 (P5/p82-83; P8/p68-69)

The Mahdi (*see drawing*) was a Sudanese Muslim leader who led a successful revolt against the Turko-Egyptian occupiers. His birth name was Muhammad Ahmed. He

was born in 1844 in Dongola and received an Islamic education. He believed that God had sent him to liberate

the country from the corrupt rulers and proclaimed himself in 1881 as the **Mahdi** which means “**sent by**

God” (similar to the Jewish Messiah), not only for Sudan but for the whole world. Others considered him to be a

holy man and a worker of miracles. The Mahdi set up a model society which followed strictly his interpretation of

Islam. His followers were loyal to him and believed his preaching about the need for a holy war (“**jihad**”) against

any foreign rule (the Turks, Egyptians, and British).



The Mahdists were successful militarily. The rebellion won victories in 1881 and 1883, and finally conquered Khartoum on 20th January **1885**. The British general Charles Gordon Pasha was killed in the city. Originally, Gordon had been sent to dialogue with the Mahdi and to evacuate his army in an orderly manner. Instead of

proceeding with the evacuation, Gordon asked Mahdi to join the Turko-Egyptian administration. In response, Mahdi asked Gordon to convert to Islam and offered him a position in his system. With the refusal of Gordon to be converted to Islam, Mahdi laid siege on Khartoum. The following victory gave the Mahdists courage to venture into Egypt and also into South Sudan. Soon after the capture of Khartoum, the Mahdi died.

Anglo-Egyptian Rule from 1899-1956 (P5/p83-84; P8/p69-70)

With the help of the Egyptians, the British invaded Sudan in 1898. In the battles of Kareri and Umdebekirat in Omdurman, which were fought in September and lasted for several days, the joint forces defeated the Madhist movement and set up a government known as the **Anglo-Egyptian Condominium**.

Sudan was colonized by the British and Egyptians for 3 reasons:

- to have control over the Nile Basin
- to avenge the murder of General Charles Gordon Pasha
- to put an end to slave trade in the region

They started **development programmes** such as agricultural schemes, education, health services, road construction and communication. But they were only concentrated in the north of Sudan. The **regions of Southern Sudan and the Nuba mountains were neglected**. People from the northern and southern part were not allowed to mix.

After the First World War, the colonial administration made Sudan a **one-crop country: cotton**. In 1925, the Sennar Dam was completed to irrigate the Gezira region, and in 1929 cotton accounted for 70% of all exports. The British also built factories and railroads. Slowly, an industrial and agricultural working class emerged.

System of Indirect Rule and the struggle for independence

The system of **Indirect Rule** was introduced in 1922 whereby two-thirds of the territory of the Sudan was declared **Closed Districts** (similar to the reserves in South Africa). In these districts, the British gave administrative power to the local upper class: tribal chiefs, feudal elements, and the rulers of various state formations. They restored tribal confederations, sultanates (Dafur, Sennar...) and former kingdoms. In this way, they could disguise their rule by a semblance of self-government. But the native chiefs and rulers were just paid officials of the colonial administration. The local authorities collaborated because they were given privileges. But free movement in and out of the Closed Districts was prohibited for ordinary people. Under the system of Indirect Rule, the British could successfully control all aspects of Sudanese peoples' lives. Moreover, this system was an effective instrument in the struggle against the **liberation movement**.

But in 1924, army officers, national intellectuals and middle class elements organized an underground society, the **White Flag League**. It was headed by a black Sudanese officer **Ali Abd al-Latif** (*see photo page 93*). The League advocated the unification of the countries in the Nile Valley, and unity of action by the Sudanese and the Egyptians in the struggle against British imperialism. The British were able to suppress the 1924 revolution, but people organized themselves in other ways. In

the struggle for independence, Arab-Islamic societies showed sectarian and racial tendencies against black Sudanese, including Ali Abd al-Latif. The non-racist Sudanese political movement founded the **Black Bloc** in 1938 by **Dr. Mohamed Adam**. The Black Bloc established social organizations to help the impoverished communities in the capital cities and educated the neglected non-Arab groups of the country. The other (Arab) political parties excluded the Black Bloc in the negotiations that led eventually to Sudan's independence in 1956.

As the people's national awareness developed, the national liberation movement gained momentum. It advanced during the Second World War and became strongest in the post-war years when the colonial system began to break up and European imperialism could not be upheld anymore. To ease dissatisfaction in the country, Britain launched partial reforms. As early as 1937, the colonial authorities organized **Advisory Councils** in provinces in the north of Sudan in which, alongside British officials, representatives of the tribal leaders and feudal elements took part. But the councils possessed purely consultative functions.

In the same year (1937), the **Graduates' General Congress** was founded by intellectuals, students and middle-class Sudanese. It split in 1945 in two political parties: the **Al-Ashiqqa Party** and **Al-Umma Party**. Al-Ashiqqa united democratic sections of the middle class and intellectuals. Al-Umma represented the interests of the feudal elements, tribal chiefs, top government officials and the middle class connected with British imperialism. Among the other political parties was also the **Communist Party** which succeeded in leading the struggle of the working class, exerting in particular a great influence on the **trade union movement**. Trade unions became an important force which put pressure on the British authorities.

Education in Southern Sudan

Before 1920, the Condominium government left **education in the south to the Christian missionaries**. The Catholic missionaries emphasized industrial and technical training. The Protestant churches emphasized literacy. At the **Rejaf Language Conference** in 1928, it was decided that six languages should be used as languages of instruction in Southern Sudan (below 10°N latitude) and that textbooks should be prepared in those six languages. English was to be encouraged, and Arabic was to be discouraged.

In Western Bahr-el-Ghazal and in Equatoria, mission schools and education were seen as important means of progress. The sons of chiefs in Equatoria were better educated than in any other part of Southern Sudan. Those educated in Equatoria got jobs in the civil service, the police and the army. They served in their home areas, or in other parts of Sudan, e.g. Upper Nile.

Pastoralists (cattle keepers) were afraid to send their boys to school because it was feared that Mission education would detribalise the students so that they would not become good tribal leaders. Before 1946, the Condominium Government did not encourage education among the pastoralists. In 1946, the British educational policy changed when they decided to give independence to Sudan in ten years. From then on, southern chiefs had to provide boys for education, especially in the less developed pastoralist areas.

Sudanese independence

Since the 1940s, the Sudanese self-government grew. In 1953, Britain and Egypt agreed on a three-year period which would lead to Sudanese independence. Sudan was one of the first countries in Africa to become independent from colonial rule. In **1956**, power was handed over on the 1st of January to the Arab Sudanese from the north who had received education. But the situation in the marginalized areas in the south turned worse after the northerners took over the government.

The South Sudanese Liberation Struggle (P8/70-75; P5/84-86)

Period before Sudanese Independence from 1947-1955 (P8/p70-71)

The racial, cultural and social differences between the north and south caused political problems. After the British knew they would allow Sudan to become independent, two conferences were held in **1947**, first in Khartoum and then in Juba. The **Khartoum Conference** tried to find out how to make Sudanese work closely with the government, but it was not open to people from the south. The **Juba Conference** was organized to find out the opinion of the South Sudanese. It discussed how the new Legislative Assembly would not hinder social and political progress in the south and tried to dispel suspicions that Arab Sudanese would dominate the Southerners in a unified country. It was promised to safeguard southern political and cultural rights. 17 people represented the south: some governors, administrators, chiefs and a police sergeant.

The Juba Conference is significant for the following reasons:

- **Regionalism** was born at the Juba Conference. Southerners were involved to discuss matters that directly concerned them. From then on, they could no longer be excluded.
- The Southerners agreed to participate in the Legislative Assembly.
- The system of Closed Districts was abolished. Southerners could go to the north, and Northerners could go to the south. That opened the possibility for Southerners to access better education. But it also enabled Muslims to proselytize (spread Islam in the south).
- **Arabic** became the unifying language and was taught in all schools.
- Civil servants of the south got **equal pay** with the Northerners.
- **Provincial Councils** were created in the three southern regions Equatoria, Bahr el-Ghazal and Upper Nile in 1948.
- The conference showed the **lack of understanding** between Northerners and Southerners because the two parts of the country had been administered separately for over 20 years.
- The conference showed how **unprepared** the Southerners were for **self-government**. Later on, the most educated and experienced Southerners joined the Legislative Assembly in Khartoum; in the south remained the people with little or no experience.

The Juba Conference did not discuss the possibility of separating the south from Khartoum. Therefore, the Arabs concluded that the British were on their side.

Anya Nya 1 from 1955-1972 (P5/p84; P8/p71-72)

Disregarding the 1947 conference in Juba, the Northerners took all important positions for themselves, leaving few to people from the south. They were unwilling to share power equally. As a result in August **1955**, one year before independence, a **mutiny** arose at the army garrison in **Torit** and other places to resist their transfer to garrisons under northern officers. This marks the beginning of the armed struggle against Khartoum. Many South Sudanese fled into exile.

In 1958, **General Ibrahim Abboud** came to power through a military coup. He abolished all political parties. In 1964, a general strike in Khartoum forced the army to return power to a civilian government. But also the new government was unable to solve the South Sudanese issue. In the 1960s, the armed rebel movement **Anyanya** was formed which soon controlled much of rural Southern Sudan. But they were internally divided along ethnic lines. It was **Joseph Lagu** and the **Southern Sudan Liberation Movement (SSLM)** to unite the guerrilla groups in one command structure. This enabled them to speak with one voice and to negotiate on behalf of the Southerners.

Addis Ababa Agreement in 1972 (P5/p85; P8/p72-75)

In 1969, another military coup brought **Colonel Jaafa Nimeiri** to power. He negotiated with the Anyanya movement a peace agreement which was signed on the 3rd of March 1972 in Addis Ababa and granted **local autonomy** to the south. There were **three provinces** of Bahr-el-Ghazal, Equatoria and Upper Nile and a **regional assembly** with a **high executive council**. The Anyanya forces were included in the national army. Their leader Joseph Lagu was promoted to the rank of Major General in the Sudanese Army. The 1972 agreement was mediated by the international bodies World Council of Churches (WCC) and the All Africa Conference of Churches (AACC) which spent years building up trust with the two sides. Altogether about 500,000 people, of which 80% were civilians, were killed in the 17 years of war.

The Addis Ababa agreement ended the armed conflict for 11 years but was made between elites from the north, who dictated the terms, and elites from the south who compromised the interests of the people. The southern elites were desperate for jobs and positions, and used the agreement to enrich themselves. Meanwhile, the Khartoum government was relieved that the armed resistance of the Anyanya movement had stopped.



After a short time, it became apparent that the Northerners tried to return the country to the status before. Among other measures, they did the following:

- Unconstitutional dissolution of Southern Sudan's regional assembly and appointments of leadership in the south
- Attempt to re-define the border so that areas of natural resources belong to the north
- Construction of the Jongeli Canal and the plan to settle over two million Egyptians along the canal (*see photo: the machine that dug the canal. It was destroyed at the start of Anya Nya 2.*)

Colonel Nimeiri re-divided the south and withdrew local autonomy in the early 1980s. Then, he introduced the **Sharia** (Islamic law) to all citizens, including non-Muslims. There were several revolts, uprisings and coup attempts in different parts of Sudan, not only in the south.

Anya Nya 2 from 1983-2005 (P5/p85-86; P8/p74-77)

Because the Khartoum government ignored the Addis Ababa agreement, a second major uprising began in 1983 which marks the beginning of the second civil war. The **Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA)** under **Colonel John Garang** was formed in the same year. It was fighting for secular laws which are not based on religion as the Sharia does, but allow people from all backgrounds and ethnic origin to enjoy the same rights. Elections in 1986 brought the Islamist Umma party under **Sadiq el Mahdi** to power. He reinforced the Sharia law. This fuelled the second civil war because it gave a motivation to the South Sudanese to fight for their independence.

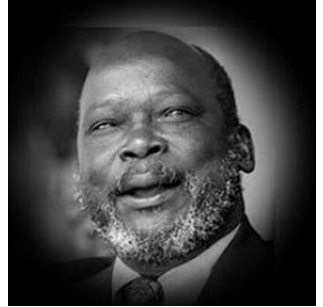


Photo: John Garang

Another reason for the discontent in the south was the fact that only 6,000 of 38,000 guerrilla fighters were integrated in the national army and received a salary. This resulted in several mutinies. When prominent ex-guerrilla fighters planned to capture Juba and reorganize the armed struggle for total liberation of the Sudan against the government, Khartoum attacked Bor and Pibor garrisons in May 1983. In August 1983, John Garang started his armed resistance. At the beginning, the movement had **socialist ideals** and was supported by the communist government of Ethiopia. Originally, it aimed at a transformation of the whole country of Sudan, not for separation.

The SPLA applied four main methods in its liberation struggle:

- Armed struggle
- Popular uprising and conjunction with other opposition forces in the country
- Negotiations with the government mediated by regional and international partners
- Diplomacy and coordination with international forces struggling for justice and peace

Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) signed on 9th of January 2005

First Free Elections from 11th to 15th of April 2010

Independence on 9th July 2011

The birth of South Sudan as the 54th state in Africa is a historic event. Its consequences will result in long-term change in the geopolitical realities of the region.

The independence of South Sudan comes twenty years after the continent experienced the first case of a country's partition when Ethiopia split into two

countries. Such partitioning of states is a departure from the consensus of the founding fathers of the Organisation of African Unity (AOU) on the need to preserve colonial borders for fear of instability and to avoid civil wars. Eritrea's 1991 secession from Ethiopia, and its formal independence two years later, came after three decades of struggle for its independence. While the Eritrean case did not raise a great deal of concern for African leaders because of their awareness of the political background, the independence of South Sudan, despite widespread African sympathy, has raised numerous concerns. These stem from a **fear of the consequences of secession** that is related to racial and religious differences, and the inability of the state to absorb these into a national project to preserve the unity of the political entity. The Sudanese precedent threatens to activate ticking bombs throughout a continent which has no shortage of **racial and religious conflicts**.

South Sudan's Strengths

At a practical level, South Sudan has the human and natural resources and the political and economic foundations with which to build a new state. However, whether it will be able to take advantage of these factors and deal with the challenges of building a new state will depend on the visions, capabilities and methods of the southern elite that is in power. Will the ruling elite follow the model of leaders who had the strategic vision, proper planning and effective execution necessary to build their homelands, and who had placed the concerns and aspirations of their citizens above their personal agendas; or will it drown like other ruling elites that limited the national agenda to what best served their personal interests, plunging into the trap of corruption to monopolize power at any cost?

South Sudan has many sources of political and economic power. The most important of these is probably the **moral force** of a people aspiring to build its newly-independent state after years of fighting for liberation. Such a force of a people who have attained a long-awaited homeland in which they can feel like first class citizens that fear no discrimination is an important factor that can provide the human energy to build the desired state and fulfil the aspirations of its citizens.

Economy: Capabilities and Challenges

South Sudan's oil resources account for three-quarters of Sudanese oil fields and produce half a million barrels per day. It also has substantial natural resources in plant and animal production. Its mining sector (*see page 52*) could attract investors.

Analysts agree that the biggest challenge is to **maintain internal cohesion** because societal relations are mainly based on tribal affiliation. Opposition to the north played a unifying role for the south's social forces, to the extent that the idea of a homogeneous south became accepted in the public consciousness. The absence of the northern factor creates a reality for Southerners where they have to confront a multi-tribal domestic context, as well as other divisive factors based on the ways in which ethnic groups perceive each other. This is in addition to the potential for conflict over the acquisition of power, influence and resources for survival.

The second challenge facing the south relates to the **weakness of the civil infrastructure**, and the lack of state institutions with the necessary governance traditions and regulations in place to ensure the soundness of the state-building

process. The prolonged civil war and the lack of stability in southern civilian life prevented an accumulation of such experience. Additionally, those southern elites that have had the opportunity to gain experience have an inadequate understanding of the responsibilities associated with public affairs, and inadequate commitment to meet the requirements of such affairs.

Inevitable Relationship with the North

The nature of the relationship with the north remains the greatest challenge facing South Sudan. This relationship is characterized by confusion and the lack of a shared vision for its future. The two countries share a 3,500 kilometre border. Residents that live along the two sides of the border, with the sources of life and livelihood for humans and livestock spilling over the border. Abyei is a living example of this interdependence. The exploitation of oil to provide the financial resources on which both Sudans rely needs the cooperation of both states (because of the distribution of oil industry facilities between the north and south). These reasons set the **special relationship between Sudan and South Sudan** apart from all their relations with neighbouring countries. Despite the mutual understanding that the two states will have to cooperate to achieve their common interests, various factors fan the flames of war between the two states. These factors include the background of ethnic and religious difference against which the partition took place, the persistence of complex issues of contention that have yet to be resolved between the two countries, and conflict fuelled by regional powers competing to achieve their interests.

Important African Personalities (P8/p79-88)

Ali Abdal Latif (Sudan/South Sudan) *read also page 87*

He was a Muslim Dinka and the first Sudanese officer serving in the army during the Anglo-Egyptian rule. In 1921, he founded the United Tribes Society which called for an independent Sudan. He also was the first Sudanese to lead a modern nationalistic movement known as the **White Flag Movement** (in 1924). But before the movement could organize an armed resistance, he was killed by the British. Other leaders of the movement were sentenced to death, but the government could not suppress the spirit of nationalism. Latif is remembered as a non-Arab national hero.

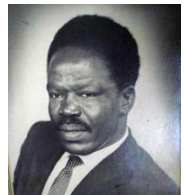


Both (or Buth) Diu (Sudan/South Sudan)

He attended the Juba Conference and founded the Liberal Party. In 1953, he became a member of parliament and was appointed to the Sudan Supreme Council after independence in 1956. He held ministerial posts until General Nimeiri took power in 1969.

Aggrey Jaden (Sudan/South Sudan)

On Independence Day in 1956, he was asked to lower the British flag and raise the Sudanese flag. He refused to do so, saying that it was not true freedom, and was arrested for disobeying the government. Later he became chairman of the Sudan African National Union in Ugandan exile and campaigned for the freedom of the South Sudanese provinces.



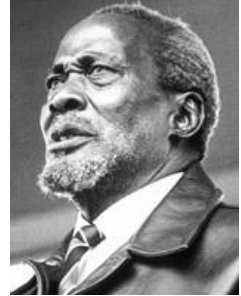


William Deng Nhial (Sudan/South Sudan)

He fled to Kenya in 1961 for political reasons and later founded the Sudan National Union (SANU) and was elected the MP in his constituency Thiet. In 1965, he led a delegation to a round table conference in Khartoum with participants from neighbouring countries such as Kenya, Uganda and Egypt. There, he proposed a federal system in Sudan. Because he was perceived as a political threat for change, Arab soldiers ambushed and killed him at a bridge near Rumbek in 1968. The bridge was renamed William Bridge in his honour.

Jomo Kenyatta (Kenya)

He joined the nationalist movement in 1920. In 1931, he went to the UK to present a memorandum to the Carter Land Commission. He studied anthropology in London and returned to Kenya in 1946 where he became the president of the Kenya African Union (KAU). When the Mau Mau movement started its guerrilla war, he was suspected of masterminding the revolution and was arrested. On his release in 1961, he became chairman of KANU and then first Prime Minister of Kenya in 1963, six months before independence. Later as president, he initiated the *harambee* slogan as a guiding principle for socio-economic development which successfully provided schools and health facilities for the people. He was a popular leader until his death in 1978.

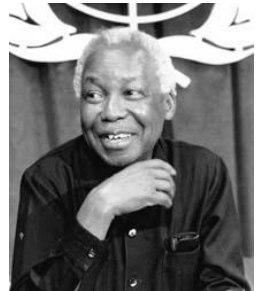


Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela (South Africa)

He joined the African National Congress (ANC) in 1944 and engaged in the resistance against apartheid policies since 1948. After the ANC was banned in 1960, he proposed to set up a military wing that would support the political struggle. But the government arrested him in 1963 and sentenced him to life-imprisonment. He was released in 1990 after 26 years and became president in 1994. He is considered one of the greatest and most honoured African leaders in the 20th century.

Julius Nyerere (Tanzania)

He helped to form the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) which worked for social equality and peaceful relations between races. When Tanganyika became independent in 1961, he became its first Prime Minister. In 1964, Tanganyika and Zanzibar formed the Republic of Tanzania and Nyerere became its president. He was popular and was re-elected three times until his resignation in 1985. His socialist policies kept Tanzania poor but politically stable. Access to education resulted in one of the highest literacy rates in Africa. Nyerere was co-founder of the Organization of African Unity in 1963 and became an influential leader in Africa.





Kwame Nkrumah (Ghana)

He formed the Convention People's Party which won the elections in 1951. As Prime Minister, he renamed the country "Ghana" and led the country to independence in 1957. Because he became a dictator, declaring himself to be president for life and establishing a one-party rule in the country, he was overthrown in a military coup in 1966 with the help of

Western countries. He died in exile in Romania in 1972.

Emperor Haile Selassie (Ethiopia)

His original name was Tafari. He became a prince by marrying the daughter of Emperor Menelik II. in 1911. Because of his progressive and reliable political attitude, he was very popular and trusted. His wife ruled as Empress Zauditu from 1917-1930. After her death, Tafari was crowned and took the name Haile Selassie which means "Mighty of the Trinity". He was the first Ethiopian ruler to travel abroad (to Europe). He modernized the country through technological advances and gained international approval for his efforts towards humanitarianism and Ethiopian sovereignty. But a military coup ended his reign, and he died in prison.

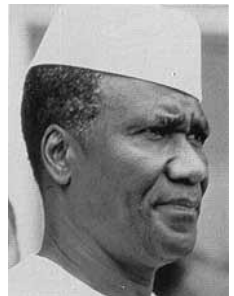


Robert Mugabe (Zimbabwe)

He founded the Pan African Congress (PAC) and was its leader until 1957. From 1960-63, he was imprisoned on Robben Island, the same location where Mandela was kept later on. He was also detained in his home area until independence was announced in 1980. He won the elections and became first Prime Minister, then president. His land reforms created a crisis. The minority white population owned 80% of the country. He disowned the white farmers and gave the land to the indigenous ethnic groups. The majority black population considers him a hero for distributing the land.

Ahmed Sékou Touré (Guinea)

He studied the works of the communist philosopher Karl Marx and became politically active while working for the Postal Services PTT. In 1945, he was one of the founders of the Postal Workers Union, becoming its general secretary. In 1952, he became the leader of the Guinean Democratic Party, and later in 1956, the mayor of the capital Conakry. When Guinea became independent in 1958, he was elected as its first president until his death in 1984. He was a good African leader.



8. Regional and International Cooperation

Regional Cooperation in Africa (P6/p49-55)

Regional cooperation refers to organizations that address problems and challenges of a region on the political, economical and social level. **International cooperation** addresses problems and challenges of the world across continents.

Importance of Regional Cooperation

- It can promote good international relationships.
- It can improve trade among member countries and provide a common market.
- It can encourage cultural exchange.
- It can raise the standard of living of the people.

Examples:

1) East Africa Community (EAC)

5 Members: Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi (*see map next page*)

Headquarters: Arusha (Tanzania)

It was founded in **1967** by Jomo Kenyatta (Kenya), Julius Nyerere (Tanzania) and Apollo Milton Obote (Uganda) but collapsed in 1977 due to political differences during the rule of the dictator Idi Amin in Uganda. The EAC was revived in 2000.

Functions

- to promote unity, trade, social services and cultural exchange among members
- to allow free movement of people
- to control diseases like Malaria and HIV/AIDS

Benefits

- people found work, received services and raised their standard of living
- removal of all non-tariff barriers on cross-border trade (Common External Tariff (CET) on imports from third countries and duty-free trade between the member states)
- industries like the East Africa Steel Cooperation
- joint-ventures like the East African Airways, port facilities, postal systems and the East Africa Development Band (EADB)

Problems

- different education systems: Kenya 8-4-4 (primary 8, secondary 4, university 4 years); Uganda and Tanzania 7-6-3 (primary 7, secondary 6, university 3 years)

2) Intergovernmental Authority for Development (IGAD)

8 Members: Kenya, Uganda, Somalia, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Eritrea, South Sudan and Sudan (*see map next page*)

Headquarters: Djibouti City

It was founded in **1986** to address the problem of drought and desertification. In the 1990s, IGAD became involved in regional cooperation and political stability. Peace efforts were and are focused on Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan, as well as on tensions between Ethiopia and Eritrea. IGAD is also involved in anti-terrorism initiatives.

Functions

- to promote peace and stability
- to end wars (at the time of foundation the second civil war of South Sudan)
- to mobilize resources for emergency, short-term and long-term programs
- to create an environment to encourage cross-border trade
- to promote free movement of goods, services and people
- to develop infrastructure such as transport, telecommunication and energy

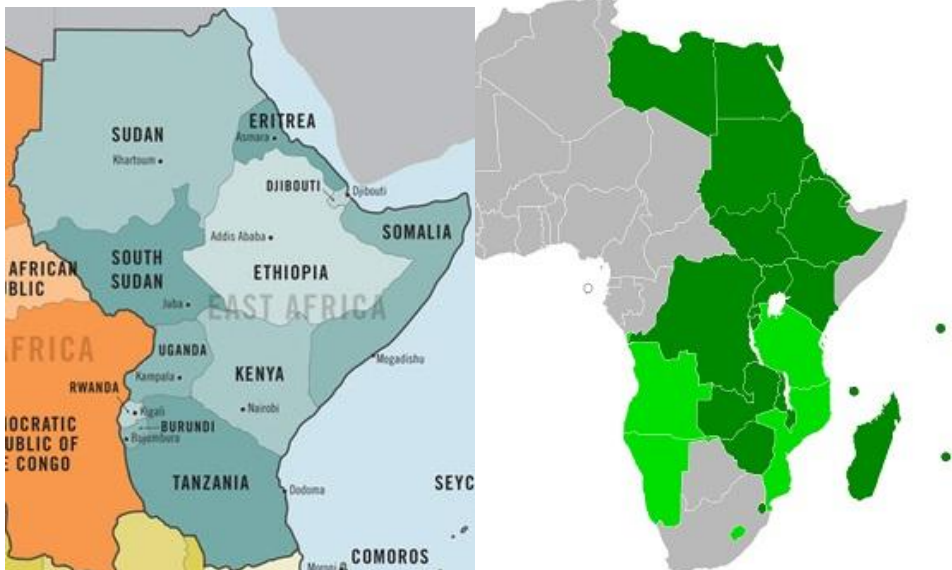
Benefits

- promoting trade
- solving problems of transport and communication
- offering peace negotiations (for example in the Sudan/South Sudan conflict, the longest war in modern African history)

Problems

- instability continues (Somalia, South Sudan)
- already signed agreements are not implemented
- lack of transparency and coordination
- lack of resources to facilitate running of programs

Maps: Countries of EAC and IGAD on the left; and COMESA countries on the right



3) Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)

The P6 text book mentions on pages 51-53 the **Preferential Trade Area (PTA)**, a trade organization for eastern and southern African countries established in 1982. This organization **does not exist anymore**. It was replaced in **1994** by the **Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)** which has the same purpose. COMESA cooperates with the EAC (*see page 96*) and SADC (*see below*).

There are **20 members** (*see map last page*): Libya, Egypt, Sudan, South Sudan, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Djibouti, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, DRC, Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Madagascar, Comoros, Mauritius and Seychelles

Functions

- to promote cooperation and integration of economic activities, for example trade, customs, industry, transport, communications, agriculture and monetary affairs
- to create a common market to allow free movement of goods, capital (money) and labour (people)
- to raise the standard of living of the people
- to contribute to the progress and development of all member countries

4) South African Development Community (SADC)



15 Members: South Africa, Lesotho, Swaziland, Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Malawi, Zambia, Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Seychelles, Mauritius and Madagascar

Headquarters: Gaborone (Botswana)

SADC is an inter-governmental organization founded in **1992** to promote trade and peace initiatives. Its goal is to deepen socio-economic cooperation and integration as well as political and security cooperation among 15 southern African states. SADC addresses issues

such as defense, development, food security, energy policies, HIV/AIDS, illicit drug trade, free trade and movement of people. The Protocol on Gender and Development tackles gender based violence and attempts to end girl-child marriages.

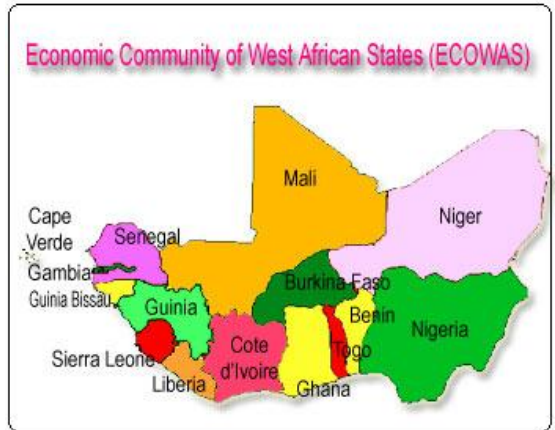
5) Economic Cooperation for West African States (ECOWAS)

15 Members: Nigeria, Niger, Benin, Togo, Ghana, Burkina Faso, Mali, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Senegal, The Gambia, Cape Verde

It was founded in **1975** to promote economic integration (a trading union) and to serve as a peacekeeping force in the region. Policies are implemented through the ECOWAS commission and the ECOWAS Bank for Investment and Development.

The ECOWAS commission has six departments: Human Resources Management; Education, Science and Culture; Energy and Mines; Telecommunications and IT; Industry and Private Sector Promotion.

ECOWAS nations also organize cultural and sports event in the region.



The African Union (AU) (P7/p68-72)

The largest and most important organisation in Africa is the AU (African Union). Formerly, the countries united in the **Organization of African Unity (OAU)** which was founded in 1963 by 32 countries in Addis Ababa in the spirit of Pan-Africanism. Among the leading statesmen were Haile Sellasie, (Ethiopia), Kwame Nkrumah (Ghana), Sékou Touré (Guinea) and Julius Nyerere (Tanzania); *see description of presidents on pages 93-95*. The foundation of the OAU united two blocs that had a different vision of African unity. The **Casablanca group** was made up of mostly Arab countries and wanted to establish an African federation. The **Monrovia group** was made up sub-Saharan countries and preferred gradual economic cooperation without a political federation.

In August 2002, the **African Union** replaced the OAU to suit the present African and international situation. **54 African states** are members of the AU and have equal voting power. The chairmanship rotates annually to allow each member to give its contribution to development and peace. **Morocco** is not a member because it opposes the membership of Western Sahara.



Picture: Emblem of the AU

Functions

- to promote continental unity and solidarity
- to improve the lives of Africans
- to defend sovereignty and freedom
- to eliminate all forms of colonialism
- to promote international cooperation and respect international documents such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the UN Charter

Principles of the AU

- recognition of the sovereignty, territorial integrity and equality of the members
- non-interference in internal affairs, unless a government asks for help
- peaceful settlement of disputes
- condemnation of any form of aggression by one country against another
- non-alignment in international affairs

Committees (specialized agencies) of the AU

- Economic and Social Commission
- Commission on Education, Science and Culture
- Conference of African trade ministers
- African Civil Aviation Commission
- Pan-African News Agency PANA
- Pan-African Postal and Telecommunications
- High Council of Sports in Africa

The AU also maintains **peace-keeping forces** which can be sent to conflict zones, recently to Somalia.

Achievements of the AU

- The AU makes Africans speak with one voice on the international level.
- The AU promotes social and cultural exchange.
- The AU helps African nations to discuss their problems peacefully.
- The AU has settled many disputes.
- The AU has reduced the violation of human rights.
- The AU has improved infrastructure (roads) and communication
- The AU has deepened the economic and technical cooperation.

Problems of the AU

- Division among member states, sometimes ideological differences
- Military coups and civil wars
- Unsettled border disputes
- Clashes between African leaders over personal differences
- Interference by foreign powers in African affairs such as France, Great Britain (the United Kingdom) and the USA
- The heritage of colonialism and its burden on society
- Lack of financial contributions from member states



The United Nations (UN) (P8/p102-109)

The UN was formed in 1945 to promote peace, security, stability and international co-operation. With South Sudan joining as the newest member, there are currently **193 independent countries** in the UN. African countries all joined immediately after gaining independence.

The UN headquarter is based in New York, USA. Other main offices are in Geneva, Vienna and Nairobi.

The **official languages** are English, French, Spanish, Russian, Chinese and Arabic.

According to the UN Charter, the United Nations has **four purposes**:

- to maintain international peace and security
- to develop friendly relations among nations
- to cooperate in promoting respect for human rights
- to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations

The UN is made up of six main bodies:

1) General Assembly

The General Assembly operates like a parliament and passes resolutions. Apart from approving budgetary matters, **resolutions are not binding** on the members. Important issues need a two-thirds majority. Each member country has one vote (one representative).

2) Security Council

There are five permanent members (USA, Russia, China, England and France) with **veto power** which allows each of them to stop resolutions from being adopted. Additionally, ten other countries are elected by the General Assembly for a term of two years. A resolution needs the approval of at least nine Security Council members, including all five veto powers.

The Security Council deals with matters concerning peace and security in the world. It has the power to make **binding decisions** that member countries have to carry out. When negotiations for peaceful solutions of international disputes fail, the Security Council has the power to send UN peacekeepers in conflict zones, for example the Democratic Republic of Congo. These soldiers are provided by member states voluntarily. The UN does not have its own army.

3) Secretariat

The Secretary-General is the chief administrative officer of the UN and acts as its spokesperson and moderator. He has a representative role, not executive power, because the UN member states all are sovereign.

The current Secretary-General is Ban Ki-Moon (South Korea). Former Secretary-Generals were Kofi Anan (Ghana), Boutros Boutros-Ghali (Egypt), Javier Peres de Cuellar (Peru), Kurt Waldheim (Austria) and Dag Hammarskjöld (Sweden) who died in a plane crash in 1961 on a UN mission to negotiate a cease fire in Congo. Evidence suggests the plane was shot down.

4) Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

It promotes and coordinates economic, socio-cultural and humanitarian development through various agencies and related organizations, for example:

- World Health Organization (WHO): concerned with international public health; priorities: improving medical services in poor countries, reducing child mortality and malnutrition, controlling the spread of diseases and epidemics, eradicating diseases (e.g. smallpox), providing vaccines...
- Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO): aims to curb famine/hunger, improve food security, raise levels of nutrition, improve agricultural productivity, and better the lives of rural populations
- World Food Program (WFP): distribution of relief food for people who are unable to produce or obtain enough food for themselves and their families; world's largest humanitarian organization addressing hunger and promoting food security
- United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO): promotes international collaboration through educational, scientific, and cultural reforms in order to increase universal respect for justice, the rule of law and human rights
- United Nations International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF): provides long-term humanitarian and developmental assistance, including education, to children and mothers in developing countries
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR): protects and refugees at the request of a government or the UN itself and assists in their voluntary repatriation, local integration or resettlement to a third country
- United Nations Development Program (UNDP): advocates for change and connects countries to knowledge, experience and resources to help people build a better life; committed to the Millennium Development Goals: focus on poverty reduction, HIV/AIDS, democratic governance, energy and environment, social development, and crisis prevention and recovery
- United Nations Environment Program (UNEP): assists developing countries in implementing environmentally sound policies and practices; issues: atmosphere, marine and terrestrial ecosystems, environmental governance
- International Labour Organization (ILO): deals with labour issues, particularly international labour standards, social protection, and work opportunities for all
- International Monetary Fund (IMF): promotes international monetary cooperation, international trade, high employment, exchange-rate stability, sustainable economic growth, and making resources available to member countries in financial difficulty
- World Bank Group (WBG) including the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Finance Corporation (IFC): aims to ending extreme poverty and building shared prosperity; promotes human development, agriculture and rural development, environmental protection (e.g. pollution reduction), infrastructure, large industrial construction projects, and governance (e.g. anti-corruption, legal institutions development)

- International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO): codifies the principles and techniques of international air navigation and fosters the planning and development of international air transport to ensure safe and orderly growth
- International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA): seeks to promote the peaceful use of nuclear energy, and to inhibit its use for any military purpose, including nuclear weapons

Other international organizations not related to the ECOSOC:

- United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (HABITAT)
- World Trade Organization (WTO)
- International Criminal Court (ICC)

5) International Court of Justice

It is the judicial branch of the United Nations, based in The Hague, Netherlands. The court settles legal disputes among member countries and provides advisory opinions on legal questions.

6) Trusteeship Council

In the past, it managed colonial possessions. It is inactive since Palau, the last trust territory, attained independence in 1994.

Achievements of the UN

- promotion of human rights for all people, regardless of race, political affiliation, sex or religion
- promotion of democracy, independence and the end of apartheid
- promotion of economic development
- assistance to low developed countries with qualified personnel such as doctors, nurse, teachers and experts in agriculture
- distribution of relief food in times of famine, drought and war
- settlement of border disputes such as between Iran and the Soviet Union

Problems of the UN

- Power imbalance: Strong nations such as the 5 veto powers sometimes act in their own interests and disregard the less powerful member countries.
- The UN cannot enforce its decisions unless some member states do it in the name of the UN.
- Some member countries fail to accept or implement the resolutions passed.
- Several disputes could not be solved (border, religious, tribal or racial conflicts).
- During the Cold War, the UN were powerless to prevent the arms race which threatened world peace.
- During the Cold War, the UN were powerless to prevent the Soviet aggression in Eastern Europe.
- Member countries often do not pay their contribution so that the UN cannot operate fully, for example implementing peace-keeping missions.
- UN members are often members of other international organizations which can cause a conflict of interest.

Selected Books

A Concise History of South Sudan

Editors Anders Breidlid, Anne Farren and Yosa Wawa

Fountain Publishers, Kampala, new and revised edition 2014

The New Dawn: South Sudan

by Acuil Malith Banggol

2nd Edition 2015

Kenya Secondary Certificate Geography (Form 1 to 4)

by Monicah Kimei and Linnet Khabongo

Nairobi, 2004

Social Studies (Book 1 to 4)

Solidarity Teacher Training College

Paulines Publications Africa, Nairobi, 2013

Appendix

Correction of the Social Studies School Books

The following list of corrections document the changes that I made. The page numbers of the SST school books refer to the new print edition (2012). The Ministry of Education still needs to verify the corrections, or reject them. In the next print edition of this exam guide, I will incorporate any changes requested by the Ministry.

Primary 8 book

P8/page 2

Quote “The Greenwich Meridian crosses Africa through ... Upper Volta...”

Correction: Upper Volta was renamed Burkina Faso in 1984. (*cf. this book, page 2*)

P8/page 6

Quote The Mediterranean climate has “mild” winters.

Comment: P7 (page 18) explains that Mediterranean winters are “cool”. I believe that the Mediterranean climate has both types of winter, depending on the location. *This book mentions on page 12 both answers from the P8 and the P7 book.*

P8/page 9 (the same error about South Sudan’s area is found in P7/page 1)

Quote India “has a population of about 800 million [...] In South Sudan, the population is about 6 million people and it has an area of about 835 271 square kilometres. New Sudan has a population density of 50 people per square kilometre [...] South Sudan’s population increases by about 1% annually.”

Correction: The populations of India and South Sudan have risen since the book was printed. There are 11.5 million South Sudanese according to the CIA World Fact Book (<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/od.html>). The population density is 18 persons per km² (CIA World Fact Book). 50 people is by all means too high, even if we use the numbers offered by the P8 book for area and population. It only would be 7 people per km². The population increases annually by about 4%. (*cf. this book, page 26*)

The area of South Sudan is about 644 thousand square kilometres, not 835 thousand (*cf. this book, page 4*). The Statistical Yearbook for Southern Sudan estimates 644,331 km², the UN and the US government estimate 644,329 km². I can only guess, but it is probable that the regions of Blue Nile and Nuba Mountains were included in the original estimation because SST P5 mentions five regions (pages 14-15), not three. At that time in 2006, it was not clear which regions would belong to the Republic of South Sudan.

P8/page 33

Quote “Conditions for growth of tea 4. Temperatures of _____”

The P8 book leaves a blank space and provides no answer. According to internet sources, the ideal temperature depends on the kind of tea. (*cf. this book, page 45*)

P8/page 60

Quote “In 1935, the Dutch left their Cape settlement and moved to the Orange Free State and Transvaal”

Correction: It was the year 1835, one hundred years earlier. More precisely, there were 6 treks between 1835 and 1840. Furthermore, the people should be called Boers, not Dutch. Their ancestors, who arrived almost 200 years earlier, were Dutch. (*cf. this book, page 79*)

Note that the wrong year of 1935 is used again in the school book on page 65, asking the students “What happened in 1935...?”

P8/page 77

Quote “Eritrea was a separate region before the borders were merged by the colonial powers and Emperor Haile Selassie put under his control in 1960.”

Correction: The colonial powers merged Eritrea and Ethiopia into a federation in 1950. Then, in 1962, it was annexed. (*cf. this book, page 78*)

P8/page 102

Quote The UN “has over 160 members” (outdated, even at the time of printing the school book)

Correction: There are 193 member states. (*cf. this book, page 101*)

P8/page 102

Quote “The two main international organizations are 1. The United Nations Organization (UNO) 2. The Common Wealth Organization (CWO)”

Correction: In English, the United Nations are abbreviated with UN, not UNO.

The “Common Wealth Organization” with its abbreviation CWO does not exist. The correct name is “Commonwealth of Nations”, an organization made up of countries that formerly belonged to the British Empire. But it is not known as CWO. And it is not the case that the “Commonwealth of Nations” is the second main international organization next to the UN. There are other organizations which are more important and powerful. For that reason, *this book does not mention this organization*.

P8/page 104

Quote “4. The Social and Economic Council”

Correction: The Economic and Social Council (*cf. this book, page 102*)

P8/page 105

Quote “United Nation High Commission for Refugees”

Correction: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (*cf. this book, page 102*)

P8/page 106

Quote “International Band for Reconstruction and Development”

Correction: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (*cf. this book, page 102*)

Primary 7 book

P7/page 1

Quote South Sudan “lies between latitudes 4°N and 13°N, and longitudes 22°W and 38°E.”

Correction: The longitude cannot be °West because South Sudan lies entirely in the eastern hemisphere. Besides that, the correct coordinates are: 4°-12°N and 24°-36°E. (*cf. this book, page 4*)

P7/page 4

Quote The Zambezi “rises in Lesotho and flows westwards into the Atlantic Ocean.”

Correction: The Zambezi flows eastwards into the Indian Ocean. The authors confuse this river with the Orange River. (*cf. this book, page 20*)

P7/pages 5-6

Quote Lake Victoria is “the second largest fresh water lake in the world and the biggest in Africa”. Then, it is written that Lake Tanganyika is “the largest natural fresh water lake in the world at 670 square km”.

Correction: If Lake Tanganyika is the largest in the world, it is also the largest in Africa, and then Lake Victoria cannot be the biggest in Africa. Lake Victoria is the world’s second largest fresh water lake by surface area (not volume) after Lake Superior in North America. And Lake Tanganyika (670 km long, NOT 670 square km as the book states!) is the world’s second deepest and second largest fresh water lake by volume after Lake Baikal in Russia. (*cf. this book, pages 2 and 21*)

P7/page 6

Quote on human-made lakes “Aswan in Egypt”

Correction: It is true that the dam which created the lake is called “Aswan”, but the lake is called “Nasser”. (*cf. this book, page 21*)

P7/page 9 (the same error is found in P5/page 13)

Quote “... the earth takes 4 minutes in one degree of rotation. Example: Mombasa is 40° East of Greenwich. When it is 6AM in Mombasa, what time will it be in Greenwich? ($40^\circ \times 4 \text{ min/degree}$) = 160 min = 2 hrs 40 min [...] thus it will be 2 hours 40 minutes before 6.00AM (i.e. 3:20 AM.) Example: if it is 6:00AM at Greenwich, Mombasa will be $40 \times 4 = 160 \div 60 = 2 \text{ hrs } 40 \text{ minutes ahead} = 8:40 \text{ standard time}$ ”

Correction: Mombasa lies in the time zone +03 GMT; that means it is always 3 hours ahead of Greenwich local time. If it is 6 am in Mombasa it is 3 am in Greenwich. If it is 6 am in Greenwich, it is 9 am in Mombasa. The time does not change with each degree longitude. Most countries have one time zone for their territory. *This example is omitted in this book.*

On page 10, the following activity is proposed: “When it is 8:00 AM at Greenwich, what time will it be in Africa at the following places? a) 15°W b) 25°E c) 38°E d) 45°E” This activity is based on the wrong assumption that time changes with

each degree longitude. In comparison to Greenwich, a country in Africa lies in one of the following zones: 0 GMT (= Greenwich Time), +01 GMT (1 hour ahead), +02 GMT (2 hours ahead) or +03 GMT (3 hours ahead). And several places in Africa on the same meridian (line of longitude) are found in different time zones.

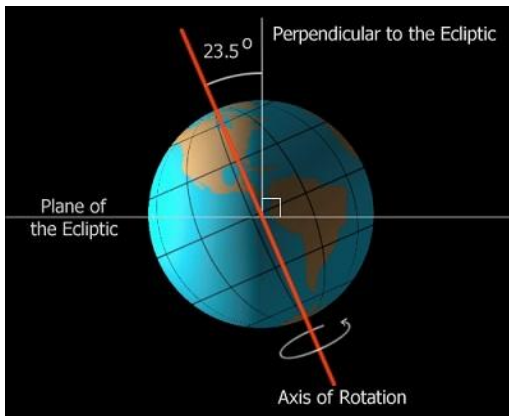
P7/page 12

Why does the text book mention Mount Tibet as an example of a mountain in Africa?

P7/page 15

Quote “The earth’s axis is tilted ... at an angle of 66.5°”

Correction: The angel is 23.5° (see illustration below). The value 66.5° seems to be calculated by subtracting 23.5° from 90°. There is no reason to do that. (*cf. this book, page 10*)



P7/page 16

Quote “The revolution of the earth around the sun is responsible for the change of season...”

Correction: We have seasons because of the tilt of the earth. It is also true that the planet has to revolve around the sun so that the heat will reach different parts of the surface, but without the tilt the average weather condition at one location would be the same the whole year. (*cf. this book, page 10*)

P7/page 18

Quote The tropical (savannah) climate “extends between latitudes 5°N and 25°S.”

Assumption: It should extend to the same degree latitude north and south, e.g. 25°N and 25°S. *The extension of this climate zone is not mentioned in this book (see description on page 12).*

P7/pages 18 and 20-21

Quote on the Cape Province in South Africa “Mediterranean climate... The regions have cool, wet winters.” (p. 18) and “Warm temperate climate... Warm winters...” (p. 20 and 21)

This information is confusing. Does the Cape Province have two different climates? (see also above P8/page 6 about Mediterranean winters) *This book on page 12 assumes that the Cape Province has a Mediterranean climate.*

P7/page 19

Quote on Mediterranean climate: “In summer, temperatures may rise to 21°C. In winter, they may fall up to 10°C. The annual range in temperature is about 9°C.”

Correction: One of the three °C-figures is wrong. *This book on page 12 does not mention the annual range because of the uncertainty.*

P7/page 20

Quote “Cool temperate climate... Summers are hotter and less wet than those of the warm temperate climate. The winds are also drier and colder.”

Correction: Like the winds, also the summers are colder. Otherwise, this type of climate would not be called “cool temperate” in comparison to “warm temperate”. (*cf. this book, page 12*)

P7/page 24

Quote “3. Cushites. This group includes the Oromo and Borana of Kenya. This group includes the Arabs...”

Correction: It seems that the heading “4. Semites” was omitted by accident. Arabs are Semites, not Cushites. (*cf. this book, page 30*)

P7/page 24

Quote on the Kingdom of Axum “A great civilization began and grew in Ethiopia from about 1000 AD.”

Correction: This kingdom began in 100 BC, 1100 years earlier than the school book claims. (*cf. this book, page 30*)

P7/page 27

The pygmies are put in the section of North Africa with the Egyptians.

Correction: The pygmies live in the equatorial forests of the Congo region and therefore belong to the section of Central Africa on page 24. (*cf. this book, page 31*)

P7/page 37

Quote “Examples in South Sudan are the El Roiseries dam...”

Correction: The Roseires Dam (note spelling!) lies in Sudan (*cf. this book, page 54*). South Sudan has no dams.

P7/page 41

Quote “8. H.V. Verwoerd Dam is constructed on the Orange River in Namibia.”

Correction: This dam lies in South Africa. It was built in 1971 and named Hendrik Verwoerd Dam, but renamed in 1996 into Gariiep Dam. (*cf. this book, page 54*)

P7/pages 56 and 67

Quote on the positive effects of the European coming to Africa “Demarcation of the borders” (page 56) and later: “The Europeans introduced the demarcation of boundaries to Africa based on their interest.” (page 67)

Question: Is this a positive effect? There are so many conflicts because the borders were drawn without considering local realities. *This information is not included.*

P7/pages 64-65

Quote “Italian rule in northern Somalia... Italy sent a force of about 16,000 soldiers to invade northern Tigre now known as Somalia. This force was met by 12,000 men.”

Correction: Tigre (or Tigray) is in Eritrea, not Somalia. It is true that the Italians also controlled an area of Somalia, but the events described in the school book refer to Italy’s rule in Eritrea. 17,500 Italian soldiers invaded the region and were defeated by 120,000 Ethiopians (not 12,000) in the Battle of Adwa. (*cf. this book, page 77*)

P7/page 68

Quote “The immediate result of the formation of OAU was the dissolution of all African groupings in the last two or four years. After the conference there was a division between the Arab Africans and the black Africans independent states. The Arab Africans formed a group called Casablanca group while the black Africans formed a group known as Monrovia group.”

Correction: The two groups existed before the formation of the OAU since the 1950s and were united when the OAU was founded in 1963. It is too simple to picture the Casablanca group as Arab African because also Ghana was part of it. Instead of dividing the two groups along ethnic lines, it is more accurate to describe their opposed viewpoints on federalism. (*cf. this book, page 99*)

Primary 6 book

P6/page 3

Quote South Sudan “consists of 5 regions, 10 states.”

Correction: The 10 states are from the 3 regions Greater Bahr-el-Ghazal, Greater Upper Nile and Greater Equatoria. (*cf. this book, page 4*)

P6/page 3

Quote “South Sudan is bordered by five countries.”

Correction: There are six neighbouring countries. (*cf. this book, page 4*)

P6/pages 12-13

Quote “Western Equatoria, Katire” (p. 12) and “Katire in Torit, Eastern Equatoria” (p. 13)

Question: Where is Katire? Are there two places with the same name?

P6/page 14

Quote “The equatorial climate is characterized by ... average rainfall 750mm throughout the year.”

Correction: The equatorial climate of South Sudan has more rainfall than the savannah climate (rainfall up to 1000 mm). P5/page 26, mentions 1700 mm in equatorial climate regions which I find more credible. *The information of P5 (1700 mm) is used in this book on page 13.*

P6/page 15

Here, Kapoeta County is given as an example of the woodland and savannah climate. But does it not have semi-desert climate? (see P5/page 25) Also P6 on page 17 states “The semi-desert areas are found in ... Kapoeta.”

P6/page 19

Quote “Plain Nilotes - Nilo Hamites”

Correction: The school book treats the two names as two groups. But the Plains (with ‘s’) Nilotes are what ethnologists formerly called Nilo-Hamites. They are also known as Eastern or Para-Nilotics. (*cf. this book, page 26; please read A Concise History of South Sudan*, editors Anders Breidlid, Anne Farren and Yosa Wawa)

P6/page 21

Quote “Nilo-Hamites in South Sudan are said to have originated from the mountainous areas bordering Sudan and Uganda [...] In South Sudan they include the Basi speaking group such as Nyangbara, Bari, Fajulu, Mundari, Kakuwa and Kuku.”

Correction: The name ‘Nilo-Hamites’ should not be used anymore. They are Plains (or Eastern) Nilotes and came from Ethiopia, not Uganda. The Bari, for example, fled from the Oromo. The tribes mentioned above are Loi speakers, not Basi speakers. (*cf. this book, page 26; please read A Concise History of South Sudan*, editors Anders Breidlid, Anne Farren and Yosa Wawa)

P6/page 21

Quote “The Bantu speaking group are the Azande, Bongo, Makaraka and Ndogo-sere.”

Correction: Of the four groups above, only the Azande and the Ndogo-Sere (note spelling!) are Bantu. The Bongo are Sudanic. (*cf. this book, pages 26-27; please read A Concise History of South Sudan*, editors Anders Breidlid, Anne Farren and Yosa Wawa)

P6/page 50

Quote “The EAC was revived on March 4th 1996...”

Correction: It was revived in the year 2000. (*cf. this book, page 96*)

P6/page 51

Quote “The Preferential Trade Area (PTA)”

Remark: The Preferential Trade Area (PTA), a trade organization established in 1982, does not exist anymore. It was replaced in 1994 by the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). (*cf. this book, page 98*)

P6/page 55

Quote “South African Development Cooperation (SADC)”

Correction: The name is South African Development Community. (*cf. this book, page 98*)

Primary 5 book

P5/page 15

The borders of the 10 states of South Sudan are wrong on the map. (correct borders: *see this book, page 4*)

P5/page 20

Quote “Climate is the condition of the air during the whole year or a whole season... Weather concerns day to day changes while climate is from one season to another.”

Correction: P5/page 23 offers the correct definition: “Climate is the average weather condition of a given place over a period of 30 years or more.” (*cf. this book, page 8*)

P5/page 36

Quote “The Nilo-Hamite tribes in South Sudan include the Bari, Mundari...”

Correction: Please read comment above **P6/page 21**.

P5/page 37

Quote “The Sudanic tribes of South Sudan can be put in four groups: Azande [...]; the Ndogo-Sere; the Moru-Madi and the Bongo-Baka.”

Correction: P6/page 21 calls the Azande and Ndogo-Sere Bantu groups, which is correct. Of the groups mentioned above, only the Moru-Madi and the Bongo-Baka are Sudanic. (*cf. this book, page 26*)

P5/pages 43-46

The information about India and Germany is outdated. *This section is not included in this book*

P5/page 61

Quote “Processing industries... c) Sugar – Sakure, Mangala... Manufacturing industries... a) Textile – Mangala (Terekeka)”

Clarification: The book gives the impression that Mangala (near Terekeka, C.E.S.) still has industries. In the 1970s and 1980s, Mangala (or Mongalla) had a sugar cane processing factory and a textile manufacturing industry (clothing factory). But the production was stopped when the Second Civil War broke out in 1983. Source: **Integration and Fragmentation of the Sudan: An African Renaissance** by Mawut Achieque Mach Guarak (*cf. this book, page 51*)

Two Projections of the Globe

Afro-Eurasia, the “Old World”, and the Americas, the “New World”



Which of the countries shown can you name?



Countries of Africa, Capitals and largest Cities of the Continent

