



SOUTHERN AFRICA

Officer Block 2 and Enlisted Block 3

An Introduction to the Southern Africa Region

CENTER FOR ADVANCED OPERATIONAL CULTURE LEARNING

Regional, Culture, and Language Familiarization (RCLF) Program

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Introduction

One must distinguish between the study of regions, countries, and cultures. Chapters 1 through 6 in this document introduce a region and provide some information about its countries and their relationships. They do not introduce a culture or cultures. Those chapters simply provide knowledge about the region and the environment in which people with different cultures live.

Regions and states do not have a single culture; instead they have multiple, diverse cultures. Cultures are not necessarily bound by national borders. There may be multiple cultures in a single state, while people sharing a single culture may live in more than one state.

The case study in Chapter 7 is about one specific culture in the region. Building upon the information provided in chapters 1 through 6, Chapter 7 introduces one of the many cultures in the Southern Africa region, using concepts discussed in the Operational Culture General document.

Why This Region is Relevant to You as a Marine

This region is the most stable in comparison to other regions in Africa. The Republic of South Africa (South Africa), with its advanced economy and military, is considered the anchor of the Southern Africa region. In fact, South Africa voluntarily dismantled its nuclear weapons program in 1990, signaling a shift in defense policy.¹ Today, South Africa leads other nations in this region in participating in United Nations peacekeeping operations in the Central African Republic and Democratic Republic of the Congo.² Additionally, Botswana is Africa's most stable democracy, and is a prominent U.S. partner and a source of positive influence throughout the region.³ This chapter is an introduction to the region; it is intended to provide you with the necessary tools required to interact with populations and militaries in this region.

"The region (Southern Africa) fields some of the most professional and capable military forces on the continent and is a net exporter of security."

General David M. Rodriguez, U.S. AFRICOM Commander

As a Marine assigned to the Southern Africa region, your growing understanding of the cultural and security-related aspects of this particular region can give you the tools to help you better navigate should you be deployed to the region.

U.S. AFRICOM programs and combined exercises assist the countries in the region in developing continental security while building partner defense capacities on several fronts. "Southern Accord 2015," which took place in Zambia, is a joint exercise intended to increase interoperability between the United States and Southern African countries for peace support operations, while increasing capabilities to combat terrorism and transnational threats in the region.⁴



Each year, U.S. Marines take part in a variety of exercises in Africa (Source: DVIDS)

"Africa Endeavor," another U.S. AFRICOM program, is an annual 10-day communications exercise that focuses on interoperability and information with partner nations.⁵ The first Africa Endeavor was held in 2006 in South Africa; the 2015 Africa Endeavor took place in Botswana, with the participation of more than 1,800 communications specialists from 40 countries.⁶ An example of another exercise in this region is Africa Partnership Station (APS), a U.S. Naval Forces Africa's (NAVAF) flagship maritime security cooperation program aimed at strengthening maritime safety and security through training and other collaborative activities.⁷

Geographic Overview

Why a Geographic Overview Matters to You as a Marine

Geographic features include physical and biological factors tied to location, topography, climate, soil, environmental hazards, flora, and fauna. These features influence human and social characteristics such as beliefs, behaviors, social organization, economy, and politics, to name a few. This is not to say that geography determines how people and societies behave, but rather that it has varying effects on what they believe and do.

The locations of rivers, mountains, deserts, and coasts have great influence on where people live, what crops can be raised, and what modes of transportation are suitable. Climate and weather influence how people dress, work, and earn a living. Natural disasters like hurricanes, flooding, and earthquakes can devastate a region, and dislocate a great number of people.

Global Location

Southern Africa is a huge region occupying the entire southern cusp of the African continent, stretching west from the Indian Ocean to the Southern Atlantic Ocean. Its land area covers over 2.5 million sq mi (6.6 million sq km),⁸ nearly three-fourths the size of the United States.

The region is bordered on the north by the Republic of Congo, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Tanzania. The Mozambique Channel, the Indian Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean surround the area along the east, south, and west.

Countries

Southern Africa, for the purposes of this course, includes 14 countries: Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe are on the mainland. Lesotho is surrounded entirely by South Africa. Swaziland is mostly encircled by South Africa and shares a small border with Mozambique. Angola is the largest country on the mainland, and Swaziland is the smallest. Mayotte and Reunion are French Overseas Regions. Comoros has laid claim on Mayotte.

Country	Area (Sq. Km)
Angola	1,246,700
Botswana	600,370
Lesotho	30,355
Malawi	118,480
Mozambique	801,590
Namibia	825,418
South Africa	1,219,912
Swaziland	17,363
Zambia	752,614
Zimbabwe	390,580
Comoros	2,170
Madagascar	587,040
Mauritius	2,040
Seychelles	455
Total	6,595,087

(Source: CIA World Factbook, 2015)

The French Southern and Antarctic Lands⁹ administered by France include Bassas da India, Europa Island, Glorioso Islands, Juan de Nova Island, and Tromelin Island. Both Madagascar and Mauritius have claimed ownership of these islands, challenging France.



Map of Southern Africa Region (Source: Center for Advanced Operational Culture Learning – CAOCL)

Topography

The Highveld Plateau is the dominant feature in Southern Africa, and it defines most of the landscape of the region.¹⁰ This inland plateau stands at an altitude of more than 3,281 ft (1,000 m) above sea level, separated from the narrow coastal plain in the south by a horseshoe-shaped ridge, the Great Escarpment.¹¹ These high grounds extend to east Africa and are comprised of three contiguous regions of anomalous topography: the East African Plateau, the Southern African Plateau, and the southeastern Atlantic Ocean basin.¹²

The highest elevations are found in the Great Escarpment, which is mostly located in South Africa (where it is known as Drakensberg); it continues through Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and northwards in Namibia (where it is known as Komas Highland) and in Angola (known as Serra da Chela).¹³ The iconic Table Mountain in Cape Town, South Africa, is a prominent landmark in the region.¹⁴



Satellite image of Cape Peninsula and Table Mountain. North is on the left of the image, and Table Mountain is in the forefront at the northern end of the peninsula (Source: Wikipedia, Courtesy of NASA)

Vegetation

The various types of vegetation across Southern Africa can be grouped in two main categories.

Forests

Angola has the most significant forest cover in Southern Africa, followed by Zambia and Mozambique.¹⁵ Forests are key resources to the local communities, especially for fuel, which cause most forests in the region to be endangered due to overuse.¹⁶ Miomo woodlands is the prevalent vegetation in the region, which is also the most extensive dry deciduous forest in the world.¹⁷ It is mostly found in Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.¹⁸

Rangelands

These are mainly composed of grassland, arid savannah, semiarid savannah, and thickets like those in the Nama Karoo in South Africa and Namibia (comprised of low shrub vegetation in a semidesert environment). Grasslands are also present in the high altitudes of Lesotho, South Africa, and Swaziland.¹⁹ These grasslands also have the highest volume of human settlement; the land is used for a large variety of economic activities, such as communal and commercial livestock production.²⁰ Rangelands are at risk, mostly from overgrazing.²¹ In the main desert areas, in the Namib Desert in Namibia and in the Kalahari in Botswana, plant cover is sparse and rainfall is extremely low.



Kalahari Desert (Source: Wikipedia)

Waterways

Rivers and lakes account for only a small portion of the area in Southern Africa, a factor that contributes to the aridity of the region. Water resources have major strategic significance in Southern Africa.²² In the arid southwest, where there are no significant sources of surface water, large dams and ground water provide crucially needed water.²³ The most important groundwater sources in the region are the Kalahari-Cuvelai Etosha Basin (between Namibia and Angola),²⁴ the Central Kalahari Karoo Basin in Botswana,²⁵ Cape Fold Belt in South Africa, East Kalahari Precambrian Belt, and the coastal basin of Mozambique.²⁶



Southern Africa Rivers and lakes (Source: Perry Castañeda Collection, University of Texas)

Some of the main rivers in the west are Cunene River (that forms the border between Angola and Namibia), and the Cubango and Orange Rivers. On the east coast, the major rivers are the Limpopo and the Zambezi. The main natural freshwater lakes are the Niassa, Funduzi, Oponono, and Liambezi. All other large static water bodies are either man-made dams or pans with closed drainage systems.

Zambezi River

The Zambezi River is the longest and most shared river system in the region. It is only navigable by shallow-water means, due to its innumerable natural barriers and rapids.²⁷ It stretches over 1,600 mi (2,574 km)²⁸ and flows through Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.²⁹ The Zambezi River Basin is one of the most important shared natural resources, ranging from water, fertile lands, minerals, forests and wild life.³⁰ The largest portion (47.1 percent) of the basin is in Zambia.



The Victoria Falls of the Zambezi River is the largest waterfall in the world and a UNESCO protected site, forming the border between Zambia and Zimbabwe.³¹

Victoria Falls at the border with Zambia and Zimbabwe is the longest sheet of falling water in the world (Source: CIA World Factbook, Courtesy of NASA)

Limpopo River

The Limpopo River begins in South Africa and flows through Mozambique, draining into the Indian Ocean.³² The river forms the border between the Limpopo Province in South Africa with Zimbabwe and Botswana. Although it is 1,100 mi long (1,800 km), it is only navigable on 130 mi (208 km) inland from the coast.³³

Orange River

The Orange River begins in Lesotho, and is the most important river system in South Africa.³⁴ The Orange River covers almost 3 percent of the continent and spreads over Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho, and South Africa. It is the only river that flows westward to the Atlantic Ocean. However, it is not suitable for navigation due to its irregular flow and innumerable falls and rapids.³⁵

Cubango River

The Cubango River system is the fourth largest in Africa. It begins in Angola and flows south. It forms the Okavango River Basin (CORB) with a total area of 266,410 sq mi (690,000 sq km). The CORB is mostly located in Botswana (about 50 percent), Namibia (24.3 percent), Angola (21.9 percent), and Zimbabwe (3.7 percent).³⁶ It includes the Okavango Swamp, the largest and most important wetland in the region. The Okavango River delta empties into a basin in the Kalahari Desert, creating innumerable lagoons, channels, and islands rich in vegetation and wild life, even in the dry season.³⁷ The CORB provides for the livelihood of the basin population, estimated under 900,000 people, with almost two-thirds living in rural areas.³⁸

Lake Malawi, in Malawi (also known as Lake Niassa in Mozambique, or Lake Nyasa, in Tanzania) crosses over three countries in the region, is the third largest and the second deepest lake in Africa.³⁹ Lake Niassa is one of the world's most diverse freshwater fisheries, with over 1,000 different species.⁴⁰

Malawi and Tanzania have a long and unresolved territorial fight involving the lake that goes back to their independence days.⁴¹ This old border dispute has flared up again due to the prospect of oil findings under the lake.⁴² The dispute has strained the bilateral relationship between the two countries, and there is a possibility this dispute will make its way to the International Court of Justice.⁴³

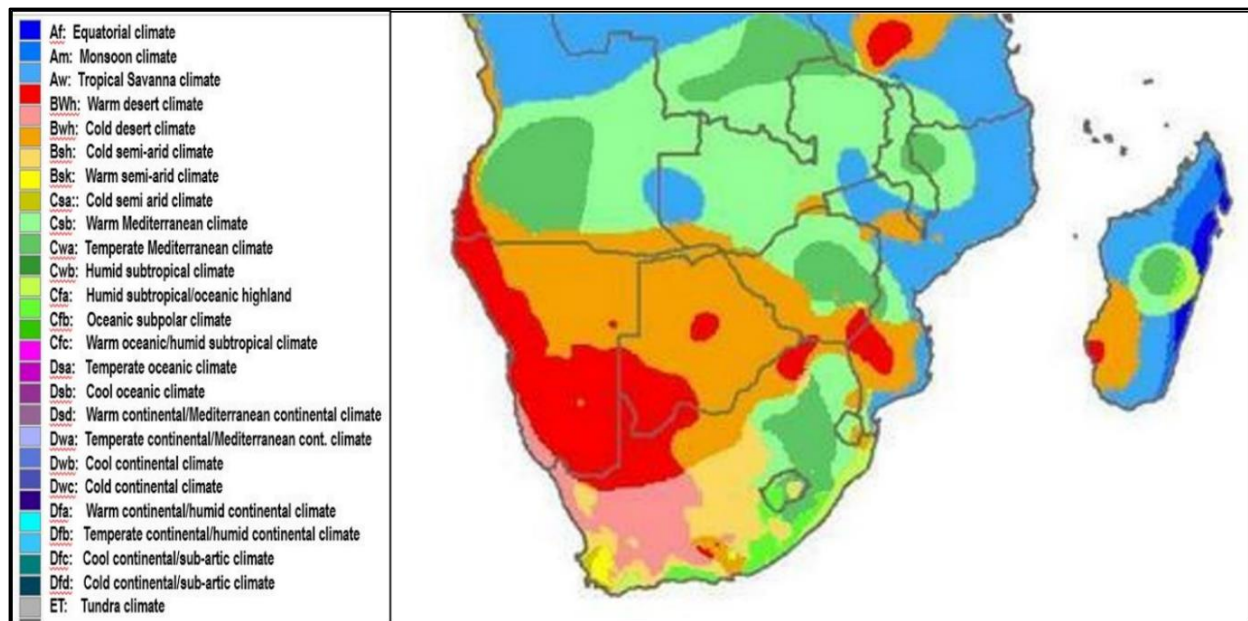


Lake Malawi crosses over the borders of three countries (Source: Wikipedia)

Climate and Weather

Climate in the region is strongly influenced by the warm Indian Ocean (Agulhas) and cold Atlantic Ocean (Benguela) currents. The warm Agulhas Current from the Indian Ocean flows southward along the coast of Mozambique and South Africa,⁴⁴ and then mixes with the cold Benguela Current, from

the Atlantic, on the tip of Africa. This mixing creates an upwelling of water with a cool temperature that results in rich fishing grounds.⁴⁵



Climate map of Southern Africa (Source: Wikipedia)

Southern Africa has a range of climates, from tropical in Angola and Zambia to subtropical in Mozambique and South Africa.⁴⁶ There are also wide seasonal contrasts in temperature and rainfall. Annual rainfall increases considerably in the north and east. Temperatures in the west coast are cooler than in east coast.⁴⁷ Southern African temperatures are affected by both latitude and high altitude. Summer temperatures are highest in the central Kalahari Desert. Winters are mild along the eastern coasts, with the coldest regions found in the Highveld and mountains of the Great Escarpment, which regularly have night frosts and heavy snowfall. The rest of the region is warm, with pleasant winter days and cool nights.

Environmental Hazards

Floods and droughts are the main environmental hazards in Southern Africa.⁴⁸ Hurricanes and storms can cause flooding, which severely impact food and water security in the region.⁴⁹ Mozambique and the island nations of Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, and Seychelles are predisposed to cyclones.

Floods

In 2014-2015, Southern Africa rainfall affected more than 1.82 million people, and resulted in at least 539 deaths.⁵⁰ In Malawi and Mozambique, the number of displaced people totaled more than 230,000 and 68,000 people respectively; and in Madagascar that total was 123,225.⁵¹ The flooding brought cholera outbreaks in Malawi, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe.⁵²

Flooding in Mozambique – In 2007, Mozambique suffered two catastrophic natural disasters: a flood in the Zambezi and Save Rivers, and a Category 4 cyclone that destroyed the southern coast and affected over 300,000 people.⁵³ Half the population of Mozambique lives below the poverty line, so the loss of homes, livestock, agricultural tools, and seeds had a severe impact on a population that depends on subsistence agriculture and fishing.⁵⁴ The result of damming the Zambezi to control flooding has actually put more people at risk because it has infringed upon fertile Zambezi lowlands.⁵⁵ When major flood events have occurred, the dams have not been able to contain the excess water, causing the surrounding communities to trade safety in favor of better harvests and fishing. While some propose permanent resettlement of flood-prone populations to higher ground, many do not believe that this would be a viable alternative to the more fertile flood plains, as an average of 40 percent of the population routinely returns to the flood plains after major floods recede.⁵⁶

Soil Erosion

Soil erosion is another environmental hazard that often accompanies deforestation and floods. In deforested areas, heavy rains and water run-off depletes the soil, making it prone to erosion. In deforested areas of Mozambique, erosion and flooding from heavy rains has put urban settlements at risk.⁵⁷

Drought

Droughts are also a common occurrence in the region and one of the most commonly occurring natural hazards of Southern Africa's volatile climate. It is actually unusual for drought not to occur in the region.⁵⁸ In recent history, some of the most devastating droughts occurred in 1991-1992, affecting 80 percent of the region, and again in 1994-1995.⁵⁹ On both occasions, crop losses seriously comprised food security in the region.⁶⁰



Severe urban erosion in Nacala, Mozambique (Source: USAID; Photo by Charlotte Mack)

In 2015, drought conditions impacted all countries in region, but Botswana was the worst hit. Drought has also severely affected maize crops in Malawi and South Africa, and has created food shortages affecting 1.5 million in Zimbabwe.⁶¹

Other prevalent regional environmental risks include:

Abandoned Mine Sites

South Africa has a long history of mining and has many abandoned mines that are currently the major source of various environmental issues. Current data lists 4,772 dormant mines across South Africa. (There are approximately 900 operational mines in South Africa today.)⁶² These abandoned mines are now dump sites with hazardous substances like heavy metals and other pollutants, contaminate surface, ground water, soil, and food crops, endangering public health and the environment.⁶³

Poaching

This region is also prone to poaching. For example, the black rhinoceros in Zimbabwe – a place that was once home to the largest concentration of species in the world – has been significantly reduced.⁶⁴ Elephants continue to be poached, despite an international ban. Recent studies estimate that poaching between 2010 and 2012 in Southern Africa alone, is responsible for the deaths of about 41,000 elephants.⁶⁵

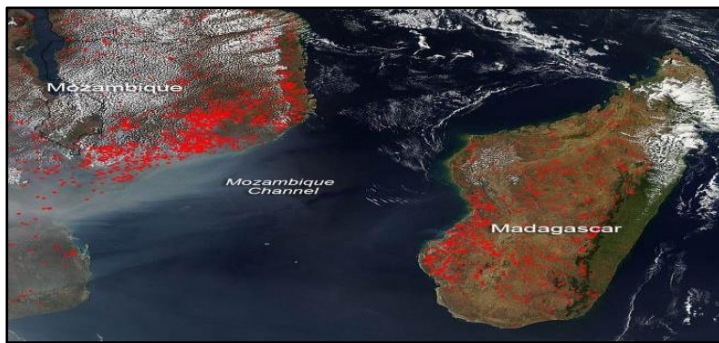
Rhinos and elephants matter to the environment because their presence is tied to and supports all other species in the ecosystem. Elephants also help create fire-exit routes in forests, they dig water wells for other animals, and help disperse seeds -- thereby maintaining the diversity of forests.⁶⁶

Burning

Throughout the region farmers deliberately set fires to clear the land for crops and pasture.⁶⁷ However, this practice of slash and burn pollutes the air. In Mozambique and Madagascar, the clearing starts prior to the rainy season (October to November).⁶⁸



Elephants live in Southern Africa's Okavango Delta, one of the world's largest freshwater wetlands (Source: USAID)



Fires set out by farmers to clear the land - outlined in red (Source: CIA World Factbook, Courtesy of NASA)

Historical Overview

Why History Matters to You as a Marine

History provides a knowledge of how people, institutions, and states in a region evolved into what they are today. It also provides insights into people's collective memory about their group and others. In other words, history not only shapes a region's current affairs, but also tells us something about the historical roots of the individual and group identities of its inhabitants.

History does not predict how groups, institutions, and states in a region may behave in the future. Instead, it provides insights into what is possible and probable.

Pre-Colonization

Archaeological evidence shows that the early hunter-gatherer way of life of the stone-age was replaced by pastoralism in this region about 2,000 years ago.⁶⁹ The San, a hunter-gatherer group, and the Khoikhoi, a pastoralist group, are the main indigenous inhabitants of Southern Africa.⁷⁰ Together, these groups are known as the Khoisan. The Khoisan share a common ancestry and have some cultural commonalities. In precolonial times, they lived in relatively large, semi-permanent villages, cultivating sorghum, millet and legumes, herding sheep, goats and some cattle; and conducted long distance trade.⁷¹

The Khoisan are found in South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, and Angola, and have a distinct identity. For example, their language has a distinctive click on every consonant. This unique feature has been incorporated into the languages of several Bantu groups, including Xhosa and Zulu. These languages are also known as click languages, since they heavily rely on mouth clicks or "a sharp popping or smacking sound between the tongue and the roof of the mouth."⁷²

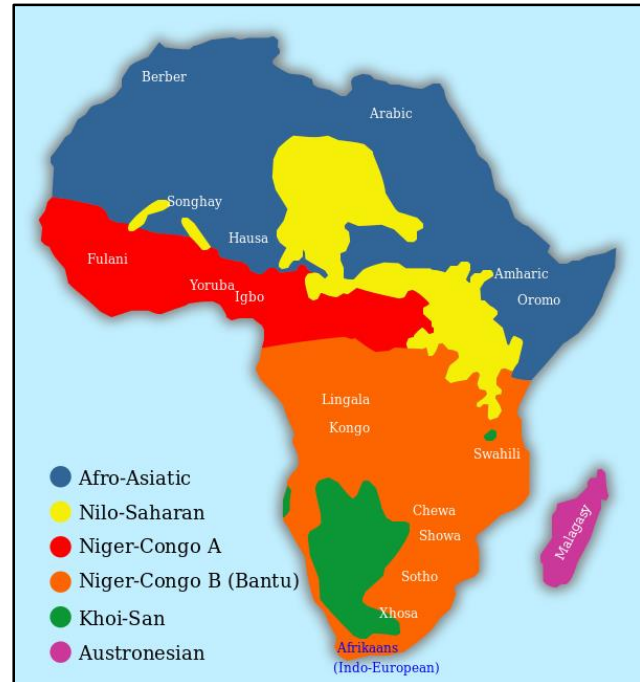
The Bantu was another ethno-linguistic group that constituted the early populations.⁷³ Hundreds of ethnic groups belong to the Bantu family. They all speak one of the Bantu languages⁷⁴, and share common traditions and beliefs. The Bantu descended from a common ancestor and -- through migration from central Africa to Eastern and Southern Africa -- their unique identifying features distinguish them from other people groups. There are over 500 Bantu languages and dialects encompassing East, Central, and Southern Africa. Tribe, clan, and family are important units in Bantu society.⁷⁵

The largest Bantu sub-groups in the Southern Africa region include:

- The Nguni, which include the Southern Nguni (Xhosa and Mpondo) and the Northern Nguni (Zulu, and Swazi).⁷⁶ The Ndebele are some of the largest Nguni-derived groups, and there are several subdivisions spread across South Africa, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, and Malawi.⁷⁷
- The Sotho-Tswana, a group that speaks languages that are mutually intelligible; these people settled in Botswana, Lesotho, and South Africa.⁷⁸

Other groups include the Venda (believed to be closely related to the Shona of Zimbabwe), as well as the Ovambo and Herero of Namibia.

All Bantu-speakers practiced agriculture and pastoralism, except the Herero (mostly located in Namibia), who were primarily herders,⁷⁹ The most notable Bantu societies in this region from the pre-colonial period include the Kingdom of Zimbabwe and the Kongo Kingdom.



African Language Families (Source: Wikipedia, Image by by Mark Dingemanse)

The Kingdom of Zimbabwe (1220–1450) - This was a kingdom located in the territory of modern-day Zimbabwe. It is famous for its capital, Great Zimbabwe - home to one of the largest stone structures in southern Africa. Zimbabwe is a Shona (Bantu) word for “stone houses.”⁸⁰ The kingdom owed its prosperity to gold, and was the center of a prosperous trading era, from the eleventh to the fifteenth century, with its total population estimated from 10,000 to 20,000 people.⁸¹

Kongo Kingdom - Former African kingdom which extended into present day Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo and the Republic of the Congo.⁸² It was founded in the late thirteenth century and collapsed in the earlier nineteenth century.⁸³ The kingdom was ruled by the *manikongo* (king of Kongo), who assimilated the inhabitants they conquered instead of trying to become their overlords.⁸⁴ The people of the region gradually formed a nation and were ruled by kings that exerted power with both religious and political authority.⁸⁵ There was a system in place to rotate the kings, but it often resulted in the formation of factions, disputes, and even all-out war, some of which lasted dozens of years, destroyed the land and resulted in the enslavement of Kongo’s people.⁸⁶

Arrival of Europeans

The maritime history of the Indian Ocean is both long and varied: explorers, traders, and adventurers from Ceylon (Sri Lanka), China, India, Indonesia, and Persia (Iran) travelled to islands on the Indian Ocean, and along the Southern African coast.⁸⁷ Subsequently, Asians migrated into the western Indian Ocean islands, establishing Malayo-Indonesians communities in Madagascar by the eleventh century.⁸⁸

Portuguese explorers first encountered the Kongo Empire in the 1463 near the mouth of the Congo River in Central Africa, and then ventured southward to the Southern Africa region.⁸⁹ The Portuguese developed settlements along the Southern Africa coastline as ports-of-call for ships trading with India. By 1587, Portugal controlled the port cities of Luanda and Benguela on the coast of Angola.⁹⁰ By the nineteenth century, the Portuguese were present in Cabinda, Ambriz in Angola and Quelimane, and Lourenço Marques on the Mozambican coast.⁹¹

In 1652, the Dutch East India Company (known as by its Dutch acronym VOC) established a permanent station at the tip of this region -- the Cape of Good Hope.⁹² Prior to this, it had been used as a re-provisioning post for ships sailing to India.⁹³ The islands of Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, and Seychelles later became important stations for international shipping ports. They were of strategic importance in the transportation goods and spices from India and Asia to Europe and North America. After the Suez Canal opened in 1869, the islands were relegated into remote colonial outposts.⁹⁴

The original settlers at the Cape of Good Hope were mostly Dutch and German, but Dutch was the common language spoken. French and Belgian Huguenots (Calvinist Protestants) refugees escaping religious persecution also settled in the Cape Colony. The settlers (Dutch and German) adopted the name "Afrikaner" in order to differentiate themselves from the VOC expatriate employees.⁹⁵ Subsequently, the name came to apply to all white South Africans who were Afrikaans native speakers.

Afrikaans - A new language that evolved from the mixture of Dutch and African languages spoken by slaves and the local population in South Africa. Later, in the twentieth century, the Afrikaans language became a symbol of oppression during the apartheid era in the Republic of South Africa (RSA).⁹⁶

In the late 1600s, settlers searching for new farmland, migrated into the hinterland occupied by Khoisan and Bantu groups; for the most part, the settlers and indigenous people traded peacefully with one another.⁹⁷ From 1779 to 1793, a series of frontier wars and conflicts erupted between the Boers and the Xhosa people.⁹⁸ Cape Colony did not offer them any protection, so the Boer settlers fought to gain control of the land.

Boers - "Boer" literally means "farmer" in Dutch (Afrikaans). Today, descendants of the Boers are referred to as Afrikaners.⁹⁹ Since early times, the Boers were hostile to the indigenous black populations, and were responsible for implementing racial segregation in the RSA.¹⁰⁰

Control of Cape Colony by the Boers lasted until the British takeover in 1795.¹⁰¹ The British seized the colony to defend their strategic ports and sea route to their Empire in India from Napoleon.¹⁰² They also sent troops to the Eastern Cape to restore order on the frontier and prevent Boer insurrection.¹⁰³ The 1867 discovery of diamonds in Kimberley, followed by the 1886 discovery of gold in the Orange Free State, worsened divisions between the Boers and the British, between black and white, and rich and poor.¹⁰⁴

From 1836 to the 1850s, about 6,000 Boers (also called "pioneers" or *Voortrekkers*) embarked on The Great Trek to flee British domination.¹⁰⁵ They established Boer republics located north of British-controlled areas: the Orange Free State between the Orange and the Vaal rivers and the South African Republic - north of the Vaal River in the area later named the Transvaal.¹⁰⁶ By the late 1860s, there were approximately 50,000 whites settled in the two republics where, unlike the British colonies, the

law did not recognize racial equality, so Africans could not vote, own land, or carry guns.¹⁰⁷ This was the beginning of segregation and discrimination in South Africa.

African tribes across the region mobilized to resist European colonial conquest and Boer expansion:

- By the 1880s, the majority of the indigenous people in the region had battled and been conquered by the Boers, with the exception of the Sotho.
- The British wanted to create a South Africa Federation, and to use the Zulu population to work in the mines while the Boers held land claims against the Zulu Kingdom. In 1879, the Zulu engaged both Boer and British forces in what became known as the Anglo-Zulu War. Notable encounters include the Battle of Isandlwana in 1879, where the British suffered major losses;
- The *Menalamba* Revolt (1895-1897) in imperial Madagascar was an anti-foreign, anti-Christian guerrilla war that occurred in response to French occupation. The Menalamba rebels wore red, the color of monarchy.
- The Ndebele and Shona of present-day Zimbabwe staged an uprising against the British in 1896-1897, locally referred to as “the first *Chimurenga*” (Shona for “revolutionary struggle”).
- Attempts to control Namibia led to a bloody war in 1904-1907 that pitted the Germans against the Nama and Herero.¹ Even though the Germans were outnumbered (1,500 Germans men and 40,000 Herero), the Germans had machine guns and massacred the Herero. The conflict resulted in the killing of 75 percent of the Herero population and 50 percent of Nama.

Slave Trade

In the eighteenth century, the Portuguese colonizers conducted slave trade primarily in Angola and Mozambique. Slaves were provided by local chiefs as payment in exchange for commodities such as cloth and wine.¹⁰⁸ The slave traders would take several hundred malnourished captives in chain gangs to the coast to ship them for sale in the New World.¹⁰⁹ The captives were mass-baptized by Catholic priests before they boarded the often deadly, overcrowded, and unsanitary slave ships for the Atlantic crossing that could last up to two months.¹¹⁰

African slavery predates the European sanctioned slave trade. Rulers in traditional society kept prisoners captured from adversaries as slaves.

The slave trade began in the late sixteenth century and officially lasted until 1836, when Portugal abolished slave trafficking.¹¹¹ Angola may have been the source of as many as two million slaves for the New World,¹¹² and may have lost as many as four million total people to the slave trade. (The estimates are based on the number of slaves that arrived in the New World, plus the estimate of those who died in the Atlantic crossing or during the initial transport from their villages in interior to the coast).¹¹³

Arrival of Missionaries

In pre-colonial Southern Africa, the arrival of missionaries marked the entry point of colonial government structures, language, and trade among other things. Missionaries were present in this region in the late 1800s.

David Livingstone, a missionary sent by the London Missionary Society, arrived in South Africa in 1841.¹¹⁴ Like other missionaries who arrived in Africa during the same period, Livingstone endured great hardship due to the environment, which included dense forests, menacing wildlife, and diseases such as malaria.

Language was another obstacle to missionaries, but when they learned local dialects, they established schools in the villages. This marked the beginning of formal education in this region. As the number of new converts increased, the local missions began to send them out as lay leaders to work as teachers and to proselytize to communities in the interior.

The activities of missionaries facilitated the migration of communities from the interior to other parts of the region (including places as far north as Sudan). Traditional rulers began to learn English and tribal chiefs began to use interpreters to interact with missionaries and traders, thereby expanding their influence over the territory. Missionaries also hastened the opening up of the region; this empowered smaller, traditional authorities, and reduced the size and influence of larger ones.

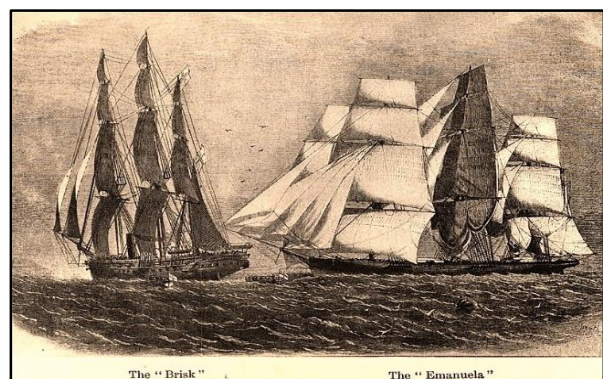
David Livingstone recognized the immorality of slavery and was convinced that the only way to stop it was to open up Africa's interior to European traders. Livingstone also knew that more formal trade routes would expand the spread of Christianity. With his effort to make Africa's interior more accessible to European traders directly, he thus became the first missionary-explorer in Africa.¹¹⁵

In 1857, the chief of Sesheke, a village the Zambezi River, gave Livingstone 21 men to accompany him on his journey to the interior. Livingstone travelled towards the Atlantic coast and discovered Victoria Falls on the Zambezi River, and encountered British ships on the coast of the coast of Angola.¹¹⁶ Slaves from the interior were also traded further south as the Dutch had established a trading post at the Cape of Good Hope. The Dutch also had a forced labor policy that required many indigenous Africans to work for no pay or for meager wages.¹¹⁷

It is important to note that segregation in South Africa began prior to missionaries arriving. The Boers who spoke Afrikaans already dominated and discriminated against indigenous Africans in trade and commerce by the late 1800s when slave trade was coming to an end.

The work of Livingstone and others began to bear fruit: publicity about the cruelty of the slave trade caused many Europeans to reconsider the practice. By 1884, the British government banned the slave trade altogether. In spite of slave trade agreements signed in the mid-nineteenth century by Portugal and Britain, clandestine slave trading continued into the twentieth century, especially from central and northern Mozambique.¹¹⁸

With the decline of slave trade came the demand for other goods. The Industrial Revolution in the West also forced European countries to look at Africa's wealth and trade potential.



HMS Brisk a British Ship captures a slave ship Emanuela in 1854 (Source: Wikipedia)

Colonization

The Berlin Conference

By the 1880s, the colonizers had carved up most of the coast of Africa, while the Africans still had control of the interior. The discovery of diamonds and gold in Southern Africa promoted a race for the partition of Africa among the European powers that were already present in the region, and to conquer the interior in order to establish their domain of those areas. In Southern Africa, this dispute was mainly between the British, the Portuguese, the South African Republic of the Transvaal, and the Germans.¹¹⁹

This competition among the European powers to occupy Africa to meet the demands of the Industrial Age is commonly referred to as the “Scramble for Africa.” The “Scramble for Africa” paved the way for dialogue on various issues arising out of the exploration of Africa.

The Berlin Act of 1885

The participating powers resolved to protect the freedom of religion in all colonial territories, to suppress slavery, and to preserve native tribes and “provide for their material well-being.”

To facilitate an organized and conflict-free exploration of Africa, German Chancellor Otto Von Bismarck convened a conference in Berlin in 1884. The two-year discussion, known as the Berlin Conference, was attended by the European powers: France, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy. The Berlin Conference resolved to end the slave trade. Berlin conferees also agreed to partition Africa on behalf of the countries they represented, drawing boundaries on a map and designating each new territory a colony.¹²⁰

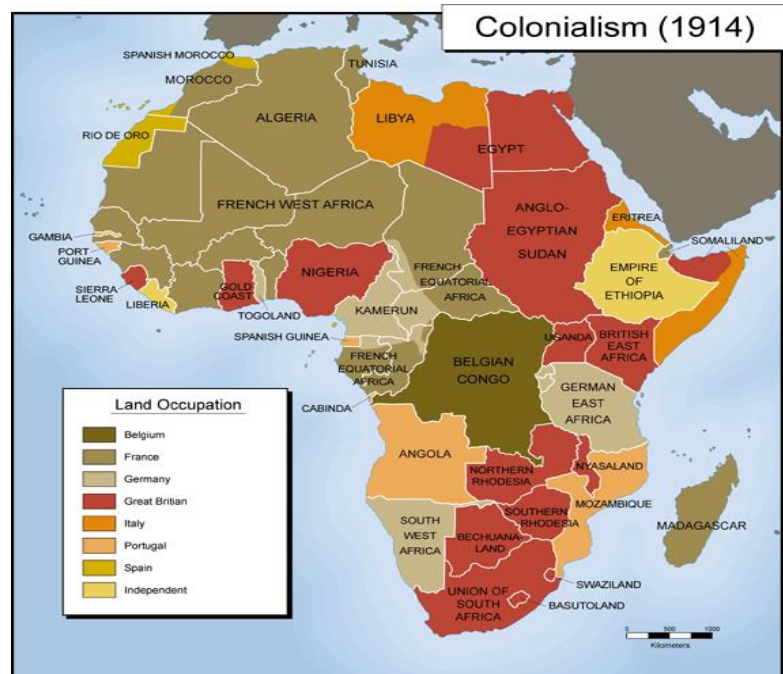
Following the Berlin Conference, these powers colonized the following countries:

Portugal: Angola and Mozambique

France: Islands of Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, Reunion, Seychelles. (Possession of the Seychelles alternated between France and Britain; France finally ceded the Seychelles to Britain)

Great Britain: Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Swaziland, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

Germany: Namibia. (Under Germany's terms of surrender at the end of World War I, the country became part of South Africa in 1920.)



The Colonies of Africa (Source: Michigan State University)

Colonial Governance Structures

The newly-formed states began to develop separately from each other in terms of governance. Generally, the colonial governance structures in Africa were based on two systems -- direct rule and indirect rule.

The British, who colonized Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Swaziland, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, administered these countries through so-called “indirect rule.” In indirect rule, the colonial government took the role of advisor, and sometimes supervisor, of local indigenous authorities, such as the chieftaincy. Although the British government left indigenous forms of governance intact -- including the method of appointing the local chief -- they interfered in the affairs of the local communities where and when it suited them. Additionally, although the local authority collected taxes from their subjects, a percentage of this money was remitted to the British government.

France, which colonized Islands of Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, Reunion and Seychelles applied “direct rule,” also known as “assimilation.” This meant that the colonial government ruled through traditional African authorities who acted on their behalf. This allowed the colonial government to create a society similar to that in France, including its language and culture.¹²¹

Germany applied an “indirect rule” approach in Namibia. This meant that the colonial government took the role of advisor, and sometimes supervisor, of local indigenous authorities, such as the chieftaincy. Local governance structures and method of appointing chiefs and the council of elders were left intact.

Post-Berlin Wars

The South African War

After the Berlin Conference, Britain fought the Afrikaners in the South African War (1899-1902) in order to secure their domain on South Africa, while the Afrikaners (Boers who are descendants of the Dutch) fought for their autonomy.¹²² By 1900, the British forces had overwhelmed the Boers. However, a guerrilla resistance war continued in the countryside. The British succeeded in breaking this resistance only after adopting a scorched-earth policy, torching more than 30,000 farms.¹²³ Afrikaner women and children were held in concentration camps where more than 25,000 died due to overcrowding and unsanitary conditions.¹²⁴ Britain defeated the Boers, annexed the Boer states, and consolidated the country into the Union of South Africa in 1910.¹²⁵

South African War (1899-1902) - 90,000 Afrikaners fought the 500,000 British Army men, which included British, Canadian, Australian, and New Zealanders. It also included some 30,000 African soldiers hired by the British; and thousands more Africans worked as transport workers.¹²⁶

The Mfecane

For the indigenous peoples of Southern Africa, the first half of the nineteenth century was a period of widespread chaos and severe droughts that caused starvation that killed thousands. Fighting for control over meager resources broke out, and Nguni and Zulu tribes fought numerous wars, causing

major population shifts and migration. This period in Southern Africa history became known as the *mfecane*, the Zulu word for “the Crushing” (or *difaqane*, in Sotho).¹²⁷

The result of the *mfecane* was the formation of several African states in the region, including the Zulu State, considered the most powerful, due to their skilled leader, Shaka (1787–1828), and his revolutionary military tactics.¹²⁸ Other states that emerged during this period were formed by the Ngwane people, at the north of the Zulu, which established the border of present-day Swaziland; the Sotho kingdom was another powerful state that later gave rise to Lesotho; and the Nbedele state in South Africa was established in the Highveld. These larger states incorporated the smaller surrounding states, accepted refugees fleeing hunger, warfare, escaping slave traders; and integrated them into their main ethnic groups.¹²⁹

Post-Colonization

Independence

After World War II the European colonizers were subjected to increasing international pressure to grant independence to their colonies.¹³⁰ British territories experienced the most peaceful transition to independence; by 1968, these British-held areas emerged as new countries: Lesotho, Botswana, and Swaziland, and Northern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland (which later became Zambia and Malawi).¹³¹

The most violent wars for independence took place in the Portuguese colonies of Angola and Mozambique, as well as Southern Rhodesia (which became independent Zimbabwe in 1980).¹³² The reason for such violence in the Portuguese colonies was Portugal’s defiance of the 1960 United Nations declaration that denounced colonialism and called for the European powers to relinquish controls of the colonies.¹³³ Armed resistance to Portuguese rule broke out in 1961 in Angola, where three liberation movements fought the Portuguese, and clashed for leadership among themselves, leading the country into a civil war that lasted until 1974.¹³⁴ By 1964, armed resistance spread to Mozambique (and Guinea); Portugal had to fight three simultaneous guerrilla wars, and both Angola and Mozambique ended up as Marxist-Leninist governments associated with the former Soviet Union.¹³⁵

South Africa was the first country to declare independence in 1934, and, in 1994, was the last to become fully independent. South Africans celebrate the Battle of Majuba Hill (February 27, 1881), where they defeated the British army in the Transvaal, in their First War of Independence.¹³⁶ Afrikaners refer to the South African War, also called Anglo-Boer War (1899-1902), as their Second War of Independence.¹³⁷

Madagascar gained independence from France through a public referendum in 1960.¹³⁸ However, the two governments signed several agreements and conventions that maintained and strengthened Franco-Malagasy ties.¹³⁹ This period of continued ties with France became known as the First Republic (1960-1972), and ultimately created the basis for increasing opposition to the government, which

Suggested Videos:

For more on the legendary Zulu Chief Shaka, and his iconic relevance to the Zulu people, see “Shaka Zulu.” (SABC, 1986)

Episode 1:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZLeH6sJhVZs>

Episode 2 to 10:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qkn3Kl4ixvo&list=PLqI8qt0BC58pl97kQCGBy3JmOwiX_a_V1

eventually led to a break with France.¹⁴⁰ The break came in the form of a coup and the instauration of a socialist government, a period known as the Second Republic (1975-1992), replaced by democracy, also known as the Third Republic.¹⁴¹

In 1919, after Germany's defeat in World War I, Namibia (known as the time as South-West Africa) came under South Africa's control.¹⁴² The United Nations refused to allow South Africa to officially annex the territory in 1946, and when South Africa imposed the apartheid regime in the territory in 1964, the UN voted to revoke South Africa's claim of the territory.¹⁴³ The UN proceeded to create the United Nations Transitional Assistance Group (UNTAG) in Namibia; elections were held in 1989, and in 1990 Namibia acquired independence.¹⁴⁴



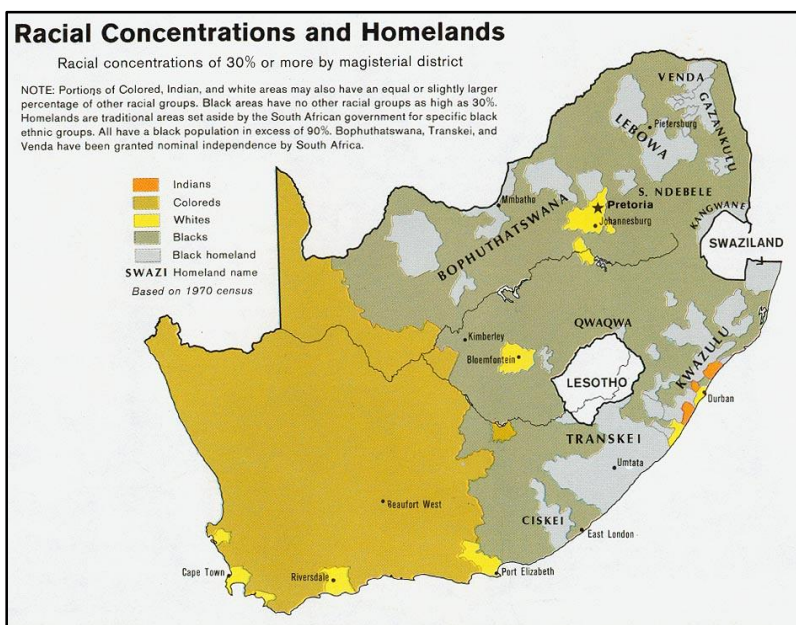
Woman voting in the 1989 election in Namibia, as the UN trust territory moved towards independence from South African rule the following year (Source: Photograph: UN Photo / Milton Grant)

Apartheid

The development of racially discriminatory practices in Southern Africa has occurred since the beginning of colonization. It was still present at the inception of South Africa's statehood, when black Africans were specifically excluded from having political rights in a reorganized South Africa, while the British and Boers shared a common goal of white minority rule.¹⁴⁵ Segregation was driven by the actions of the white minority to maintain and reinforce a racial and social class hierarchy, giving the whites economic advantage and higher social status.¹⁴⁶ Discriminatory practices evolved into segregation policies and finally apartheid.

The term "apartheid" (from the Afrikaans word for "apartness") was coined during the 1948 general elections.¹⁴⁷ Apartheid was legislated and used to reorganize South African society after the Afrikaner Nationalists came into power in 1948.

The implementation of the apartheid policy was enabled by the Population Registration Act of 1950, which established a racial hierarchy: White, Colored (of mixed race), or Bantu (Black African).¹⁴⁸ A fourth category, Asian (Indian and Pakistani), was added later. South Africa created ten African "homelands" that



South Africa Racial Divisions (1979) (Source: Perry-Castañeda Library Map Collection, University of Texas)

were administered by “tribal” organizations. Black South Africans were divided among these homelands, and excluded from acquiring South Africa’s citizenship.

The system of apartheid was enforced by a series of laws that “aimed at separating whites and blacks, and instituting as a legal principle the theory that whites should be treated more favorably than blacks and that separate facilities need not be equal, and at providing the state with the powers deemed necessary to deal with any opposition.”¹⁴⁹

- Restricted non-white residence to specific areas
- Severely limited the right of Black Africans to own land
- Prohibited most social contact between the races
- Enforced the segregation of public facilities
- Entrenched the disparity in educational standards
- Created race-specific job categories
- Restricted the powers of non-white unions
- Curbed non-white voting and participation in government



Public Notice posted on buses and other public amenities (Source: Wikipedia)

The apartheid policies that were implemented in South Africa were extended to Namibia until its independence in 1990. Similar policies of minority white rule were introduced in the Federation of Rhodesia: Northern Rhodesia (Zambia), Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), and Nyasaland (Malawi) became a minority white-ruled federation between 1953 and 1963. Zimbabwe remained a minority white-ruled country after the breakup of the Federation until its independence in 1980.



Frederik de Klerk and Nelson Mandela shake hands at the World Economic Forum held in Davos in 1992 (Source: Wikipedia)

The policies of apartheid were heavily contested through a lengthy and violent liberation struggle that was fought locally and with a great deal of international support. South African Nelson Mandela won the first democratic election in 1994.

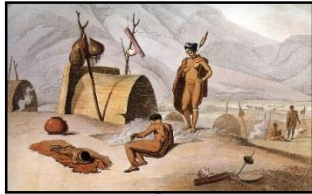
Mandela and Frederik Willem de Klerk were jointly awarded the 1993 Nobel Peace Prize “for their work for the peaceful termination of the apartheid regime, and for laying the foundations for a new democratic South Africa.”¹⁵⁰ The effects of colonialism, the apartheid, and the nation-states creation process, all continue to have a profound effect in the Southern Africa region to this day. The apartheid government of South Africa not only caused much suffering for its people but it also worked as a destabilizing force in the region.

Suggested Videos:

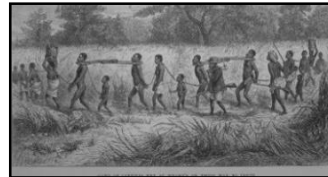
To learn more about Nelson Mandela watch “Nelson Mandela, Champion of Freedom.” Available at: <http://www.history.com/topics/nelson-mandela/videos/nelson-mandela-champion-of-freedom>

Historical Timeline: Southern Africa

Khoisan-Traditional Societies



Slave Trade



Race for Partition of Africa



Political Map of Southern Africa



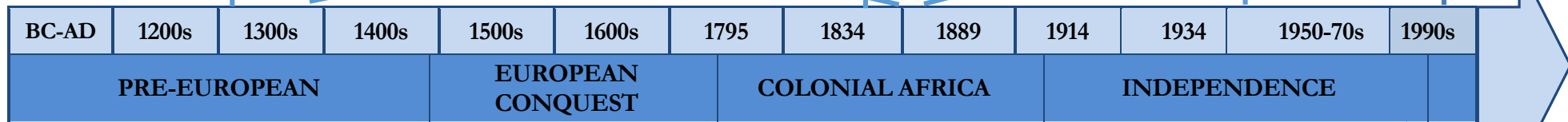
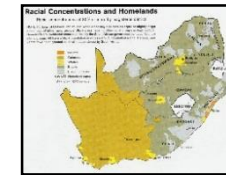
Kingdom of Zimbabwe



Missionaries



Racial Divisions



Pastoralism replaced the hunter-gatherer way of life in the sub-continent some 2,000 years ago. Khoisan and Bantu composed the early populations. Notable Bantu societies: Kingdom of Zimbabwe and Kongo Empire

The Portuguese arrived in the region in 1463 (Angola and Mozambique); the Dutch established a permanent station on the Cape of Good Hope in 1652; French (Comoros and Madagascar), Belgians, Germans (Namibia). The British took over Cape Cod (1795)

Both discoveries – diamonds in Kimberly (1867) and gold in Witwatersrand (1886) – accelerated unifying of South Africa. Britain fought the Afrikaners in the South Africa War (1899-1902)

Race for the Partition of Africa (1881-1914). Arbitrary divisions, new boundaries split tribes in half, other territories were too big to control. Battles against conquest: Isandlwana (1879); Menalamba uprising (1895); Ndebele and Shona uprising (1896-7)

Independence: South Africa (1934 and 1990); Madagascar (1960); most other countries in the region got independence between 1964 and 1976, except Zimbabwe 1980.

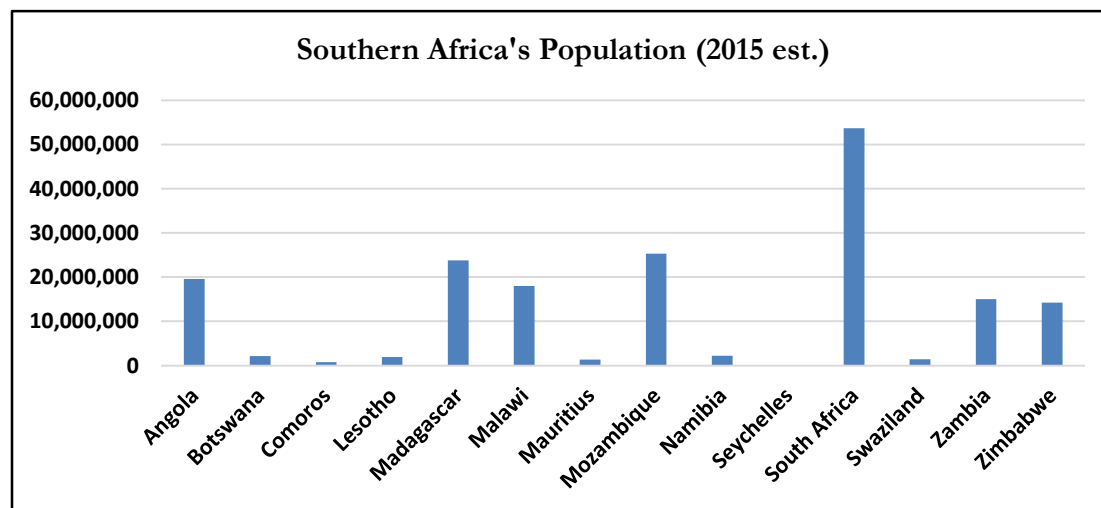
People and Society

Why People and Society Matter to You as a Marine

Missions across the range of military operations require Marines to understand, and work with, foreign populations. Knowing the people in the region, including their ethnicities, languages, and religions, as well as the way they live in social entities, enables Marines to create a mental picture of the human dimension of the region.

Demographics

The Southern Africa region has a population of approximately 179,668,782 people.¹⁵¹ South Africa has the largest population, which stands at over 53.7 million. Swaziland is the least-populated nation on the mainland, with a population of about 1.4 million. Madagascar is the highest-populated island, while Seychelles is the least-populated, with only 92,430 people.



Source: World Bank

Population growth in the region averages 1.71 percent, which falls below the 2.3 percent average for the rest of the African continent.¹⁵² The population growth rate compares the average annual percent change in populations, resulting from a surplus (or deficit) of births over deaths and the balance of migrants entering and leaving a country. The rate may be positive or negative.¹⁵³

Zambia and Madagascar have the highest population growth in the region, with 2.88 percent and 2.58 percent respectively.¹⁵⁴ Lesotho has the lowest population growth rate in the region, with only 0.32 percent.¹⁵⁵

Most of the population in this region lives in rural areas while the majority of the world's population already live in urban areas.¹⁵⁶ South Africa's population is 65 percent urban, followed by Botswana (57 percent), while Malawi has the least urban population, at only 16 percent, followed closely by Swaziland at 21 percent. In South Africa, urban congestion is evident and amenities such as housing, electricity and water are not widely available.

Population growth trends in Southern Africa are affected by two main difficulties.¹⁵⁷ First, countries hardest hit by HIV/AIDS. Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is a disease of the human immune system caused by infection with Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) for which there is currently no cure. As a result of HIV/AIDS infections, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and South Africa have experienced extremely high mortality rates and a rapid decline in population growth. Second, post-conflict countries such as Angola and Mozambique experienced high population movements during war (1980s and 1990s).

The United Nations estimates that youth (people aged 15 to 24) constitute slightly more than 20 percent of Africa's population. Southern Africa is a youthful region, and there is a distinct youth bulge within the population. The youth account for 37 percent of the total population of South Africa.¹⁵⁸ Zimbabwe, Swaziland, and Lesotho have large populations of youth as they constitute between 23 and 24 percent of the population.¹⁵⁹ Angola, Mozambique, and Zambia have relatively smaller populations of youth.

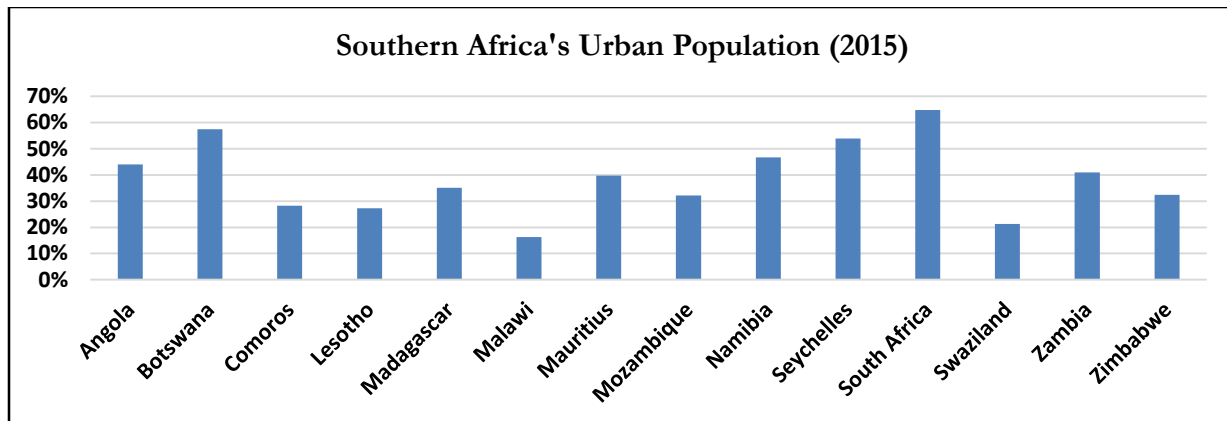
Youth bulge is an increased population of youth in comparison to other ages in a population structure.

The major concern for the youth in Southern Africa is unemployment. With 51 percent of young women and 43 percent of young men unemployed, the region has the highest rates of youth unemployment on the continent.¹⁶⁰

Namibia leads in youth unemployment with 55 percent of males and 64 percent of females, followed by South Africa, at 45 percent unemployed male youth and 53 percent for female youth.¹⁶¹ Many young people are a part of the informal economy and thousands remain unproductive and vulnerable to crime. However, in urban areas many innovative low-capital initiatives are evident. For example, the telecommunications boom has created a subsidiary economy for the youth, such as cell phone charging and repair services, Web design, and the operation of cyber cafés.



The youth bubble is a threat to stability in Africa (Source: IRIN)

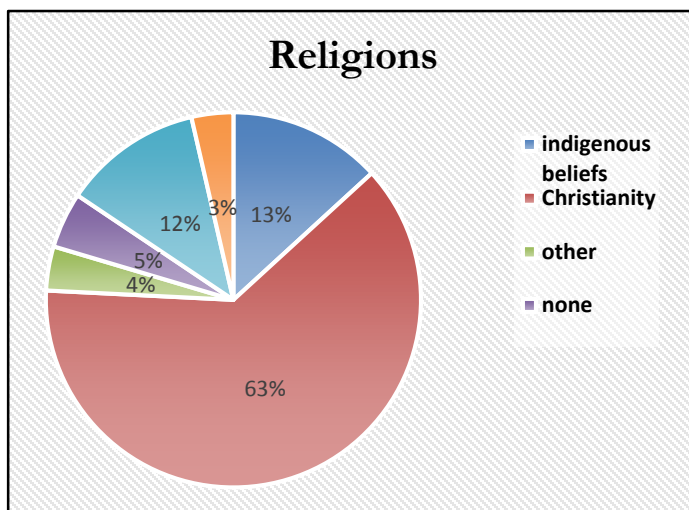


Source: CIA, Word Factbook, 2016

Religion

Religion plays a significant role in all aspects of life in Southern Africa. It shapes cultural values and identity. The major religions practiced by Southern Africans are Christianity, Animism (indigenous beliefs or traditional beliefs), and Islam.

Christianity is represented by 63 percent of the population. Most countries have a majority Christian population. Zambia and Zimbabwe's population is 90 percent Christian, followed closely by Seychelles and Malawi, with a more than 80 percent.



Source: CIA, Word Factbook (2016)

Islam constitutes 12 percent of the region's population. Comoros stands out with 98 percent Sunni Muslims. Mauritius has the highest number of Hindu followers, at 48.5 percent.¹⁶²

Christianity

Portuguese and British missionaries and Dutch settlers are responsible for the spread of Christianity in this region. The Christian presence in Southern Africa dates to the late 1400s, with the appearance of Portuguese explorers who arrived in Central Africa and made their way south. Later, beginning in 1841, David Livingstone, a Christian missionary, travel throughout the region with converted laymen who helped him with language interpretation as he explored the interior.¹⁶³ Most Southern African Christians belong to two denominations: Roman Catholicism and Protestantism.



Dutch Reformed Church in South Africa (Source: Wikipedia)

The arrival of the first wave of missionaries was followed by the establishment of many other missions in Southern Africa run by other Christian denominations.¹⁶⁴ Many Southern African Christians practice syncretistic forms of Christianity. This includes elements of animist or “traditional” worship styles and rituals. These elements continue to influence followers of mainstream Protestant denominations and the Roman Catholic Church today.

During the colonial period, the British and Germans sponsored Protestant missions in their Southern African colonies. The need for protection from both Zulu raiding parties and Afrikaner settlers led many Africans to settle in Christian mission villages where missionaries offered a measure of safety and security. Many converted to Christianity, and continued to maintain their belief in traditional ethnic religions. Christian missionaries stressed literacy and established schools within their missions. Consequently, Christian converts had access to western education from the outset of missionary activity in the region.

Superstitious beliefs permeate organized religion. While Catholicism is widely practiced, individual actions are dictated by a set of beliefs from both Catholicism and traditional beliefs. It is common to see an individual wearing a rosary on his neck as well as a traditional charm band on a part of his body. The evangelical movement is also growing in terms of the number of conversions – there are numerous mega churches in this region and televangelism has the widest viewership in this region. Communities rely on their religious experiences to guide their daily lives, from family decision-making to influencing decisions at a community level.

Islam

Southern Africa has the smallest Muslim population in Africa. Muslim Arab explorers and traders introduced Islam to Southern Africa.¹⁶⁵ They found many converts among the African communities they interacted with along the Indian Ocean coastline and on the islands. Islam is the predominant religion in Comoros, and the second-largest religion in Malawi, after Christianity. There are also large populations of Muslims in Mauritius, Mozambique, and Madagascar. The communities of South African Muslims are the descendants of migrants from Southeast Asia and India.

Muslims adhere to the teachings of the Prophet Mohammad and practice it within the 5 pillars of Islam:

1. Profession of one’s faith (*shahada*)
2. Prayer (*salat*) five times a day.
3. Giving alms (*zakat*) [*Zakat* requires giving 2.5 percent of a person’s money each year, and a varying percentage for other assets held for the entire year.]
4. A pilgrimage to Mecca (*Hajj*)
5. Fasting during **Ramadan** (*sawm*)

However, radical Islam, Salafism, and Wahhabism are uncommon in Southern Africa; religion has generally not been a source of widespread conflict.¹⁶⁶

Wahhabism and Salafism both call for a return to an earlier, more “pure” form of Islam, stripped of later interpretations and additions, including syncretism and Sufist mysticism. Most people label Wahhabis and Salafists as “conservative” or “ultra-conservative,” since these movements reject adapting Islam to modern values.

Animism

Animism is the second-largest religion practiced in Southern Africa. Animists believe that the universe contains three worlds: the past, present, and future. These are parallel worlds that cross each other. Animists or “traditional believers” tend to seek harmony between these worlds. There are no animist holy texts, nor official places of worship. Instead, the rituals are considered part of their ethnic identity. Each ethnic group has its own creation story, creator-god, spirits, and rituals. Beliefs in witchcraft, sorcery, and magic are evident in this region.

Though specific rituals and beliefs vary across tribes, most rural communities incorporate traditional rituals into their daily lives. Animism is a communitarian concept meaning that when the community suffers or benefits from the consequences of one person’s actions. The ancestors are also believed to be participants in the present world and can also pass on good or evil to the community. Elements of the rituals practiced have influenced Islam and Christianity in this region.

TACTICAL TIP: Traditional beliefs and superstitions are part and parcel of religious practice in Southern Africa. Charms are used to keep evil spirits away and rituals are undertaken to dedicate or pay homage to ancestors. At the same time, it is common for people to share their faith in the workplace. It is not uncommon to be invited to a Bible study group hosted by your colleagues in the host military.

“Because traditional religions permeate all the departments of life, there is no formal distinction between the sacred and the secular, between religious and non-religious, between the spiritual and the material areas of life...Where the individual is, there is his religion, for he is a religious being. It is this that makes Africans so religious: religion is in their whole system of being...What people do is motivated by what they believe, and what they believe springs from what they do and experience. So then, belief and action in African traditional society cannot be separated: they belong to a single whole.”¹⁶⁷

Hinduism

Hinduism, the world’s third largest religion after Christianity and Islam, is the largest religion in Mauritius. South Africa also has a significant Hindu population. Hinduism was introduced in both countries in the 1800s, when British colonialists transported Indians to work as indentured laborers on sugar plantations.¹⁶⁸ Many laborers established permanent settlements, and established businesses after their contracts of servitude expired.

Languages

The dominant official languages in this region are rooted in its colonial history. They are used in business, government, and the public education system. In this region, English is prevalent followed by Portuguese and French.

Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Seychelles, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe are Anglophone (English-speaking) owing to the colonial history.¹⁶⁹ However, although English is the official language of Namibia, Afrikaans and German are more widely spoken, reflecting its history as a former German colony and an administrative district of South Africa. Creole, a hybrid of French

and local dialects, is the primary spoken language in Mauritius and Seychelles. French is also widely spoken in Mauritius.

Angola and Mozambique, are Lusophone nations (Portuguese-speaking); Portuguese is the official language (normally spoken by only 10 percent of the population) and Bantu is widely spoken in Angola, and there are many Mozambican languages such as Emakhuwa spoken by 25.3 percent and Xichangan 10.3 percent, among others.¹⁷⁰

Comoros and Madagascar are Francophone (French-speaking), and French is the official language. Arabic is also an official language in Comoros, but Shikomoro (a blend of Swahili and Arabic), which is also official, is more widely spoken.¹⁷¹ Malagasy is the other official language in Madagascar.

The constitution of the South Africa recognizes 11 official languages most of which are similar and are considered either Bantu or Khoisan.¹⁷² The choice to have 11 official languages is a reflection of the diversity of the post-apartheid “rainbow nation” and the ties that bind the diverse ethnic groups across the region. These 11 languages are IsiZulu 22.7 percent, IsiXhosa 16 percent, Afrikaans 13.5 percent, English 9.6 percent, Sepedi 9.1 percent, Setswana 8 percent, Sesotho 7.6 percent, Xitsonga 4.5 percent, siSwati 2.5 percent, Tshivenda 2.4 percent, isiNdebele 2.1 percent.¹⁷³ The most commonly spoken language in official and commercial settings is English, but it ranks fifth among languages spoken at home. The other languages are indigenous to the region and are widely spoken across Southern Africa.

Most Southern Africans are multilingual and speak more than one language. They are typically fluent in the language of their ethnic group (spoken at home) and the official language of their country. Many have a degree of fluency in other indigenous languages, particularly those of neighboring ethnic groups.

Language Groups in Africa (based on similarity of linguistic structure):

- **Afro-Asiatic:** Also known as the Hamito-Semitic language family. It includes Berber, Chadic, Cushitic, Ancient Egyptian, Omotic, and Semetic spoken in northern Africa.
- **Nilo-Saharan:** These are languages spoken in North Africa and the Sahel in Sudan, Libya, Egypt, and Algeria. They include Old Nubian and Arabic.
- **Niger-Congo A:** These are spoken in West Africa. Examples include Yoruba, Igbo, and Fula.
- **Niger-Congo B:** These are spoken by the Bantu group, which originated from Cameroon and spreads across East, Central, and Southern Africa. Examples are Shona and Zulu, but the most common is Swahili.
- **Khoisan:** These are spoken by the Khoi Khoi in Southern Africa and the San (Bushmen) of the Kalahari in Namibia. It is commonly identified by its “click” sound.
- **Austronesian:** These are spoken in the island nations of Mauritius and Madagascar. One example is Malagay.



Language Groups in Africa by Country (Source: Nations Online Project)

Family

The concept of family in Southern Africa is different from that of the West. The extended family is an important unit in the communitarian cultures in the Southern Africa region. Polygamy is widely practiced, which means that the face of the family is significantly different from the family structure in the West. Authority is structured around kinship and the head of the family is usually the eldest male member.¹⁷⁴ The tribe, clan and family are taken into consideration in decision making.

There are advantages to the large familial homestead. For instance in times of war, the larger homesteads can better protect themselves from their enemies. Larger homesteads have a much larger workforce to work on farms. Division of labor is distinct and women (and co-wives) are responsible for domestic chores, including basic food supply for the family.¹⁷⁵



Nuclear family is common in urban areas (Source: USAID)

In urban areas, monogamous unions and the nuclear family are most common although the extended family is consulted on important occasions such as births, marriage and death. Members of the extended family residing in urban areas are relied upon for financial assistance by members residing in the rural areas.

The modern family structure has been affected by and the high rate of migration in search for opportunity. The economy and the scourge of HIV/AIDS have also negatively impacted the family unit: the stigma associated with HIV/AIDS is blamed, in part, for fueling the epidemic in many African countries.¹⁷⁶ This however, has not diminished the value of the family unit in society because the family is the primary unit of production, consumption, reproduction, and wealth accumulation.

Income Distribution

As this region's economies develop, an emerging and fast-growing middle class has been identified as a key demographic factor that could drive growth and democracy. Most Southern African countries have a relatively low concentration of middle class citizens. According to definitions created by the African Development Bank's (AfDB), class/ daily income levels are at \$4 to \$10 for lower middle class and \$10 to \$20 for upper-middle class at \$10 to \$20.¹⁷⁷

Botswana has the highest number of middle class citizens (29.3 percent), followed South Africa (19.8 percent), while Malawi (4.5 percent), Madagascar (3.5 percent), and Mozambique (2.6 percent) have the smallest middle class.¹⁷⁸ In South Africa, there is still an income disparity between the black majority and white South Africans. On average, blacks earn a sixth of what whites earn – the 2011 Census revealed an average annual income of approximately \$6,900 for blacks compared to \$41,400 for whites.¹⁷⁹ This reality is a conflict driver in high density areas such as Johannesburg, where many migrant workers live.

Middle class – there are numerous difficulties in labeling Africa’s middle class a “real” middle class. AfDB considers middle class the group that earns \$2 to \$20 dollars a day, while 60 percent of that group only earn \$2 to \$4, which means they barely got out of dire poverty, which means this so-called middle class has actually very little disposable income.¹⁸⁰ These people in the floating category are in a vulnerable position, constantly at risk of dropping back into poverty in the event of any unexpected shocks, such as the loss of income and the death of the head of household.¹⁸¹ In socio-political terms, middle class is “that segment of the society which is economically secured, upholds the rule of law, invests and desires stability. Economic security implies that a household is cushioned against the catastrophic spell of downturns of the normal business cycle. The household is either secured through savings or by virtue of formal insurance. The household is equipped financially to see through a brief period of unemployment without having to sell its house or withdraw its children from school.”¹⁸² Citibank’s Africa economist David Cowan counters AfDB’s wide range “middle class” labeling for the income group of \$2 to \$20. He even avoids the term middle class altogether, and says: “there is an emerging wealthy elite in Africa and a strong consumer group, which is growing quite steadily,” with, ideally, \$5,000-\$7,000 of disposable annual income, which is \$14-\$19 a day. Africa’s economic boom is fueled by a diverse and expanding pool of consumers: traders, cattle-ranchers, tech developers, accountants, teachers, hairdressers, and taxi drivers.”¹⁸³

The middle class in Southern Africa are identified by the following characteristics:¹⁸⁴

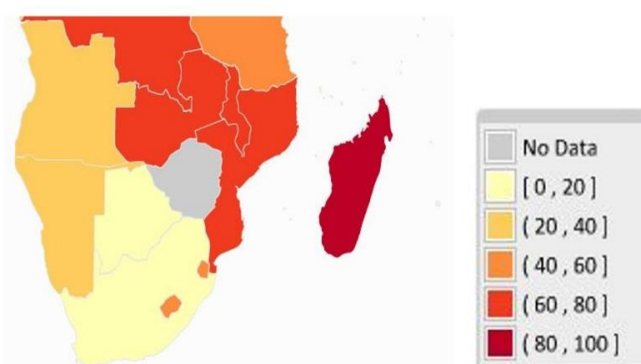
- Live in urban areas or along the coasts
- Are highly tech-savvy, and have a home equipped with modern amenities
- Earn a living through salaried job or run a small business
- Their income source is not likely to be from agricultural or rural activities
- Have fewer children than previous generations or their counterparts in rural areas
- Prefer private education and do not rely entirely on public health services
- Spend more on the nutrition and schooling of their children

The urban poor live in irregular settlements and are disproportionately affected by crime, especially due to the high unemployment.

Who exactly is in the middle class in South Africa? Those earning between US\$1,550 (US\$52/day) and \$4,800 per month (US\$160/day) or who meet certain criteria (for instance, having a white-collar job and owning a car).¹⁸⁵ This would include the 40 percent black professionals who work in the civil service, which has led to the rise of income levels in black families, which in turn has led to increased consumption.¹⁸⁶ For example, between 2004 and 2012, the number of black middle-class families who owned a DVD player increased from 30 percent to 63 percent; the number with computers at home increased from 19 percent to 45 percent; and of those owning microwaves from 60 percent to 92 percent.¹⁸⁷ Additionally, “South Africa’s middle class generally spends a whopping US\$40 billion annually. Its 4.2 million black middle-class citizens represent a chunk of this amount, with nearly half having a post-secondary degree and more than 50 percent of families sending their children to private schools. Available data, says Simpson, indicates an expansion of the black middle class, and he sees this demographic as the engine of the South African economy because of its strong purchasing power and contribution to the national coffers through taxes.”¹⁸⁸

The majority of the population of Southern Africa lives in poverty. Average per-capita income in Southern Africa is the highest in sub-Saharan Africa. However, approximately 45 percent of the Southern African population lives below the poverty line and on less than one U.S. dollar a day.¹⁸⁹ This disparity and income inequality may emerge as a cause for conflict. It is often cited as one of the causes for the high incidence of crime in the region.

Southern Africa's Poverty Headcount Ratio, At \$1.90 A Day



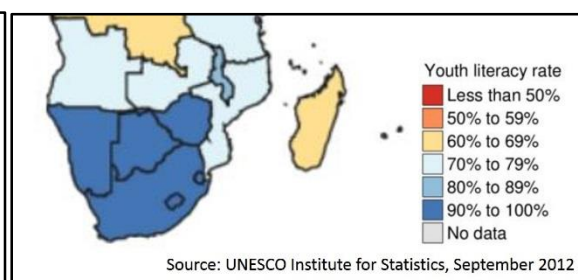
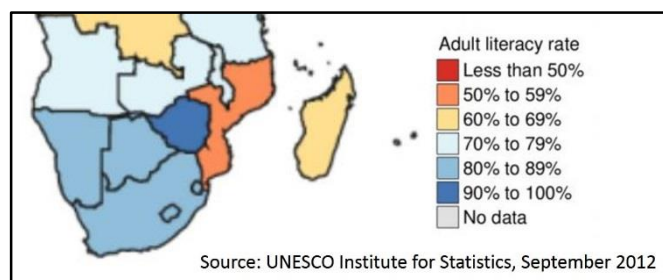
Source: World Bank Data (2014)

Education

This region has the highest literacy rates in sub-Saharan Africa. This is a reflection of high degree of education across the region. Adult literacy rates percentages in Southern Africa average at 79.6 percent, compared to the global average of 84.1 percent.¹⁹⁰ Seychelles and Lesotho have over 90 percent literacy rates, while Mauritius, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Botswana, and Zimbabwe are at par or above the global average. Angola, Madagascar, and Mozambique have the lowest literacy rates in the region. Madagascar is the only country in the region that was 20 percent below target of the United Nations Education for All (EFA) projections of halving adult illiteracy rates by 2015.¹⁹¹ In Mozambique, at least two thirds of the illiterate populations were women.¹⁹²

“A good education is the key to a better life and a stronger economy. A person’s earnings increase by 10 percent with each year of school they complete. Women with higher levels of education have healthier children. And increasing the average level of higher education in a country by just one year can add half a percentage point of growth to gross domestic product (GDP).”¹⁹³

Source: USAID / Education



Adult and youth literacy rates in Southern Africa (Source: UNESCO)

Students from Southern Africa are the most mobile in the world.¹⁹⁴ Approximately 6 percent of students from the region enrolled in higher education studied abroad in 2009, compared to 2 percent globally. Almost half (48 percent) of the students who studied in a foreign country went to South Africa. Consequently, South Africa is emerging as a regional hub for scholarship and research.

In this region, the quality of a person's education reflects their socioeconomic background. Wealthy parents send their children to private schools, while poor children -- especially those in the rural areas -- attend sometimes underfunded and understaffed public schools with poorly trained teachers. In rural Malawi and Zambia for example, there are challenges to student enrollment, including a lack of schools and teaching materials, a shortage of qualified teachers, large class sizes, and poor living and working conditions for teachers. Other factors that interfere with education and early learning include natural disasters such as flooding and HIV/AIDS. USAID is working with governments in this region to improve the learning environment and increase access to schools in the rural areas.

Healthcare

Governments across Southern Africa have attempted to provide healthcare to their populations, and have focused on hospitals, dispensaries, and medical schools centered in urban areas.¹⁹⁵ These facilities are often beyond the reach of rural dwellers. Cutbacks in government healthcare budgets have compelled many healthcare workers to seek alternative means of generating income. Many have turned to moonlighting and other income-generating ventures; others have found it necessary to migrate abroad in order to increase their pay. Malawi has experienced a 12 percent reduction in available nurses due to migration.¹⁹⁶ More pharmacists emigrated from South Africa (600) and Zimbabwe (60) than graduated (500 and 40 people, respectively) in 2001.



USAID works to boost primary healthcare at the community level (Source: USAID)

South Africa has many world-class healthcare facilities; since 1994 it has emerged as a “medical tourism” destination for people from neighboring countries with less-equipped health systems.¹⁹⁷ Although South Africa's public health system is under-resourced and overburdened, private practitioners deliver specialized treatment that is often unavailable elsewhere.

Overall, a large proportion of the Southern African population is vulnerable to malnutrition and outbreaks of communicable diseases. Malaria and tuberculosis (TB) are serious health concerns that continue to have a negative impact on the region.¹⁹⁸ Southern Africa has an extremely high rate of TB incidence, and TB/HIV co-infection rates exceed 70 percent in countries such as Lesotho, South Africa, and Swaziland. The main food or waterborne diseases in Southern Africa are diarrhea (from bacteria or protozoa), hepatitis A and E, and typhoid fever. However, HIV/AIDS has had the heaviest impact on the population.

HIV/AIDS is the primary health concern in Southern Africa, despite the recent decline in new HIV infections and AIDS-related deaths.¹⁹⁹ Southern Africa is the worst HIV-affected region in the world, with Swaziland having the highest HIV infection rate worldwide (27.4 percent), while South Africa has the largest epidemic of any country (5.9 million people living with HIV).²⁰⁰

By 2011, Botswana, Swaziland, and Zambia treated more than 80 percent of their HIV infected population, while Malawi, South Africa, and Zimbabwe treated more than 60 percent. The global

reach for HIV treatment is 54 percent. Consequently, fewer people are dying of AIDS and fewer are becoming infected with HIV.

“In the last decade, women have become the face of HIV/AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa, as 61 percent of people living with the virus in the region are female. The highest rates of HIV/AIDS infections among 15-to-49-year-old women occur in southern Africa, particularly in Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, and South Africa.”

Source: Population Reference Bureau (2015)²⁰¹

Despite many improvements in recent years, by 2015, 15.5 percent of women in Swaziland ages 15-24 were infected with HIV/AIDS, versus 7.2 percent for men in same age group.²⁰² The impact of the large number of AIDS deaths in Swaziland heavily increases poverty and results in a disproportionately young population, with more than a third being under 14 years old.²⁰³

Government and Politics

Why Government and Politics Matter to You as a Marine

Most people live in states governed by formal and informal institutions. Marines need to know how power and authority are distributed in the state by studying the formal and informal structures of governments in the region. In addition, Marines need to understand how people, groups, and institutions exercise power and authority, in other words, what comprises politics in the states.

Political Systems

Many Southern African countries have functional national and local governments. The national (or central) governments have an executive branch, a legislature, and a judiciary. However, some of these countries have decentralized the national government in order to reach the rural population, and they rely on informal leadership structures such as traditional elders or chiefs and non-governmental actors in the delivery of services, especially in the health sector.

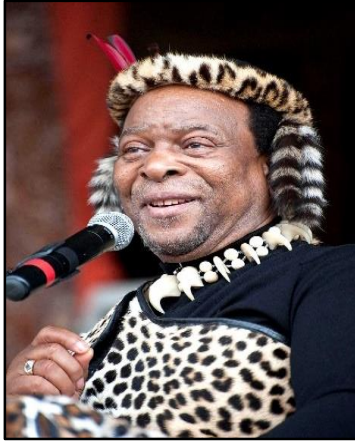
Subordinate to the national (or central) government, there are government bodies that are typically structured in three tiers; these three levels of government are intended to give citizens a greater degree of self-rule. The top tier consists of the provincial governments (similar to state governments in the U.S.); the middle tier is made up of county-like district governments; and, at the bottom are town or village councils. Cities have a mayor and council representatives.

There are three levels of government:

- Provinces (equivalent of state) at the top.
- Districts (equivalent of county) in the middle.
- Town or village councils at the bottom.

The provincial and district governments were meant to decentralize the government. Decentralization has worked in some countries to increase political participation at the grassroots level. However, informal governance structures are still much more effective in political mobilization than the formal structures. The formal decentralization process in Angola, Mozambique, and Namibia has had limited success. For example, Namibia's decentralization program was launched in 1998, but many years later, the system of regional government has little meaningful power.²⁰⁴

The majority of countries in this region (Botswana, Malawi, Swaziland, and South Africa) still honor the office of the chief, while in Zambia, the chiefly title is honorary. Mozambique resolved to scrap the position entirely though there are still informal elders at the village level. Prior to the mid-twentieth century, a traditional chief exercised political leadership at the provincial, district, and village level.



Chief Goodwill Zwelithini kaBhekuzulu of the Zulu tribe, South Africa (Source: Wikipedia)

Today, central and local governments perform these functions, effectively removing the political and economic powers of most chiefs. However, in rural areas of many Southern African countries, chiefs wield significant power and work with the central government, elected leaders and civil society in crises management, and conflict resolution. For example, the Congress of Traditional Leaders of South Africa, the umbrella body that brings together all traditional leaders in South Africa, is actively engaged in governance at the village level. Chiefs are well respected because they are viewed as the custodians of a society's customs and traditions.

This region is unique because it also has two monarchies: the Kingdom of Swaziland and the Kingdom of Lesotho. Swaziland has the only absolute monarchy, while Lesotho has a parliamentary constitutional monarchy. In Swaziland, a kingdom of 1.2 million people, the king holds supreme executive, legislative, and judicial power. Parallel to the government structure is the traditional system, consisting of the king and his advisers, traditional courts, and chiefdoms. The king owns 60 percent of the land and 70 percent of the population leases land from the monarch, which²⁰⁵ makes large-scale agriculture impossible for the ordinary person. UN data indicates that most households in Swaziland do not meet their food requirements.²⁰⁶



King Mswati III, of Swaziland (Source: Wikipedia)

Unlike Swaziland, Lesotho is a constitutional monarchy. The king serves a largely ceremonial function and does not possess executive powers. The Prime minister is the executive head of government and governs alongside a legislature.

Political Crises

The Cold War dominated global politics at a time when many Southern African nations were gaining independence in the 1960s and 1970s. Cuba and the Soviet Union extended military, financial, and technical assistance to the Marxist-Leninist governments of Angola and Mozambique in an attempt to advance socialism.²⁰⁷ At the same time, the apartheid government of South Africa was involved in efforts that destabilized its neighbors as it defended its position and to provide a buffer zone holding back the spread of African nationalism.²⁰⁸ South Africa directly participated in the early stages of the Angolan civil war when it launched “Operation Savannah” to protect its interests in Namibia, specifically, the hydroelectric installations on Cunene River.²⁰⁹ South Africa continued to intervene in both the Angolan and Mozambican civil wars, and conducted raids on Botswana, Lesotho, Zambia, and Zimbabwe targeting alleged Africa National Congress (ANC) networks in those countries.

The end of apartheid in South Africa and the cessation of civil wars in Angola, Namibia, and Mozambique were negotiated outcomes. Major differences were ironed out in peace agreements and power-sharing structures; these efforts were seen as a sustainable path to stability.²¹⁰ South Africa used a transitional provision to bring different parties together at the end of the apartheid.²¹¹ These agreements sought to enable opposing parties to share political power as well as economic and military resources.²¹² Some important components of the agreements included protection of minorities and

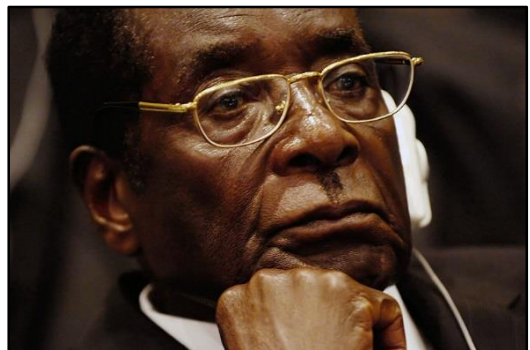
their interests; many of these components were included in a new constitution, along with the decentralization of power.²¹³

Power-Sharing Agreements:

Namibia - After the end of apartheid in Namibia (and the declaration of an amnesty for the South Africa-based South West African People's Organization (SWAPO), the guerrilla group that led the liberation movement), national elections were held and more than 90 percent of the Namibian population took part, with SWAPO winning a clear majority.²¹⁴ Since Namibia's independence in 1990, there have been no conflicts as a sovereign state, and the South Africa/Namibia conflict is viewed as an intra-state conflict within South Africa.²¹⁵ The 1990 Namibian constitution was drafted as part of an internationally mediated transfer of power to an independent government, under continued threats of civil war.²¹⁶ It carried the challenge of ensuring checks and balances in a country where one dominant political party persistently holds 55 out of 72 parliamentary seats.²¹⁷

Angola - The 2002 Angola Peace Agreements put an end to a 27-year-old civil war that claimed 500,000 lives and displaced millions.²¹⁸ The cosignatories were the army representatives of government and the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA) military leaders.²¹⁹ The agreement included the integration of a substantial number of the Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) officers and soldiers into the national army; the rest to be demobilized.²²⁰

The autocratic government in Zimbabwe has had a long-standing and negative impact on the region. Unlike Swaziland, which has an absolute monarchy, and Angola, whose president is stepping down in 2018,²²¹ Zimbabwe's leader, Robert Mugabe, has been in power since 1980.



Robert Mugabe, President of Zimbabwe (Source: Wikipedia)

Although Zimbabwe was considered a stable and peaceful democracy after its independence in 1980, an economic crisis that began in 1998 devalued its currency and shrunk its economy by half, resulting in a massive flow of migrants into neighboring countries. In 2008, Mugabe was declared the winner after an emotion-charged national election. The political opposition publically contested the election results; violent protests prompted regional heads of state to press for a mediated settlement. President Mugabe agreed to a power-sharing agreement with his opponent, Morgan Tsvangirai, who was appointed prime minister.²²² Despite the relative peace brought by this compromise arrangement, the country remains politically polarized. President Mugabe won the 2013 Zimbabwe election and was appointed the head of the Africa Union in January 2015. Morgan Tsvangirai remains the leader of the opposition party Movement for Democratic Change (MDC).

Nationalism

The concept of nationalism refers to the feeling of kinship and belonging based on shared values and beliefs and usually translates to an identity. Nationalism in Southern Africa can also be seen in language

and language policy. Although local languages such as Xhosa and Shona are widely spoken (in addition to local dialects), English, Portuguese, and French are predominantly used as official languages in this region, owing to colonization. Language is often a unifying element, although it has also been a source of contention; this is because in many cases they tend to marginalize indigenous languages.

The national flag in each of these countries is also a symbol of unity and shared nationhood. However, poverty and lack of transparency have eroded public trust making nationalism and national pride an ideal that is yet to be achieved.

Recommended Reading:

To read more about nationalism see:

National versus Ethnic Identity in Africa: State, Group, and Individual Level Correlates of National Identification, by Amanda Lea Robinson (University of California, Berkeley, 2009)

http://www.sscnet.ucla.edu/polisci/wgape/papers/17_Robinson.pdf

Nationalism, Development and the Postcolonial State: The Legacies of the League of Nations, by Antony Anghie

<http://www.tilj.org/content/journal/41/num3/Anghie447.pdf>

In this region, as in other parts of Africa, colonization fomented disaffection and resistance. Because it was not possible to organize country-wide resistance, communities galvanized and politically mobilized along ethnicity; this meant that populations primarily identified with their tribe and secondarily saw themselves as citizens of their country. When nations gained independence in the 60s, the national flag became a symbol of national pride. However, self-governance had its share of challenges and the sense of national pride began to erode. Many newly formed African nations lacked a common cultural identity. The policies of divide-and-rule implemented by many colonial administrators further encouraged division, contributing to the absence of a national identity. Consequently, Africans developed and retained ideas of community at the local and ethnic level. This cemented tribalism as the main source of identity.

Race and socio-economic issues have been challenges to establishing cohesion and nationalism in this region. Politicians and other leaders have used their influence to drive ethnic agendas that propagate hate and division by extending favors (jobs, government contracts, and positions) to members of their own ethnic groups. Migrant workers are discriminated against and targeted for attacks as the black community struggles to find income opportunities. Although segregation is legally and officially a thing of the past, neighborhoods remain segregated

as a result of income disparities. (For example, only a few affluent blacks have been able to live in rich neighborhoods such as Hyde Park in Johannesburg.) These divisions drive wedges within society (and serve as reminders of the apartheid past), and challenge the country's cohesion.

Soccer is one sport that has united not just the country but the region. Most people in this region enjoy watching local leagues and have an affinity for European soccer teams. Cricket also has a following among urban populations in Botswana, Madagascar, Mauritius, and Zimbabwe, while rugby is popular in both South Africa and Zimbabwe.

Historically, rugby and cricket were sports popular among the white populations in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The rugby jersey was only worn by whites. After the fall of apartheid in South Africa, Nelson Mandela attended the 1995 Rugby World Cup wearing his country's jersey and cap, a

significant moment for race relations. This is seen as Mandela's first attempt to desegregate the game for both players and audiences, one of many gestures he made to unite South Africans.

Rule of Law

According to a study by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), *Rule of the Law and Access to Justice Report*, respect for the rule of law and the ideals of fair and accessible justice systems are taking root in Southern Africa.²²³ Transparency and accountability are vital to enhancing service delivery, promoting justice and economic development.²²⁴ The UNDP has undertaken numerous interventions in the region; many indicators of progress are visible, such as constitutions and laws enacted in Mozambique, where reforms are under way to establish community policing, and human rights training in prisons, and for police.²²⁵ Zambia has also demonstrated exceptional progress in the area of rule of law, with its recent peaceful and undisputed elections.²²⁶ Nevertheless, in many other countries in Africa, despite UNDP's support for institution-building, constitutionalism, and free and fair elections, the results were not always positive. In several places, elections continue to be a contentious subject, with several documented instances of vote rigging and electoral violence.²²⁷

The availability of legal aid is another important measure necessary to ensure individual rights are respected. Legal aid is central to guaranteeing human rights through effective access to justice. Within the Southern Africa Region, the countries that have made the most progress in this area are South Africa, which has guaranteed funding for legal aid; and Malawi, which has implemented legal aid reforms for national legal aid policies and laws. Additionally, some countries have adopted affirmative action policies to expand opportunities for women and minority groups.²²⁸ For example, employers in South Africa, Namibia, and Angola are required to have shareholders, board members, executives, and staff from specific demographics (usually black, female, and/or disabled). The policies also limit the number of expatriates who can be hired by a single employer.

Examples of Affirmative Action policies include:

- Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) in South Africa
- "Angolanization" in Angola
- New Equitable Economic Empowerment Framework in Namibia

Freedom of the press is relatively better than in most other regions in Africa. However, governments in this region often use "strong-arm tactics" to silence the press. For example, the government of South Africa has used the National Key Points Act to prevent journalists from following up on allegations of corruption, especially when political figures are involved. Additionally, the government of Botswana used a sedition law to bring charges against a journalist who published an article that dealt negatively with the president.²²⁹

Truth and Reconciliation Commission in South Africa

When decades of apartheid, civil war, and colonialism ended in Southern Africa, many governments made it a priority to provide redress for the historical injustices endured by their citizens. Following the end of apartheid in South Africa, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) was one of the most significant bodies put into place to advance justice through reconciliation.

The TRC was chaired by South African Archbishop Desmond Tutu, an Anglican prelate known for his highly visible role opposing apartheid. The TRC provided a platform for South Africans to "come

to terms with their past on a morally accepted basis and to advance the cause of reconciliation.”²³⁰ The TRC provided a space for people to remember and deal with the violence and human rights abuses suffered under apartheid. Both victims and perpetrators were heard between 1996 and 2000, and a report with recommendations was published in 2002.

The TRC has been criticized for insufficiently addressing the impact of apartheid’s policies holistically, thereby causing a few “trigger-pullers” to bear the collective shame.²³¹ Furthermore, few of the TRC’s recommendations have been implemented. However, the TRC is widely regarded as successful. It provides a model for justice and peace-building initiatives in post-conflict societies.

Corruption in the Public Sector

One of the major impediments to development in this region is corruption. Corrupt practices in government often make many public services inaccessible to the people – especially for people living in rural areas. In some countries, it has become increasingly difficult to access services and business opportunities without a bribe. Sometimes, employment or promotion in the civil service, military, or state-run companies is used by those in power as a way to reward family members and political cronies.

Another prevalent characteristic of corruption in this region is the existence of unofficial networks that create, trade, or exchange social relationships (whether equal or unequal) between people. This determines who has access to and control of important economic resources or wealth.²³²

Patronage (or Patron-Clientelism) networks are a system of social relations with clear economic and political benefits.²³³ Patronage support from others is often welcome, and patron-client networks that encapsulate entire communities have permeated African societies from top to bottom. These networks are designed to connect central figures (such as politicians/leaders) through numerous links, right down to the lowly peasant. The central figure relies on the network to ensure that their patronage permeates through all social strata. Patrons will retain as much wealth as possible for themselves, only passing on the resources that they consider necessary to keep clients loyal.

- A *patron* (or a high-status individual) provides physical protection, public services, security, and resources (such as wells, roads, and medical centers) to his or her *clients* (or lower-status individuals).
- In return, the *client* repays the *patron* with a fee, loyalty, or political support that helps legitimize the patron’s elevated position.
- This is a mutually beneficial association between the powerful and the weak.

Each client uses the resources received from the patron above them to build their own patronage empire. Individuals therefore simultaneously act as the client of a superior and as a patron of those below them.

TACTICAL TIP: The term “corruption” does not have a direct translation in many African languages. This is because discretionary reciprocity and gift-giving are cultural concepts that are expected as a form of gratitude. In today’s global environment, governments in this region classify this practice as graft, where such reciprocity is demanded for a service. In most countries, it is difficult to conduct business without a “facilitation fee” or a demonstration of “gratitude.”

According to Transparency International, corruption affects every aspect of governance and undermines democracy:

“From children denied an education, to elections decided by money not votes, public sector corruption comes in many forms. Bribes and backroom deals don’t just steal resources from the most vulnerable – they undermine justice and economic development, and destroy public trust in leaders.”²³⁴

Corruption Perception Index (2015)		
Southern Africa		
Country	Ranking (out of 168)	Score (out of 100)
Botswana	28	63
Seychelles	40	55
Mauritius	45	53
Namibia	45	53
Lesotho	61	44
South Africa	61	44
Zambia	76	38
Mozambique	112	31
Malawi	112	31
Madagascar	123	28
Zimbabwe	150	21
Angola	163	15

Source: Transparency International (Data not available for Swaziland)

The *2015 Transparency International Perception of Corruption Index* ranks countries and territories based on how corrupt a country’s public sector is perceived to be; a score below 50 indicates a serious corruption problem. In the Southern Africa region, Angola leads as the country with the highest perception of corruption. Angola also presents high levels of inequality and poverty, with 70 percent of the population living on US\$2 a day or less; a country “where one in six children die before the age of five – making it the deadliest place in the world to be a child. More than 150,000 children die each year.”²³⁵ Botswana is the least corrupt country in this region while Angola and Zimbabwe are the most corrupt.²³⁶

Economic Overview

Why Economy and Infrastructure Matter to You as a Marine

The goods and services that people exchange, the infrastructure that people use to move them, and the formal and informal structures that make exchange possible all play critical roles in survival. A thorough understanding of a region is impossible without knowledge of its economy because the region's political, social, and cultural trends both reflect and shape economic developments and trends.

Nature of Economic Systems

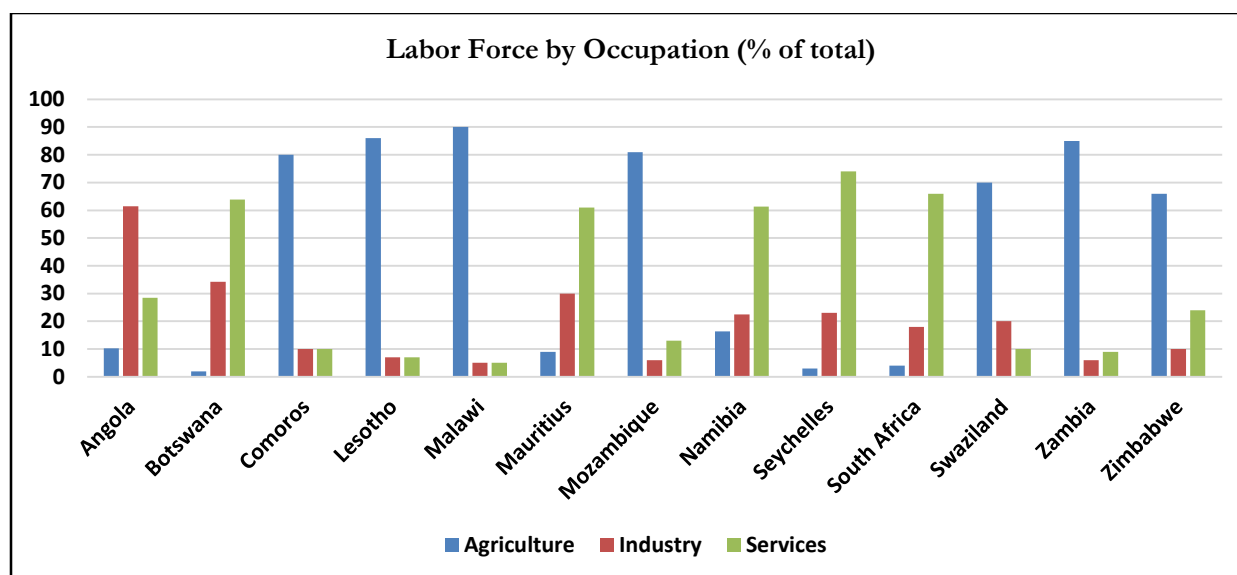
There are various economic systems in Southern Africa, including a traditional economic system based on pastoralism, fishing and agriculture. This is especially evident in rural communities, where subsistence production is localized, many times cashless, and often unregulated by the central government.

There are numerous communities that co-exist alongside each other and trade milk for grain. Similarly, fishing communities practice subsistence fishing and trade fish for agricultural products or sell smoked fish to supplement their household income. Farmers also sell excess foodstuffs in markets, enhancing the reach of a cash-based economy at the local level.

The other type of economic system in this region is the market economy which relies on oil exports, tourism, and commercial agriculture. The leading activities in the formal economic sector in this region include industries like mineral extraction. Examples of this include gold mining in South Africa, diamond mining in Botswana, copper mining in Zambia, and the export of petroleum from Angola.

There are huge variations in the distribution of the labor force by sector. For instance, while 61.4 percent of the labor force of Angola is occupied in “industry,” in Malawi, Mozambique, Lesotho, Zambia, and Zimbabwe this occupation involves less than 10 percent of the labor force. Similar wide variations are seen in the agriculture sector; while the labor force of Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, and Zambia are more than 80 percent dedicated to “agriculture,” the numbers are completely inverted for Angola, Botswana, Mauritius, Seychelles, and South Africa -- all are below the 10 percent mark for labor forces in this sector.

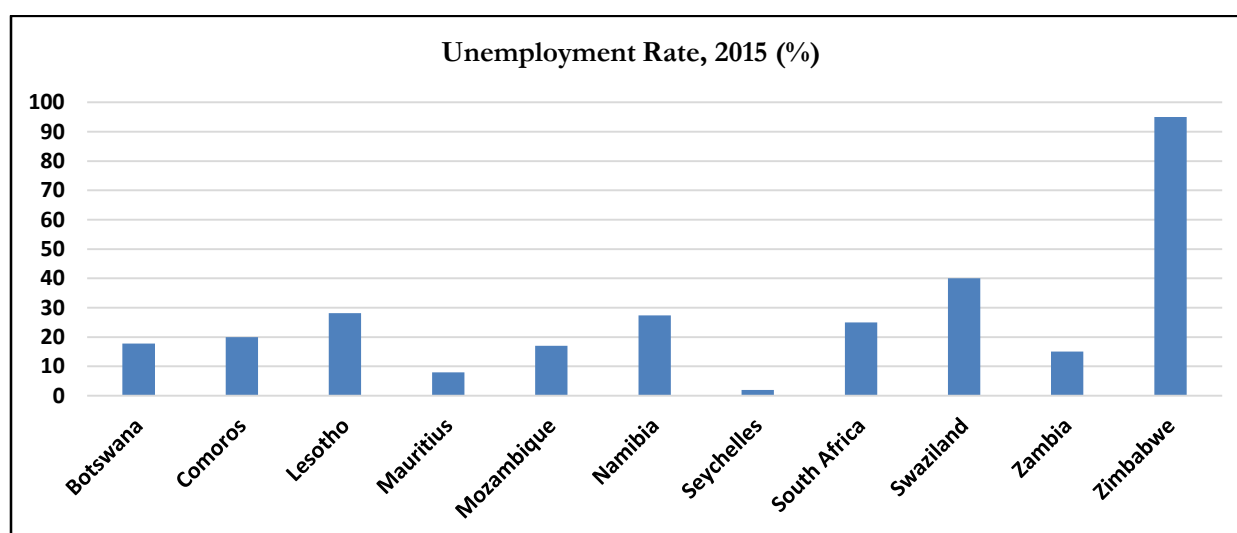
The graph below compares the total labor force figure per sector of occupation. *Agriculture* includes farming, fishing, and forestry; *Industry* includes mining, manufacturing, energy production, and construction; and *Services* cover government activities, communications, transportation, finance, and all other economic activities that do not produce material goods:²³⁷



Source: CIA World Factbook – 2015 (Data not available for Madagascar)

Note the diversity displayed in this region: Seychelles, Mauritius, Namibia, and Botswana have emerging service economies that focus on tourism, telecommunication, and financial services; the remaining economies largely depend on agriculture. Only Angola is oil dependent, while Botswana is turning to services to supplement its diamond mining sector — a smart way to diversify its economy.

The unemployment rate in many countries in Southern Africa is still high. Zimbabwe presents the worst case, with unemployment at 95 percent; Mauritius has the best rate, with only 8 percent unemployed. Roughly half of Namibia's people are unemployed, with two-thirds of the population living in rural areas where the majority of people engage in subsistence agriculture.²³⁸ In South Africa, where unemployment, poverty, and inequality are among the highest in the world, unemployment accounts for roughly 25 percent of the work force, and significantly higher among black youth.²³⁹

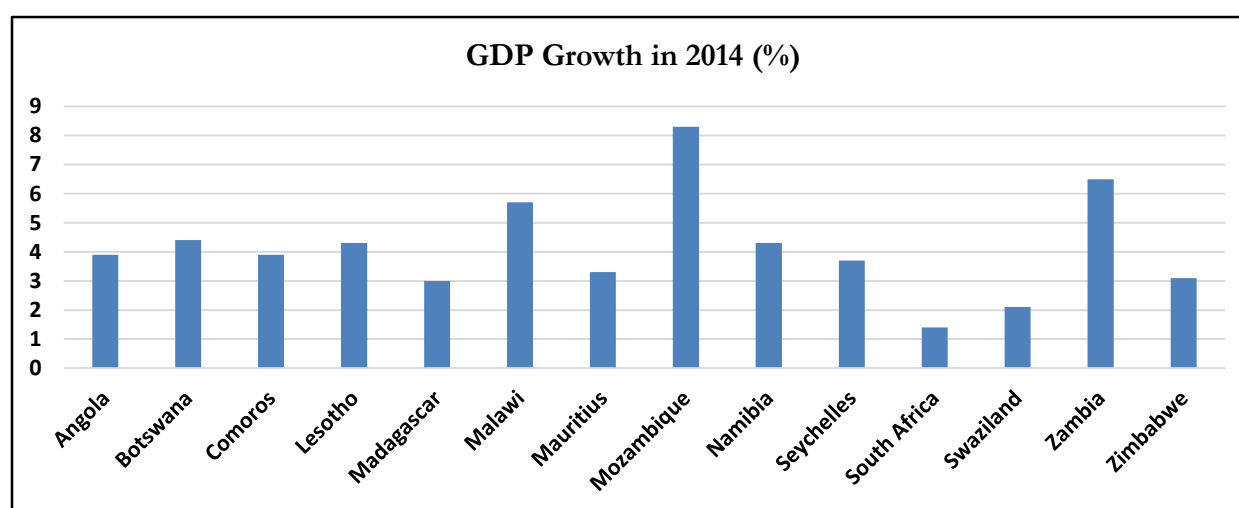


Source: CIA World Factbook, 2015 (Unemployment data not available for Angola, Malawi, Madagascar and Zimbabwe)

In addition to the region's formal economic sector, the informal sector is another vital component of the many economic systems in Southern Africa. The informal economy contributes to increased production, job creation, and alleviates the negative effects of poverty. The informal economy is prevalent in rural areas; it continues to grow rapidly, particularly in urban areas, to supplement household income.

Economic Trends

According to the African Development Bank (ADB) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), many African countries continue to rely on commodities and official development assistance, despite efforts to increase competitiveness and promote export diversification.²⁴⁰ Few African countries have managed to diversify their export structure away from unprocessed commodities.



Source: CIA World Factbook – 2015

Although the countries in this region rely on mining, agriculture, and other extractive industries, their economies vary widely in terms of gross GDP growth. Economic indicators point to a region with a lot of potential where growth is hindered by corruption, rent-seeking patronage networks, a lack of investment on key infrastructure, and by the inability of many governments to effectively implement long-term plans.

Natural Resources

All Southern Africa countries have significant minerals and natural resources, but despite rising global demand, these resources have not significantly contributed to sustainable social and economic development.²⁴¹ This has happened for a wide variety of reasons, but mostly because mining contracts are negotiated to benefit corporations or individuals; they lack effective measures to guard against environmental damage, corruption, bribery, unfair competition, or lack of transparency. This has resulted in poor working conditions, displacement of local communities, and harm to the environment.²⁴²

Among the natural resource-endowed countries of Southern Africa, Botswana is one country that has successfully transformed resource rents into sustainable growth.²⁴³ The government of Botswana is

now getting a reasonable return on these savings. They achieved this by insisting upon rigorous project appraisal – a political decision to treat such appraisals seriously, so that public savings were only used to finance public investment if the rate of return exceeded a critical point.²⁴⁴

Another important point regarding natural resources in Southern Africa is the high world demand for minerals from the region. Chinese and Indian companies are increasing the demand for minerals from Africa to such a large extent that this phenomenon is now being called “the new scramble for Africa.”²⁴⁵ Many of these minerals are also important strategic and rare minerals, such as cobalt and uranium (Namibia is the fourth world’s producer of uranium).²⁴⁶

Southern Africa countries are home to the main sources for some platinum-group elements (PGE). PGEs possess unique physical and chemical characteristics that make them indispensable to modern technology and industry.²⁴⁷ PGEs are mainly found in three countries in the world, raising concerns about potential risk of a disruption to this mineral supply. The largest deposits are in South Africa and Zimbabwe.²⁴⁸ These major deposits are found in the Bushveld Complex, which is a large mass of igneous rocks that underlies an area of approximately 25,483 sq mi (66,000 sq km) in South Africa.²⁴⁹

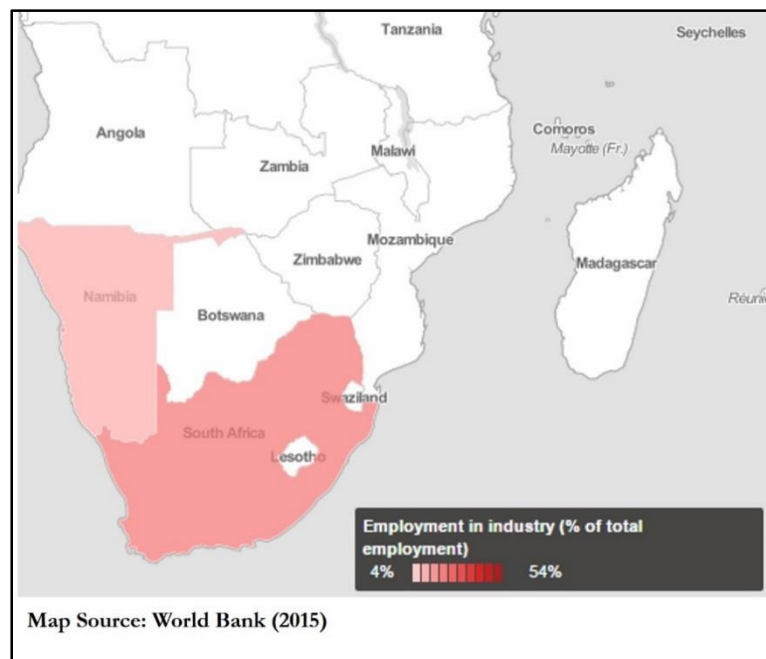


Area in South Africa and Zimbabwe that contain platinum-group element resources—the Bushveld Complex, the Great Dyke, the Stella Intrusion, and the Uitkomst Complex (Source: USGS)

Industries

Industry generally refers to business activities and commercial enterprises. Economists categorize industries as either primary (extraction of raw materials), secondary (manufacturing), or tertiary (services). Primary industry prevails in Southern Africa because the extraction of natural resources and agriculture are the main economic activities in the region.

South Africa is the most industrialized economy, not only in Southern Africa, but also on the entire African continent. South Africa is also one of the world’s leading mining and mineral-processing countries; in 2012, South Africa’s produced 72 percent of platinum and 28 percent manganese of the world’s mining



production.²⁵⁰ South Africa's mineral industry accounted for 8.3 percent of its GDP in 2012, and represented 42 percent of the value of total exports.²⁵¹

In 2012, Mozambique was Africa's second-ranked producer of aluminum after South Africa.²⁵² Namibia is the world's fifth-largest producer of uranium, produces large quantities of zinc, and is a smaller producer of gold and copper.²⁵³

Angola's industries are growing exponentially, bolstered by the oil boom and a post-war reconstruction effort. However, despite its favorable near-term outlook, Angola's reliance on oil revenues and imports leaves the economy highly vulnerable to economic shocks.²⁵⁴ A similar positive outlook is observed in the industrial development of Mauritius, which is expanding rapidly due to the success of its Export Processing Zone (EPZ) specializing in textiles, a trade-enhancement measure that is responsible for 89 percent of jobs and 83 percent of exports in that country.²⁵⁵

Recommended Reading:

For details on mineral commodities and mining industry per country in **Southern Africa see:** *USGS Minerals Information*. Available at: <http://minerals.usgs.gov/minerals/pubs/country/africa.html>

The African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), launched by the United States in 2000, enables select African countries to export duty-free textiles to the United States.²⁵⁶ This trade and investment agreement has accelerated the industrial development of Lesotho, Namibia, and Swaziland as they manufacture textiles and apparel for the U.S. market.²⁵⁷

Agriculture

Agriculture is the economic mainstay of most countries in Southern Africa; approximately 80 percent of the population in this region is dependent on agriculture for employment, income, and food security.²⁵⁸ Arable lands with permanent crops correspond to only 6 percent of the land use in the region, and most of it is rain fed (which means that even minimal changes to rainfall can jeopardize crops),²⁵⁹ except in South Africa, where irrigation is better developed.²⁶⁰

The majority of farmers in the region are small landholders. Small-scale farmers account for over 60 percent of the agricultural production in Zambia and Zimbabwe alone.²⁶¹ South Africa has developed a dual agricultural system (communal and freehold systems) that combines commercial farming with subsistence-based production, mostly in rural areas.²⁶² Many of South Africa's communal lands are in a dire state of soil degradation.²⁶³

The size of the agricultural sector in each Southern African country varies.²⁶⁴ The majority of the total workforce is engaged in agriculture: 90 percent in Malawi, 81 percent in Mozambique, and 66 percent in Zimbabwe.²⁶⁵ However, agriculture employs only 4 percent of the labor force in South Africa and 9 percent in Mauritius.²⁶⁶

Most agricultural production in the region is focused on cereals, with more than 50 percent of the land allocated to cereal cultivation.²⁶⁷ Corn (referred to as maize in Southern Africa) is the staple crop; it accounts for more than 40 percent of land use. South Africa is the leading maize producer in the region, owing to the contribution of irrigated farmlands, followed by Zimbabwe.²⁶⁸ Millet and sorghum

are also important crops, notably in drier areas. Angola and Namibia have the highest yield of millet; sorghum is grown mostly in Mozambique and Zimbabwe.²⁶⁹

Pastoralism in Southern Africa ceased to be practiced on a wide scale due to colonialism, the extermination of the Khoikhoi and the Herero people,²⁷⁰ and apartheid, which annexed territories used by livestock herders and severely limited the movement of people and livestock.²⁷¹ The Himba people from the extreme north of Namibia are the only remaining pastoralist community.²⁷² They own 80 percent of the national cattle herd, which contributes about one-third of income in traditional households. There is limited pastoral activity in Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, South Africa, and Zimbabwe.²⁷³



Millet Farmer in Botswana (Source: USAID)

Livestock ranches were established in Botswana, Namibia, Mozambique, South Africa, and Zimbabwe during the colonial era.²⁷⁴ Although many ranches remain, they are increasingly perceived as an unacceptable concentration of land in the hands of a single owner. An example of this has occurred in Zimbabwe, where smallholder settlers have invaded large livestock enterprises with the tacit approval of the government.²⁷⁵

Urban Agriculture

Many cities in Southern Africa have significant “hidden” economies.²⁷⁶ Urban agriculture has become an essential feature of the urban economy for the poor; this is due to high unemployment and low incomes.²⁷⁷ “In Zimbabwe, both cropping and animal husbandry are practiced extensively in cities, primarily in order to supplement nutritional needs. Women are the main participants in urban agricultural activities, possibly due to economic disadvantage, the lack of alternative opportunities and women’s role in household food provision and preparation.”²⁷⁸

This urban agricultural activity is primarily for subsistence. Up to 37 percent of urban households in Mozambique and 45 percent in Zambia grew crops or raised livestock in cities to feed themselves.²⁷⁹

Informal Economy

The number of people employed in the informal sector varies across the region.²⁸⁰ Informal enterprises employ the majority of the labor force in Lesotho (49.1 percent in 2008), Madagascar (73 percent in 2005), and Zambia (66.7 percent in 2008); and only 11.9 percent in Mauritius (2009).²⁸¹

In many countries in Southern Africa, the lack of skills or availability of jobs in the formal sector drive large segments of the population to participate in the informal sector of the economy.²⁸² In poor communities, these jobs range from carpentry, crafts, metal working, charcoal manufacturing, and artisan mining; in urban settings, workers in the informal economy often include street vendors. The main attraction of the undeclared economy is not always for financial advantage. Although the sector allows employers, paid employees, and the self-employed to increase their take-home earnings, some of the countries in this region

do not have the capacity to tax the entire working population. Although revenue collection and taxation is improving, only formal employment is taxed. This leaves many other income-generating activities out of the system. This will change however, as economies grow.

Infrastructure

Africa's infrastructure development is critical for economic growth and poverty reduction, yet there is a significant funding gap to fulfill the continent's infrastructure needs.²⁸³ Historically, the role of private investment in African infrastructure has been limited and the region's infrastructure needs cannot be met by current official sources of funding alone.²⁸⁴ Private investments offer the possibility of closing the funding gap for Africa's infrastructure, but is far from being a panacea, since there are many obstacles for investment in certain developing countries. These impediments include political instability, weak public administration, unreliable legal frameworks, corruption, and insufficient resources for project preparation.²⁸⁵

In Southern Africa, South Africa is the country that has been the recipient of most Official Development Finance (ODF) by the World Bank's International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the African Development Bank (AfDB).²⁸⁶ China is another source of lending and investment in the region, one that has surpassed World Bank funding since 2007.²⁸⁷ In Angola, for instance, China has used resource-backed loans, a practice where Chinese companies build infrastructure projects and get to extract natural resources as well; it is apparently a win-win situation, but critics point out to the lack of transparency in these deals.²⁸⁸

Recommended Reading:

For complete information regarding the infrastructure of Southern Africa refer to:

Regional Infrastructure Development Master Plan Executive Summary (SADC, 2012).

Available at:

<http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/Regional-Infrastructure-Development-Master-Plan-Executive-Summary.pdf>

Roads

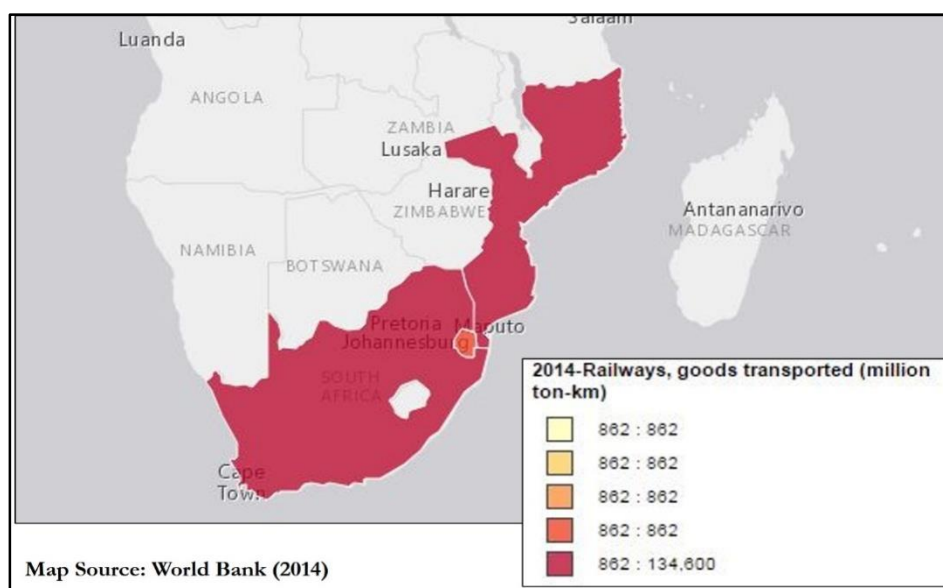
Road and rail are the primary modes of transportation for both goods and people within Southern Africa. National road and rail systems provide links to all major towns and cities in each country, as well as main centers in neighboring countries. The road system provides access to remote districts, thus serving as strategic links to these areas.

Southern Africa has an extensive road network, but there are variations in road conditions within each country. Approximately 20 percent of the total road network in Southern Africa is paved.²⁸⁹ Paved roads are located mostly around major cities and commercial areas. Most rural traffic relies on poorly-maintained dirt roads. These undeveloped roadways become dangerous during the rainy seasons. Military operations often stop during the rainy season, making transit, logistical support, and resupply difficult. Operations resume during dry seasons.

Mauritius has the best road conditions and most of its road network is paved.²⁹⁰ The graph below shows that South Africa has more road networks of any African country (464,164 m/747,000 km). Although less than half of the roads in Botswana are paved, its road network ranks second-best in the region because 94 percent of all roads are in good condition.²⁹¹ Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, and

Zambia have less paved roads, but they are in good condition; while roads in Angola and Mozambique were left in dire conditions after years of civil war, and they continue to deteriorate due to neglect, lack of maintenance, and flood damage.²⁹² Another factor that helps deteriorate road condition is overloading by transporters, which is rampant.

Southern Africa has an extensive railway network that complements the road network, particularly in freighting goods. But many railroads in this region suffer from poor reliability, high accident and failures rates, a lack of investment, damage caused by armed conflict (especially in Angola and Mozambique), and a lack of maintenance funding.²⁹³ Lesotho, Mauritius, and the Seychelles do not have railways.²⁹⁴ The diversion of rail freight to roads has put more pressure on the road network and accelerated the rate of road degradation.



Road networks within the region have improved greatly due to the construction, rehabilitation, and maintenance of inter-country regional corridors.²⁹⁵ Governments in the region are working to privatize rail operations, with the intention of improving service delivery, but infrastructure improvements will remain a government responsibility, while the operation these systems are being offered to contractors.²⁹⁶

Ports

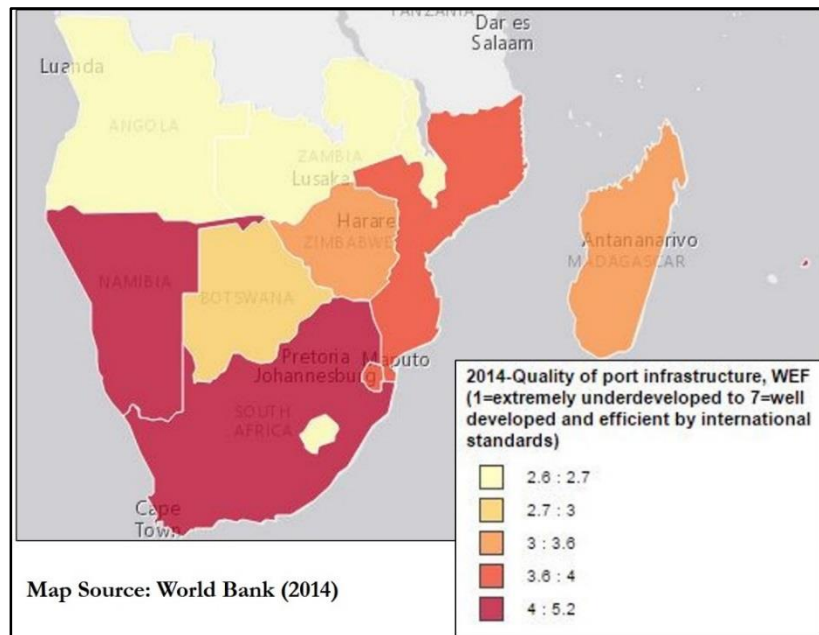
The principal ports in Southern Africa are located in Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, and South Africa. Durban in South Africa is the main port in the region, and is the second-busiest port on the continent.²⁹⁷ This is due to the good road infrastructure connecting Durban with the rest of the region, as well as its world-class port equipment and low maritime rates.²⁹⁸

The ports in Mozambique and South Africa are of strategic importance to the neighboring land-locked countries of Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, and Zambia. Other ports in South Africa, in addition to Durban, are Cape Town, East London Richards Bay, Mossel Bay, Ngqura, Port Elizabeth, and Saldanha. Maputo (in the south) is the main port in Mozambique, while Beira, Nacala and Quelimane (in the north) are secondary ports.²⁹⁹

Luderitz and Walvis Bay are the main ports of Namibia, even though they are both small ports, Walvis Bay has container ship service, and good road and rail links to Botswana and Johannesburg.³⁰⁰

Angola's two main ports are Luanda, on the north (the main port), and Lobito, further south. Luanda has the potential to service neighboring countries, but this is currently not possible due to poor road and rail networks.³⁰¹

Port Louis in Mauritius is the busiest port among the island countries.³⁰² It is strategically placed on the world shipping routes, and is located on an important trading route between Africa and Asia.³⁰³ Few shipping lines visit the other island countries; consequently, they have little maritime activity.



Air Transport

Air traffic has been growing in the Southern Africa region, which now counts three major "hub" airports; three African carriers have a monopoly in international and domestic air routes serving this region.³⁰⁴ However, compared to international standards, air travel is the costliest mode of transportation in Africa, mostly due to a lack of concession revenue, which make landings expensive; and low volumes of traffic on many routes, causing fares to be expensive.³⁰⁵ Furthermore, air travel within Africa is considerably more expensive per mile flown compared to intercontinental travel, especially on routes of less than 2,000 nautical miles.

All the countries in Southern Africa have national airlines, except Lesotho and Zambia, where both airlines collapsed. Air Zimbabwe ceased operations in 2012 due to financial difficulties; it resumed limited operations in April 2013. Governments in the region face a dilemma; although national airlines play a vital economic and transportation role, they constitute a drain on the national treasury.³⁰⁶ Smaller private airlines also operate across the region.

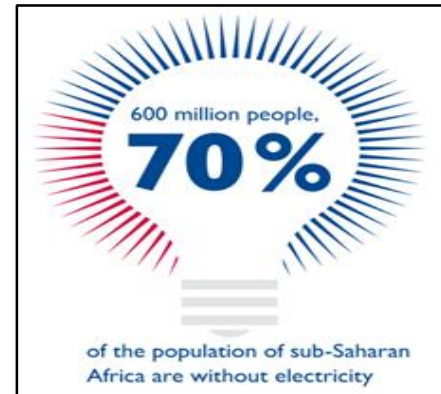
Each country has at least one international airport servicing domestic and international routes, as well as smaller airports in key cities. South Africa's O.R. Tambo International Airport in Johannesburg is the continent's largest and busiest airport. It also serves as the regional hub, offering connecting flights to the rest of the region. All airports and airlines differ in quality and reliability, with varying levels of efficiency and reliability.

Due to the absence of scheduled sea transport between the islands of Comoros, nearly all passenger traffic is by air.

Utilities

Wood and charcoal provide the majority of the region's rural energy needs—usually for cooking. Oil, electricity, and commercial energy are also used widely in urban centers. Minimal access to electricity, outdated equipment, poor maintenance, and increased demand contribute to power shortages and frequent power outages. Many businesses, upper-class people, and expatriates have diesel-fueled power generators to augment their spotty supply of electricity.

The U.S. has launched the Power Africa Project to increase access to power in Sub-Saharan Africa by utilizing alternative energy sources such as wind, solar, hydropower, natural gas, and geothermal resources.³⁰⁷ This program will have a significant impact on the quality of life as well as the cost of living.



The U.S. plan to bridge the power gap in Africa (Source: USAID)

Drought often causes water levels to drop in lakes and rivers which are vital to supplying power in Africa; drought seriously affect the ability of hydroelectric power generators to provide consistent service to many parts of this region. The region is also exploring alternative energy sources to meet energy demands, including solar and wind power.

Communication

Virtually all countries in the world have seen a significant increase in mobile telephone subscription rates over the past 10 years. Although the quality of service delivered by the region's landline telephone system is poor, wireless communications systems can match the standards set by any Western mobile telephone service. Several European cellular telephone companies operate in the area, and cell phones and internet cafes have proliferated in the past decade. Mobile telephone service is a particularly reliable means of communication in most urban centers.³⁰⁸



Cellphone use in Africa (Source: USAID)

Internet connectivity, however, remains poor because of limited landline communications and the slow roll-out fiber-optic broadband services. Limited public access to the Internet has slowed economic development in parts of Southern Africa. Wireless communications solutions are beginning to facilitate better access to the World Wide Web, primarily for people living in cities or near cell phone towers that border major roadways. Across Africa's remote environments, more and more people are connecting to the internet via mobile phones. Many established news outlets across the continent are now competing with social media—particularly Twitter and Facebook, which are accessed via a Short Message Service (SMS) platform.

In the 1980s and 1990s, the radio was the most popular technology in Southern Africa for news and entertainment. Because of its wide broadcast reach, the radio was also used to topple governments in several countries. Today, the mobile phone is the most effective communications device, transforming text messaging into effective “narrowcasts” for targeted public service announcements, especially

during looming crises—natural or man-made. However, the new medium does not always communicate a constructive message: mobile phones are also widely used by criminal groups, and militias to plan and coordinate attacks.

Regional Security Issues

Why Regional Security Issues Matter to You as a Marine

A thorough understanding of a region is difficult without an account of its most significant security challenges. These challenges tend to affect not only relations between states in the region but also the behavior of its people and the choices they make. Regional security issues encompass a host of topics ranging from wars between states, to insurgencies, to organized crime, to weak institutions, to systemic corruption. Some of them involve violence, while others weaken states and societies and have the potential to turn low-level conflicts into violent confrontations.

Introduction

The Southern Africa region is relatively stable, largely because the Republic of South Africa has invested millions in manpower and money in the security of this region. Additionally, the Southern African Development Community (SADC), has developed institutional capacity to contain political instability and other crises before they become a threat to global security. The SADC is a regional economic community whose membership is committed to the peace and stability of its 15 member states. SADC-supported structures such as the Organ for Politics Defense and Security (OPDS) are employed to promote peace and security within the region; these structures address a wide range of issues affecting the region, including military/defense, crime prevention, intelligence, peace-making and peacekeeping enforcement, foreign policy, conflict management, prevention and resolution, and human rights.³⁰⁹

This chapter identifies two broad regional issues:

- Political Conflict
- HIV/AIDS in the Military
- Irregular Migration
- Poaching
- Narcotrafficking

Political Conflict

Despite being the most stable region in Africa, Southern Africa has a history of conflict and political crises. In particular, Angola and Mozambique, two former colonies of Portugal, have successfully emerged from years of civil war. Angola's civil war lasted 26 years (1975-2002), while the Mozambican conflict lasted 15 years (1977-1992). Some of the factions involved in the conflicts

were formed before independence from Portugal. Although both countries now experience a semblance of peace, there are still underlying tensions that can impact the stability of this region. Madagascar has more recently experienced political crises that have had implications on regional security because of its proximity to the Horn of Africa, a region that has struggled for years to subdue the Al-Shabaab terrorist group.

The Cabinda Enclave

Cabinda is a 2,000 sq mi (7,252 sq km) coastal territory physically separated from Angola by a 37 mi (60 km) stretch of the Democratic Republic of Congo.³¹⁰ Cabinda has large deposits of crude oil, mostly located offshore. Oil exports are the primary source of revenue for the Angolan government. The province is therefore of strategic importance because it supplies a substantial amount of Angola's total annual oil output. Since 1975, the area has been a battleground between government military forces and a major political opposition group, the *Frente de Libertação do Enclave de Cabinda* (FLEC) (Liberation Front of the Cabinda Enclave).³¹¹

FLEC was formed in 1963, and was involved in the struggle for independence against the Portuguese. FLEC's objective changed following Angola's independence in 1975; their goals range from outright independence from Angola to an autonomous status for Cabinda.³¹² Since then, the group has been sporadically active, threatening the stability of Angola whose economy is heavily reliant on oil exports.



Cabinda, Angola (Source: Wikipedia)

FLEC has organized and sustained an armed campaign in Cabinda at various times since 1975. The group became a greater threat when several FLEC splinter groups emerged: FLEC-*Forças Armadas Cabindesas* (FLEC-FAC), FLEC-*Renovada* (FLEC-R), and *Forças de Libertação do Estado de Cabinda - Posição Militar* (FLEC-PM). These offshoot groups began launching simultaneous attacks against government forces. However, FLEC began to weaken because the groups were all working under different command structures. Eventually, many of the group's leaders were arrested and tried by the Angolan government; other leaders fled the country. At the same time, other senior members of these opposition groups began to negotiate with the government. For example, FLEC-R entered into a peace treaty with the government in 2006. (As a condition of the FLEC-R peace deal, Antonio Bento Bembe, a senior commander with the group, was brought into the national government as the minister in charge of affairs in Cabinda.) This, however, did not end the conflict in Cabinda. In 2010, two major attacks by separatists groups in Cabinda led to more arrests and prosecutions. In 2013, the government of Angola pursued armed rebels into neighboring Congo (Brazzaville), escalating tensions between the two countries.³¹³

The survival of FLEC over the years has been sustained because of its ability to retreat from Angolan forces to refuges in the Republic of the Congo (Congo-Brazzaville) and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). The Angolan government has maintained a hard stance against Congo-Brazzaville and

the DRC, both of whom are perceived as supporting FLEC militants. Military officials in the Democratic Republic of Congo have in the past declared FLEC a "terrorist organization," and say that they are committed to cooperating with their Angolan counterparts. Although FLEC has not been active since 2013, Cabinda remains a contentious issue that can trigger conflict in Angola or between Angola and its neighbors.

Mozambique's Civil War

Mozambique has had two major political movements since its independence: *Frente de Libertação de Moçambique* (FRELIMO) (Mozambique Liberation Front), which was established before the country's independence; and *Resistência Nacional Moçambicana* (RENAMO) (Mozambique National Resistance Movement).³¹⁴

FRELIMO is credited for the waging much of the fight for independence and its role in negotiating a successful transfer of power from the Portuguese colonial government in 1974. Shortly after independence, FRELIMO formed a new government, but a civil war soon erupted between FRELIMO and RENAMO forces.³¹⁵

The Mozambican civil war had its genesis at the height of the Cold War. Cuba and the Soviet Union offered military, financial, and technical aid to the Marxist-Leninist governments of Mozambique in an attempt to advance socialism.³¹⁶ At various times during the civil war, the apartheid government of South Africa and the minority white government of Zimbabwe inflamed the conflict in an effort to stand against socialism.³¹⁷ However, the end of the Cold War (and apartheid in South Africa) revealed that the civil war in Mozambique was much more than a mere ideological contest between RENAMO and FRELIMO. It was an internally driven competition for power and access to economic resources.

The war continued until 1992, when FRELIMO and RENAMO signed a peace agreement that finally marked the end of 17 years of bloody conflict.³¹⁸ However, the peace agreement was violated in 2013, marking another period of political instability. Both political movements were eventually able to negotiate a ceasefire, partly because of RENAMO's weakened position and FRELIMO's dominance and access to money and other resources.

Although the resumption of an all-out conflict between these two groups is highly unlikely, political tensions and low-level security incidents perpetrated by RENAMO may prove destabilizing. For example, in 2016, RENAMO launched attacks in Sofala region of Mozambique. Sofala is in the eastern part of Mozambique and has historically been a RENAMO political stronghold. Their tactics range

Recommended Reading:

For more information about FRELIMO and RENAMO, the relationship between these two groups, and their role in the Mozambique Civil War, read:

Strong Party, Weak State? Frelimo and State Survival Through The Mozambican Civil War: An Analytical Narrative on State-Making, by Jason Sumich and João Honwana

<http://www.lse.ac.uk/internationalDevelopment/research/crisisStates/download/wp/wpSeries2/wp232.pdf>

“RENAMO: From Military Confrontation to Peaceful Democratic Engagement, 1976-2009” by Baxter Tavuyanago
http://www.academicjournals.org/article/article1381821515_Tavuyanago.pdf

from targeting traditional leaders and setting up armed road closures in an effort to create fear and panic and force FRELIMO to bow to their demands.³¹⁹ Attacks like this effectively disrupt Mozambique's economy and hamper rebuilding efforts.

Governance Crises

Because Southern Africa is the most stable region on the continent, the national economies of the countries in this region are also relatively stable. Governance issues that have led to conflicts in other countries in Africa are a minimal risk in Southern Africa. However, the small countries of Madagascar and Lesotho offer good examples of how a lack of proper governance can have a destabilizing effect in the region.

Madagascar

Madagascar is an island nation on the Indian Ocean; it is strategically located close to the Horn of Africa, the Gulf of Aden, and Southern Africa. This makes Madagascar vulnerable to outside influences like sea-going piracy and internal issues. Madagascar has had numerous governance challenges, including five *coups d'état*.

The most notable *coup* occurred in 2009, when national power was seized by Andry Rajoelina, a 33-year-old business tycoon and former mayor of Antananarivo, the capital of Madagascar. SADC and South Africa intervened and played a key role in restoring a semblance of order. Since the 2009 *coup*, SADC has been much more involved diplomatically in Madagascar, and is trying to steer the country away from civil war while also working to counter regional threats such as terrorism and piracy. For example, in 2011, Madagascar intercepted a pirate vessel off its coast with 14 Somali pirates on board.³²⁰ Since this episode, the U.S has (along with SADC) been involved in military-to-military engagement programs with the Malagasy Defense Forces in order to help Madagascar strengthen maritime security.³²¹

In November 2015, following the Paris terror attacks, Madagascar arrested a man suspected of having ties to the Islamic State in Iraq and Syria (ISIS). Given the past activities of ISIS, terrorism experts believe that there is a likelihood that the terror group may be attempting to take advantage of Madagascar's socio-economic problems in order to recruit and expand operations into Africa.³²²

There is evidence that ISIS is targeting islands off the coast of Africa to launch attacks at the West.³²³ For example, in December 2015, an Air France flight from Mauritius, another island nation close to Madagascar, made an emergency landing after a suspicious device was found on board.³²⁴ France is working with Malagasy and Mauritius to strengthen their defenses – both countries are major tourist destinations that could be targeted by extremists wanting to send a message to the West.

Lesotho

South Africa's urban populations are expanding as more and more people move to urban centers in search of better opportunities. At the same time, climatic issues have led to hotter temperatures and less rainfall. Concurrently, South Africa's electric power supply has struggled to meet the demand of the population as well as the economic sectors. For example, in 2015 and 2016, drought forced power

outages and water rationing in most cities in South Africa due to a reduction in the water levels in South Africa's dams.

Lesotho, on the other hand, is the source of the Orange River, one of the longest (1,300 mi/2,092 km) rivers in Africa.³²⁵ The Orange River flows from the mountains of Lesotho to the Atlantic Ocean. Lesotho is the only country in this region that can remedy South Africa's electricity and water woes.

Lesotho is a small country (11,720 sq mi/30,355 sq km), roughly the size of Maryland. It has a small population of two million people, compared to South Africa's 44 million.³²⁶ Lesotho is also unique because it is geographically located within the Republic of South Africa; it shares all of its borders with South Africa.

Lesotho is a monarchy with an executive prime minister. However, like Madagascar, it has suffered governance challenges, including at least three attempted *coups d'état*. But, unlike Madagascar, which has attracted international attention because of the global war on terror, Lesotho's issues have largely been resolved by South Africa. This is because Lesotho's mountain watersheds are of strategic importance to South Africa, providing water and hydroelectric power to South Africa. South Africa has invested millions in a project that will supply water and electric power through a series of manmade lakes and dams to South Africa's cities. Therefore, any instability in this small country can destabilize South Africa. For example, in 2014, Lesotho's prime minister fled to South Africa after an alleged *coup d'état*. South Africa acted swiftly to restore order: it returned the prime minister to office and sent South African Police to Lesotho to serve as his personal security team.

Southern Africa has made tremendous progress in democratic governance, including the peaceful handover of power; however, the impact of political conflicts in this region can still be felt, as there are still unresolved issues that may trigger a crisis in the future.

HIV/AIDS in the Military

HIV/AIDS is a chronic disease that is most prevalent in Southern Africa. Southern Africa is home to 13 percent of the global AIDS population. In 2009, more than 34 percent of the total number of people living with HIV worldwide resided in the 10 mainland countries of Southern Africa: Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland Zimbabwe, and Zambia).³²⁷

In 2011, the countries of Southern Africa accounted for 71 percent of the people living with HIV, and 70 percent of AIDS-related deaths worldwide.³²⁸ Further, in 2012, 13.6 percent of men and 22.8 percent of women aged 15 to 49 residing in this region were living with HIV.³²⁹ Swaziland is on record as having the most severe level of HIV infections in the world. In 2012, Swaziland's adult HIV prevalence rate was 26.5 percent, with 5.6 million people infected. Today, South Africa has more people living with HIV than any other country in the world.

HIV infection rates within Southern African militaries are difficult to document; regional governments do not make this information public, citing concerns about national security. However, HIV infection rates within the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) are unofficially estimated to be between 19 percent and 24 percent.³³⁰ A comparison of mortality rates (not related to war) shows a

higher proportion of deaths for corresponding age categories in the SANDF than in the broader society.

In 1999, a South African court ruled in favor of selective deployment of HIV-positive SANDF soldiers. To be eligible for deployment, the soldiers must be asymptomatic (not presenting symptoms of disease or other medical conditions) and on antiretroviral (ARV) medication.³³¹

During this period, there were higher rates of HIV/AIDS infection among older soldiers. Individuals who tested positive were excluded from recruitment from the late 1980s until the late 2000s. However, the lag between infection and the onset of disease (usually 7 – 10 years) meant that soldiers who got infected while serving in the military were able to function for a long time before becoming ill. At the height of the HIV/AIDS epidemic (1988-2000) the disease killed many senior, experienced soldiers.³³²

The immediate effect of the epidemic was that infected soldiers eventually lost the ability to perform their duties. Additionally, resources were strained as the military cared for sick personnel, and struggled to fill gaps created when unfit soldiers were removed from active service. High levels of attrition also impacted the ability of militaries in this region to support peacekeeping missions. (Because of its relative stability, troops from South Africa are frequently called upon to support peacekeeping missions in Central Africa. The availability of healthy troops is, therefore, critical not only to South Africa's security, but also for the success of many military missions elsewhere in Africa.)

In Zambia, AIDS-related illnesses (such as tuberculosis) have killed more military personnel since 1983 than total deaths during Zambia's struggle for independence.³³³ Most

governments in this region have been proactive in their handling of HIV/AIDS within the ranks, and fully recognize the threat that this disease poses to national security.³³⁴ Additionally, prevention efforts were directed at the general population as well because the high infection rates made recruitment and retention of military personnel more difficult. Today, there is a marked improvement across the board as infection rates have decreased as a result of programs such as the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), a USAID led initiative, aimed at reducing the number of new infections, increasing access to treatment in this region and across Africa.³³⁵

Recommended Reading:

For more information on HIV/AIDS in the military see:

"The Threat of HIV/Aids to the South African Military," by Lindy Heinecken

<https://www.stratfor.com/the-hub/threat-hiv-aids-south-african-armed-forces>

HIV/AIDS testing in the South African Defense Forces is only mandatory for soldiers deploying for peacekeeping missions. The United Nations Peace Keeping Mission also requires all countries contributing troops to comply with its mandatory testing requirement.

Irregular Migration

Regional stability, combined with seasonal work opportunities, make Southern Africa an attractive destination for migrants from other parts of Africa. There are still pockets of refugees fleeing conflict and instability in Central Africa, but the larger number of migrants arriving in this region are economic

migrants traveling from poorer countries such as Zimbabwe and Mozambique. Countries preferred by these economic refugees are Namibia, Botswana, and South Africa.

There are several major routes for migrants from East and Central Africa to enter South Africa.³³⁶ Approximately 20,000 people are estimated to have been smuggled into Southern Africa each year from East Africa and the Horn of Africa (primarily from Ethiopia and Somalia). Porous borders facilitate illegal entry, trafficking, and other illegal activities such as poaching endangered wild animals. In addition to illegal immigration, there has also been an increase of legal migrants into this region.³³⁷ Angola, for example, has experienced significant economic growth and has admitted expatriates and other migrants (many are Portuguese-speaking migrants from Portugal and Brazil) who have migrated with the intent to settle permanently.³³⁸

In South Africa, the migration trend began to spike after the fall of apartheid in 1991. Zimbabwe has been a great ally of the African National Congress (ANC), and opened up routes for asylum-seekers and other freedom fighters who were fleeing South Africa to escape harsh sentences at the height of the struggle. When Nelson Mandela was released from prison and the National Party (NP), led by then-President F.W. de Klerk, handed over power to the African National Congress (ANC), the new government did not initially adopt a workable immigration policy to address the flow of Africans into the "new" South Africa. Prior to 1991, most African countries had formally restricted travel of their nationals into South Africa. The swearing in of Nelson Mandela opened up a floodgate of poor Africans from the region, as well as African professionals entering into South Africa. Most illegal migrants filled low-paying jobs, even as thousands more migrated to fill gaps in the health and education sector in both South Africa and Botswana.³³⁹

The migrant flows in and out of this region, combined with the political environment in Zimbabwe, has created an influx of transient labor in this region. Many of these laborers live in high-density areas in South Africa and Botswana. By 1994, the influx of migrants had become overwhelming: South Africa arrested and deported 10,000 illegal immigrants, while Botswana expelled another 13,000.³⁴⁰ Countries like Malawi and Zambia, which are transit routes from East and Central Africa, have actively tried to curb illegal flows of migrants through their territories.



Ethiopian Migrants held in a Malawi prison. The migrants were on their way to South Africa (Source: City Press South Africa)

One of the most notable impacts of this type of migration is evident in the social structure. Migrant groups have their own hierarchy, and have not made efforts to assimilate since they view their stay as temporary. These workers remit monies back home to sustain their extended families, and visit them as often as they can. Competition for low-paying jobs in this region has peaked in recent years owing to the availability of cheap migrant labor. As a result, many migrants are targeted and violently attacked by locals because they are highly visible and are viewed as competitors in the employment market.

For these reasons, attitudes toward foreigners – and particularly African migrants – has gradually evolved into xenophobia. Xenophobia is defined as “fear and hatred of strangers or foreigners or of

anything that is strange or foreign”³⁴¹. Migrants have been labeled as a problem, and are often blamed for high urban crime rates. This attitude is especially pervasive in South Africa and Namibia, although the situation in Botswana has received a harsher response.³⁴² For example, over a million Zimbabweans have left Zimbabwe as a result of an economic crisis that began in the late 1990s. In 2003, Botswana began the construction of a 300-mile fence on its border with Zimbabwe to control the movement of people and livestock from Zimbabwe into Botswana’s territory.³⁴³ At the same time, local Botswana communities began labeling migrants as thieves and, in some instances, organized vigilante groups to expel them.³⁴⁴



Peaceful march against xenophobic attacks in Durban, South Africa (Source: City Press South Africa)

Xenophobia-related attacks have also escalated in South Africa, where locals have begun to accuse African migrants of taking jobs away from black South Africans. After the end of apartheid, an affirmative action policy was put in place to diversify the public sector and, later, the private sector. However, there were not enough skilled black South Africans who could assume these positions. To fill the gaps, the government recruited African professionals from outside South Africa. Competition from guest workers became an issue of concern when a large-scale study on xenophobia conducted in 2006 revealed 59 percent of South Africans were opposed to trading with migrants (black Africans), 61 percent were opposed to migrants starting up small businesses, and 68 percent were opposed to an immigration policy that opened up a path to citizenship.³⁴⁵ The first wave of large-scale

xenophobic attacks occurred in 2008, and resulted in 67 deaths. In 2015, frustrated locals organized protests against African migrants whom they claimed were taking their jobs. These peaceful protests turned violent: mobs used crude weapons like Molotov cocktails to set victims ablaze.³⁴⁶ Although South Africa is enforcing the law to curb illegal immigration and xenophobic attacks, much more needs to be done to change attitudes and shift the tide towards a more tolerant society.

Poaching³⁴⁷

This region is home to a wide array of wild animals, including the ‘big five’ wild animals favored by poachers: lion, rhinoceros, leopard, elephant, and buffalo. Wildlife crime has taken a toll on the environment, especially in this region. Poaching generally leads to the depletion of a species, which in turn impacts the region’s ecosystem. For example, large herbivores like the rhinoceros and elephant distribute plant seeds as they move throughout their environment, so their movement affects regional flora and fauna.

Southern Africa is severely affected by poaching. Elephants are sought-after for their ivory tusks, while rhinoceros are slaughtered for their horns. The main markets for ivory and rhino horn are in Asia, although small amounts are sold to tourists locally. Profits from the sale of these products can be very lucrative, however rhino horn is worth far more than elephant ivory. Wildlife poaching has also given rise to corrupt cartels that bribe government officials in order to facilitate this illicit trade.

In 2002, a shipment of over six tons of ivory concealed in a shipment that had been declared as stone sculptures was discovered in Singapore.³⁴⁸ The haul had been harvested from approximately 300 elephants. DNA testing later revealed that much of the ivory originated from Zambian savannah elephants. The ivory confiscated in Singapore had been poached in Zambia and Mozambique, and then smuggled overland to Malawi. Malawi does not ban the domestic trade in ivory, leaving it vulnerable to exploitation by traffickers. Investigators concluded that Japan was the final destination.

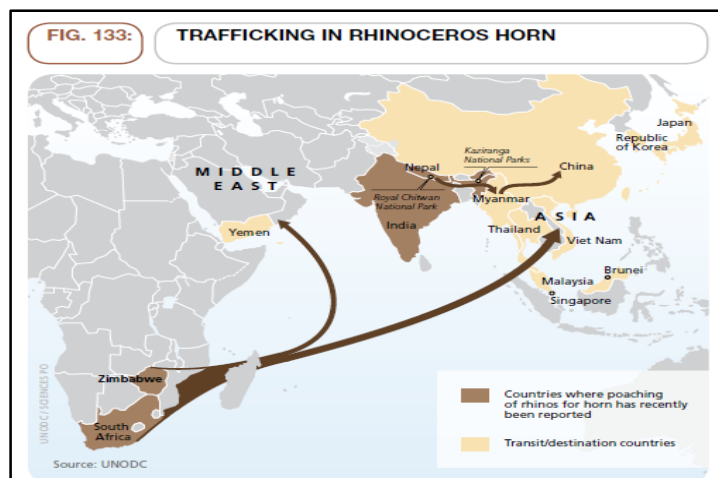


Ivory tusks seized in 2013 (Source: U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service)

Further investigations revealed that the smuggling networks in Zambia and Malawi had been in operation since 1994, and had made at least 19 suspected ivory shipments: 15 shipments were destined for Singapore, and 4 for China. More than 6,834 lbs (3,100 kgs) of illicit rhino horn reportedly reached Asian markets between January 2006 and September 2009, averaging at about 1,764 lbs (800 kgs) per year.

The region faces serious challenges protecting its wildlife, including a lack of effectively managed resources for law enforcement, weak border enforcement, long-standing hunting traditions, and corrupt enforcement officials who may find the economic benefits derived from this illegal market more attractive than their salary.

Many wildlife parks in Southern Africa are now better protected from poaching risks. Poachers have therefore resorted to more sophisticated techniques less likely to attract attention, including the use of veterinary drugs, poison, and cross bows.³⁴⁹ In September 2013, poachers used cyanide to poison a waterhole in Hwange National Park, Zimbabwe's largest game park, and killed more than 80 elephants.³⁵⁰ This same national park was the center of international attention when a famous lion, Cecil, was hunted down by a Minnesota dentist, Walter Palmer, who paid \$50,000 to hunt the lion. The government of Zimbabwe did not prosecute him, but instead prosecuted his guides for "allowing an illegal hunt."³⁵¹



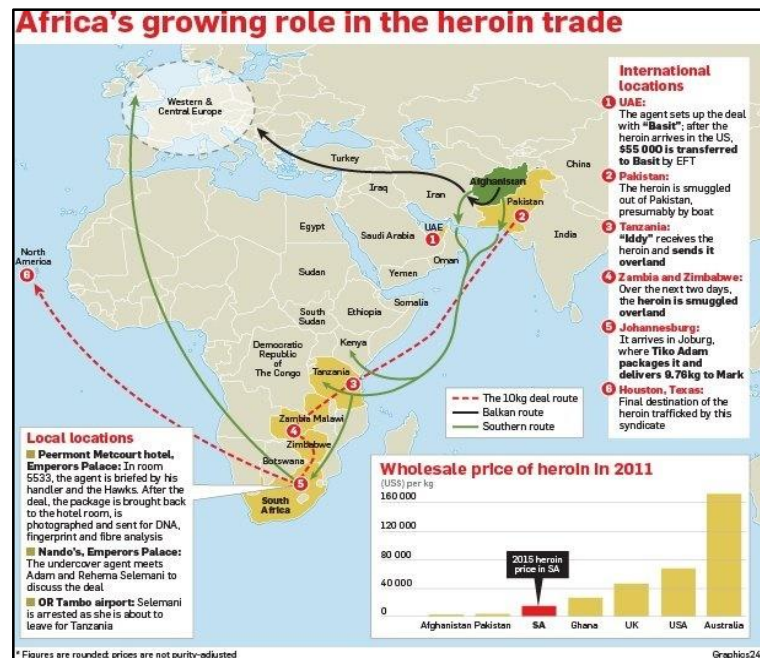
Trafficking in Rhino horn (Source: National Geographic)

Although governments in this region are working to curb illegal poaching, more needs to be done to track wildlife and prosecute offenders. In 2014, the U.S. Fisheries and Wildlife Service partnered with China and Canada to target wildlife criminals in Asia and Africa. The month-long operation – Cobra II -- resulted in the seizure of 32 rhino horns, 3 metric tons of elephant ivory (among other animal products), and the arrest of over 400 people across 28 countries.³⁵² However, local officials still have much to do to: in 2015, 1,175 rhinos were poached in South Africa alone.³⁵³

Narcotrafficking

Southern Africa is both a transit point and destination for narcotics. South Africa is the world's largest market for heroin and cocaine, usually illegally imported from India through various East African countries such as Tanzania.³⁵⁴ Local production of synthetic drugs for domestic consumption is on the rise. The consumption of cocaine and heroin is also steadily increasing.

Despite the relative stability of this region, many underlying socio-economic conditions -- including poverty, illiteracy, unemployment and a high population growth rate, combined with ineffective institutions -- have created an enabling environment for crime and the abuse of drugs.³⁵⁵ Drug cartels have used most of the countries that border South Africa as transit points into South Africa. Angola and Mozambique, for example, are transshipment points for heroin, hashish, and cocaine.³⁵⁶ Most of the drugs entering this region are trafficked to Europe and Asia. South Africa is a major drug transshipping point owing to direct connectivity by air to the West and Latin America.³⁵⁷



Drug route from Southern Africa to Europe and Asia (Source: City Press South Africa)

Additionally, considerable amounts of cannabis and methaqualone are produced in this region for domestic consumption in Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, and Zambia. However, data is lacking in many of these countries due to poor monitoring and the lack of treatment centers. Currently, only South Africa and Mauritius have treatment/recovery facilities.³⁵⁸ Furthermore, drug traffickers often use other drugs as a medium of exchange and rely on local consumers for cash. It is therefore difficult to monitor currency inflows; however it is certain that drug proceeds are used to fund illegal activity. Most of it is laundered locally, especially through the purchase of luxury items— mostly cars and real estate. Drug money has also been used buy votes and patronage during the election season.³⁵⁹

Conclusion

While the Republic of South Africa is a key anchor state that is often engaged with its neighbors to bolster security in the region, Southern Africa continues to battle security challenges, some of which have attracted international attention. The U.S. has offered assistance in the form of capacity building in through maritime security and counterterrorism operations.

It is worth noting that in Southern Africa, much as it is elsewhere on the continent, the underlying causes of conflict persist: underdevelopment, poverty, and youth unemployment. Additionally, environmental conditions make this region vulnerable to floods and famine. These crises frequently require the intervention of the U.S. military with deliveries of food and other aid. The United States

is trying to prevent future floods and famine by funding sustainable projects through USAID. Given the security conditions in this region, and the evolving nature of terrorism, the U.S. will likely to remain engaged in Southern Africa for many more years.

Case Study: The Shona of Zimbabwe

The case study in this chapter introduces a culture from Southern Africa, using the concepts introduced in the Operational Culture General (OCG) document (see attached document).

Introduction

The Shona are a Bantu ethnic group; hundreds of ethnic groups belong to the Bantu family. They all speak one of the Bantu languages,³⁶⁰ and share common traditions and beliefs. The Bantu are descended from a common ancestor; their unique identifying features distinguish them from other neighboring groups. There are over 500 Bantu languages and dialects encompassing East, Central, and Southern Africa. Tribe, clan, and family are important units in Bantu society.³⁶¹

The Shona account for 82 percent of Zimbabwe's population (11.6 million) and are the largest ethnic group in the country.³⁶² The Shona are also present in Mozambique (2.2 million) and Zambia (43,000).³⁶³ The Shona are considered an amalgamation of previously distinct ethnic groups that were clustered into one group. The six distinct subgroups that constitute the Shona tribe include the Karanga, Zezuru, Manyika, Korekore, Rowzi, and Ndau.

The Shona first emerged in the around 800 AD in the valley of the Limpopo River. They migrated into an area of rich farmlands between the Limpopo and Zambezi Rivers around 1000 AD. The Zimbabwean Plateau subsequently became the hub for successive Shona dynasties.³⁶⁴

The following are considered to be the four main Shona empires:

- Kingdom of Mapungubwe: The first known empire was renowned for its trade with Portuguese explorers; gold, ivory, and copper was exchanged for European textiles and glassware.
- Kingdom of Zimbabwe: Existed sometime between 1250 and 1450. The Great Zimbabwe National Monument is a vestige from this era and is a UNESCO World Heritage Site.³⁶⁵ This city is also considered to be the grand medieval capital of Zimbabwe; it covers almost 3 sq mi. The grounds of this ancient city are divided into three areas: the Great Enclosure, the Hill Ruins, and the Valley Ruins. Famine, diminishing trade, and political instability led to the decline and fall of this kingdom.
- Kingdom of Mutapa: Governed over much of what is present-day Zimbabwe and parts of central Mozambique from about 1450 to 1760. It was renowned for its gold trade with Arabs and the Portuguese. A series of trade wars with the Portuguese led the decline of this empire

- The Rozwi Empire: Emerged in the eighteenth century as a direct response to conflict with the Portuguese. Although the Rozwi managed to drive out the Portuguese, they were eventually conquered by the Ndebele.

The Zulu general Mzilikazi (meaning The Great Road) of the Khumalo clan rebelled from King Shaka (renowned for his military might and uniting the Zulu Kingdom) and set up his own tribe, the Ndebele, around 1821. The tribe fought its way northward into the Transvaal, beginning an era of widespread killing and devastation known as the *Mfecane*. After losing the Transvaal in 1840 to the Boers, they moved further north into Shona territory.

The Ndebele, another Bantu ethnic group, conquered some Shona kingdoms in the late 1830s after a Zulu general, Mzilikazi, rebelled from King Shaka (renowned for his military might and uniting the Zulu kingdom) and set up his own tribe, the Ndebele.

The Shona converged in the northeast of present-day Zimbabwe, and were forced to pay tribute to the Ndebele. The Ndebele settled in what became known as Matabeleland in the southwest of present-day Zimbabwe, and established Bulawayo as their capital. They are now the second-largest ethnic group and account for 14 percent of Zimbabwe's population (1.9 of 14 million), with the Ndebele language being one of the three official languages of Zimbabwe.³⁶⁶ About 50 years later, in 1880, the British conquered these lands and brought both the Shona and Ndebele under British rule. The Berlin Conference gave Britain the official right to occupy Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe); Britain finally granted independence to the country in 1980.

Names of Zimbabwe:

Prior to 1883: Kingdom of Zimbabwe

After Berlin Conference (1884-1885): Southern Rhodesia

After Independence (1980): Republic of Zimbabwe

Shona Language

Shona is also the name of the language spoken by the tribe. It is one of the three official languages of Zimbabwe. Although Shona subgroups each have their own dialect, they are very similar and easily understood across all six subgroups.³⁶⁷ Of the six Shona dialects, Zezuru enjoys a privileged status because it is spoken in Harare, the capital of Zimbabwe, and is widely used in the mass media.

While the Shona have maintained their language and culture, they have also assimilated the language and some cultural attributes of the British, their former colonial occupiers.³⁶⁸ Further, the Shona language is important for the maintenance of the Shona identity.

Communities in this region identify with their ethnic groups and their language. Language can also be a tool for mobilization and trade because many languages indigenous to Zimbabwe are shared by communities living across the border in Zambia and Mozambique.

Physical Environment

The Shona are present all across Zimbabwe, Southern Zambia, and west Mozambique. Zimbabwe, a landlocked country, is considered the homeland of the Shona people; this country is also referred to as "Mashonaland." The area traditionally occupied by the Shona covers Harare, the capital, and the

provinces of Manicaland, Mashonaland East, Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland West, Masvingo, and Midlands.

The physical environment in Zimbabwe is highlighted by a plateau or flat plain that dominates the Southern Africa region.³⁶⁹ In fact, the Shona pride themselves in being called the "people of the plateau." The plateau has areas of varying altitudes as it tilts upwards to the east. The average altitude in Shona territories is 4,000 ft (1,220 m) or more, making it ideal for large-scale farming. There are also mountainous ranges known as the Eastern highlands with peaks as high as 6,561 ft (2,000 m). The highest of these ranges is the Inyangani, with peaks as high as 8,503 ft (2,592 m).³⁷⁰

Zimbabwe generally enjoys a tropical climate that is moderated by altitude.³⁷¹ The rainy season runs from November to March, and the annual rainfall ranges from 27.6 to 39.4 in (70 to 100 cm).³⁷² Two waterways sustain the ecosystem in the Shona territory: the Zambezi and Limpopo Rivers. The Zambezi flows from Zambia across six countries, including Zimbabwe, and drains into the Indian Ocean. This river provides water, food, and economic livelihood; it also attracts tourists and generates hydroelectric power. Victoria Falls, a major feature on the Zambezi, is the world's largest waterfall and has a height of 357 ft (109 m), compared to Niagara Falls, whose height is 167 ft (51 m).³⁷³

The Limpopo River is 994 mi (1,600 km) long and flows through four countries, including Zimbabwe.³⁷⁴ Like the Zambezi, the Limpopo was considered a source of food and water for local inhabitants. However, water from this river is unsafe to drink because the area around the Limpopo is overpopulated and has contributed pollutants to the water. However, the Limpopo is still used for farming because a majority of the Shona reside in neighboring rural areas and practice subsistence farming.

The area surrounding the Limpopo River valley is home to diverse flora, fauna, and thousands of species of animal wildlife (many that are legally hunted), including birds, fish, and reptiles. Today, it is evident that overreliance on agriculture and bad economic and environmental policies have resulted in habitat destruction and deforestation; as a result, numerous species in this area are endangered.



Mashonaland (Source: Michigan State University)



Victoria Falls (Source: Wikipedia)

Economy of the Culture

Agriculture

Agriculture (farming and livestock breeding) is the economic mainstay of the Shona. They grew millet and sorghum in pre-colonial times, but corn (commonly referred to as maize) is now the dominant crop. Other crops include cassava, peas, peanuts, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, pineapples, and tomatoes.³⁷⁵

Animal husbandry is also widely practiced by the Shona. Herds of cattle are raised and kept, except in areas infested with tsetse flies (the vector that causes sleeping sickness in humans and trypanosomiasis in animals). Cattle were the traditional form of wealth, and they retain importance in this respect. Other livestock bred by the Shona include donkeys, goats, sheep, and various types of poultry. Except in freehold commercial-farming areas, grazing land remains communal and is habitually overused due to land scarcity.

The colonial administration annexed the best farmland, and forcefully relocated the Shona into marginal areas with infertile soils and low rainfall. Commercial large-scale farms and ranches were then set up and operated by a minority group of white settlers – commercial farm land occupied approximately 20,000 sq mi (51,799 sq km).³⁷⁶ After Zimbabwe gained independence in 1980, cash crops, primarily cotton and tobacco, continued to be grown in these farms. However, in 2000, the government of Zimbabwe adopted a harsh land redistribution policy that took the large commercial farms away from 4000 Zimbabwean white settlers and assigned them to indigenous communities, such as the Shona.³⁷⁷ This has been detrimental to the overall economy because the large farms have ceased being productive and now employ fewer people.³⁷⁸

The radical state-led approach of compulsory land acquisition that started in the 2000s precipitated the current political and economic crisis in Zimbabwe. This has been characterized by:

- Plummeting agricultural and industrial productivity.
- Displacement of dispossessed landowners.
- Record levels of hyperinflation.
- Devaluation of the Zimbabwean Dollar and introduction of the U.S. Dollar as the main currency used in transactions.
- Emergence of a sophisticated alternative economy.

Today, farming is mostly practiced by individual families and is largely informal, with no government oversight or taxation. Farmers grow food for personal consumption; the excess is traded in local markets or transported to large urban areas for sale. Cash for goods is the primary method of exchange, although informal trading systems such as bartering meat for grain is still done in some rural areas. However, few Shona now earn a living exclusively through agriculture because there is a scarcity of good farmland in most communities. Salaried or wage labor supplements most farming activities. The informal sector in particular is a major economic driver because of the high rate of unemployment in the region.³⁷⁹



A woman prepares commodity for sale (Source: USAID)

Other than farming, many people derive an income from the informal sector. This is because formal enterprises have an insignificant role in the national economy. Outside of government employment, there are just a handful of jobs within corporations and the private sector. This means that the informal sector offers the best (and perhaps only) source of livelihood for everyone else. There are also micro-production units and medium-sized enterprises that manufacture household goods, including stoves, pots, pans, and other items. Small production units are homegrown enterprises that employ a small number of people. But sales for most of these enterprises are sporadic and/or seasonal, so income streams are not as consistent as they are for enterprises in the formal sector.

Artistic Production

The Shona are renowned for their artistic heritage. Zimbabwe is home to several styles of stone sculpture. Sculpting stone was a way of life for the Shona long before the arrival of missionaries and explorer.³⁸⁰ In fact, the name Zimbabwe is derived from *dzimbadzamabwe*, a Shona word that means "house of stone."³⁸¹ The Shona were fabricating dwellings with stone before the fifteenth century.³⁸² The Great Zimbabwe, a stone-built Shona community, is preserved as a national monument, and has been designated as a World Heritage Site by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).³⁸³



Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site (Source: Wikipedia)

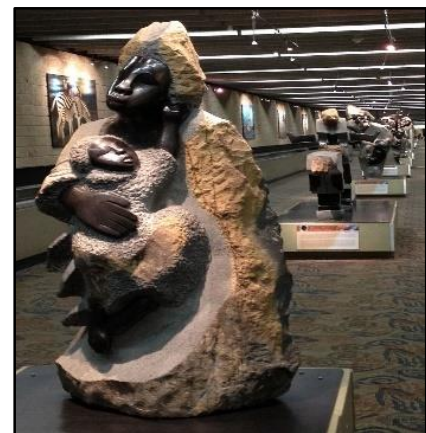
The identity of the Shona is linked to their rich history that produced vibrant kingdoms, notably the Kingdom of Zimbabwe, revered for the Great Zimbabwe National Monument.

are not belief symbols; they are merely a product of artistic expression.

Apart from building homes and granaries for their farm produce, the Shona historically carved and wove ornaments by hand. The artifacts that they produced (and continue to produce) were decorative rather than symbolic. Shona carvings

Today, stone sculptures carved by the Shona are made from serpentine stone, a soft material readily available in Zimbabwe.³⁸⁴ These contemporary sculptures range in size and price, and are sold across the region and internationally. Most of these artifacts are crafted during the winter months (May-August) when there is little agricultural work to be done.³⁸⁵ Men usually sculpt stone; they also carve wood and forge iron. Women seldom carve stone; women working in a craft will mold pottery or weave blankets and baskets. Shona women in rural areas often organize themselves into cooperatives to help sell their products.³⁸⁶

Unyanzvi is the Shona term for "craft literacy." It refers to the human capacity to invent or develop a model that leads to the production of artifacts. The ability to invent and develop artifacts is learned through apprenticeship.³⁸⁷ In Shona culture, the art is passed on in families; often, artisans work in groups. Today, curators travel across the country to look for works for display in regional and international galleries. This helps artisans earn a living because



Zimbabwe sculptures on display at the Atlanta Airport (Source: Wikipedia)

recent political instability and a soft economy have caused many tourists to avoid visiting Zimbabwe. Although the economic reach of this sector has not been documented, it is assumed that the sale of crafts provides income to hundreds of households.

Remittances

Migration among the Shona began in the late 1800s. They migrated to South Africa to work as laborers in mines after the discovery of diamonds in Kimberly (1867) and gold in Witwatersrand (1886). They also flocked to urban areas to work in construction, factories, and domestic service. Migrant workers lived outside Shona territory temporarily; their families remained at home. The passing of the Native Land Husbandry Act (NLHA) in 1951 forcefully evicted the Shona from their original farming areas. Many Shona subsequently migrated to lands that were previously considered inhospitable due to tsetse fly infestation and a semi-arid climate,³⁸⁸ prompting migrants to visit family members or send things of value or money with other relatives returning home. In the 80s and 90s, male labor migration to the mines (in Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) and commercial farms and plantations (in Mauritius, South Africa, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe) was the most enduring form of legal cross-border labor migration within the region.³⁸⁹ Today, migrants flock to urban areas to work in construction, factories, and domestic service. Newly arrived migrants depend on relatives who have already settled. Kinsmen may provide information on where to secure jobs, and will often offer new arrivals food and accommodation.

The Zimbabwean economic and political crisis that began in 2000 prompted a fresh wave of migration.³⁹⁰ There are approximately four million Zimbabweans living abroad; the vast majority of these people emigrated to Southern Africa. There has been a significant increase in informal cross-border movement to neighboring countries, including survival migration of impoverished people and migration of highly skilled nationals. In 2014, official figures revealed that approximately \$1.8 billion was remitted by Zimbabweans living outside the country.³⁹¹ This is not a significant amount in comparison to other countries; however, since Zimbabwe's harsh economic environment has discouraged foreign investment, the remittances are way above anything the country earns in foreign direct investment. The remittances sent, even by low-wage earners, supplement household incomes across Zimbabwe. These remittances provide a much-needed financial cushion for many families.

Social Structure

Family

In Southern African society, the family is regarded as a unit of production, consumption, reproduction, and accumulation;³⁹² the traditional Southern African family unit is the extended family. *Mhuri*, the Shona family unit, is a household headed by a male figure— usually the eldest living male in the extended family. The family unit includes all members of the extended family: grandparents, parents, children, and servants, and may even extend to lodgers or boarders. The broad functions of the family, as understood by the Shona, are procreation, production, consumption of goods and services, and the circulation of human energy. The family unit is also where the Shona are socialized. An individual's worldview is shaped by the family; the family is where an individual learns about social expectations, as well as cultural rituals. However, the family is evolving and members of the same family may have different values and divergent religious beliefs. The same applies to political leanings, although in rural areas it is common for a community linked through kinship to have similar political views and to vote for a particular candidate or political party.

Education in traditional Shona societies took place within the family. Individuals developed knowledge and maintained their livelihood in accordance with the expectations of his society. Lifelong learning was practiced; the process started at birth and ended at death. For example, trades like stone carving were passed on within the family unit with older carvers mentoring younger ones. Today, formal education has a higher value. However, some people believe that the country's education system insufficiently instills the Shona language and culture in younger generations.

In the past 20 years, the Shona family unit has borne the brunt of HIV/AIDS. The high rate of HIV infections via mother to child transmission has directly impacted the family unit, and even a rumor of infection or knowledge of visiting a HIV treatment center could cause one to be ostracized by the extended family. The psychological impact of the HIV pandemic is evident in today's society, although counseling is a big part of HIV prevention and treatment programs.

The HIV/AIDS pandemic among the Shona, as well as other communities in this region, has challenged communitarian norms. The pandemic has introduced change in this collectivist cultural pattern; individuals are increasingly making decisions -- and taking actions -- based on self-interest rather than the interest of the community. Additionally, the stigma and discrimination of infected people leads to secrecy -- further increasing the rate at which the disease is spread. This is especially so because the location of HIV-testing/treatment centers are well-known and often situated in common public sites such as shopping centers or markets; as a result, HIV patients are soon known the community. Therefore, when working in this region, consider the shifting cultural patterns, and take a holistic approach, taking into account the second and third order effects of the disease.

The Shona have a collectivist/ communitarian culture. The HIV/AIDS pandemic gave rise to caregivers within the family unit: the sick were cared for in their homes by members of the family. If parents died, children were cared for by the extended family. The good of the community took precedence over the goals of the individual. This worldview captures the essence of what it means to be human among the Shona. In fact, this communitarian worldview is referred to as *Ubuntu* across Southern Africa.³⁹³ *Ubuntu* translates as "human kindness." The core tenets of *Ubuntu* are, "I am because we are," and "a person is a person through other people."

However, the tough economic environment in Zimbabwe has introduced change into the Shona culture. Many young men have left their homes in search of opportunities outside Zimbabwe -- some never returning. The communitarian values (value for family and togetherness) that are the emphasis of Shona life, have been altered as individuals look to fend for themselves and their nuclear families.

Gender

The Shona are a patriarchal society. Men are the heads of households and the breadwinners. Men are responsible for the security, safety, and well-being of the family. The primary responsibility of women is to manage the household and engage in agricultural production for subsistence.³⁹⁴

Women are an important part of the household and contribute a great deal to the communal way of life. However, although a married woman retains ties with her home of origin, she is bound to her husband's patrilineal ancestry. A married couple resides with or near the husband's parents. A newly

married wife has very limited authority in her husband's home, but her status is elevated as she bears children (especially sons) and has grandchildren.

Women are also caregivers and keepers of the home. They also act as mentors. An aunt, for example, is a custodian of the family, and plays an important role in the socialization of their paternal nieces. It is customary for an aunt to endorse (or not) a potential suitor for her niece. An aunt can influence the termination of a relationship before and after marriage.

Gender roles in traditional African societies were distinct: women were seen as the protected and defended, and men as the providers and the protectors. However, the harsh economic environment that has lately been endured by the Shona has changed this: today, there are many households headed by females because many men have left home to find work in neighboring countries.

Older women are revered for the wisdom they possess and are considered to be keepers of the family history. Their kitchens are greatly respected as learning centers for young people and venues for important family meetings. Today, the Shona woman is a political power broker – women often organize community meetings for formal and informal projects and even for political purposes. Women are heavily involved in political campaigns and are called upon to weigh in (through informal organized groups) on national issues.

Bride Wealth and Marriage

In much of Southern Africa, it is customary for the groom to pay "bride wealth" (*lobola*) to the bride's family, most often in the form of cattle or cash. This is based on the traditional view that compensation must be paid to a woman's family for the loss of her labor when a daughter gets married. A reward must also be provided for the children she will bear for her husband's family.³⁹⁵ The amount is dictated by family status, economic conditions, or the perceived worth of the girl.³⁹⁶ Although marriage negotiations and bride wealth are still common, young couples frequently elope in order to limit the control their parents have over the marriage proceedings.

In Shona society, bride wealth is the basis of marriage and family obligations. Bride wealth historically served to control premarital sexual behavior, marriage, residence, and the kinship ties of children. It was divided into two parts: *Rutsambo* (sexual rights of a woman), and *Roora* (rights over children resulting from the union). The latter is the most important, especially when there is a divorce; it determines who has custody of the children. In Shona culture, the mother has full custody of the children after divorce.

The concept of reciprocity is important in the Shona culture. Bride price is viewed not as payment for the bride but as gratitude to the bride's family for raising a daughter. Bride price marks the beginning of the relationship between the extended families of the bride and the groom.

In traditional Shona societies, childbearing is an important aspect of the marriage relationship. A lack of children in a family was often blamed on the wife.³⁹⁷ A wife is expected to bear many children; her failure to conceive would often lead to divorce or abandonment. The belief that ancestral spirits opposed the presence of nonrelated children in a home deterred the practice of adoption.³⁹⁸ However, fostering the children of relatives was acceptable.

Informal unions that deviate from the traditional marriage are common among young women in urban areas. Many women in an informal union still discuss their partner with their paternal aunts. However,

marriage remains an important indicator of female status; therefore, most women who enter an informal union eventually marry and their husbands provide bride wealth to her family.

Political Structure

Traditional Political Structures

In precolonial times, the primary Shona political unit was the chiefdom. The chief was ultimately responsible for the distribution of land, for appeasing the territorial spirit guardians, and for settling disputes. Leadership was hereditary, and the first son of the chief inherited the title upon his father's death.³⁹⁹ Larger chiefdoms were considered kingdoms. They were subdivided into smaller administrative units called wards, each with a headman. Warfare between the scattered Shona chiefdoms was rare. The tasks of distributing land and settling minor disputes rested on the village headmen. During the colonial era, the main function of the headman was to maintain a tax register.⁴⁰⁰

Today, the Shona people operate within both formal and informal political structures. Formal structures are part of the national apparatus for representation and accountability. Informal structures are centered on traditional forms of governance, which were inherited from former generations. These informal structures play an important role in the everyday life of the Shona. In rural areas, informal governing structures are often more important than formal structures. Additionally, the Shona have played a significant role in national politics: they are the largest ethnic group, and hold a majority of seats in parliament and in the civil service.

Informal political structures are similar in that they rely on local leaders (especially chiefs) to mobilize communities at the grassroots level. Formal structures are centered on democratically elected governments with an executive branch, a legislature, and judiciary. However, challenges to good governance remain. First, corruption and political patronage undermine governance and the capacity to institute quantifiable reforms. Further, the lack of political will and a hard-line executive (i.e. President Robert Mugabe, who has been in power for over 30 years) have made life difficult for the Shona people.

Liberation Struggle

Before colonization, the Shona had never unified as a single political entity.⁴⁰¹ The British colonial conquest led by Cecil Rhodes in the 1890s found the Ndebele ruling several Shona chiefdoms, but some Shona kingdoms were still independent.

The first *Chimurenga* (war of liberation) against British conquest ran from 1896 to 1897, and was inspired by the medium Nehanda Charwe Nyakasikana. However, the Shona lost this war, and were soon after subject to British rule.

The second *Chimurenga* war was an armed insurgency against the white minority government of Ian Smith that started in 1972.⁴⁰² Nationalist guerillas, many of whom were Shona, were trained in Zambia. Government forces had difficulty suppressing the insurgency. The Lancaster House Agreement of 1980 led to Zimbabwe's transition from a British colony into an independent nation.

The Shona were heavily involved in the independence struggle; consequently many people consider Zimbabwe nationalism equivalent or equal to the Shona historical experience.⁴⁰³ However, it unduly minimizes the contribution made by people from other ethnic groups, such as the Ndebele.

The Shona had been forced to give up land during colonialism, and this loss severely affected their livelihood. Land reform was therefore the key issue for the Shona in independent Zimbabwe. At independence, the new government signed an agreement with the British government that gave Britain a time table to compensate the Shona for their loss of land. However, the agreement was not actualized. This led to land reform policies that forced white landowners to abandon their farms in the early 2000s.⁴⁰⁴ The policies also led to economic sanctions and the collapse of the Zimbabwe economy.⁴⁰⁵ The land policy was intended to redress historical injustices against the Zimbabweans. However, economic sanctions and the abandonment of large-scale commercial farming (in favor of smaller farms), have made life difficult for many people.

Ethnic Mobilization and Politics

Conflicts between these organizations deepened the ethnic split between the Shona and the Ndebele. This is rooted in the Ndebele conquest of some Shona territories in the nineteenth century. The conflicts also revealed divisions within Shona subgroups, which continue to drive leadership competitions.

Ethnic mobilization is the process by which groups organize around some feature of ethnic identity (for example, skin color, language, or customs) in pursuit of a collective end.

The Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU), and the Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU) were political parties involved in the armed struggle for independence.⁴⁰⁶ These rival political and military organizations operated separately and sometimes against each other.

ZAPU supporters, who were mostly Ndebele, were portrayed as dissidents. They were targeted by the government's "Operation Gukurahundi" in Matabeleland, where over 20,000 Ndebele were killed in an attempt to destroy ZAPU and create a one-party state. In 1987, ZAPU leader Joshua Nkomo consented to the absorption of ZAPU into ZANU, resulting in a unified party called ZANU-PF, thereby rendering Zimbabwe into a one-party state.⁴⁰⁷

In 1980, Robert Mugabe, a Shona and leader of ZANU, was elected prime minister and head of government. A constitutional revision in 1987 made him president and head of state. Mugabe installed an ethnically based regime that favored the Shona elite within a patronage system.

Strong connections to their local communities is generally more important to most Shona than a general sense of Shona unity or a unified sense of opposition to the Ndebele.⁴⁰⁸ This is due to variations in culture and dialects among the different Shona subgroups. The Ndebele also lack a strong sense of unified group identity, although they are not as diverse as the Shona. Ethnic conflicts between the Shona and Ndebele can therefore be understood as political competitions for power and resources.

Patronage networks are common among the Shona; they derive economic and political benefits for the community.

- A *patron* extends public services, security, and resources (such as wells, roads, and medical centers) to his or her clients.
- In return, the *client* pays a fee or proffers support that helps legitimize the patron's elevated position.

The system of patronage has affected the land reform program by favoring Shona elites who now possess large tracts of land and multiple farms.⁴⁰⁹ Many poor Shona have been sidelined in the process of acquiring land.

Belief System

Belief in Spirits

Ancestral spirits are the cornerstone of Shona religious activity. Even though the majority of Shona people believe in God, virtually all of them still believe that ancestral spirits are their supernatural protectors. Shona folklore centers on mystic figures like Nehanda, the daughter of the founding ancestor of the Mutapa Kingdom who lived in the fifteenth century.

Shona identity is tied to the belief in ancestral spirits who are their supernatural protectors. This is illustrated by the enduring relevance of the legend of Nehanda. There are variations in culture and dialects among the different Shona subgroups. Consequently, strong connections to their local communities is generally more important to most Shona than a general sense of Shona unity.

⁴¹⁰Nehanda was said to have supernatural powers. After her death, she became a *mbondoro* (a spirit), and this spirit possessed a number of "mediums."

Charwe Nyakasikana, a medium of the spirit Nehanda, provided inspiration for the first anti-British *Chimurenga* war (1896-97).⁴¹¹ She is said to have supplied medicine that was reputed to have the power to turn bullets into water. The medicine is alleged to have failed due to disobedience of her command to desist from looting.

Nehanda Charwe Nyakasikana was captured by the British in late 1897. She was tried and executed in early 1898.⁴¹² Thereafter, Nehanda became associated with the theme of resistance.

In the 1960s, an armed anti-colonial rebellion that began in Zimbabwe (and soon spread across Africa) was inspired by Nehanda's heroism. By 1972, this nationalist movement became a full-blown guerilla war that culminated in Zimbabwe's independence in 1980.⁴¹³

Nehanda's name is now prefixed by the respectful title of *Mbuya* (grandmother). *Mbuya* Nehanda continues to be revered. The *Msasa* tree on which she was executed has been declared a historic site and national monument; it is referred to as the "Hanging Tree".⁴¹⁴ Today, the even while practicing formal religions, traditional Shona communities still consult mediums as part of their daily lives.

Traditional Religion

When the British first arrived in Zimbabwe in the 1800s, they used the Zambezi and Limpopo Rivers to bring trade and Christianity to the region, thereby establishing diplomatic relations with the Shona.

The Shona people accepted Christianity as their new religion because they have always believed in a monotheistic spiritual structure. Traditionally, the Shona believed in a supreme being who created and sustains the universe. *Mwari* ("He who is") is the original ancestor, the first person created in *Guruuswa*, (a place equivalent to the Garden of Eden). The Shona believe that *Guruuswa* is the original site of all

creation. *Mwari* had both male and female attributes, and was believed to have created the world and man.

Along with their belief in one supreme being, traditional religious leaders taught the Shona that ancestral spirits are responsible for the protection of the whole extended family. These spirits are believed to have the powers to communicate directly with *Mwari*, and are often thought to mediate on behalf of the people for relationship and for sustenance. For example *Makombwe* was a spirit believed to be responsible for asking for rain from *Mwari*.

The spirits of the departed members of the family who are present within the living community are said to be concerned with the daily affairs of their descendants. They protect the family and help them to solve problems. These spirits are said to be responsible for the welfare of the immediate family members and prevent impending dangers like war and diseases.

Rituals in Religious Practice

An example of a common rite in today's Shona society is the *Kurova Guva*. This rite takes place approximately one year after a person is buried.⁴¹⁵ The ceremony usually occurs over two days (often on a Friday and Saturday). Popular songs and drumming takes place, thereby bringing home the spirit of the deceased person. The purpose of this ceremony is to bring back the spirit of the deceased from the grave to their home to be in the midst of their relatives. It is only after this ceremony does the spirit of a deceased person become a legitimate ancestral or family spirit.

The Shona believe that witches and wizards are responsible for all evil directed at the community or family. The Zimbabwe Witchcraft Amendment Act of 2006 recognizes the existence of witchcraft and criminalizes any witchcraft practice that is harmful to others.⁴¹⁶ However, there is some difficulty in ascertaining what exactly constitutes witchcraft.

The Shona also believe in traditional medicine. Many people consult traditional healers prior to the full onset of an illness.⁴¹⁷ The practice of traditional medicine has been sustained by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Relatives of the deceased are often aware that their loved one succumbed to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. However, traditional remedies are sought to heal the disease or to find out why the disease specifically targeted their family and singled out their relative. This is because the Shona believe that when illness befalls a family member, it is also considered an ill omen for his extended family and community. When illness strikes, traditional rituals are performed in order to banish the illness and restore harmony to the community.

Christianity

The Shona initially adopted Christianity in order to access the services and amenities that missions offered, primarily Western-style education and healthcare. However, conversion to Christianity did not prevent the Shona from continuing to believe in traditional religion, or participation in traditional rituals.⁴¹⁸

Many Shona practice syncretism and pluralism. They integrate traditional religious practices and beliefs with new beliefs to create a single religious system. They continue to respect their traditional religion, especially where it is concerned with physical, spiritual, emotional, and social healing well as divining, because they see positive results and believe that these practices work.

In recent years, the spread of mainstream Christianity has declined as African Initiated Churches (AIC) have grown. The appeal of the AICs stems from their ability to combine Christian doctrine with traditional beliefs and practices. Faith healing, prophesy, and exorcism are common AIC practices. The Apostolic Church of Zimbabwe, founded by Johane Masowe, is a leading Shona independent church.

Conclusion

You might have noticed that the case study does not include all, or even many, of the concepts discussed in the OCG. This is only natural; a comprehensive body of literature devoted to the study of a single culture is rare. In fact, Marines are frequently called upon to operate in areas where current information on local culture is scarce. What the OCG and the chapters in this document do are help Marines learn about their assigned region, and acquire skills and concepts that will assist them in operating effectively in complex cross-cultural situations in any part of the globe when information is scarce or rapidly changing.

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