UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL AUTÓNOMA DE MÉXICO

FACULTAD DE FILOSOFÍA Y LETRAS

COLEGIO DE GEOGRAFIA

INFORME ACADÉMICO

ELABORACIÓN COMENTADA DE MATERIAL DIDÁCTICO PARA APOYAR LA DOCENCIA EN LA MATERIA DE GEOGRAFÍA DE ASIA, ÁFRICA Y OCEANÍA 2010-2

QUE PARA OBTENER EL GRADO DE:

LICENCIADA EN GEOGRAFÍA

PRESENTA:

ELSA ADELAIDA ARAGO ABREGO

ASESOR:

MTRO. FRANCISCO ENRÍQUEZ DENTON

MÉXICO, D. F. **JULIO, 2010**

DEDICATORIAS

A mi madre, Elsa Abrego,

por su continuo esfuerzo y extremo rigor. Te quiero mucho mamá.

A mi padre, Sergio Arago,

que le tocó la ardua tarea de llevarme a la escuela.

A mi esposo, Ricardo Ruiz,

por su paciencia, apoyo incondicional y por todas las aventuras pasadas y por venir.

A mi abuelita, Adelaida,

porque sigues aquí conmigo.

A mi hermano, Antonio,

por que espero grandes logros.

A Dulce por todo su entusiasmo y dedicación

y a Sergio por tanto cuento.

Al Maestro Francisco Denton, que sin su apoyo esto no sería posible.

Y a Misha!!

ÍNDICE

INTRODUCCIÓN

El nuevo milenio ha traído cambios radicales, manifestados en aspectos diversos tales como grandes aglomeraciones de la población, una alta concentración de la riqueza en ciertos Estados-nación y, un papel cada vez más hegemónico de enormes corporaciones transnacionales que trascienden fronteras y culturas.

En este contexto, la relación entre territorio, rasgos físico-geográficos y actividades económicas, políticas, sociales y culturales, se ha visto modificada, principalmente, por dos fenómenos: la globalización y el avance científico-tecnológico, fenómenos que transforman o sustituyen los anteriores paradigmas teóricos, conceptuales y metodológicos que analizaban las lógicas espaciales de la localización y distribución económica; este fue el caso de la indispensable cercanía de las materias primas a los centros de producción y a los mercados; situación que, en la actualidad, no se cumple del todo, siendo la industria automotriz, uno de los ejemplos más representativos de dichos cambios, en virtud de que la fabricación de un vehículo se realiza bajo la lógica espacial de producción de un sistema posfordista, que involucra la participación de distintos países, ubicados, con frecuencia, en diferentes regiones del planeta.

En consecuencia, es indispensable una actualización teórica, conceptual y metodológica tanto de la disciplina geográfica en sí, como de las formas y estrategias que se adoptan en los procesos de su enseñanza y aprendizaje; ya que los nuevos escenarios inter escalares (global, nacional, regional y local), requieren nuevos enfoques y abordajes para el estudio integral y sistémico del territorio.

El cambio climático, la migración de millones de personas, la presencia de productos de empresas transnacionales en la mayor parte de los países del mundo y la hibridación de valores culturales globales por los valores culturales regionales o locales, son ejemplos de la nueva relación que existe entre el amplio y heterogéneo mosaico de pueblos y naciones que habitan la Tierra.

De lo anterior se infiere la importancia y necesidad de replantear, conceptual y formalmente la enseñanza de la geografía, como una disciplina que aporta conocimientos indispensables para explicar cómo inciden los procesos económicos, políticos, sociales y culturales en la modificación de las características físicas del planeta y, cómo este cambio influye, a su vez, en estos procesos. El cambio climático y la desaparición de especies animales y vegetales por el abuso en la utilización de recursos naturales, para satisfacer los requerimientos de una población en constante aumento, sustenta la importancia de generar nuevos conocimientos que contribuyan a resolver estos efectos nocivos.

Los avances en didáctica también señalan hacia una modificación de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de la geografía, al transitar de una didáctica tradicional, donde el maestro únicamente transmite información, a una formación donde el estudiante es el protagonista de su propio aprendizaje y, el docente es quien estimula y orienta los cambios de actitud establecidos en el plan de estudio y en los programas de la asignatura, para obtener así, los conocimientos, habilidades, actitudes y valores necesarios para la comprensión y dominio de las problemáticas fundamentales concernientes al campo de la geografía.

Por otra parte, las tecnologías de la información y comunicación (TICs) se han convertido en excelentes recursos didácticos, puesto que el conocimiento se difunde con mayor velocidad, y desde lugares distantes, lo que hace posible la investigación complementaria a distancia. Además, la informática ha producido programas para la captación de datos, la elaboración

cartografía de gran precisión e instrumentos para la manipulación precisa de información, la interpretación de datos y la producción de resultados, por lo que estos conocimientos y el desarrollo de habilidades en el manejo de diversos programas son indispensables en la formación de los nuevos geógrafos.

La instrumentación didáctica, para este nuevo enfoque del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de la geografía, debe diversificarse de acuerdo a los contenidos que serán abordados y enfocarse al aprendizaje del alumno. En consecuencia, también los materiales didácticos deben ser modificados para adaptarse tanto a los objetivos generales de cada asignatura como a las estrategias didácticas diseñadas por cada profesor para alcanzar los objetivos. Nuevamente la tecnología proporciona herramientas muy útiles para elaborar materiales eficientes para los aprendizajes de las y los estudiantes y facilitar una mejor comunicación entre los docentes y los alumnos.

La disposición de información en las redes globales del conocimiento hace posible que el estudiante tenga acceso al conocimiento de frontera, sin embargo es atribución del maestro dotar al alumno de los elementos de juicio para que puedan comprender y aplicar correctamente esta información.

El fenómeno de la globalización incide en los conceptos de región y en su relación con el territorio, así como con sus vínculos con los procesos socioeconómicos que interactúan en todo el planeta; por lo que su estudio es indispensable para entender los cambios que se están realizando, para visualizar sus posibles efectos y para hacer propuestas que disminuyan la inequidad, la pobreza y la agresión a los recursos del planeta.

Una de las herramientas fundamentales para poder adquirir los conocimientos de vanguardia, es el aprendizaje del idioma inglés, pues es en esta lengua que se difunde la

mayor parte de la información, ya que las investigaciones se hacen en idiomas muy diversos pero la publicación de resultados se hace en inglés, generado en las diversas instituciones de investigación geográfica.

Con base en lo anteriormente expuesto, el presente **Informe Académico**[1] tiene como propósito principal mostrar y comentar de manera crítica, el material didáctico, elaborado por el profesor Denton, como apoyo a la enseñanza de la asignatura de *Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía* que se impartió durante el semestre escolar 2010-2 (de febrero a junio de 2010) y, cuyo objetivo esencial expresado en el plan de trabajo por el docente consistió en:

Los estudiantes, por una parte, plantearán y discutirán las problemáticas fundamentales de las distintas regiones de Asia, África y Oceanía en el contexto de la Globalización, atendiendo a las perspectivas necesarias para un análisis integral y profunda comprensión y, por otra parte, valorarán la importancia del espacio geográfico, de sus múltiples significados, de los recursos naturales que se generan en él y, de los procesos sociales, económicos, políticos y culturales que lo constituyen y lo transforman constantemente. (Enríquez Denton, 2010. Programa de la materia).

No obstante que gran parte del material didáctico fue elaborado por el profesor Denton (el realizó la tarea técnica de escanear el material y la formación, de lo que se nombró, como "apuntes electrónicos"), por indicaciones de él, yo lo recopilé, organicé, revisé y estructuré como Informe Académico, siempre bajo su autorización y dirección, pero sobre todo, mi participación consistió en recuperar la experiencia docente del profesor, describiendo la tarea sobre la cual versa el informe, valorando de modo crítico el material, revisando que

[1] El presente trabajo se circunscribe dentro del proyecto: "Geografía, Educación y Responsabilidad Social", inscrito al Centro de Apoyo a la Investigación de esta Facultad (FFyL-UNAM), con fecha de 10 de abril de 2007 y con número de registro PIFFyL 2007 011; dirigido por los profesores Francisco Enríquez Denton (Geografía Humana) y Estela Rangel Calvillo (Geografía de México). Entre los objetivos a desarrollar en el proyecto se encuentran la elaboración de material didáctico de apoyo a la docencia y la formación de recursos humanos que, a partir de una cultura de la planeación, evite la improvisación y mejore los procesos educativos vinculados con la enseñanza de la disciplina geográfica.

estuvieran desarrollados con claridad y adecuados para el nivel de licenciatura. Los comentarios tanto del material como de las dinámicas de la clase, fueron realizados con base en mi experiencia personal (como alumna de su materia) y, a partir de un escrutinio y análisis sistematizados de dichos materiales.

Para hacer posible esta evaluación, realicé el siguiente proceso: en primer lugar se revisó completa y minuciosamente el texto que sustentó la parte central del curso, posteriormente se revisaron las preguntas rectoras del debate, con la finalidad de comprobar que estas eran comprendidas por los estudiantes, con base en lo anterior se hizo una confrontación de las preguntas con las respuestas, enviadas por los alumnos, en cada sesión para determinar cuál fue el conocimiento fundamental que se generó a través de este proceso y compararlo con los objetivos planteados para cada sesión, unidad, tema y el objetivo general del curso. Los comentarios a cada pregunta aparecen en el texto, son producto de este análisis y fundamentan el juicio acerca del material didáctico y de la instrumentación didáctica con la que se llevó a cabo este curso.

También se elaboró la estructura el documento, siguiendo la siguiente secuencia:

- Expresión del material didáctico
- Análisis de las preguntas fundamentales
- Ponderación de las respuestas modelo
- Elaboración de los comentarios de cada uno de los capítulos
- Elaboración de las conclusiones en las que se expresan los resultados del análisis del material didáctico y de la instrumentación didáctica realizada dentro del curso.

El título del informe corresponde a la modalidad que establece la Facultad para titularse y el nombre está relacionado con la materia que el profesor Denton decidió en la que podría participar: Geografía de Asía, África y Oceanía.

Es importante señalar que el texto que se presenta no es el único utilizado a lo largo del semestre, ya que se complementa con otras lecturas en otros formatos electrónicos, así como video documentales y podcasts. Utilizar el texto en inglés pretende que alumnas y alumnos desarrollen la habilidad de comprensión de lectura de temas con contenido geográfico, más no de traducción.

A continuación se presenta el desglose del **Programa de la Asignatura** en cuestión:

I. Planteamiento general del curso

La asignatura de **Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía** tiene como propósito fundamental que el estudiante analice la organización territorial de estas regiones, en términos físicos, sociales, económicos, políticos, culturales y medioambientales desde una perspectiva integral.

II. Enfoque

El enfoque que se emplea para la impartición de la materia de Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía es de carácter ínter, multi y transdisciplinario, tal circunstancia permite tener contacto pleno tanto con disciplinas científicas como la Historia, la Antropología, la Economía, el Derecho y la Ciencia Política, como con disciplinas humanísticas, este es el caso de expresiones artísticas y culturales como la Literatura, la Danza, la Música, el Teatro o los diferentes tipos de creencias religiosas; situación que nutre el análisis del proceso de "inserción" de los pueblos de estas regiones en este nuevo esquema de relaciones interterritoriales.

III. Objetivos generales

Al finalizar el curso, la y el estudiante:

- Reconoce los principales rasgos territoriales de Asia, África y Oceanía desde la perspectiva de una Geografía Crítica.

- Identifica los diferentes tipos de relaciones que hay entre el medio físico de estas grandes regiones y los aspectos sociales, económicos, políticos y culturales.
- Valora la importancia de las diversas regiones y subregiones del mundo, de sus múltiples significados, de los recursos naturales que se generan de ellas y, de los factores y procesos sociales, económicos, políticos y culturales que las construyen y las transforman constantemente.
- Resalta las profundas desigualdades de desarrollo que hay entre estos continentes y hacia el interior de ellos.
- Adopta una posición crítica e informada frente a la temática planteada.

IV. Temario de la asignatura de Asia, África y Oceanía. Sexto Semestre

Unidad I Globalización, desarrollo humano y geografía regional mundial

- De lo Global a lo Local, el manejo interescalar.
- Diversidad en el mundo.
- Tendencias económicas y culturales en el mundo contemporáneo.
- Regiones, Globalización y Desarrollo Humano.
- Desarrollo de las regiones en el mundo.
- La Geografía Regional Mundial: Una perspectiva desde los problemas relevantes.

Unidad II África subsahariana: balance y resultados de una descolonización inacabada

- Región y Conjuntos Geopolíticos.
- Rasgos fundamentales del territorio.
- Historia cultural y Colonialismo.
- Globalización y Desarrollo Humano.
- Problemas contemporáneos en la región.
- Estudio de caso.

Unidad III Norte de África y suroeste de Asia: problemas y perspectivas

- Región y Conjuntos Geopolíticos.
- Rasgos fundamentales del territorio.
- Historia cultural y Colonialismo.
- Globalización y Desarrollo Humano.
- Problemas contemporáneos en la región.
- Estudio de caso.

Unidad IV Lejano oriente, Asia meridional y sudeste asiático: crecimiento, desarrollo y medio ambiente

- Región y Conjuntos Geopolíticos.
- Rasgos fundamentales del territorio.
- Historia cultural y Colonialismo.
- Globalización y Desarrollo Humano.
- Problemas contemporáneos en la región.
- Estudio de caso.

Unidad V Oceanía y sus relaciones hemisféricas: realidades y proyectos

- Región y Conjuntos Geopolíticos.
- Rasgos fundamentales del territorio.
- Historia cultural y Colonialismo.
- Globalización y Desarrollo Humano.
- Problemas contemporáneos en la región.
- Estudio de caso.

V. Fuentes de consulta

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CBS. (1999). "Camboya 1975". Serie: *El águila y el oso, reportajes de la Guerra Fría*. Duración 30 minutos.

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Sitios en Internet

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- http://www.un.org/Depts/Cartographic/english/htmain.htm

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- http://www.odci.gov/cia/publications/factbook/index.html
- http://www.nationalgeographic.com/maps/
- http://plasma.nationalgeographic.com/mapmachine/
- http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/spanish/news/

VI. Estrategias de enseñanza-aprendizaje

■ En un *Sistema Escolarizado*, la evaluación está estrechamente vinculada a la **asistencia**, por lo que si el alumno no se presenta a clases, es casi imposible evaluarlo.

■ Es importante resaltar que el planteamiento educativo del curso no se basa, únicamente, en la exposición de los temas por parte del docente, sino en la participación activa y constante del alumno, a través de la aplicación de diversas estrategias de *enseñanza-aprendizaje* como:

a) ***Mesa Redonda***: mediante la selección de un grupo de alumnos se expondrán los distintos puntos de vista en relación con una problemática planteada.
b) ***Exposición Interactiva***: fomentará la participación constante de los estudiantes.
c) ***Investigación Documental***: los alumnos buscarán información sobre un tema en específico, procurando identificar las ideas principales que serán sintetizadas en un resumen.
d) ***Panel***: previa investigación de un tema, algunos alumnos intercambiarán ideas sobre lo que se investigó; mientras que el resto de la clase tomará notas y formulará preguntas que los integrantes del panel contestarán al finalizar la sesión.
e) ***Lluvia de Ideas***: se expondrán libremente las ideas sobre un tema y después los alumnos bajo la supervisión del profesor (a), discriminarán la información jerarquizándola y clasificándola.

f) ***Taller***: se trabajará en equipos, en particular, cuando se analicen noticias relevantes del periódico o de otro medio de comunicación.

g) ***Seminario***: se utilizará para reflexionar sobre el contenido de un video-documental que se presente.

h) ***Exposición por parte de los alumnos***: se utilizará también para la discusión de los **controles de lectura**.

i) ***Debate o Foro***: se empleará para la discusión y crítica de los videos presentados.

j) ***Estudios de Caso***: se empleará para analizar y sensibilizar a los alumnos en temas polémicos y controvertidos.

k) ***Investigación de Campo***: promoverá entre los alumnos, el contacto directo con las fuentes de información, por medio de cuestionarios, entrevistas, encuestas y guías de observación, entre otros.

l) ***Entrevista***: se invitará a un especialista para el tratamiento de un tema.

m) ***Mapa Conceptual***: permitirá a los alumnos estructurar los conceptos clave mediante un diagrama jerarquizado.

n) ***Representación de roles (sociodrama)***: a través de una simulación algunos alumnos representarán con base en un guión, previamente elaborado, una situación vinculada con los temas que se estudian.

ñ) ***Elaboración de cartografía***. Se realizarán con el propósito de obtener una expresión territorial de las alianzas o asociaciones económicas, políticas y comerciales.

o) ***Exámenes teóricos, prácticos y de localización***: Éstos pueden ser orales y escritos.

- Con base en estas consideraciones, en el curso de *Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía*, el profesor, además de explicar las dudas que se generan durante las clases, orienta y guía a los alumnos, para que ellos, mediante una actitud comprometida y responsable sean los principales protagonistas del curso, pieza fundamental en la **construcción** de su propio conocimiento y en la adopción de una postura crítica y de búsqueda de la verdad.

VII. Criterio de evaluación

1. **Evaluación continua: 40%**, comprende asistencia y participación en clase, trabajos, mapas conceptuales, controles de lectura, ensayos y actividades cartográficas.
2. **Exámenes parciales: 40%** (cuatro exámenes, 10% c/u; algunos pueden corresponder a relatorías de visitas y conferencias).
3. **Examen final: 20%** (Para aprobar el curso, es necesario que la calificación de este examen final sea mínima de 6.0 o superior).

Asistencia: Debido a que es un Sistema Escolarizado, el alumno deberá cubrir el 80% de asistencias a las clases, para acreditar la materia (ver reglamento de la Universidad).

4. **Participación**: Esta debe ser concreta y objetiva, con base en los controles de lectura, en los trabajos de investigación o en los temas vistos en clase.
5. **Controles de lectura**: Pueden ser de carácter introductorio, complementario o de ampliación del tema visto en clase. El reporte deberá ir en los apuntes o cuando se indique será para entregar, de acuerdo con las instrucciones, en donde se destaquen las ideas principales que se discutirán en clase o las dudas e interrogantes. Además deberán añadir un comentario objetivo y concreto sobre el contenido, el autor o el enfoque (y si así lo requiere, un mapa de localización relacionado con el tema).
6. **Portafolio hemerográfico o Atlas de Geografía Humana en CD**: Consiste en la recopilación y análisis semanal de **noticias** o **mapas** de periódicos y revistas y capturarlas en *Power Point*, acompañadas cada una (noticias o mapas) de un comentario, análisis o reflexión.
7. **Exámenes parciales y final**: Cada uno tendrá un **porcentaje de evaluación**; por lo que el promedio de estas evaluaciones tendrá un **porcentaje general** y estarán constituidos por tres secciones: una teórica, otra práctica y la última de localización.

VIII. Dinámica de la clase

1. Las clases comienzan en punto. Ya iniciada la clase, se recomienda abstenerse de entrar y salir, si lo llegan a hacer, será bajo el riesgo de registrar su inasistencia.
2. El peso de la clase recae en las lecturas y en los trabajos y actividades de investigación, por lo que se deberán organizar para la reproducción del material, responsabilizándose en cumplir con las tareas asignadas.
3. El enfoque didáctico de la clase está basado en la *construcción individual* y *colectiva* del *conocimiento*; las sesiones están diseñadas para fomentar el análisis y la discusión de los temas a tratar, así como la aclaración de dudas y el desarrollo de habilidades de investigación (NO ES EXPOSITIVA). Los principales protagonistas de la sesión son los alumnos no el profesor; cuya función primordial es guiar, aclarar y fomentar el análisis y discusión crítica de los temas.
4. Es común que en la clase se utilicen aparatos audiovisuales o material didáctico, por lo que se deberán organizar en equipos, para que cada uno se responsabilice en traerlos durante las clases de cada mes.
5. También es necesario que se lea el periódico, por lo que cada uno de estos equipos será responsable de traer uno a la clase (distinto a los demás) para comentar las noticias más relevantes.
6. Por último, deberán traer siempre un atlas, diccionario y mapas (planisferios o por continentes con división política y sin nombres) para trabajar en clase.

1

"Chapter 1 Globalization and World Regions (First Part)". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). Pp.1-11a

Febrero, 2010

ACTIVIDADES DE APRENDIZAJE, FUENTES DE CONSULTA Y ORIENTACIONES PARA EL ESTUDIO	
Obligatorias por unidad	**Orientaciones para el estudio**
UNIDAD l. Globalización, desarrollo humano y geografía regional mundial. **Objetivo:** Reflexionar sobre la división regional del mundo y los criterios de delimitación.	**Presentación de la materia:** Entrega de calendario, programa de la materia y plan de trabajo (**Semana I: Miércoles 03 de febrero de 2010**).
1. "**Chapter 1 Globalization and World Regions**". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.1-22	**Actividad 1:** Leer el texto y realizar las actividades que se establezcan (**Semana III: Fecha de entrega de control de lectura y discusión en clase, Miércoles 17 de febrero de 2010**).
2. "**Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography**". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.23-64	**Actividad 2:** Leer el texto y realizar las actividades que se establezcan (**Semana IV: Fecha de entrega de control de lectura y discusión en clase, Miércoles 24 de febrero de 2010**).
Semana IV: **Fecha de 1er Examen Parcial, Sábado 27 de febrero de 2010** (**Unidad 1**).	

PLAN DE TRABAJO

I. Temas.

- **Globalization and World Regions (*First Part*).**

II. Objetivos informativos.

- **Analizará la influencia de la Globalización en la organización de la Geografía Regional Mundial.**

III. Objetivos formativos.

- **Valorará el enfoque regional como un instrumento teórico-metodológico de aproximación al conocimiento territorial del planeta.**

IV. Motivación

➔ **Pregunta motora**: (reflexión personal)

¿Cómo influye la Globalización en las distintas regiones del planeta?

V. Actividad de crítica y reflexión.

- Con base en el análisis del "***Chapter 1 Globalization and World Regions (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections,*

Local Voices. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.1-11a; los alumnos comprenderán la influencia de la globalización en el mundo.

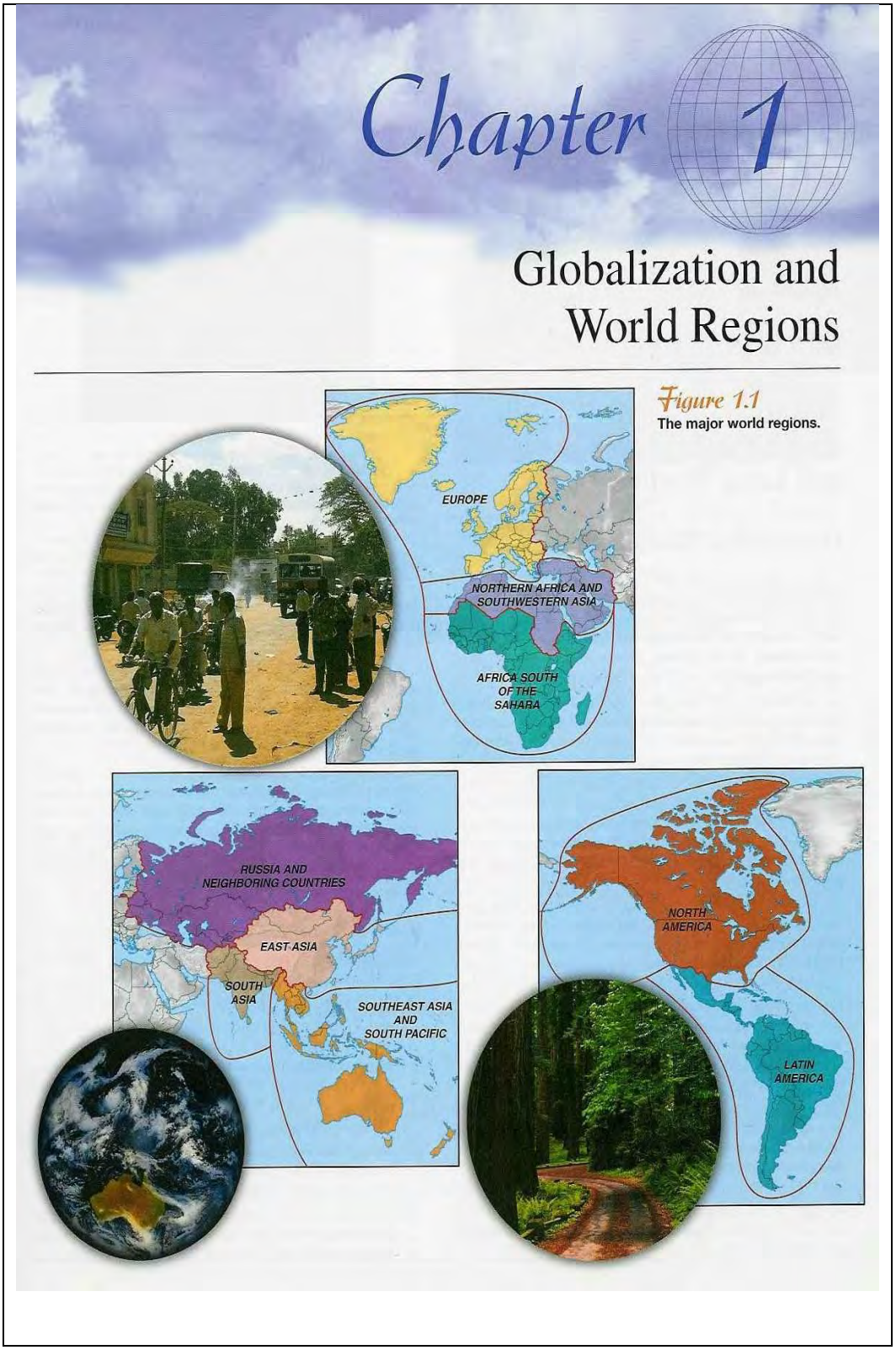
El desarrollo de la actividad consiste en:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **dos partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos.

2. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 17 de febrero de 2010**.

3. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

VI. Contenido y Desarrollo.



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"***Chapter 1 Globalization and World Regions (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.2-11a

This Chapter Is About . . .

Globalizing and localizing trends in geography
Current political, economic, cultural, and environmental issues
The nature of geography and what geographers do
Defining locations of places
Geographical studies based on regions, spatial analysis, and human-environment relationships
How regions are created and changed
Major world regions: the subjects of Chapters 3 through 11
How world regions developed through history
Global Focus: 9/11
Point-Counterpoint: Facets of Globalization

Figure 1.2 **Earth from space.** At the global level, the blue planet is so named because of the predominance (71%) of water on its surface. Australia, the dry continent, stands out, as do the cloud systems of the equatorial region to the north and the midlatitude weather systems to the east.

Global, Regional, and Local Worlds

Different and Changing Worlds

Earth is a planet of great variety (Figure 1.1). Whether we see it as a whole globe or study our own locality in detail, we find diversity. By comparing places, we discover differences and common features in parts of the world. And we live at a time when changes in our political, economic, and social experiences and expectations occur more and more rapidly.

Geographers find the study of our world a challenge because it is such a diverse, complex, and rapidly changing place. While the world stays the same physical size, connections among people bring places closer as cooperation, competition, and conflict with other peoples become more intense. For example, authors living far apart (England, Maryland, and Louisiana) created this text through daily e-mail contact with each other and universal access to the latest data and reports housed in various Internet websites—neither of which was possible ten years ago.

Geographic literacy is essential now more than ever because people are connected and interacting on unprecedented levels. The events of September 11, 2001 (see "Global Focus: 9/11," on the next page), brought home not only the ease with which people could penetrate U.S. security systems but also alerted the United States and the wider world to common concerns and interests as well as alternative views on what the future might hold for different parts of the world.

At the outset, we view Earth at four geographic levels ranging from the whole globe to our local environments. *Global* views from spacecraft (Figure 1.2) show the contrasts between continental land areas and ocean waters. *Major world regions* are whole or large parts of continents and are the divisions used in this text for the regional chapters (see Figure 1.1 and Chapters 3 through 11). *Countries* are the building blocks of major world regions. At the smallest scales, *local regions* are parts of countries and the places where many individuals voice their concerns.

Globalization and Localization

Two apparently opposed geographic trends help us understand what makes places different and causes changes to occur at the present time.

Globalization, in its simplest form, is the increasing level of interconnections among people throughout the world. The speed and intensity of globalization, especially in terms of world trade and the flow of financial investments, increased markedly in the 1990s.

Localization is both a response to and outcome of globalization. On the one hand, global exchanges and flows of information, ideas, people, money, and technology move us toward worldwide political solutions, economic exchanges, cultural attitudes, and environmental concerns. On the other, localization focuses on distinctive identities of places or people in regions, countries, or local areas.

Facets of Globalization

Increasing global connections take place through intensified flows of ideas, goods, and people:

- *Ideas, technologies, and diseases.* Most poorer countries wish to modernize to catch up with the materially wealthier countries. Technology transfer through improved communications and transportation is basic to such progress. The forces that ease the flow of ideas, however, also help terrorism, as well as drug, armament, and slave trafficking and the spread of HIV/AIDS.
- *Goods from many places of manufacture.* Trade in raw materials, food products, and manufactured goods increased rapidly in the late 1900s. Supermarket foods, clothing, electronic products, and autos come from an increasing number of countries, often marketed by multinational corporations of U.S., Asian, or European

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

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GLOBAL Focus

9/11

"Tuesday, September 11, 2001, changed the world." The al-Qaeda terrorists who crashed passenger airplanes loaded with fuel into the World Trade Center (Box Figure 1) and the Pentagon on 9/11 made the most serious attack on the continental United States since its independence. Immediately, a new vulnerability took hold of people, along with the distress that impacted families of those killed or injured. Over the longer term, however, it can be seen that those events mainly brought home trends that for many years influenced American political and personal lives. We discover a new world—one of increasing global connections and of responding local voices. What happens in one place affects others around the world. Although there is a long way to go before we are all part of one "global village" or a borderless world, it is vital for Americans (and people in all countries) to have a better understanding of other people and countries. American isolationism can no longer be sustained.

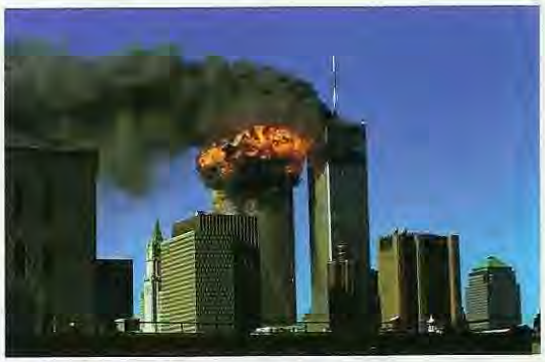
New York is—and its World Trade Center was—a symbol of the increasing intensity of world trading in goods, movements of finance, and controls and exchanges through major stock exchanges and banks. It is a focus of employment for international accountants, lawyers, media and advertising specialists, and technologically expert professionals who manage global movements of money, contracts, and insurance liabilities. Almost every country in the world was represented among the 3,000 people who died in the World Trade Center: those who died were mainly Americans, but a hundred British citizens and other Europeans and people from Latin American, African, and Asian countries were killed as well.

Within weeks or months, many of the systems that broke down after the attack were restored. People resumed their lives. The former World Trade Center site was cleared of debris ahead of schedule. After a period of wild fluctuations in the markets, the resilience of the global economic system was demonstrated. Some corporations, especially airlines and airplane makers, were hit hard, but they too survived and then recovered, taking the opportunity of fewer passengers to trim their staffs and reduce equipment investments. Americans gave generously to charities, donating over $1 billion to organizations such as the American Red Cross to help the victims and their families of the tragedy. Americans displayed flags everywhere with a new sense of patriotism. Ironically, many of these flags were produced in China, illustrating just how interconnected the world had become.

In reaction to the events of 9/11, the United States and its close allies assembled international support for taking action against terrorism. Their forces focused on Afghanistan, where Osama bin Laden and his al-Qaeda terrorist group received protection from the Taliban government. The United States, with military support from its allies, bombed the Taliban into submission, handing control of Afghanistan to local leaders who opposed the Taliban's rule. The security forces of the countries working against terrorism began to identify al-Qaeda support in almost every country in the world. Organizations suspected of links to al-Qaeda had funds seized and their members imprisoned. The movements of suspected terrorists showed that they had easy entry to European countries and the United States, where they could plan and train for further acts.

In the wider world, countries such as Israel, Zimbabwe, Russia, and the Philippines cracked down on opposition groups labeled as "terrorists," while the United States and its allies focused on Afghanistan. India took the opportunity to blame Pakistan for attacks on its parliament in Delhi and positioned military resources for a new, possibly nuclear, war against its longtime rival.

Questions remain unanswered. Why should Osama bin Laden take so much trouble and spend so much money to demonstrate his opposition to the Western world and especially the United States?



Box Figure 1 An airplane full of fuel and passengers crashes into the second World Trade Center tower as the explosion of the first gains momentum, September 11, 2001. Photo: © Cary Conover/Corbis SABA.

Why should he and his organization resort to killing innocent people to achieve their goals? How did he persuade well-educated people to take on suicide missions several years in advance? Did he have a real hope that this event would make the Muslim countries of the world rise with a united religious purpose against the rest of the world? If so, it did not happen. Though street demonstrations by vocal minorities in many Muslim countries supported the acts that had such a profound impact on America, most governments of Muslim countries disassociated themselves from the terrorist acts. They joined the countries working together to outlaw terrorism; further, they do not have a history of coordinating political actions among themselves (see Chapter 8). The decision of governments to join the United States and its allies triggered antiwar demonstrations in many countries by those who support strong antiterrorist actions—local voices in global contexts.

For various reasons, including self-interest, before September 11, 2001, few countries lobbied for a global system of policing and dispensing justice against terrorism, drugs and arms trafficking, corruption, and slavery. Other events obstructed attempts to build consensus or develop policies. One country's terrorists may be another's freedom fighters. At times, terrorist groups gain external support from other countries when they attack mutually "unfriendly" governments. During the Cold War, this was frequently the case in Central America, Africa, and Asia (see Chapters 5 through 10), when the Soviet Union and the United States supported terrorist groups. For example, Osama bin Laden received U.S. support when Afghanistan was occupied by the Soviet Union—as did Saddam Hussein of Iraq when he fought Iran in the 1980s. The events of 9/11 suggest a need to rethink priorities and the wisdom of attempts to influence actions in other countries.

The events of 9/11 and other changes that make headlines from time to time need to be placed in context of the wider world in which we live. In this chapter, we begin our study of world regional geography by introducing geographic approaches to global and local events. The regional chapters demonstrate how different parts of our world interact with the global and local forces. In Chapter 12, we bring together these elements in a fuller evaluation of globalization, study the phenomenon of global and local terrorism, and see how events in Somalia relate to these processes of geographic change.

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origin. Many products, such as autos and airplanes, are combinations of parts from a variety of countries assembled in one factory.

- *People migrations for work, political asylum, family consolidation, and long-distance tourism.* Executives of multinational companies "commute" on a worldwide basis. Millions of people displaced by warfare and oppression gather in refugee camps. Wealthier people take vacations in exotic places. Wealthier countries attract people willing to work for low wages, while better-paying jobs attract those with a good education, producing a **brain drain** on the poorer countries they leave.
- *The spread of images and messages through the media of TV, film, the Internet, and print.* Worldwide screening of U.S. movies and TV programs meets challenges from the film industries of India (the world's largest producer of movies) and other countries such as South Korea. The Internet enables international and local firms, political groups, and leisure interests to have exposure among those with access to the World Wide Web. Print media, such as newspapers, magazines, and books, remain significant. While the English language began to dominate through new technologies, the early 2000s see Chinese catching up among users in many of these fields. With Chinese speakers outnumbering English speakers almost 3 to 1 worldwide, Chinese may very well become the leading language of print and computing media.

The rapid and widespread acceptance of globalization terminology by politicians, members of the media, special interest groups, and academics, among many others, created substantial confusion over precise meanings and appropriate definitions. Some people assume globalization is already in place, overriding country boundaries and rendering country governments ineffective; others think the term is overused and unjustified when country governments are still the dominant political entities; a third group is sure that something significant is happening but awaits a fuller understanding of what is going on and where it will lead us. The Point-Counterpoint box, "Facets of Globalization," p. 5 compares these views.

Facets of Localization

Meanwhile, local voices remain loud in our consciousness and ensure that global trends are often far from being fulfilled.

- *Political nationalism* maintains separation of countries and of groups within countries. For example, the countries of Africa, despite criticizing their boundaries as inappropriate, resist amalgamation. Separatist groups such as those of the Basque people on the Spanish-French border and those in Aceh, Indonesia, work for independence rather than incorporation in global linkages.
- Despite globalizing forces, *many local customs and practices* preserve local identities. Western pop music, for example, has a worldwide circulation, but variants in Africa, Asia, and Latin America strongly reflect local attitudes and traditions.
- *Changes and intensification of ideologies, especially religious or political beliefs.* When the breakup of the Soviet Union in 1991 left many feeling that Communism was discredited and military dictators in other countries fell from power in the early 1990s, more countries had open elections and were increasingly involved in international affairs. Religious and other cultural forces such as language and tradition became more significant, particularly in many materially poorer countries and those in economic transition.
- *Religious differences* among Christian, Muslim, Jewish, Buddhist, and Hindu countries continue to be significant. Increasing migrations place people of different religions together as migrants make their homes among those with a differing religion. This may lead to fragmentation of living areas in cities as each group establishes its places of worship and related cultural symbols.
- *Demonstrators resist the visible economic penetration* of countries around the world by global media and corporations such as CNN, the Murdoch group, McDonald's, Starbucks, Toyota, and Nike that are seen as contributing to poverty or loss of local identity. And yet, greater exposure to media presents these groups with opportunities to emphasize their demands.

Localization commonly involves social and cultural factors—hence, the phrase "global connections, local voices" in this book's title. The Taliban in Afghanistan provided an example of an attempt to establish a culture in isolation from the rest of the world. In the 1990s, its leaders took political control of most of Afghanistan and imposed a strict form of Islam, forcing out other religious groups and Western influences. Its use of the isolation it created to support al-Qaeda terrorists, however, put it into conflict with wider global interests and led to its downfall in 2001.

The rest of this chapter focuses on how regional geography assists the study of globalization and localization. It begins by defining the links among the regional scales and the main issues—political, economic, cultural, and environmental—affecting our lives (Figure 1.3).

Diverse Worlds

Political Activity: Countries Act

Politics is about power and the ways in which countries are governed, allocate resources, and relate to each other. The global political environment from 1950 was dominated by the **Cold War,** which set the United States and its allies against the Soviet Union and its allies. The Cold War ended in 1991, after never coming to a full "hot war," although many feared nuclear attacks. In the 1990s, political activity shifted from blocs of countries facing off against each other to a fresh emphasis on the roles of individual countries in a global context.

Countries remain self-contained entities with established borders. Within its territory, a country is sovereign: no other being or institution has power to compel it to act. Country governments have powers to tax, provide for defense, negotiate

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Point COUNTER Point

FACETS OF GLOBALIZATION

Mentions of globalization raise anger in some places; mobs of people demonstrate with violence against it at meetings of international leaders. And yet, others tell us that whatever the growing pains, globalization is good for us in terms of better incomes, better life quality, and better understanding of other peoples. We quote alternative views that have been expressed in the last few years and then summarize them.

SAMUEL P. HUNTINGTON, *Foreign Affairs,* 1993

World politics is entering a new phase. . . . It is my hypothesis that the fundamental source of conflict in this new world will not be primarily ideological or primarily economic. The great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict will be cultural. [Countries] will remain the most powerful actors in world affairs, but the principal conflicts of global politics will occur between them and groups of different civilizations. The clash of civilizations will dominate global politics. The fault lines between civilizations will be the battle lines of the future.

BENJAMIN R. BARBER, *The Atlantic Monthly,* 1992

Just beyond the horizon of current events lie two possible futures—both bleak, neither democratic. The first is a redistribution of large swaths of humankind by war and bloodshed, in which culture is pitted against culture, people against people, tribe against tribe—a *jihad* in the name of a hundred narrowly conceived faiths. . . . The second is being borne in on us by the onrush of economic and ecological forces that demand integration and uniformity and that mesmerize the world with fast music, fast computers, and fast food—with MTV, Macintosh, and McDonald's, pressing nations into one commercially homogeneous global network: one *McWorld* tied together by technology, ecology, communications, and commerce. The planet is falling precipitantly apart and coming reluctantly together at the very same moment.

KENICHI OHMAE, *Foreign Affairs,* 1993

The [country] has become an unnatural, even dysfunctional, unit for organizing human activity and managing economic endeavor in a borderless world. It represents no genuine, shared community of economic interests; it defines no meaningful flows of economic activity. In fact, it overlooks the true linkages and synergies that exist among often disparate populations by combining important measures of human activity at the wrong level of analysis.

On a global economic map, the lines that now matter are those defining what may be called 'region states.' The boundaries of the region state are not imposed by political fiat. They are drawn by the deft but invisible hand of the global market for goods and services.

ANNE-MARIE SLAUGHTER, *Foreign Affairs,* 1997

Many thought the new world order proclaimed by George W. Bush [in 1990] was the promise of 1945 fulfilled, a world in which international institutions, led by the United Nations, guaranteed international peace and security and the active support of the world's major powers. That world is a chimera. Even as a liberal internationalist ideal, it is infeasible at best and dangerous at worst. It requires a centralized rule-making authority, a hierarchy of institutions, and universal membership. Equally to the point, efforts to create such an order have failed. The United Nations cannot function effectively independent of the major powers that compose it, nor will those nations cede their power and sovereignty to an international institution. Efforts to expand supranational authority, whether by the UN secretary-general's office, the European Commission, or the World Trade Organization, have consistently produced a backlash among member states.

A new world order is emerging with less fanfare but more substance than either of these. The [country] is not disappearing, it is disaggregating into its separate, functionally distinct, parts—courts, regulatory agencies, executives, and even legislatures—that are networking with counterparts abroad, creating a new transgovernmental order. Today's international problems—terrorism, organized crime, environmental degradation, money laundering, bank failure, and securities fraud—created and sustained these relations.

CHRISTOPHER BRIGHT, *Foreign Policy,* 1999

World trade has become the primary driver of one of the most dangerous and least visible forms of environmental declines: thousands of foreign, invasive species are hitchhiking through the global trading network aboard ships, planes, and railroad cars, while hundreds of others are traveling as commodities. This 'biological pollution' is degrading ecosystems, threatening public health, and costing billions of dollars annually.

Bioinvasion occurs when a species finds its way into an ecosystem where it did not evolve. In a small percentage of cases, the exotic finds everything it needs—and nothing capable of controlling it. In South and Central America, the growth of specialty export crops—upscale vegetables and fruits—has spurred the spread of whiteflies, which are capable of transmitting at least 60 plant viruses. In southern India, a tropical American shrub is strangling rice paddies and ruining fish habitats throughout the Cauvery River basin.

JAMES N. ROSENEAU, *Current History,* 1997

The mall at Singapore's airport has a food court with 15 food outlets, all but one of which offers menus that cater to local tastes; the lone standout, McDonald's, is also the only one crowded with customers. In New York City, experts in feng shui, an ancient Chinese craft aimed at harmonizing the placement of man-made structures in nature, are sought after by real estate developers in order to attract a growing influx of Asian buyers.

Globalization refers to processes that evolve as people go about their daily tasks: these processes are not hindered or prevented by territorial or jurisdictional barriers, they can readily spread in many directions across national boundaries, and are capable of reaching any community anywhere in the world. Contrarily, localization derives from those pressures that lead individuals, groups, and institutions to narrow their horizons, participate in dissimilar forms of behaviors, and withdraw to less encompassing processes, organizations, or systems. Globalization is boundary-broadening and localization is boundary-heightening; the former allows people, goods, information, and practices to move oblivious to boundaries; the latter inhibits such movements.

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(Continued)

PETER D. SUTHERLAND, *Harvard International Review*, 2000

The Seattle Ministerial Conference of the World Trade Organization (WTO) demonstrated with disturbing force the huge confusions that haunt the public mind about . . . the process now known as globalization. The notion that globalization is an international conspiracy on the part of industrial country governments and large firms to marginalize the poorest nations, to exploit low wages and social costs wherever they may be found, to diminish cultures in the interests of an Anglo-Saxon model of lifestyle and language, and even to undermine human rights and cut away democratic processes that stand in the way of ever more open markets is, of course, utter nonsense. The outpouring of misconceived, ill-understood propaganda against a system that has brought vast gains to most nations over the past few decades is extraordinarily dangerous.

We can comment on some of the points made in these quotations:

1. *Globalization is a process or set of processes, not* an established condition leading inevitably to a worldwide society or community. Although European countries move toward economic integration within the European Union (see Chapter 3), political issues remain about the surrender of country sovereignty. Meanwhile the EU is accused of establishing "Fortress Europe" that does not wish to have closer trading relations with other countries except on its own terms. In East Asia (Chapter 5), Japan and China produce many goods for global markets but resist the intrusions of foreign traders in their home markets. In Africa South of the Sahara, countries defend their internal rights and resist external interference.
2. *Global and multinational interconnections involve complex linkages and overlapping networks* among communities, countries, international institutions, nongovernmental organizations, and multinational corporations. There is no necessary complicity among these groupings to achieve globalization based on their own narrow interests. The unevenness of globalization processes and responses of localization reflect partial and selective linkages.

   Research shows that economic integration enables materially poorer countries with about half the world's population to break into global markets for goods and services. Such integration results from both domestic policies and reforms in the poorer countries and from international action to bring access to foreign markets, capital, technology, and aid. Exports of raw materials and other primary products often give way to manufactured goods and services. By such means, some Chinese provinces, Indian states, and countries such as Bangladesh and Vietnam (Chapters 5, 7) reduced poverty in the 1990s by over 100 million people. But many more remain materially poor, providing a challenge to the materially rich countries and the spreading global systems.
3. *Globalization affects all areas of social life*—cultural, economic, political, legal, military, environmental. Interconnectedness is growing among the varied spheres. Understanding the dynamics of globalization requires understanding how each of these spheres contribute to it. The process is both differentiated and multifaceted: it involves lots of different groups of people and institutions that act independently and at different rates.

   This partly explains why there has not been total inclusion among and within countries. While 3 billion people live in countries that are improving their quality of life, around 2 billion are marginalized in the global economy, living in countries where poverty is rising and participation in international trade is falling. Such countries include the failed Afghanistan (Chapter 7) and Democratic Republic of Congo (Chapter 9) that descended into inward-looking anarchy but also others that need help in gaining access to markets in wealthier countries and managing foreign investment and aid. Even within successful countries, there are winners and losers, particularly workers in sectors exposed to a competitive economy and those who have no recourse to social protection against such events.
4. *Globalization cuts through and across political frontiers,* making some social, economic, and political spaces subject to external actions: local, country, or regional patterns form again with or without reference to established political boundaries. New activities emerge at local levels inside countries, reinforcing patterns of localization and nationalist desires.

   While most people hope for improved material wealth, many fear the result will be greater cultural and social homogenization: will everything, everywhere, look the same? Yet the differences among the wealthier countries (e.g., Japan, the United States, France (Chapters 5, 11, and 3) are clearly maintained, while countries such as China, India, Malaysia, and Mexico (Chapters 5, 7, 6, and 10) retain their cultural identities as they become more involved in world trade. Geographical expressions of diversity are robust amid the changes. Country freedoms in aspects such as intellectual property rights, cultural goods, environmental protection, social policies, and labor standards often stand firm against a standardization that may be seen merely as an attempt to safeguard people and organizations in wealthier countries.
5. *Globalization expands the geographic scale of powers* applied. In the increasingly interconnected global system, decisions, actions, and inactions in one place affect others elsewhere at increasing distances. Centers of power may exercise influences increasingly distant among people or places experiencing the effects. In particular, the elite in major metropolitan centers exercise power over many parts of the world from Bangladeshi shirt makers to Burundi farmers (Chapters 7, 9). Multinational corporations also invest in some countries and areas within those countries and not others. However, country governments also influence the choices of locations. Special economic zones in China and Brazil (Chapters 5, 10), among other countries, are country-based decisions to locate jobs and economic growth in designated areas while the surrounding areas experience few or very gradual changes.

with other countries, and develop their own legal system. Within countries, local issues and pressures, as much as international relations, occupy politicians.

In the 1990s, worldwide government through the United Nations achieved only modest results in reducing country rivalries, controlling international problems such as terrorism and the drugs-arms-slave trades or arbitrating internal country strife. The United States and the wealthy European countries, however, acted to stem the destruction caused by war in Kuwait (Gulf War of 1991), Bosnia, and Kosovo.

At the *world regional* level, some countries formed groups for defensive purposes during the Cold War period in the second half of the 1900s. The United States and Canada joined with European countries in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) to defend western Europe against potential attacks from the Soviet Union. Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, and the Philippines joined the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) to resist the advance of Communist governments. The countries neighboring South Africa formed the Southern Africa Development Coordination

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GEOGRAPHIC SCALE	POLITICAL	LAW AND ORDER	ECONOMIC	CULTURAL	ENVIRONMENTAL
GLOBAL/ WORLDWIDE	United Nations Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (No united will for a global government)	International Criminal Court. Issues: drugs, nuclear testing, weapons, war criminals, terrorists	Borderless **CAPITALIST MARKET SYSTEM:** World Bank, IMF, OECD, G8, multinational corporations	Spreading Western and Islamic cultures; Westernization resisted. Olympic Games	Global warming, ozone hole, ocean resources
WORLD REGION/ SUBREGION	European Union, Commonwealth of Independent States, original ASEAN	Hague Court of Human Rights	Regional trading groups: EU, NAFTA, Mercosur, ASEAN, APEC, etc. Regional emphases within the capitalist system.	**CULTURAL GROUPINGS:** N Africa/SW Asia; Africa S of Sahara; S Asia; China; Japan; Russia; Latin America; North America; etc.	Acid rain, tropical rain forest destruction
COUNTRY (NATION-STATE)	**BASIC POLITICAL UNIT:** accepted borders; taxing, defense, international relations powers	Each country has its distinctive legal system	Fiscal and monetary policies; rich/poor countries	"Nation-state" concept	**COUNTRY-BASED ISSUES:** public health; air and water quality; conservation of soils, forests; national parks
LOCAL REGION/ MAJOR CITY	Devolution of administration; world cities; federal states within countries	Variations in application of a country's legal system	Regional product specialization; economic and physical planning; rich/poor areas	Local elements combining with external long-term traditions; distinctive way of life; basis for political pressures	Physical planning impacts

Figure 1.3 **Geographic facets of globalization.** The pink shaded areas highlight the major centers and geographic scale of human activities in each category.

Conference (SADCC) to oppose apartheid (separation of whites and blacks) and resist South African attacks. In the 1990s, NATO gained members from former Soviet Union satellite countries in eastern Europe such as Poland, Hungary, and Romania, while ASEAN and the renamed Southern Africa Development Conference (SADC) focused on new economic objectives.

Continuing political rivalries among and within countries caused some commentators in the 1990s to talk about the "New Global Disorder" rather than a "New Global Order." They pointed to activities outside the jurisdiction of countries, such as terrorism and trade in guns, drugs, and slaves, that increased in the absence of a working system of global governance or law and order. Rivalries among countries and groups within countries prevented worldwide control of illegal activities through the United Nations and allowed both inequalities of opportunity and criminal activities to prosper. Extremist groups grew in significance in all parts of the world, often linking their interests to international groups trained in violence and disruption. The events of September 11, 2001, in New York and Washington, D.C., brought home these trends to many who had ignored them and highlighted the need for a global system of law and order—as opposed to the range of different systems based in countries.

Economic Activities: Global Trends

Economics is the study of how people and groups use resources to meet their material needs through producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services. In this text, we use the terms *wealthier* and *poorer* people and countries to indicate contrasts of material well-being or poverty.

Wealthier people in wealthier countries enjoy a good life, with security of income, housing, food, health care, and education, together with environmental safety, confidence in the future, and involvement in local and national decision-making. They use a disproportionate share of Earth's resources to maintain such lifestyles, including big houses, gas-guzzling autos, expensive vacations, and high-cost medical services.

Poverty is basically a lack of material wealth that has wider outcomes (Figure 1.4). **Poorer people** do not have security like

Figure 1.4 **Poorer world city: midday street scene in Bangalore, southern India.** Compare this view of a main shopping street in Bangalore with a shopping area or main street with which you are familiar. What ways do people use to get about in each place? What are the signs of poverty? Photo: © Michael Bradshaw.

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"***Chapter 1 Globalization and World Regions (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.8-11a

wealthier people and suffer from malnutrition, poor housing, exhaustion, disease, rejection, and vulnerability. Poor people are deprived of acceptable income, education, health care, housing, clothing, food, and access to jobs. They will not likely have a long life and cannot fully participate in community affairs. Furthermore, some people may not be income-poor but are kept out of the mainstream of society by physical disability, ethnic or racial discrimination, or destructive behaviors associated with alcohol or drug abuse.

As world income increased in the later part of the 1900s, more people enjoyed material well-being as middle classes grew wealthier and in numbers in poorer countries. One indicator of poverty—the numbers of people living on less than $1 per day—increased from 900 million people worldwide in 1820 to 1.4 billion people in 1980 but then fell to 1.2 billion in 2000. Although this is a large number of very poor people, the *proportion* in the whole world population living on less than $1 per day fell (from 85% in 1820 to 30% in 1980 and 20% in 2000). In the 1990s and early 2000s, some areas of the world, including former Soviet Union countries and Africa South of the Sahara, experienced increases in poverty, while East Asia saw major reductions in poverty. Inequalities among households peaked in 1980 and have declined since. By the late 1990s, as poverty fell but continued to affect so many people, the World Bank and United Nations focused economic and related policies on attempts to reduce poverty further in the early decades of the 2000s.

Economic activities underlie increasing global interconnections. The movements of people, driven by the possibility of less oppression or better living conditions, trade, capital investment, and information exchanges, are increasingly international. Even so, parts of the world remain isolated or marginalized by poor links to main economic centers, while others are in transition toward greater global connections. The tensions between increasing interconnections and continuing isolation enhance differences among places.

In the 1990s, the uneven spread of expanding global economic activities caused groups of countries to enter into or revive regional economic agreements, mainly through trade. The best known and farthest advanced is the European Union (Chapter 3), but others include the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA, Chapters 10, 11), Mercosur (southern South America, Chapter 10), the Association of South East Asian Countries (Chapter 6), and the South African Development Conference (Chapter 9). In East and Southeast Asia, the "Asian Way" of free-market economic activity works through family linkages and government-business liaisons more commonly than through the independently verified banking and legal systems regarded as most important in the United States and Europe. The "European Way" is another distinctive regional approach, in which social welfare provides support to people unable to benefit from advanced economic activity.

Within world regions, countries differed in their engagement levels with world trade. The United States, the countries of western Europe, and Japan controlled nearly all the investment, production, and consumption of goods. However, by 2000, China, India, and Brazil increased their contributions. Variations in resource provision, government efficiency, education and health levels, and the availability of investments to develop local resources also affected local regions within countries. Urban areas tended to attract most investment, and rural areas were often ignored or subject to the exploitation of people and the environment. Small groups of people living in the Amazon rain forest, large areas of Africa, and in places such as Papua New Guinea engaged little in global economic activities.

Cultural Activities: Major Regions, Local Voices

The **culture** of a group of people results from the learned behavior in the ideas, beliefs, and practices they hold in common and pass on from one generation to the next. Religion, language, the ways in which people do things socially, the design of the items they make, responses to the natural environment, and the level of technology involved are expressions of a shared culture (Figure 1.5). Different cultures often express values through communal and family life, human rights, and the role of women. For example, cultural values are reflected in the number of working hours, the food and meal times, the nature of recreational activities, the design and decoration of clothing, houses, and buildings, and the layout of cities.

Although there are some indications that we may be heading toward "one world" culturally, many of the trends seem to imply that Western cultural norms—with their emphasis on democracy, individualism, and human rights—can (or should) be extended to the rest of the world. However, this is an unlikely scenario because people in many cultures oppose these norms, either in their entirety or the Western forms of them. Many people around the world oppose Western cultures because they see them as emphasizing materialism, consumerism, and other superficial values that lack ethics or spirituality. Western cultural norms are seen to be such a threat that some argue that they must be opposed, even violently if necessary. The events of September 11, 2001, built on such opposition.

Despite opposition, Western cultural norms are spreading. A closer examination, however, shows that the "Cocacola-ization" of eating and drinking habits, the spread of Western TV, motion pictures, and popular music, and the global markets for some consumer goods have not wiped out local cultural differences. On the contrary, local cultural practices and preferences exert themselves and even blend with global culture, adding to the diversity of places. In India, for example, only the wealthier elites can afford to buy imported goods and the new multinational fast food (Chapter 7). The more numerous middle-class groups buy cheaper Indian-made goods and eat at local restaurants. Most Indians prefer their homemade "Bollywood" films.

In the 1990s, cultural activities gained in prominence at the world regional level. One analysis of such differences identified nine major groupings of cultural characteristics called "civilizations" (Figure 1.6). Many of these are linked to specific religious cultural backgrounds: Orthodox (Christianity) in Russia, Buddhist in Southeast Asia, Islamic from Northern Africa and Southwestern Asia through the Indian subcontinent to Indonesia, Hindu in India. The other groupings are defined more broadly and are complex in origins and characteristics. For

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Figure 1.5 **City center, Bangalore, southern India.** What aspects of an Indian culture are illustrated, as compared with imported Western culture? Photo: © Michael Bradshaw.

Figure 1.6 **World cultures, or civilizations.** The nine world divisions of Samuel Huntington (1996) gained significance in the 1990s after the end of the Cold War. Source: Reprinted with permission of Simon & Schuster Adult Publishing Group from *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of the World Order* by Samuel P. Huntington. Copyright © 1996 by Samuel P. Huntington. Base map © Hammond World Atlas Corp.

example, the Western category incorporates both European secular and Christian values that spread to North America, the Latin American integrates the Spanish/Portuguese culture with those of indigenous groups, the African includes the outcomes of traditional cultures interacting with European colonial power influences, the Sinic (Chinese) absorbs Confucianism within its administrative structure, and the Japanese combines its national religion with aspects of Buddhism.

The political-with-economic basis of the divisions among blocs of countries highlighted the links between political and economic power and the need to work out differences among Communist, Fascist, and democratic-with-free-market systems. By 1990, the struggle among these systems largely rejected the Fascist and then the Communist systems, leaving the democratic-with-free-market as the world's only system. Differences among places on a world scale now need to take account of the links between cultural factors and economic processes. For example, people in many countries still adopt aspects of the Western free-market economy and culture they find attractive. Others, especially Muslims and many people in East Asian countries, also wish to improve their material wealth but resist total Westernization, which they see as having many negative characteristics. They seek solutions within their own culture.

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Cultural conditions based on ethnicity, class, gender, and political rights are also important at the country and local levels. Few, if any, countries can claim to contain only a single political, religious, linguistic, or pure "national" culture, although some have tried to impose one on their inhabitants. Within countries are often cultural groups that feel underprivileged or discriminated against economically and politically. Examples include the Tamils in northern Sri Lanka, the Basques in northern Spain and southwestern France, the Kurds in parts of Iran, Iraq, and Turkey, and the Native Americans in the United States and Canada (where they are called "First Nations").

Environmental Issues at Varied Scales

Earth is marked by a variety of **natural environments**—our planet as it might be without human modifications. Mountains and rivers, atmosphere and oceans, rocks and soils, and plants and animals are Earth's essential building blocks. The interactive workings of the atmosphere, oceans, and the Earth's surface give rise to varied climates, landforms, and ecologies (Figure 1.7). They create differences among regions.

Natural environments affect human events at global, world regional, country, and local scales. Prediction of hurricanelike storms, effects of acid rain, and damage from river floods and volcanic eruptions present issues at world regional, country, or local scales. At the global scale, effects such as global warming, El Niño, the ozone hole over Antarctica, and the destruction of tropical rain forests are subjects of international debates. In the 1990s, world environment conferences at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (1992), and Kyoto, Japan (1997), adopted policies to avert environmental crises, but it is left to individual countries to implement the policies. The United States recently decided against following the Kyoto recommendations.

While some natural events are hazardous to human life (volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, violent storms), natural resources such as minerals, fertile soils, and water provide bases for human development. They have often influenced people's decisions to settle in particular areas. Such resources also stimulated later changes in economic activity.

People modify all natural landscapes in which they live, leaving their human (anthropogenic) impacts on the natural world. As they produce cultural landscapes containing buildings, fields, managed woodlands, and transportation links, they, for example, modify local climates by increasing rain runoff from towns that also become "heat islands," change soils by cultivation, and add gases to the atmosphere that enhance or impair its role. Some human modifications improve the productivity, landscape quality, and livability of a place, while others degrade a place's attractions, resources, and future prospects. For thousands of years, people have modified landscapes by removing forests to expand food production and support growing populations. The resulting long-term impacts, however, were not as great as those of the rapid industrialization in the 1800s and 1900s, which was characterized by the digging of huge mine pits, building of larger factories, and extracting of oil and gas that polluted air and water. In places, the buildup of wastes and toxic gases from factories and cities overwhelmed the natural environments' abilities to deal with them, requiring countries to pass laws that penalize polluters.

(a)

(b)

Figure 1.7 **Contrasting natural environments in California.** (a) The redwood forests that have some human inroads, but where the largest trees require hundreds of years to grow several hundred feet. The flora dominates the landscape. (b) The arid environment of Death Valley with sand dunes, bare rock, and a fan of gravel washed down by occasional rainstorms—but no vegetation.

One impact of the globalization of telecommunications is that people around the world are more aware of the human interactions with the natural environment. For example, those living in the hurricane belt of the U.S. southeast and the Caribbean board up their windows and move inland when TV stations announce that such a storm threatens. Pollution events, such as the "brown cloud" over Asia in the summer of 2002, alert people around the world to the environmental and natural resource issues that are likely to increase at global and regional political, economic, and cultural scales in the 2000s.

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The world's growing populations and improved living standards have rising impacts on the resources available and often increase tensions over resource usage. World population rose from 1.6 billion people in 1900 to over 6 billion in 2000, and it could rise to around 9 billion by 2050. The population increase will not be uniform across the globe. Almost all of it will be concentrated in the world's poorer countries, which already find it difficult to cope with their burgeoning populations. World population conferences in the 1990s suggested that population growth should be curbed, but some countries with conservative religious beliefs resist restrictions on family size.

Test Your Understanding 1A

Summary Globalization is the increasing level of interconnections among peoples on Earth. It does not mean that every place is becoming the same. Its impact is varied on places at different levels of geographic scale—global, world regional, country, and local. Localization reflects a set of responses to global trends at smaller geographical scales and intentions of local people to preserve their way of life. The effects of globalization and localization differ relative to political, economic, and cultural activities and with respect to the environment.

Questions to Think About

1A.1 What are the main elements of globalization and localization? Illustrate your answer by referring to recent events.

1A.2 What evidence points to global trends having increased effects on political and cultural activities?

Key Terms

globalization
localization
brain drain
politics
Cold War
country
economics
wealthier people
poverty
poorer people
culture
natural environment

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Fin de la Primera Parte

RESPUESTA MODELO

UNAM, FFYL **Licenciatura en Geografía**
Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía, 2010-2 **6to semestre**
Profesor: Mtro. Francisco Enríquez Denton **Actividad 1a: Análisis de texto**

Semana III: Miércoles 17 de febrero de 2010

Chapter 1 Globalization and World Regions (First Part)

Nombre de la alumna (o):	X	X	X
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**
	X	X	X
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**

Indicaciones generales: Con base en el análisis del texto "***Chapter 1 Globalization and World Regions (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.1-11a; realiza lo que se te pide:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **dos partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas.

2. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos. Se sugiere que los cuestionamientos consideren los puntos medulares de la lectura y que las respuestas sean lo suficientemente amplias y claras.

3. En la parte final, realiza el **ejercicio cartográfico** sobre el *año en que obtuvieron su independencia los pueblos del África Subsahariana.*

4. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 17 de febrero de 2010**.

5. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

8 Preguntas fundamentales

¿Qué características presenta la globalización?
La globalización es en general, concebida como el aumento del nivel de interacción entre las personas, aun así la este fenómeno tiene mayor presencia en el aspecto económico, en donde el comercio mundial y el flujo de capital financiero han aumentado. Un ejemplo de cómo actúa el fenómeno de la globalidad es como muchos artículos se producen en países emergentes, con mano de obra barata, pero con marcas corporativas originarias de las economías dominantes y se consumen una gran cantidad de países, hecho que amplia la inequidad entre los distintos actores siendo los beneficiarios los dueños de las marcas y del mercado. Esta interacción y conexión entre las personas y países de culturas diferentes no tiene precedente, lo que ha derivado en diferentes procesos, que han resultado con efectos positivos y/o negativos para ciertas sociedades y grupos humanos. Entre éstos están: la transmisión y movimiento de ideas, tecnología y enfermedades, lo cual significa cambios importantes dentro de la cultura local en cada lugar, sobre todo la tecnología resulta un factor importante de cambio cultural; la producción seccionada de bienes manufacturados desde varios lugares, así como el comercio de las materias primas necesarias para elaborar estos bienes; la migración por diferentes razones, como el trabajo, asilo político o el turismo de grandes distancias; y la comunicación a través de medios de comunicación que han transformado la percepción del espacio y el tiempo.

¿Qué características presenta la "localización"?

Debido a la globalización, la entrada y salida, que es promovida por la generación acelerada de nuevas tecnologías, principalmente las innovaciones en la comunicación, las ideas, los valores culturales, personas, etc. han cambiado rápidamente en las grandes aglomeraciones de población y más lentamente en los espacios locales en las pequeñas localidades en donde hay una menor penetración de los medios de comunicación y los de los productos de marcas corporativas. De esta manera las peculiaridades de las culturas locales se sustituyen poco a poco, por el modelo de la cultura occidental con cambios notables en la dieta, la forma de vestir, el lenguaje, los modos de producción y los hábitos de consumo: Una mirada a través de la televisión o la red permite apreciar la uniformidad existente en las conductas y preferencias de personas que residen en países muy lejanos y que con anterioridad poseían valores culturales propios. Estos cambios están definidos en mayor medida en el marco de la cultura Occidental.

De esta forma en algunos países la globalización ha sido enfrentada localmente a través de: el nacionalismo político, en donde ciertos grupos humanos buscan mantener sus valores culturales, su religión, su independencia frente a grupos extranjeros; mediante el énfasis de la identidad local, incluyendo los usos y costumbres y las tradiciones que son revalorados frente al modelo occidental; cambios o intensificación de ideología, sobre todo políticas o religiosas; y la resistencia a la penetración económica de compañías extranjeras.

Aun así, los cambios en los paisajes rurales y urbanos, y en sus habitantes suceden a gran velocidad, en muchas ciudades, principalmente los jóvenes adoptan los nuevos valores occidentales, en otros sitios se hace una selección y adaptación del conocimiento que puede mejorar su cultura.

¿Cuáles son algunos de los cambios que la globalización de la economía ha suscitado en el los espacios?

Incremento de las conexiones globales, sobre todo económicas, está ha sido absolutamente desigual. Muchas regiones han acaparado como nodos la mayoría de los movimientos financieros, las

inversiones entre otros, mientras que otras quedaron al margen de este proceso y solo reciben algunos artículos o bienes que afectan más la cultura y la salud de la población que su desarrollo.

Por otro lado, con el advenimiento de la globalización muchas regiones han realizado acuerdos regionales económicos, como la Unión Europea, para contrarrestar el fenómeno global.

Asimismo, las diferencias entre las zonas urbanas y las rurales se han ampliado; las primeras tienden a atraer mayores inversiones, mientras que las segundas son ignoradas o sujetas a la explotación de las personas que lo habitan y el medio que las constituye.

¿La homogeneización cultural es una tendencia actual?

En la actualidad la cultura occidental continúa la expansión que se inició con los viajes de exploración desde el siglo XV, pero la velocidad y eficacia de esta propagación no tiene precedentes.

Históricamente toda civilización dominante ha trasladado su cultura a los pueblos dominados, pero también ha sido influida por elementos de los pueblos sometidos. Los medios de comunicación de hoy hacen posible que se conozcan y adopten costumbres de pueblos geográficamente muy distantes.

Este proceso podría propiciar un mundo con una sola cultura, una homogenización de la cultura en el planeta. De tal manera, las normas culturales occidentales han acabado ya con varios elementos culturales de diferentes comunidades o simplemente han acabado con las culturas.

Esta homogeneización está asociada a la expansión del sistema económico y a la búsqueda de nuevos horizontes para la producción, el consumo y la explotación de recursos naturales y humanos, lo cual beneficia a los países ricos, que son los promotores de esta expansión cultural, a través de la globalización.

¿Por qué se considera que la expansión de la cultura occidental es una amenaza?

Porque alienta el consumo, no sólo de productos materiales, sino de valores culturales a través de la música, el cine y la televisión que difunden una ideología que va deformando las culturas propias , y enfatizando la visión materialista del mundo.

Si bien en la actualidad la cultura occidental se asocia a la democracia, el individualismo y los derechos humanos, muchas culturas se resisten a ser absorbidos por esta expansión cultural, porque se han dado cuenta de una contradicción importante: la cultura occidental se presenta como uno de los principales promotores de valores que no respetan y que suponen defender, y es a través de la imposición, las guerras, las hambrunas como han introducido su cultura en aquellos que se resistieron.

Por otro lado, muchas culturas tienen una idea de un occidente materialista, consumista y superficial que podría afectar tanto la ética, como la espiritualidad de las personas. Así, la amenaza occidental es real en aquellos que han sufrido la imposición de valores culturales, que han sufrido un sistema político y económico dirigido por aquellos que se venden a una democracia de libre mercado.

La mejora de la riqueza material, parece estar ligada a un sistema económico, al progreso occidental; que está basado en el abuso a otros, esta trampa ha afectado la cultura de diversos pueblos.

¿En qué afectan los ambientes naturales al desarrollo de las comunidades humanas?

El planeta presenta una gran variedad de medios naturales, éstos son la base para el desarrollo de las sociedades y por tanto afectan el desarrollo del ser humano en todos los aspectos. La disponibilidad y tipos de recursos de un sitio, son determinantes en la explicación del desarrollo del humano en ese lugar, el emplazamiento de las comunidades y la potencialidad y existencia de las actividades económicas dependen directamente de las características físicas del medio. En muchos casos, la existencia de recursos naturales es la razón y origen de los asentamientos humanos y del tipo de la actividad económica que los sostiene. También, los diferentes ambientes son limitantes o incluso

peligros para los grupos que lo habitan.

Por otro lado, el humano, al habitar y explotar un lugar genera modificaciones en los paisajes creando paisajes culturales, es decir, modificaciones locales de las características físicas. Dependiendo de las características culturales y del tipo de las actividades económicas que los grupos que habitan un determinado ambiente realizan modificaciones positivas mejorando las características originales o por el contrario, cuando sólo se toman los recursos sin ninguna planeación ni consideración se llega a la total degradación del medio.

Desde la séptima década del siglo pasado, se ha iniciado un cambio conceptual acerca del paradigma moderno en donde el hombre tenía el derecho absoluto de disponer de la naturaleza y al considerase una nueva relación de convivencia y respeto a los recursos naturales.

Este es un aspecto positivo de la globalización, pues a través de las telecomunicaciones se ha producido la conciencia de la conveniencia y necesidad de la interacción entre el humano y el ambiente natural.

¿Qué efectos tiene sobre el medio y las sociedades el aumento poblacional del humano?

En el último siglo se presentó un crecimiento superlativo de la población humana derivada de la mejora de las condiciones de vida materiales y los servicios de salud, así como los aumentos en la producción de alimentos y otros bienes de necesidad básica.

Así este crecimiento de la población y el aumento de los niveles de vida han aumentado los impactos sobre la disponibilidad de los recursos e incrementa las tensiones por el uso de los mismos. Los países ricos, consumen una cantidad desproporcionada de recursos, los cuales, en su mayoría obtienen de otras partes del mundo, este estilo de vida, considerado como modelo de progreso resulta muy peligroso porque está consumiendo más de lo que el planeta puede recuperar y las políticas sustentables no están siendo adoptadas por los países que más consumen. Poniendo en riesgo la

viabilidad de muchas especies vegetales y animales incluyendo al ser humano.

¿Qué diferencias existen en la concepción de la globalización?

El proceso o conjunto de procesos que conforman la globalización son juzgados de diferente forma, de acuerdo a la perspectiva de los actores que en él intervienen.

Existe una discrepancia por las virtudes de este proceso. En este sentido las posturas pueden ser diferenciadas a partir de la pregunta: ¿a quién ha beneficiado realmente la globalización?

Por un lado, la globalización supone el establecimiento de nuevas fronteras, no establecidas por el mandato de la política sino por el mercado global, los nuevos límites se conforman por regiones supraestatales, siendo los intereses económicos la variable más importante.

En este contexto las grandes empresas corporativas tienen ventajas al poder contar con mano de obra y materias primas baratas en los países pobres y un gran mercado en las regiones económicamente fuertes.

La casi nula legislación mundial en cuanto a la utilización de los recursos naturales y acerca del precio del trabajo y las prestaciones para los obreros y empleados, es otro de los factores que ha impulsado el incremento de la brecha entre los ricos y los pobres.

La globalización tampoco es un fenómeno homogéneo pues sucede de muy diferentes maneras en los distintos países y en diversas regiones del mismo país, de modo que no es fácil construir una sola y total definición de esté fenómeno que ha marcado el inicio del siglo XXI

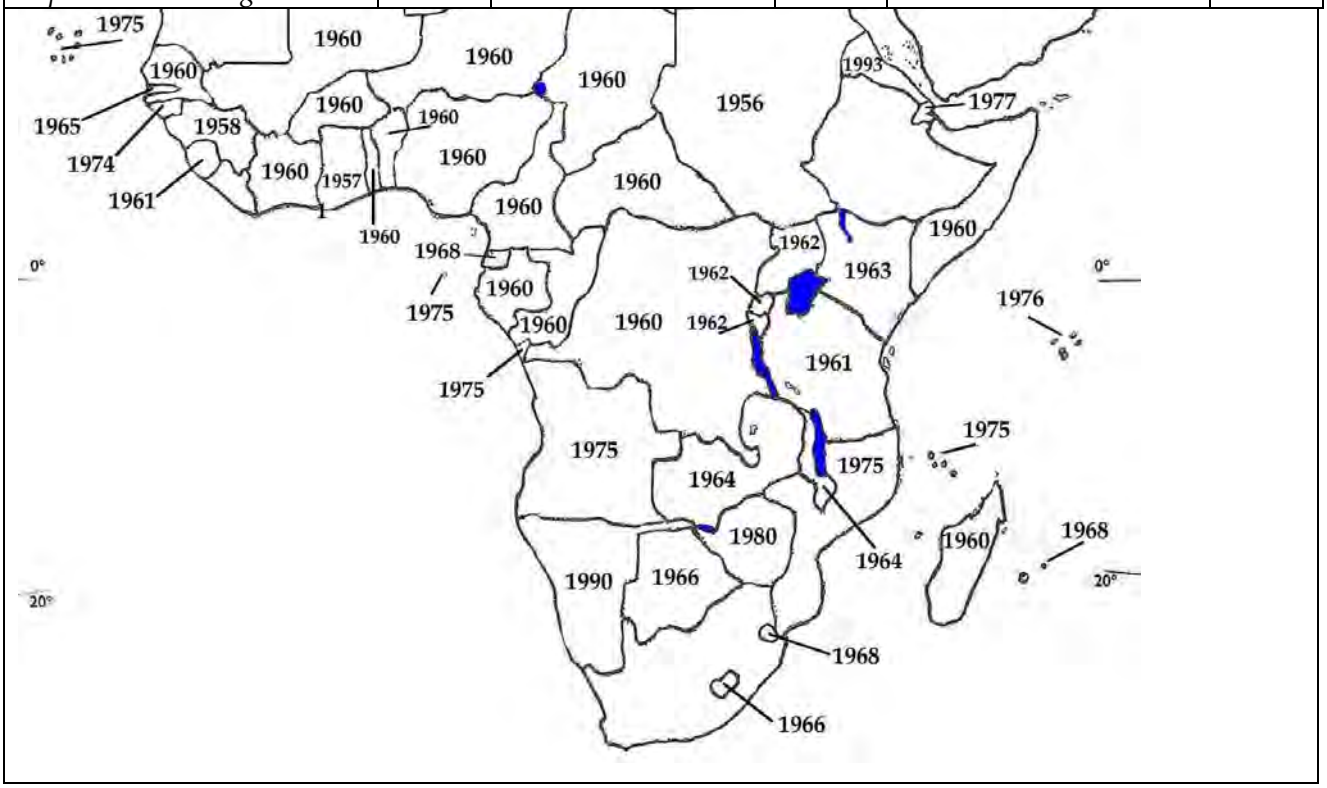
Por otro lado, el libre mercado que ha sido la punta de lanza de la globalización, solo ha aumentado las diferencias económicas entre los países del primer, del tercer mundo y de las élites y el pueblo común en todos los países. Así, la concepción de que la globalización ha ayudado a los países más

pobres ricos a aumentar su riqueza material y por tanto al desarrollo de los mismo, es una falacia ya que el costo es mayor para la población que los beneficios reales.

Ejercicio Cartográfico. África Subsahariana: Año en que obtuvieron su independencia.

Instrucciones: Con base en la información del mapa, anota en el cuadro, el año de la independencia los pueblos del *África Subsahariana*, (observa el ejemplo de Botsuana).

País	Año	País	Año	País	Año
Botsuana	*1966*	*Sierra Leona*	*1961*	*Zambia*	*1964*
Burkina Faso	*1960*	*Lesoto*	*1966*	*Guinea*	*1958*
Angola	*1975*	*Burundi*	*1962*	*Ghana*	*1957*
Mauricio	*1968*	*Nigeria*	*1960*	*Mozambique*	*1975*
Kenia	*1963*	*Suazilandia*	*1968*	*Chad*	*1960*
República Centroafricana	*1960*	*Comoras*	*1975*	*Somalia*	*1960*
Gabón	*1960*	*Guinea-Bissau*	*1974*	*Eritrea*	*1993*
Uganda	*1962*	*Senegal*	*1960*	*Tanzania*	*1961*
Djibouti	*1977*	*Namibia*	*1990*	*Madagascar*	*1960*
Sudan	*1956*	*Gambia*	*1965*	*Mali*	*1960*
Guinea Ecuatorial	*1968*	*Cabo Verde*	*1975*	*Togo*	*1960*
Santo Tomé y Principe	*1975*	*Benin*	*1960*	*Niger*	*1960*
Costa de Marfil	*1960*	*Malawi*	*1964*	*Seychelles*	*1976*
Rep. Dem. del Congo	*1960*	*Zimbabue*	*1980*	*Ruanda*	*1962*



Fuente: Smith, Dan. (1997). *The State of War and Peace Atlas*. New Revised Third Edition. Penguin Reference. London, England, UK.

COMENTARIOS DEL CAPÍTULO

Este capítulo trata sobre la globalización, la manera en que se entiende y se maneja este concepto.

Lo primero que el estudiante reconoce son los 4 niveles de la Geografía:

- ✓ el global,
- ✓ las grandes regiones del mundo
- ✓ los países
- ✓ las regiones locales.

A continuación se proporciona el concepto de globalización y localización así como las diferentes facetas de cada concepto. Es decir, los aspectos de la globalización se dan a partir de la intensidad de los flujos en las ideas, que conllevan una mejora económica material a partir del desarrollo de la manufactura y las migraciones de personas.

El libro maneja la información de una forma muy sencilla y clara, con un diseño editorial muy didáctico que hace posible la comparación de los diferentes conceptos expuestos y la elaboración de juicios al respecto, y en consecuencia la construcción de conocimiento significativo.

El texto contiene cuadros e ilustraciones que ayudan a comprender al alumno de una manera más natural la información. Por ejemplo, la figura 1.3 *Geographics facets of globalization* muestra las escalas geográficas pero las complementa con otros niveles como política, ley y orden, economía, cultura y medio ambiente. Esto facilita al alumno la comprensión cabal de

los conceptos, con base en la contextualización de las escalas geográficas, y no se queda únicamente con el concepto de escalas geográficas.

Los mapas e imágenes son un excelente recurso didáctico para facilitar la comprensión del texto. Las imágenes amplían la percepción del alumno, estimulan su imaginación y curiosidad para profundizar en el tema que se expone, hecho que promueve la nueva concepción del proceso de enseñanza – aprendizaje, en donde el alumno debe ser el sujeto y promotor de su formación. Ahora bien, los mapas son un instrumento didáctico fundamental de la geografía para crear en el alumno la relación espacial de los eventos, es decir, el alumno comprenderá que las actividades se llevan a cabo en un lugar, el que a su vez es determinado y modificado por la acción de los hechos. Un ejemplo claro es en la figura 1.6 *World cultures, or civilizations* donde este mapa muestra las 9 divisiones del mundo de Huntington (1996) que ganaron significado en 1990 después de la Guerra Fría.

La importancia de este capítulo en la formación del alumno radica en la comprensión del fenómeno de la globalización y de los efectos que éste tiene en la conformación de regiones económicas y culturales diferentes a la división política. La discusión en clase de estos tópicos permite que el alumno se asuma como parte del fenómeno de la globalización, tanto como individuo que consume ideas y productos de otras regiones, como parte de un país y de un grupo social que se ve afectado por las decisiones tomadas por las grandes firmas corporativas o por las políticas económicas y culturales de los países dominantes. La toma de conciencia de que la globalización es real y le afecta hace que el estudiante se de cuenta de la importancia de su formación, no solo como un requisito académico, sino como una herramienta para ampliar sus perspectivas, expectativas y desarrollo.

En esta primera actividad se cumple parte del temario.

UNIDAD I GLOBALIZACIÓN, DESARROLLO HUMANO Y GEOGRAFÍA REGIONAL MUNDIAL

- De lo global a lo local, el manejo interescalar.
- Diversidad en el mundo.
- Tendencias económicas y culturales en el mundo contemporáneo.
- Regiones, Globalización y Desarrollo Humano.
- Desarrollo de las regiones en el mundo.
- La Geografía Regional Mundial: Una perspectiva desde los problemas relevantes.

El objetivo para esta unidad era *"Reflexionar sobre la división regional del mundo y los criterios de delimitación."* El texto y la discusión en clase permiten que este objetivo sea cumplido, ya que los alumnos mismos reconocen las divisiones del mundo y reflexionan las consecuencias de los mismos.

La instrumentación didáctica utilizada para esta unidad fue el debate que a partir de la lectura realizada y guiado por las preguntas fundamentales la respuesta particular de cada alumno a las preguntas sustenta la discusión y la confrontación de puntos de vista, el análisis de cada postura lleva a una conclusión elaborada en conjunto por los alumnos . Esta forma de promover el aprendizaje también concuerda con el concepto de que el alumno debe ser el responsable de su formación

El uso de la tecnología digital para la transmisión de los textos tiene varios beneficios: la oportunidad y seguridad en la recepción, ningún costo en fotocopias, lo que también reduce el uso de papel, la posibilidad de organizar el tiempo de trabajo. El único inconveniente es que aleja al estudiante de la biblioteca tradicional en donde podría consultar otros textos que complementarán esta información.

En contraste, el uso de la computadora alienta la búsqueda de información más actualizada y con una mayor y mejor precisión en imágenes y mapas los que se pueden archivar digitalmente, para iniciar una base de datos que es y será muy útil a los estudiantes ya que podrán acceder a ella en cualquier momento.

Por otra parte el uso del monitor invita al alumno a utilizar diversas herramientas para optimizar al máximo las lecturas de los mapas y los detalles de las imágenes, que siendo honestos en el papel no se aprecia a menos que la copia sea impresa a color y en un tamaño que nos permita ver los detalles de las imágenes, pero este método termina siendo muy costoso en todos los aspectos. Al mantener los archivos electrónicos se gana espacio y portabilidad. Si bien es cierto que hace algunos años la computadora era un lujo, hoy día se encuentra en la mayoría de las casas o incluso en establecimientos que a costos razonables permite su uso.

Ahora bien, presentar la lectura en otro idioma tiene como propósito estimular la práctica y mejorar el dominio del inglés, idioma indispensable para conocer los avances más actualizados en la geografía (aunque no el único). Además la lectura en otro idioma provoca una mayor concentración y esfuerzo en la comprensión de las ideas, y reduce la tendencia a resumir enunciados que no se han entendido completamente.

Invitar a los alumnos a formular preguntas y en este caso particular a hacer un ejercicio cartográfico, tiene la finalidad de que el alumno no reciba toda la información procesada si no que después de leer, reflexione y tome en cuenta lo que previamente haya aprendido, escuchado, visto e incluso platicado, complemente y sintetice ideas para elaborar sus preguntas y responder con una opinión propia y sustentada, no solo con lo que dice la lectura si no que lo desarrolle con su punto de vista.

En clase, con base en los conceptos fundamentales de la lectura se lleva a cabo la expresión de los cuestionamientos, de las respuestas y de los puntos de vista de cada uno de los alumnos, para complementar la percepción individual y mejorar el aprendizaje personal, de esta manera el alumno siente y es parte esencial de la actividad y la retroalimentación

El ejercicio cartográfico de localización en tiempo y espacio me parece de lo más atractivo y oportuno por que no solo ubica al país en el espacio, sino también en el tiempo y al hacerlo es incuestionable que toma en cuenta sucesos históricos y sociales demostrando de nuevo que la geografía es una ciencia interdisciplinaria.

Al final de esta actividad el alumno compendió y aprendió términos como globalización, homogeneización, localización y expansión cumpliéndose el objetivo marcado.

2

"Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (First Part)". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). Pp.23-33a

Febrero, 2010

PLAN DE TRABAJO

I. Temas.

- **Human Development and World Regional Geography (*First Part*).**

II. Objetivos informativos.

- **Examinará el Desarrollo Humano en la Geografía Regional Mundial.**

III. Objetivos formativos.

- **Reflexionará sobre los indicadores de desarrollo y bienestar en el mundo.**

IV. Motivación

➔ **Pregunta motora**: (reflexión personal)

¿Es el Índice de Desarrollo Humano (IDH), el indicador más conveniente para distinguir las diferencias sociales y económicas entre los pueblos del orbe?

V. Actividad de crítica y reflexión.

- Con base en el análisis del "***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA.

Pp.23-33a; los alumnos determinarán las diferencias de desarrollo entre los distintos pueblos y naciones del mundo.

El desarrollo de la actividad consiste en:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **dos partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos.

2. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 03 de marzo de 2010**.

3. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

VI. Contenido y Desarrollo.

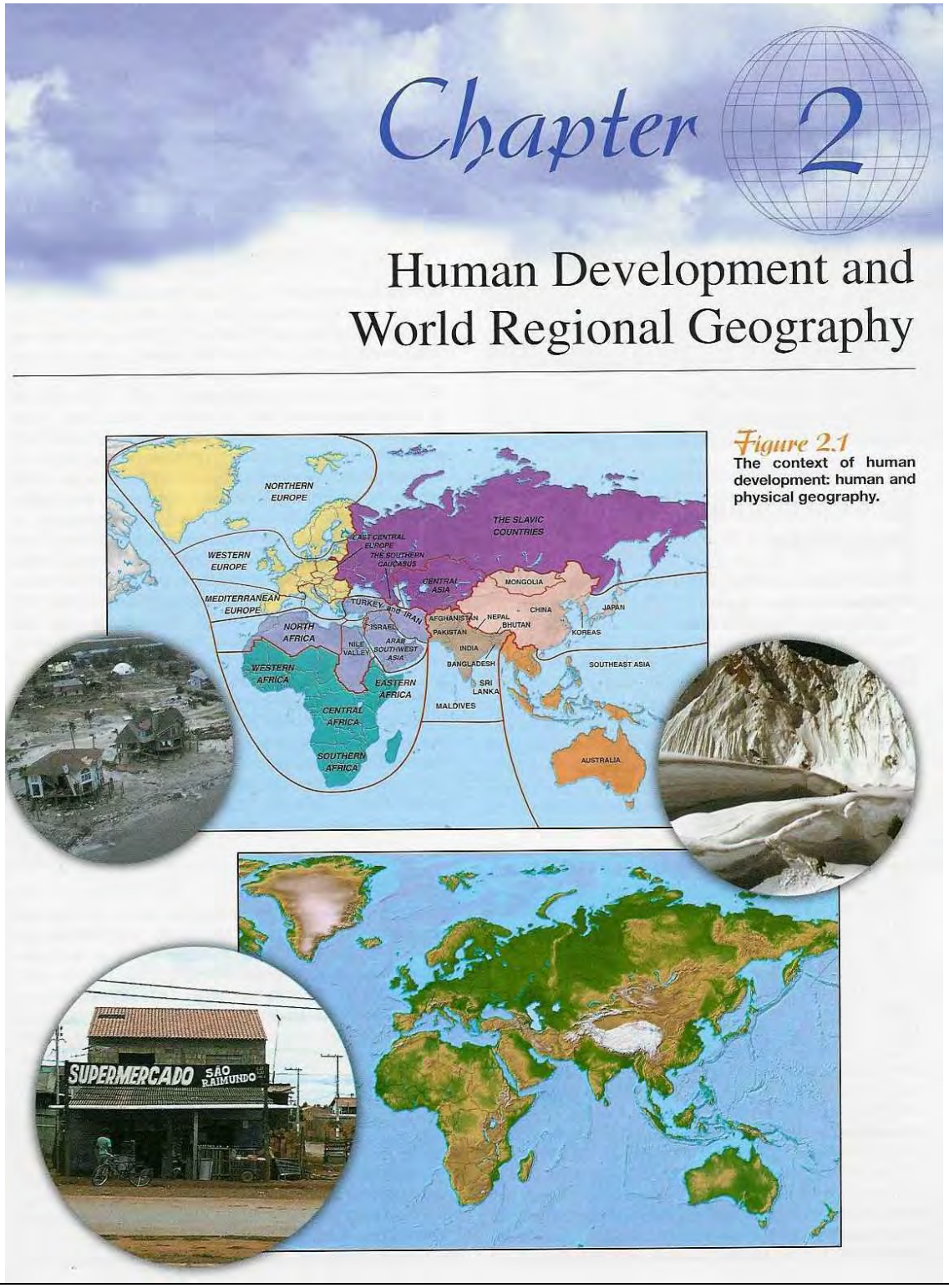


Figure 2.1 The context of human development: human and physical geography.

"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.24-33a

This Chapter Is About . . .

The geographical study of differences among peoples and places

Issues involving people and land: population changes and resource questions

Issues of economic inequality: how inequality is measured and how development occurs; trends toward improving the material well-being of poorer groups; the global economy, and information and technological concentrations

Issues of cultural freedom and discrimination: languages, religion, class, and gender

Issues of political freedom: nations and nationalism, governments, and country groupings

Environmental issues: the nature of climatic, landform, and biotic environments and human interactions with them

Global Focus: Voices of the Poor

Point-Counterpoint: HIV/AIDS

Understanding Global Disparities

Despite the trends toward globalization, the world is full of differences among places (Figure 2.1). The differences between many extremes are as great as they have been in human history. High densities of population in massive cities contrast with empty deserts and polar regions. The material wealth of many Americans contrasts with the extreme poverty of millions in Africa and Asia. Countries range in area from very large (Russia, China, the United States, Australia, India, Canada, and Brazil) to tiny islands. The variety of languages and religions both unites and separates groups of people. Disparities of natural environments and resources result in more or less sun and water and differences in exposure to natural hazards or in access to minerals and good soils.

The differences among places led some countries that were well endowed with natural resources and strong leadership to assume positions of dominance and superiority. For example, the Chinese long believed they were the only civilized people and all others were barbarians. During the 1800s, European countries claimed they were taking civilization and modern ways to parts of the world that they colonized. In the later 1900s, the United States and Soviet Union contested world economic, military, and political dominance, each believing that their systems were superior. After 1991, the breakup of the Soviet Union left the United States as the only superpower with an economic and military might that no other country matched by a long way. And yet, the United States, though dominant, still has to consider the wishes of smaller countries and gain support for its policies through a wide range of political links.

While some countries and peoples assumed dominance or leadership, others had less political or economic power. From the 1950s to 1990, many new countries became independent from colonial governments or the forced incorporation into the Soviet bloc. By the 1990s, increased country independence added to the variety of challenges to the powerful countries. Greater exposure of voices from local groups of people within countries focused attention on differences in poverty and people's rights to a full human experience. Human development and human rights became significant goals in the globalizing-but-localizing world.

Human Development

Human development is the process of enhancing human capabilities by expanding choices and opportunities to enable each person to live a respected life of value. A human development value can be given to indicate where countries stand relative to each other.

At first, the term **development** was linked to measures of economic performance, such as national income. That called attention to economic disparities among countries, but they are linked inextricably to educational, cultural, political, and environmental conditions. People are central; economic growth is regarded as a necessary, but not the only, process that enables people to enlarge their capabilities and enjoy the richness of being human. **Sustainable human development** involves economic growth that does not deplete renewable resources for the future. It thus relates to both human and natural resources, drawing together studies of human and physical geography.

The United Nations Human Development Program and recent World Bank publications focus on the eradication of poverty as part of this thrust. Human development officially became the province not only of economists but also of a wider range of social scientists and policy-makers. It is encouraging that the last 50 years saw major reductions of income poverty in large parts of the world, improvements in human development indicators—particularly in health and education—and the wider spread of law and fair administration of justice. It remains challenging that so many people in the world are poor.

Human Rights

The concept of **human rights** emerged in part from revolutions in Europe and the United States in the late 1700s, emphasizing, for example, "Liberté, Équalité, Fraternité" in France and enshrined in the U.S. Bill of Rights.

The United Nations' Declaration of Human Rights after World War II and subsequent events increasingly bolstered human rights by international agreements and actions. But some groups state that the imposition of human rights legislation impinges on their traditional rights. Current United Nations literature defines human rights as:

- *Freedom from discrimination* because of gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, or religion
- *Freedom from want* with a decent standard of living
- *Freedom to develop and realize one's human potential*
- *Freedom from fear* of threats to personal security through arbitrary arrest or violence
- *Freedom from injustice*

"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.25-33a

- *Freedom of thought and speech* to participate in decision-making and form associations
- *Freedom for decent work* without exploitation

In contrast to human development, pursuing human rights has often been a special objective of lawyers, philosophers, and political pressure groups. Women's rights movements are very significant in alerting their governments and others to women's position in society and desire to take up new opportunities, often through community systems of small loans (in which women are more trusted to apply them than men).

During the Cold War, political rhetoric reduced human rights to a propaganda weapon, with the West emphasizing civil and political rights, while the Communist world focused on economic and social rights. Today, human rights activists, particularly in the West, claim all people should have social arrangements to protect them from the worst abuses and deprivations.

Few, if any, countries, however, observe all the rights listed, and there are considerable debates as to what should be included or is feasible in practice. There is also hypocrisy in which human rights issues provide "red herring" arguments. For example, the world's wealthier countries often argue against trading with poorer countries because their factories employ children or ignore environmental protection. In reality, this can be a disguise for protectionist policies that may secure low-wage, low-skill jobs in the wealthier country for a time. Some countries encourage trade with oppressive dictatorships, while others do not. After September 11, 2001, much was made in Western countries of the Taliban government in Afghanistan oppressing women and carrying out amputation punishments for "minor" crimes. And yet, according to Muslim views, many Western governments allow the mistreatment and degradation of women. Different cultural definitions of human rights contribute to differences among places.

Human Development and Human Rights

Although emerging from different sources, the two strands of human development and human rights reinforce each other (see Global Focus: Voices of the Poor, p. 26). Human rights add value to the development agenda, drawing attention to those who are accountable for respecting rights and adding a social justice agenda to economic principles. Priorities shift toward the most deprived and excluded. At the same time, human development brings a long-term perspective to fulfilling the rights by assessing the workings of socioeconomic contexts and institutional constraints. It highlights the resources and policies needed to overcome the remaining gaps.

In the early 2000s, discrimination, poverty, personal insecurity, injustice, and abuses of free speech continue. Internal armed conflicts affect many parts of the world, holding back human development, abusing human rights, and creating increasing numbers of dispossessed refugees. The moves to democracy in Africa and eastern Europe with multiparty elections brought some advances in human development and human rights. These trends, however, also led to new conflicts in some countries over previously suppressed ethnic demands. By contrast with the previous decades of authoritarianism, more open government appeared weak to some political leaders.

The rest of this chapter provides introductions to aspects of the geography of human development that are basic to the regional Chapters 3 through 11.

- Issues of people and land
- Issues of economic inequality
- Issues of cultural freedom and discrimination
- Issues of political freedom
- Environmental issues

Issues of People and Land

People are central to geographic studies: they create, live in the context of, and recreate geographic regions. In late 1999, the world population passed 6 billion, rising at nearly 80 million people per year (Figure 2.2). The rate of population increase is slowing, but several years (or more if the low target is not achieved) of increasing population and pressure on resources will occur before the rise levels off.

Population distribution and growth, together with their impacts on natural resources, are major issues affecting human development and human rights. While no agreement exists on how many people our world can support, present growth rates of over 2 percent per year are judged to be too high. Improvements in education, children's rights, and women's status are basic to making the most of the resources available to control future population growth. World population conferences in the 1990s agreed that population totals should be contained, although some countries resist implementing policies to control birth numbers for cultural or political reasons.

Population Distribution

Population densities—the numbers of people per given area (e.g., square kilometer or square mile)—vary greatly around the world (Figure 2.3). These geographical variations reflect the natural resources available, the historic and present use of those resources, and the type of economy that is dominant. Only 29 percent of the Earth's surface is land, and much of that is uninhabitable (desert, ice cap, mountain) or almost so. The scarce habitable areas vary from low to high densities of people.

- The world's highest densities of population occur in parts of Europe, South Asia, East Asia, and the eastern United States and Canada, as well as in smaller areas elsewhere. These areas have sufficient rain and fertile soils for high-intensity agriculture, resources for industrialization, and growing urban-industrial areas linking into the global economy.
- Medium densities of population occur in regions of more extensive farming, more widely distributed cities, and less favorable natural environments. Such areas include most

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.26-33a

GLOBAL Focus

VOICES OF THE POOR

"Poverty is a denial of human rights. The Voices of the Poor series provides compelling testimony of the violation of poor people's rights—by agents of the state, by the private sector, and sometimes by civil society in their daily struggle to survive. The last book in the series, *From Many Lands*, underlines the paradox that poor people, who are the most powerless to protect themselves, often receive the least protection from their laws or officials. A human rights approach to development is needed to empower poor people to seek their rights and to hold governments accountable."

Mary Robinson, United Nations Commissioner for Human Rights, 2001

The quotes here are taken from the book mentioned above. The *Voices of the Poor* series records a major attempt to listen to what poor people say instead of wishing untried solutions on them. The first book in the series, *Can Anyone Hear Us?* (2000), reported studies in the 1990s in 50 countries and was based on what over 40,000 people said. The second, *Crying Out for Change* (2000) was based on 1999 fieldwork in 23 countries. The final book, *From Many Lands* (2002), presents a selection of country studies.

The following two stories from the last volume portray two experiences, one in Bangladesh and the other in Russia. As you read them, note the common and different features of these people's lives. Are they related to global trends and connections? How?

Waves of Disaster in Bangladesh

Mariam Bewa, a 40-year-old widow and mother of five, lives in Halkerchar village, five kilometers from the headquarters of the Dewangonj thana (subdistrict) in the northern district of Jamalpur [Bangladesh]. When the banks of the river Jamuna eroded in 1998, Mariam's house was swept away by the river, along with the homes of 450 neighbors. The community rebuilt their village on vacant government land; it has a government-run primary school, a junior high school, and an informal primary school run by an NGO. A small market with a handful of permanent stores stands in the middle of the village. Halkerchar has little transportation infrastructure, but there is a road that leads to the thana center and another that connects the village with the flood control embankment, which is used to access water. Although the land is prone to flooding and erosion, agriculture remains the main sources of livelihood. Poor people supplement their incomes by working in fisheries and by picking up day-labor jobs, but the availability of these opportunities fluctuates with the seasons.

Mariam's family used to own a homestead, farmland, and cattle, but when her husband became ill, they sold their assets to cover the costs of his treatment. When he died, Mariam was left destitute except for a house, which washed away in a flood in 1988. Since then, Mariam has raised her family in a small, thatched house. Mariam is excluded from most livelihood opportunities because she is a woman. In her younger years, she supported her family by agricultural work, although it violated local norms. Recently, Mariam took up work as a domestic for wealthy households in the community.

Like many parents in Bangladesh, Mariam raised her four sons hoping that in return for the sacrifices she made for them, they would support her in her old age. Her three oldest sons, however, abandoned her after they married. Her last hope is with her youngest, unmarried son. At present, Mariam's earning from menial jobs and her son's from wage labor are not enough for their household to get by. In addition, Mariam's only daughter will need to marry, which will require that Mariam pay for dowry and other expenses. Anticipating these outlays, she cuts back on household expenses and saves what she can.

Struggling Against the Tide in Russia

Svetlana, a 43-year-old mother of three, lives in Ozerny, a farming village founded in the late 1930s in the Ivanovo [Russia] region. "I used to work at our school as an instruments and equipment keeper," she recalls. "When they started to delay our salary and then stopped paying it, I left." She took a job at the local bakery, but "you had to knead bread two to three times more than the norm, and they paid you only 270 rubles (about US $11), half of what they pay you in Ivanovo," she says. The harsh working conditions and low pay caused her to leave the bakery job. Now Svetlana works as a dishwasher in a retirement home cafeteria. In addition to her work at the cafeteria, Svetlana raises pigs, which provides extra income that helps the family survive. Svetlana's earnings are important because while her husband has a job at a boiler house that supplies the village with heat, his employers do not pay him on time. Svetlana says, "Our life is hard and we watch every penny. I'm lucky my husband doesn't drink. I don't know how we're going to carry on. The only way is to keep farm animals and grow vegetables. We rely on ourselves—no use hoping someone will come and give us something. We are not well off, but we manage. Our only concern is for the kids to make it in life."

Poor children bear the stigma of poverty. Because Svetlana's younger son, who is 15, is embarrassed to wear handmade clothes, Svetlana recently led him to believe that she bought his new jacket at the market, although she had sewn it herself. Having to wear handmade clothing is not the worst effect of poverty on children. Many children from Ozerny's poor families go to school hungry. "What can they understand, what can they learn, if the only thought in their minds is 'How can I get something to eat?'" asks an Ozerny study participant. Svetlana's oldest son has just returned from the army but has yet to find a job. She is afraid her son might take to drinking if he does not soon find something to do.

Last year, many Ozerny residents became officially unemployed when the peat factory finally closed after several years of paying wages very late or not at all. The collective farm remains, but the few people who still work there have not been paid in over a year. Economic problems have made material deprivation a key element of people's daily lives. "It's not life; it's just barely making ends meet," explains one participant when asked to define what it's like to be poor. "We sometimes don't eat bread for five days, and we are so sick of potatoes that we don't know how to ram them down our throats," says another Ozerny resident.

Most housing in Ozerny is dilapidated, mainly due to lack of regular maintenance. A poor man says, "Our apartments badly need regular maintenance. The plumbing is leaking. If the wiring gets short-circuited, there is a danger of fire. There are houses where wiring hasn't been changed in 50 years."

Some key institutions in the village, such as the hospital and the day-care center, have closed. The peat factory used to provide such services at no charge, but a few years ago, the responsibility was transferred to the municipal administration and, lacking secure funding, these services soon disappeared. A discussion group describes the terrible blow of losing the local hospital: "The old hospital was small, but it was there. You could put your mother there. Then they started building a new one, wanted to have a bigger hospital, but didn't have enough resources, and closed it altogether. Now we have to go to Novotalitsy, 50 kilometers away. They seldom agree to admit us to the Ivanovo hospital (20 km away); they say we are from a different district."

For 70-year-old Valentina, who lives alone, medical care is out of reach for several reasons: "Now I have gotten old, my eyes are poor. I have glaucoma and a bad heart but no money to buy medicines. The hospital is in town; it's a long way, and we don't have an eye doctor

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

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here. At the hospital, they tell me I need surgery, but my pension will not be enough for that. You have to bring everything with you: clothing, food, and even drugs."

Poor men and women from Ozerny say they now feel insecure about the future and find it impossible to plan ahead. "Now we care only about this day. I live today and don't know if tomorrow will come or not," says a young villager. Like many in Ozerny, old and young alike, a 19-year-old correspondence school student named Sergey sees no future for himself in the village: "This summer, after I pass my exams, I'll go somewhere to look for a job, maybe somewhere on a construction site. . . . In the village it's boring, nothing to do, only a disco on Saturday and drinking. I'm anxious to leave. You can't expect anything good here. The village is dying. But I don't know where to find a job. And I don't want to leave my mother; it'll be difficult for her to be alone."

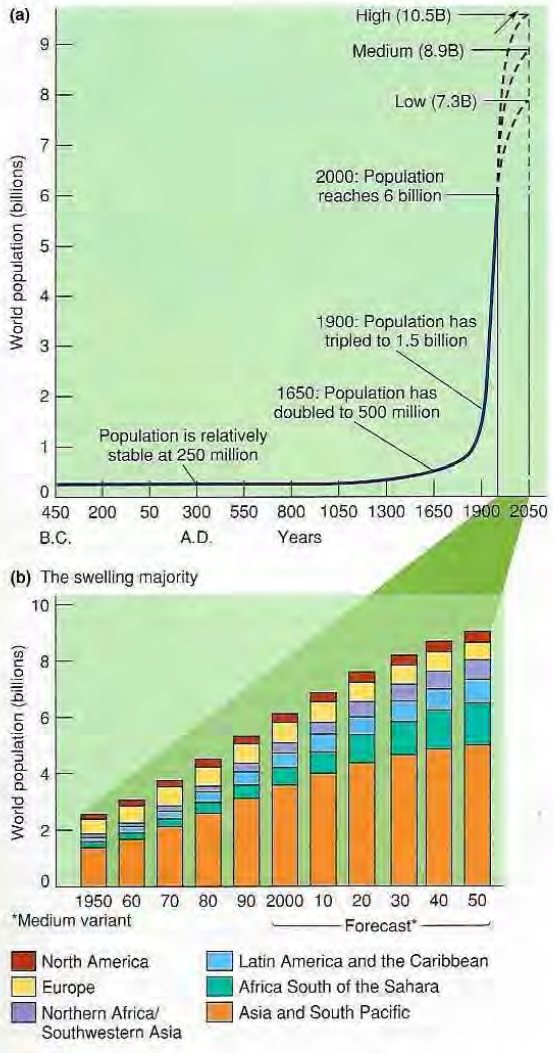

Figure 2.2 World population growth. (a) For most of the human occupation of Earth, population growth was slow compared to the last 300 years. The population took 1,300 years to double from 250 to 500 million, then doubled again in 200 years. In the 1900s, world population quadrupled. The high, medium, and low projections are from the United Nations, 1998. (b) When the population increase is broken down by region, all major regions outside North America and Europe show big increases. Sources: (a) United Nations; (b) Data from *The Economist*, 1999.

of Africa South of the Sahara and Latin America, the uplands of the western North America, and hilly areas in Europe and China.

- Very low densities of population reflect the most difficult environmental conditions, such as mountains or the margins of deserts and polar lands.

Other measures of population distribution relate population to resources, but the data required are not so easily available as population numbers and area of land. *Physiological density* is the population numbers per unit of cultivable land. The *population-resource* ratio is an even more sophisticated measure, based on the quantity and quality of each area's material resources and the size and technical competence of its population.

It is estimated that 97 percent of world population growth to 2050 will be in the larger, more densely populated, and often poorer countries: 35 percent of the total will be in China and India—already the world's most populous countries; another 25 percent will be in Pakistan, Indonesia, Nigeria, Brazil, Bangladesh, Mexico, the Philippines, and the USA.

At present, half the world's people live in cities, concentrated at very high densities. This proportion rises to over 70 percent in the wealthier countries. The largest cities in 1990, Tokyo (25 million people) and New York (16 million people), will soon be joined or overtaken in population totals by many cities in the poorer countries. Estimates of total city populations of over 20 million in 2015 raise Tokyo to 29 million, followed by Bombay (India, 27 million), Lagos (Nigeria, 24 million), and Shanghai (China, 23 million), while Jakarta (Indonesia), Karachi (Pakistan), and São Paulo (Brazil) may each have 21 million. New York is unlikely to reach 20 million.

Population Dynamics

Because the human population increases at varied rates and is mobile from place to place, it is necessary to understand the basics of **demography,** the study of population structure and development. Some of the major world regions, such as South Asia and Latin America, have increasing populations; others such as Europe show little change or, like Russia and Neighboring Countries, are declining. Growth or decline in the population of a place is determined by whether births exceed deaths (natural change), whether immigration exceeds emigration, and whether the overall balance between natural change and migration alters. Future population projections are notorious for being subject to unexpected events. For example, the growing threat of HIV/AIDS (see Point-Counterpoint: HIV/AIDS, p. 30) or other deadly diseases not yet known may lower future population totals, while new baby booms may raise them.

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.28-33a

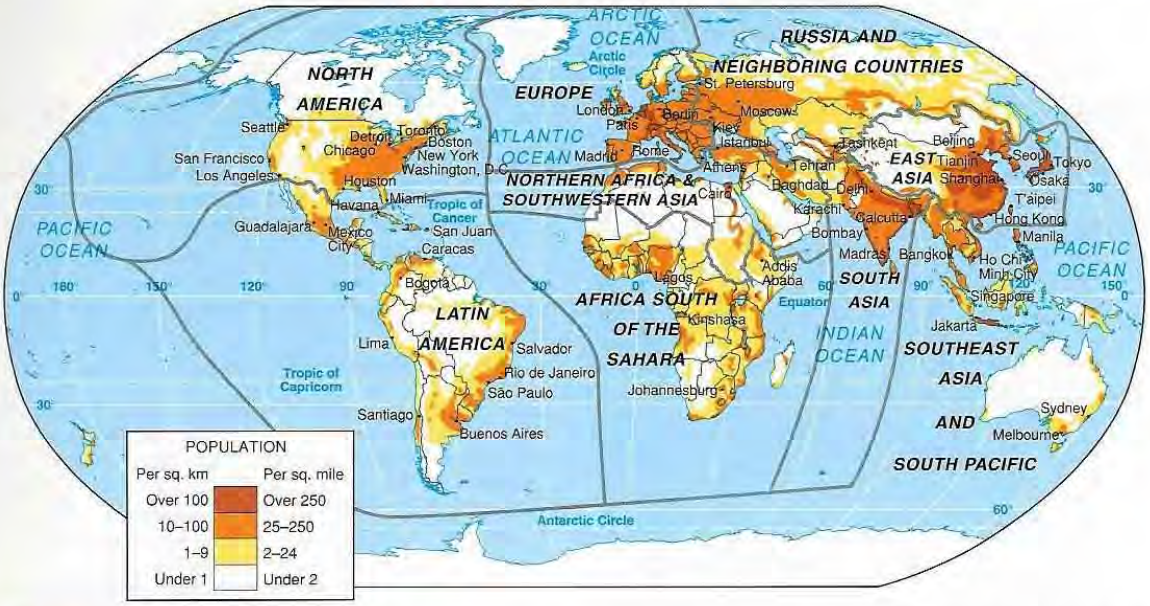

Figure 2.3 World population distribution. Which major regions have the highest and lowest densities of population? As you read through this chapter, look for evidence that might explain the differences.

The **birth rate** is the number of births per 1,000 habitants in a year. It is related closely to the **total fertility rate**—the average number of births per woman in her lifetime. Total fertility rates of 6 to 7 are typical of many poorer countries, while many wealthier countries have rates of 2 or below—not enough to maintain a population.

The **death rate** is the number of deaths per 1,000 inhabitants in a year. It is often broken down into age groups. **Infant mortality** (deaths per 1,000 live births in the first year of life) and child mortality (deaths per 1,000 live births in the first five years of life) are examples. Infant mortality rates below 10 (i.e., 10 infants died per 1,000 born) in wealthier countries compare with those above 100 in many poorer countries.

The combination of birth rate and death rate defines the rate of natural population change, whether it is increasing or decreasing. The process of **demographic transition,** summed up in a theoretical model of stages based on the experience of Western countries, relates birth and death rates to economic circumstances (Figure 2.4).

Typically, in today's wealthier countries, the high birth and death rates (Stage 1) for long caused little crucial population change. They gave way over time to the low birth and death rates (Stage 4) that resulted in the current phase of stable population totals. In Stage 2, death rates fell as a result of advances in medical technology, improvements in sanitation, and better education and nutrition. Continued high birth rates, however, caused rapid population growth, placing stresses on the resources needed to feed the extra mouths. In Stage 3, birth rates fell with rising incomes, expanded roles for women, increasing education, and moves from rural to urban areas. Combined with societies responding to lower death rates by having fewer children, a balance between births and deaths at lower levels was achieved in Stage 4. Some countries have very low birth rates that fall below death rates and declining populations. Since such countries have usually passed through the other stages, this could be Stage 5. It remains to be seen whether poorer countries at present in Stage 3 will go through the later stages or whether those stages merely reflect Western experiences.

Migration is the movement of people into or out of a place. If immigration to a country or region exceeds emigration and natural change is positive, numbers of people increase. Immigration is a major source of population increase in the United States, as natural increase is slow. In the 1990s, net immigration made up at least half of the U.S. population growth.

Periods of globalization link to major migrations of people. In the late 1800s, millions of people moved mainly from Europe to the Americas and Australia. In the late 1900s, migrations occurred more widely. In 2002, 150 million people lived outside the country of their birth, just 2.5 percent of the world population, but many still played important roles in their countries. Large numbers of refugees from war-torn countries in Africa moved into neighboring countries; low- and moderately skilled workers moved from South and Southeast Asia to the Persian Gulf oil countries for work, sending their paychecks home. Highly educated men and women from poorer countries around the world moved to the United States, Europe, and Japan for better-paying jobs.

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

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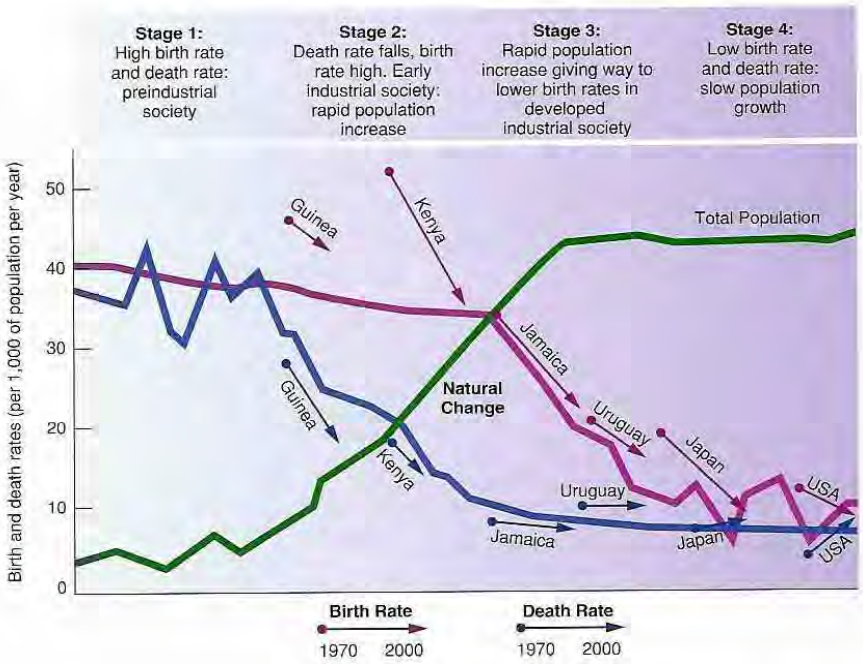

Figure 2.4 Demographic transition. Population change is plotted, from high birth and death rates (Stage 1) to low birth and death rates (Stage 4). All countries were in Stage 1 until the 1800s, when Western countries began to move toward Stage 4. Today many poorer countries are in Stages 2 and 3, in which population increases rapidly as death rates fall, but birth rates remain high. Each stage is linked to a phase of economic growth. Similar diagrams are drawn for each world region in this text. Notice where countries depart from this general progression. It has been suggested that there should be a Stage 5, in which birth rates and death rates are both low, but the death rate is greater than the birth rate and the population declines.

Conditions in the sending and receiving countries, the reasons for migration, and the policies adopted by receiving countries all varied and changed over time. In the late 1990s, wealthier countries that previously offered permanent residence and full citizenship rights to immigrants began to examine more closely increasing numbers of asylum claimants and offered limited-term work permits. Political problems arose from the difficulties of integrating immigrant groups with established communities.

When natural and migration changes are combined, an overall population increase of 1 percent will lead to a population doubling in 70 years. An increase of 2 percent means a doubling in 35 years; one of 3 percent means a doubling in 23 years. Wealthier countries today commonly have rates of overall population increase of below 0.5 percent, while poorer countries have rates of 2 to 3 percent that place pressures on economic resources. Countries with high emigration or low birth rates may have population losses.

The composition of a country's population is often summarized in an age-sex diagram, also termed a "population pyramid" (Figure 2.5). These diagrams provide information about the population's recent history and potential future. Migrations into the country or baby booms show up as expansions in particular age and gender groups; deaths in major wars may be reflected in a narrowing of specific age-group numbers. If there is an expectation of a long life, the older age groups will have more members.

How Many People Can Earth Support?

Growing populations raise concerns about whether Earth and its resources can support them. In the early 1700s, the English economist Thomas Malthus predicted that world population growth would exceed that of food production, leading to widespread famine. Made at a time when rapid population increase was unusual and before industrial processes raised agricultural productivity, his prediction was not fulfilled. Nevertheless, the debate continues today as some scientists and environmentalists place lower limits on the numbers of people Earth can support, while some population experts and economists allow for higher numbers in view of technological, political, and cultural changes. The lack of certainty arises from different assumptions made in calculating Earth's resources, assessing lifestyle requirements, and projecting the numbers of people to be supported.

The ability of world regions and the countries in them to support projected growth in population is not easy to determine. For each region in Chapters 3 through 11, we raise some of the issues. The answer to the question of how many people Earth can support relates to many complex factors in human development. Some of

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Point COUNTER Point

HIV/AIDS

HIV/AIDS is a major threat to world health and especially to millions of people in poorer countries, where 90 percent of infections occur. Life expectancy is reduced, and there is a threat of expansion to the rest of the world. First recognized in wealthier countries, HIV/AIDS is now a major plague in southern Africa and is being recognized in the rest of the poorer world.

Only around 1980 was HIV (the human immunodeficiency virus) discovered to cause AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome), which fatally lowers the body's immunity to disease. By 2000, 30 million people had contracted HIV and 6 million had died of AIDS. People contract HIV through unprotected sexual contact with HIV carriers or through contact with HIV-contaminated blood or body fluids (but current medical research suggests not by other contacts with HIV carriers). HIV infections can be passed from mother to baby. Patients become prone to many other sexually transmitted diseases and to other serious illnesses such as tuberculosis (TB). Medical treatments available are complex and expensive, needing close monitoring. They do not cure HIV but can prolong life.

Use the following 2001 newspaper extracts to list the issues and opposing points of view. How do the views conflict? Where in the world is the main problem at present? Is the problem a global or world regional one? Gather further information on the problem and its development since 2001. Have things changed? What can or should be done, and by whom?

MELVIN FOOTE, CHINUA AKUKWE, *Zimbabwe Independent,* 6 April 2001

Imagine the reaction of the developed nations to the grim news that every American who resides in the states of Texas and Tennessee will die before the end of the decade from a deadly disease or that 80 percent of Canadians live with this fatal condition. The developed nations would be up in arms to fight this mortal enemy, with a resolve strengthened by the news that the disease had already claimed so many lives. Panic would set in if it was revealed that 90 percent of all infected individuals are unaware of their status and may unwittingly transmit the infection to other people.

This is the situation in Africa, where more than 25 million individuals live with HIV that causes the fatal disease AIDS. According to the February 2001 report of UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan, Africa has 10 percent of the world's population but is home to 70 percent of adults and 80 percent of children living with HIV infection. By 2010, 40 million AIDS orphans, children less than 15 years old, will live in Africa. In a continent where half the population lives on 65 cents per day, an unchecked AIDS epidemic will shrink its economy by a quarter. And yet, this does not attract great outrage in the West.

BELINDA BERESFORD, *Mail & Guardian,* Johannesburg, South Africa, 2001

The doctor, staring into the bottom of his coffee mug, watched a man and woman decide who was to die first. In their early 30s and with young children, they have less than one-tenth of a healthy person's immune system between them. From their disability pension and occasional work, they could squeeze $75 per month for basic antiretroviral therapy to enable one of them to recover and raise their children for a few months.

The doctor knew this was futile. If either died, the disability pension would be reduced and there would be no chance of raising the $75 per month. Also, the price depends on drug companies keeping to their low-price promises—that had not yet been put into action by delivering the drugs to doctors. Some offers were for a limited range of countries and not South Africa. The drug price does not, however, cover all the costs of treatment to keep a person safely and healthily on antiretroviral drugs. Multiple tests several times a year and visits to doctors are costly. The treatments often have side effects that require additional treatments.

The uncertainties and complexities are too much for patients close to death, who are tempted to self-medicate. If so, they will waste their money or damage their health further. They will contribute to rising levels of drug resistance that means HIV will become uncontrollable.

ARTICLE IN THE *Toronto Star* (Canada), REPRINTED IN *World Press Review,* June 2001.

Dr. Yusuf Hamied, chair of Cipla (Indian generic pharmaceutical manufacturer), after announcing it would sell a three-drug AIDS cocktail for an at-cost $350 to the group Doctors Without Borders (*Médecins Sans Frontières*) and $600 to African governments, said, "There is a holocaust in Africa, it's my social obligation to society." It was also "a way to break the stranglehold of the multinationals." [Note: The Indian firm has been trying to break through the high prices charged by Western pharmaceutical corporations and sees this as its chance.]

Jeff Tyrwhitt, spokesman for 80-member Pharmaceutical Research and Manufacturers of America: "This is a complex problem with many factors, but that message doesn't seem to have sunk in. Whatever we do, like cutting prices, our critics still say it's too little, too late." The overriding hurdle is the lack of medical infrastructure in much of Africa and therefore the lack of a drug-delivery system. There are too few doctors, with or without AIDS knowledge, not enough clinics, drug-monitoring labs, or storage facilities. In the absence of public education, there is a perpetuation of high-risk behavior and self-medication that may lead to drug resistance (as happened with TB). Although Africa accounts for only 2.5 percent of the industry's $200 billion global sales, Tyrwhitt claims that "half the drugs sold here will never make it to patients."

The pharmaceutical industry contends that its high prices do not reflect production costs but the high costs of research and development, marketing, and lobbying: 95 percent of the drugs developed by North American companies fail and do not recoup costs. Without patent protection, there is no incentive to develop new drugs. Bob Huber, spokesman for Pfizer, Inc., of New York, wonders how several African nations justify buying armaments when they provide so little health care for their people. "Africa's defense ministers just met to see where they could get the cheapest arms,"

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he said. U.S. companies fear that if prices drop dramatically in the developing world, pressure to reduce the cost of AIDS drugs—indeed, all drugs—back home will follow.

Three companies—the U.S.-based Merck & Co. and Bristol-Myers Squibb, and Britain's GlaxoSmithKline—have dropped their previous reduction even further from the May 2000 proposal to cut the price by 80 to 90 percent from $6,000 per person per year to $1,000—still beyond many countries' reach. They propose $600 per drug. But in Merck's case, it wants African governments to guarantee that the drugs will not be reexported to other countries.

A legal case was tried in South Africa in April 2001 in which the major drug companies challenged former President Nelson Mandela's ruling that allowed the import of generic drugs. The companies referred to the World Trade Organization policing of the international treaty on intellectual property, including patents. South Africa could have declared a national AIDS emergency but backed away from this—although it would have meant donation of the drugs rather than the compulsory licensing of cheaper drugs. [President Mbeki denied a link between HIV and AIDS.] The legal case began on 7 March 2001 with a statement by Judge Bernard Ngoepe that it was a landmark case about patent rights and intellectual property but also about life and death. The case became a public relations fiasco and was adjourned until 18 April. On 19 April, the companies withdrew their suit completely but asked the health ministry to consider a law regarding compulsory third-party licensing on patented medicines.

Greg Hartl of the World Health Organization in Geneva says, "We don't vilify the industry here (a point for which WHO has been criticized). There are others who should be in this fight." WHO needs $5 billion a year in new money to combat AIDS and other dangerously resurgent infectious diseases such as malaria and TB. It wants Western countries, foundations, and even private donors to supply it. It seeks a differential pricing system that the industry has long refused. If agreed, mechanisms could be put in place to prevent the reexport of drugs to richer countries. "African governments have to do their part, too. We're trying to go back to the beginning and get them to work on prevention. We're trying to explain that spending money on health care is an investment in their future, a prime factor in economic development."

And yet, there is some optimism and activity at WHO in Geneva, following a lack of progress up to early 2000. Then there was the first UN Security Council debate on the issue and the G-8 summit that outlined the crucial need to resolve the crisis. Now there is a lot of activity behind the scenes.

Dr. Mark Wainberg, former head of the International AIDS Society and now director of McGill University's AIDS Program, thinks the industry has been its own worst enemy in not anticipating the pricing crisis and acting preemptively by lowering costs. But, he adds, many Third World countries have skewed spending priorities. "You can't whitewash anybody in this crisis. Ethiopia says its number-one enemy is Eritrea, India says Pakistan, when in both cases it is AIDS."

Dyann Wirth of Harvard University's School of Public Health is skeptical about drug company motives and their devotion to developing countries. She comments that only 13 of the 1,223 new drugs patented between 1975 and 1997 were for infectious diseases. Yet 6.1 million people died in 1998 of TB, malaria, and respiratory illness. A recent study of 24 multinationals found not one working on a much-needed new malaria drug. Although a drug developed to fight cancer was found to be effective in reviving victims from the terminal coma of sleeping sickness (earning the title "resurrection drug"), it was discontinued in 1999. Aventis, the company, then discovered it could be used profitably as Vaniqua, a female facial-hair remover, and production resumed.

Dr. Michael Schull heads the Canadian branch of Doctors Without Borders, an agency with AIDS projects in 40 developing countries. He dislikes the oversimplified notion of good (his own organization) versus evil (the industry). "There are people out there who want to break down international trade mechanisms, want the companies to give the drugs for free out of altruism. We're not part of that. What I'm concerned about is access to essential drugs." He is clear that if drugs aren't affordable, even the best health system can't tackle the disease. But he agrees that the crisis isn't entirely the drug companies' responsibility. He is disgusted with the idea that Africans with deadly diseases are now to be dependent on drugs having lifestyle benefits in the West. Are AIDS victims to be left in the shadows until the haranguing over intellectual property and patent protection plays itself out?

BENJAMIN STEINBRUCH, *Folha de S. Paulo*, São Paulo, Brazil, 6 March 2001

In 1996, 9,600 Brazilians were victims of AIDS; in 2000, this fell to 1,200. That does not mean the disease is under control but that something important is being done.

The Brazilian program to fight AIDS has been considered the best in the world by the international community. It worked because the government made the decision to treat the ill. All people infected with the HIV virus receive the cocktail of drugs and training in how to take it effectively. About 100,000 people take the drug cocktail daily, costing approximately US $163 million per year—a large sum, but it would be US $742 million if Brazil paid the high world market prices.

Brazilian government labs produce the majority of the drugs in the cocktail in Brazil; only two of the 12 drugs are still imported at high prices, costing 36 percent of the total AIDS program budget. It is now planned to produce those two in Brazil as well. Brazilian law authorizes local production of any drug in cases of public advantage or when the lab holding the patent does not produce the medicine in Brazil. Under international law, the country can carry out "compulsory licensing" of those two drugs, which means that the pharmaceutical companies will be paid for temporary use of the formula at prices that the country considers fair.

The United States government petitioned the World Health Organization and World Trade Organization to decide if Brazilian legislation is legal internationally. But victory for the United States would make the Brazilian AIDS program unfeasible and would discourage the entire Third World, which sees Brazil as a model to be copied.

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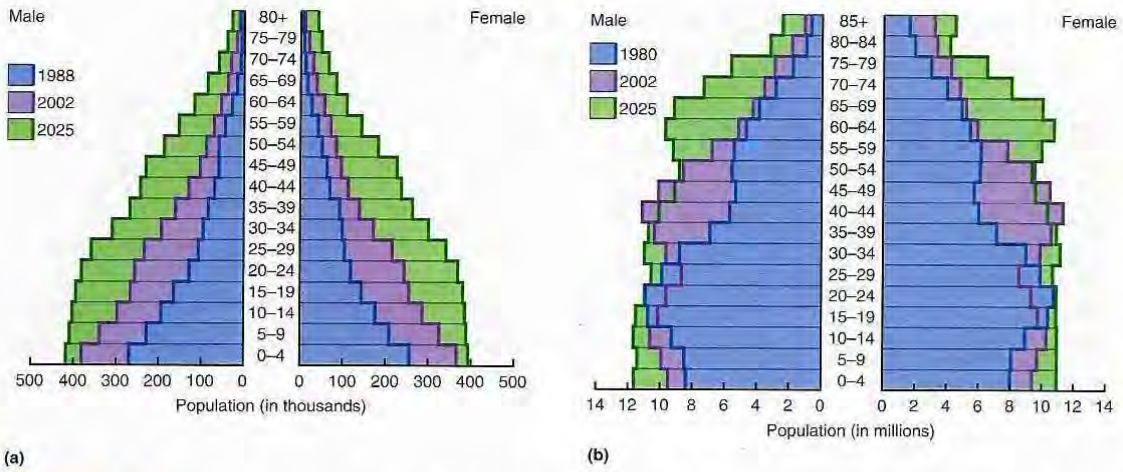

Figure 2.5 **Age-sex diagrams (population pyramids).** Diagrams for three years are overlaid to show changes. In each case, the bars represent a 5-year age group (male and female). Total numbers of people are used, rather than percentages of each age group, to allow comparisons over time and place. (a) Papua New Guinea. This shows a typical poorer country with large numbers of young people and fewer old—with increasing numbers in middle age groups by 2025. (b) United States, a typical richer country with a more even spread of numbers in each age group and a baby boom (1950–1965) moving upward through the age groups. These diagrams occur in each subregion of Chapters 3 through 11. Source: U.S. Census Bureau. International Data Bank.

the contributing factors also link to human rights. Asking a set of questions like the following illustrates the difficulties:

- *Economic questions* include:
  - What level of well-being is expected? A small proportion of materially very wealthy and many poor, or increasing numbers of people with moderate incomes?
  - What levels of technology will be used in growing food, manufacturing goods, and providing services?
- *Cultural questions* include:
  - How will average family sizes change?
  - What support will be provided for young and old?
  - How tightly are people wedded to current habits?
  - Are people willing to adopt new lifestyles that might include vegetarian diets, cycling to work, and spending more tax money on schools and health care?
  - Can people be forced into adopting new lifestyles, in part by the pressures of globalization?
- *Political questions* include:
  - What sort of political system might resolve conflicts among and within countries?
  - Will organized violence continue to waste human lives and resources?
  - How will domestic and international trade arrangements work out?
- *Natural environment questions* include:
  - Do people consider it sufficiently important to maintain a clean environment with conserved wilderness areas that they will alter their demands for cheap and plentiful food?
  - How much natural-hazard risk can people accept?
  - What changes will global warming make?
  - How long will any predictions last, given uncertainties over the usage of such resources as water and fish stocks?

If all countries consumed resources at the rate of the United States, the world would already be overpopulated. As it is, the United States, with 5 percent of the world's population, consumes half of the world's oil and large proportions of other resources. A cartoon in the *Miami Herald* at the time of the 1992 Rio de Janeiro Environmental Summit showed Uncle Sam telling representatives of poorer countries, "It's a deal. You continue to overpopulate the world, while we squander the natural resources."

We all have choices. Do we belong to the "bigger pie" school, which proposes expanding production through applying more technology in such areas as genetically modified foods, additives, plastics, synthetics, and alternative fuels? Or to the "fewer forks" school, which emphasizes environmental considerations and the slowing, stopping, or reversing of population growth? Or to the "better manners" school, which highlights cultural values as a source of improving the terms on which people interact? Choices of what we eat and wear and of lifestyles will determine the future of humankind on Earth.

Issues of Economic Inequality

World wealth and poverty are the subjects of economics—how scarce goods and resources are produced, distributed, and consumed. **Economic geographers** study the spatial patterns of production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services.

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At present, the distribution of wealth is uneven, as the World Bank map in Figure 2.6 makes clear. For some Americans, perched near the top of the global economic pyramid, the issues of poverty and deprivation may seem quite distant. However, the continuation of American well-being is likely to depend on the encouragement of greater material wealth in the rest of the world. The huge numbers of poor people constitute the greatest economic problem facing our world today. Global connections make them more aware of the differences between their lot and that of wealthier countries. World prospects for expanding people's choices depend first on reducing the extent of poverty.

In contrast to the large numbers of poor people in the world, there are relatively few extremely wealthy people. It is estimated that in 2001, the world had 7.2 million people (0.0012% of the world total population)—up from 5.2 million in 1997—who had investable assets of more than $1 million and controlled one-third of the world's wealth. The 1997 estimate listed 425 billionaires, of which 274 were in the United States. From 1997 to 2000, the numbers of millionaires rose sharply in the United States and Europe, less rapidly in Asia, and hardly at all in Latin America, the Arab world, or Africa. From 2000, however, many of those enriched by high-tech-related and overvalued stocks lost considerable wealth, showing how volatile the system can be.

Those who are poor wish to share the well-being and lifestyles of wealthier peoples but are not impressed by the efforts of wealthier peoples to encourage them to catch up. When the general extent of world poverty first became evident

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Fin de la Primera Parte

RESPUESTA MODELO

UNAM, FFYL **Licenciatura en Geografía**
Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía, 2010-2 **6to semestre**
Profesor: Mtro. Francisco Enríquez Denton **Actividad 2b: Análisis de texto**

Semana V: Miércoles 03 de marzo de 2010
Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)

Nombre de la alumna (o):	X	X	X
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**
	X	X	X
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**

Indicaciones generales: Con base en el análisis del texto "***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (first Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.33b-43; realiza lo que se te pide:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **dos partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas.

2. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos. Se sugiere que los cuestionamientos consideren los puntos medulares de la lectura y que las respuestas sean lo suficientemente amplias y claras.

3. En la parte final, realiza un **mapa conceptual** en el que articules los términos claves. Si es necesario consulta en Internet cómo elaborar uno.

4. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 03 de marzo de 2010**.

5. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

8 Preguntas fundamentales

¿Cuál es y en qué consiste el sistema económico dominante?
El sistema dominante tras la caída del Comunismo, es el sistema capitalista de libre mercado, el cual se basa en las capacidades de toma de decisión de los individuos, los cuales escogen dentro de una gama de productos el que pueda resolver sus necesidades. Este sistema ha marcado a Occidente durante más de 200 años y comprende las organizaciones de inversión privada, las de producción y el mercadeo. Este modelo se ha caracterizado por la competencia para colocar la mayor cantidad de productos en la mayor cantidad de lugares, es decir por la expansión de los mercados. El consumo se incrementa por la innovación en las características de los productos y por el posicionamiento de marcas corporativas que se establecen en un gran número de países, a través de la publicidad difundida por los medios de comunicación. Es decir el desarrollo tecnológico está en gran medida al servicio de la por la rapacidad de las empresas globales. Las ganancias son el factor primordial del sistema, de tal forma que los intereses empresariales y de los países se mantienen por encima de los colectivos y predomina la fuerza y la búsqueda de poder sobre la racionalidad. Por otro lado, la intervención de los gobiernos en el libre mercado, que supuestamente debería velar

por un comercio justo, ha sido pobre o sesgada, apoyando en muchos casos a grandes corporaciones que llagan a acuerdos con el gobierno o que éste tiene intereses en ellas para su beneficio. En síntesis el poder político se ha subordinado al poder económico.

¿Qué organizaciones apoyan el desarrollo del libre mercado?

La economía global es reforzada por instituciones que supervisan el funcionamiento del comercio internacional, supuestamente para garantizar la equidad, evitar políticas proteccionistas o abusivas de las grandes corporaciones o las economías dominantes. Ejemplos de estas organizaciones son el Fondo Monetario Internacional y el Banco Mundial, los cuales, frecuentemente son parciales y sus decisiones actúan como medios de presión sobre países que al solicitar un préstamo son forzados a incorporarse al mercado global, a abrir su economía interna, aunque ésta no esté en condiciones de competir en el mercado internacional. De tal forma que son instancias promotoras del sistema de libre mercado.

Otra entidad internacional es la Organización de Comercio Mundial, que tiene como objetivo reducir los obstáculos para que se realice eficientemente el comercio entre los países. Sin embargo, en realidad esta institución protege a los mercados internos de los países ricos y reduce las oportunidades de desarrollo de países pobres.

¿En qué consiste el indicador económico de desarrollo?

Existen diferentes indicadores que permiten categorizar las condiciones económicas promedio de la población de un país. Uno de ellos es la capacidad de las personas de ser propietarias de diferentes bienes materiales.

Otro indicador del desarrollo económico, se estima a partir de dos estadísticas de ingresos que son: el producto Interno Bruto, que es el valor total de bienes y servicios producidos en un país en un año; y el Producto Nacional Bruto en el cual se agregan las transacciones extranjeras y nacionales. El promedio de éstos dos entre las personas que habitan el país, conforma un indicador de la

potencialidad económica de la población. Con base en él se pueden determinar otras características de la los habitantes de un país en particular. A pesar que son cifras que no hacen diferencia entre los distintos estratos sociales, ni expresan las gran disparidad en la distribución de la riqueza, que en general, se encuentra concentrada en cada vez menos manos, estos indicadores reflejan el estado general de la economía nacional.

¿En qué consistió la modernización de Occidente?

La modernización de los países de occidente se remonta al siglo XIX y principio del XX. Este proceso incluyó la aparición de nuevos sectores económicos, primero con el avance en el sector secundario, industrial, recientemente con el predominio del sector terciario, en el que se encuentran la distribución y consumo de bienes producidos, los servicios y la administración. En los últimos años se ha incrementado significativamente un sector anteriormente no considerado relativamente nuevo, el sector cuaternario, que incluye a : industrias más sofisticadas posfordistas, la generación del conocimiento , las actividades financieras, el gobierno y los medios de comunicación.

Desde el inicio de la modernización, los países de occidente, mediante un mayor desarrollo tecnológico y del conocimiento acapararon gran parte de la economía global, haciendo imposible que otros países tuvieran un desarrollo similar. En este sentido, actualmente los países desarrollados mantienen el monopolio de las industrias más sofisticadas y las actividades que más beneficios otorgan, pero que requieren tecnología y capital que los países pobres no tienen.

¿Qué modelo siguieron los países ricos para mantener su supremacía?

Los países de primer mundo, deben su poderío y riquezas, a los países pobres. Las materias primas que los países pobres producían eran vendidas a un bajo precio a los países ricos, los cuales, producían bienes manufacturados que vendían a un alto precio a los países pobres. Este mecanismo logró que el desarrollo de los países pobres fuera bajo y que no alcanzaran en ningún momento el nivel de los países ricos. La capacidad de producir masivamente productos innovadores se sustenta en la investigación y generación de conocimiento y en la formación de cuadros de alto nivel,

aspectos no valorados ni desarrollados por los gobiernos de los países pobres.

Así, los poderosos "inventaron" el Tercer Mundo para mantener su supremacía, su poder, y su acceso a recursos que no tenían y mano de obra a un bajo costo. Por tanto, los planes de desarrollo que los países del primer mundo publicitan como si campañas de caridad fueran, no son más que falacia que esconden el verdadero fin del sistema capitalista en su conjunto.

¿En qué consisten las corporaciones multinacionales y transnacionales?

Las corporaciones multinacionales proveen o producen bienes en diferentes países, pero su planeación y administración provienen del país en donde están establecidos. Por otro lado, las corporaciones transnacionales son aquellas que no están arraigadas en un país. Este tipo de corporaciones se caracterizan por emplazar sus instalaciones en países en los cuales los salarios son bajos, en donde el gobierno las subvenciona y en donde las reglamentaciones ambientales son escasas.

De esta manera, dirigiendo las operaciones desde otro espacio, normalmente muy lejano al lugar en donde se establecen las instalaciones, las corporaciones explotan tanto recursos naturales como humanos, sin ninguna preocupación por el lugar y sin ninguna conexión física con él. Tomando en cuenta los beneficios y ganancias monetarias como factor determinante. Estas empresas compiten por los mercados tanto en los países de alto poder adquisitivo como en los más pobres, diseñando productos para cada nicho de mercado.

¿Qué son las ONG?

Las ONG, son grupos de ciudadanos sin un vínculo ni afiliación política, organizadas en colectivos definidos por una causa o ideal común, para realizar acciones de forma no violenta, sin fines de lucro y sin formar parte del gobierno. Estas organizaciones pueden tener un rango de acción nacional, pero hay algunas que intervienen en asuntos internacionales. Si bien gran parte de estas organizaciones tienen una base social en sus países y se manejan a escales regionales o nacionales; las grandes ONG que son toleradas por algunos gobiernos o instancias internacionales, con el propósito

de presentar una imagen de justicia y respeto. Existen también ONGs que se han transformado en negocios y pactan con gobiernos o se mantienen neutrales en ciertos conflictos ya que sus intereses y financiamiento pueden verse afectados.

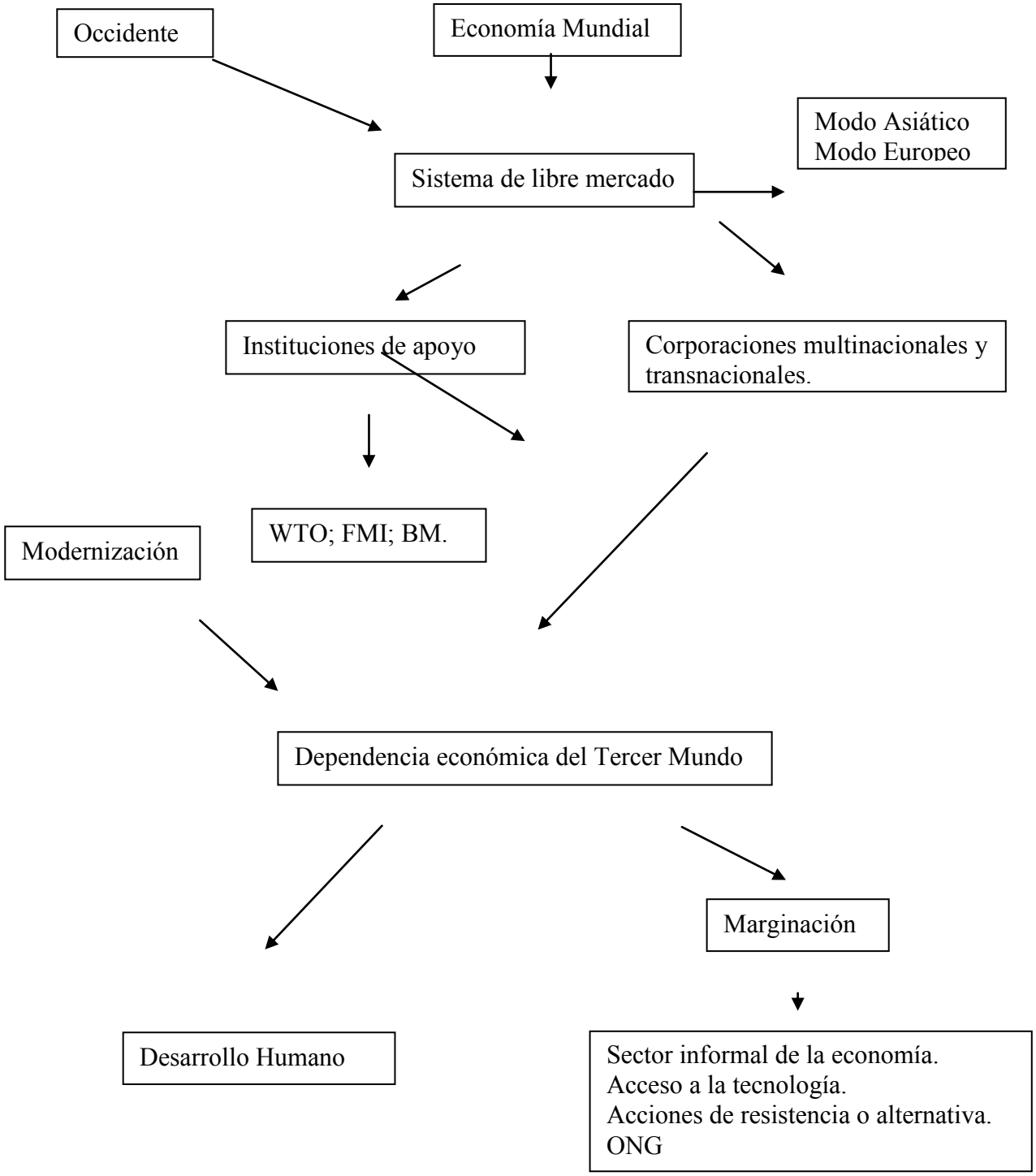
¿Qué importancia tienen las ciudades globales en la economía mundial?

Los avances en los medios de comunicación de alcance global como Internet han transformado tanto el modo de producción como la forma de realizar comercio y proporcionar servicios, generando la concentración de capital en empresas que se han fusionado para conformar enormes monopolios, las ciudades en que residen el control administrativo de estas empresas que tienen actividades e influencias a nivel mundial han acaparado el capital el cual emplean para instalar fuentes de trabajo en otras regiones del mismo país, del mismo continente o de la parte más lejana , su capacidad económica es tan grande que les permite trasladar fábricas enormes y capitales de inversión de un país a otro en un corto plazo, lo cual afecta a los países o regiones que abandonan y beneficia a los que los reciben , sin que se tenga una certeza acerca del futuro. Situación que ha empezado desequilibrar la economía mundial;

En este sentido algunas ciudades, en particular las más grandes, se han introducido en la economía global y en la actualidad funcionan como centro de control de la economía global. De tal forma que las conexiones con otras ciudades hacen de éstas, centros importantes a nivel mundial.

Su influencia rebasa por completo las fronteras del país que las contiene por lo que pueden recibir el nombre de ciudades-región globales. Entre este tipo de ciudades se encuentran Nueva York, Londres, París y Tokio.

Mapa Conceptual.



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"Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). Pp.33b-43

Febrero, 2010

PLAN DE TRABAJO

I. Temas.

- **Human Development and World Regional Geography (*Second Part*).**

II. Objetivos informativos.

- **Examinará el Desarrollo Humano en la Geografía Regional Mundial.**

III. Objetivos formativos.

- **Reflexionará sobre los indicadores de desarrollo y bienestar en el mundo.**

IV. Motivación

➔ **Pregunta motora**: (reflexión personal)

¿Es el Índice de Desarrollo Humano (IDH), el indicador más conveniente para distinguir las diferencias sociales y económicas entre los pueblos del orbe?

V. Actividad de crítica y reflexión.

- Con base en el análisis del "***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA.

Pp.33b-43; los alumnos determinarán las diferencias de desarrollo entre los distintos pueblos y naciones del mundo.

El desarrollo de la actividad consiste en:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **dos partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos.

2. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 03 de marzo de 2010**.

3. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

VI. Contenido y Desarrollo.

"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (<u>Second Part</u>)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.33b-43

Economic Worlds

In the 1990s, the end of the Cold War and the collapse of the Communist political-economic system left the **free-market system** (capitalism) dominating the world. The free-market system is based on the economic decision-making capacities of individuals, who may choose from a range of products to meet their needs. Those who fulfill these needs—and sometimes create them through advertising—invest financial "capital" with the aim of making profits. They "buy" labor and machinery to produce salable goods at the lowest cost. Competition among small firms, large corporations, and countries is an essential feature of the system. This system has marked the Western countries for over 200 years and involves the private and corporate organization of investment, production, and marketing. Unfortunately, the concept of an "economic man" who considers all possible information and makes soundly judged decisions on investments does not work out in practice. Fallible humans invest, run companies, and generally perform roles to the best of their ability and often take advantage of weaknesses

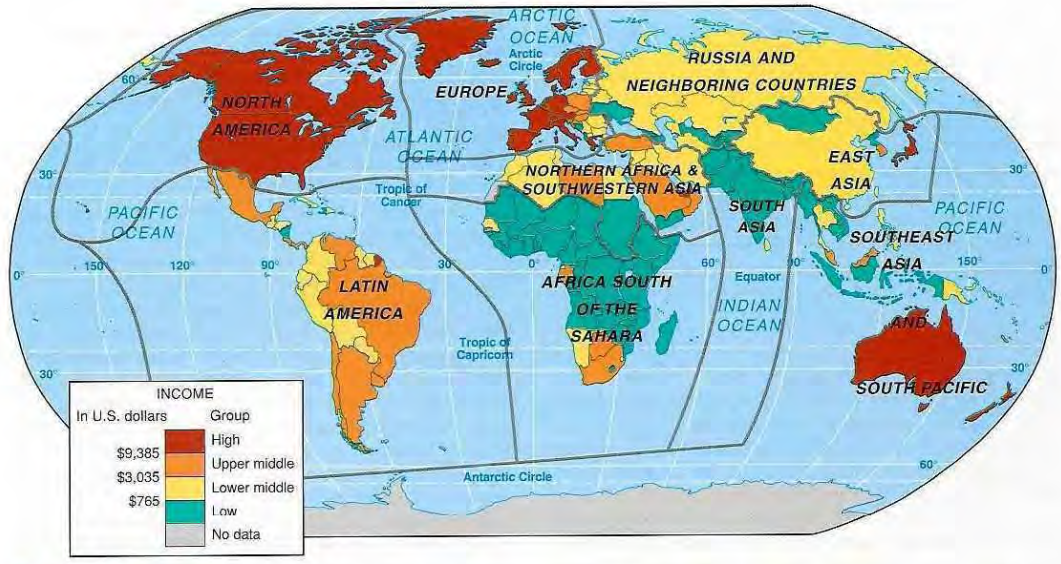

Figure 2.6 **Major income groups: World Bank.** These are based on GNP per head (2000). Relate the distribution of countries in the four categories to the major world regions. Source: Data from *World Bank Atlas*, World Bank, 2002.

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"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.34-43

in the system. Even in countries with well-regulated economies, major corporations such as Enron and Kmart may crash and create personal catastrophes for employees and customers.

In theory, governments intervene in free-market economies mainly to regulate the terms of trade and ensure "fair play" among producers. In practice, government-based decisions on what trade should happen and what is fair are not always framed or carried out in the public interest. In matters as the taxing of imported goods, political considerations favoring some groups of people influence legislative judgments. Furthermore, the governments of many wealthier countries provide the social services and building infrastructure (roads, airports, harbors, water supplies, waste disposal) that give businesses and people in those countries many cost advantages compared to the poorer countries.

Central Planning

The basis of economic opposition to the free-market Western countries during the Cold War was the Communist centrally planned economic system adopted by the former Soviet Union, its satellite countries, the People's Republic of China, and linked countries such as Cuba. This system places planning and decision-making responsibilities in the central government, on the grounds that the country's interests come first and the central ministries know what is best for the people. Central governments provide medical care and education to support a fit and able workforce, develop strong military defenses, and plan the production of goods considered essential—whatever the cost. For many people, the system provided welcome education, health care, jobs, and housing.

Those in command of centralized policy-making, however, often made large-scale mistakes, handicapped even more than in the free markets by a lack of information or just as much by personal bias or interest. Many leaders feared to change past policies, even if inefficient or oppressive, while regional bureaucrats often obeyed central commands despite knowing the policies would fail. Oppression of political dissidents and restrictions on travel paralleled overproduction of some goods or underproduction of others. These countries failed to produce the consumer goods or possibilities of tourist travel options available in most Western free-market countries. Incomes for most families remained modest, and only the Communist Party hierarchy did better.

Free Market for All

In 1991, the Soviet Union broke up because of the internal and external pressures of the Cold War, comparisons with U.S. affluence, political pressures from the United States, and an internal lack of political freedom. Russia abandoned its integral economic relationships with the countries of the Soviet bloc in eastern Europe and entered the world economic system. Already, from 1978, the People's Republic of China had increased trade with other countries and encouraged investment from them. This brought China high levels of economic growth through the 1980s and 1990s. Most former Communist countries—and those aligned with them—encountered a traumatic transition to the totally different free-market, now global, economic system. Western countries encouraged the transition to friendly democratic governments and increased international trade. The expansion of trade among resource and market areas further strengthened the economies of the Western countries, as well as their multinational corporations.

Global Economic Organizations

The world economic system is bolstered by world organizations that lend money and seek to encourage international trade. The World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF), both based in the United States, give loans in exchange for a country agreeing to open its internal economy to external investment and foreign goods, and to reduce its government bureaucracy. Private commercial banks and nongovernmental aid agencies tend to follow the same guidelines for assigning priorities to funding projects in poorer countries.

The role of the World Trade Organization (WTO) is to make trade among countries easier by reducing import and export duties. Despite the fact that all 140 member countries have a veto on decisions, the WTO gives the impression of favoring the wealthier countries and multinational corporations by allowing discrimination against imports of agricultural products and textile manufactures from poorer countries. At the same time, the United States and Europe squabble over such issues as Europe's privileged markets for banana growers in former Caribbean colonies that exclude U.S.-linked producers, the wider adoption of genetically modified foods in the United States and objections to them in Europe, and U.S. concerns over European beef. Some of these issues shift the emphasis from encouraging wider fair trade toward protecting a wealthier country's internal interests.

Regional Emphases

Although the free-market economic system prevailed after 1991, its influence and benefits were not evenly distributed, and the application of its principles varied among countries. The United States, western Europe, and Japan controlled most of the investment, production, and consumption of goods, although by 2000 there were signs that other centers might emerge in China, India, Brazil, and South Africa.

Further, distinctive variants of capitalist economies developed. The "Asian Way" builds on family linkages connected to government-business liaisons, rather than on the independently verified banking and legal systems that are basic to free-market economies in Europe and the United States. The "European Way" makes much of providing social welfare to support those who are not able to benefit from or exploit the capitalist system. Countries in Latin America moved out of self-sufficient economic systems and into the world system with some pain. And yet, despite the growing influence of the world economic system, small groups of peoples living in such isolated areas as the Amazon rain forest and Papua New Guinea, as well as increasing numbers in African rural areas, engaged little, if at all, with it.

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"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.35-43

Measuring Wealth, Poverty, and Human Development

In attempting to give more precise meanings to wealth and poverty, varied indicators form a common basis for comparing and understanding differences of human development.

The ownership of consumer goods is a vivid indicator of differences in material wealth among countries (Figure 2.7) but focuses on a limited economic sector—the availability of income to spend on poor people's luxuries and wealthier people's normal expectations.

Economic development is commonly measured by two statistics of income that are widely reported. **Gross domestic product** (GDP) is the total value of goods and services produced within a country in a year. Gross national product (GNP), now called **Gross national income** (GNI), adds the role of foreign transactions: it is the total value added from domestic and foreign sources. Per capita figures of the country's total annual income are averages of GDP or GNI per head of the population, not personal incomes. Figure 2.8 compares GDP and GNI with other measures of human development.

The divisions shown on the map in Figure 2.6 are based on GNI per capita, with the World Bank dividing countries into four income groups: low, lower middle, upper middle, and high. The map demonstrates the uneven distribution of the world's GNI among countries.

GDP and GNI values are based on local currencies and converted to U.S. dollars at official exchange rates. Official exchange rates, however, may not reflect the comparable costs of living in a country. The **purchasing power parity** (PPP) estimates of GNI and GDP are more faithful comparisons of living costs among countries. Because prices in India, for example, are much lower for equivalent items you might buy in the United States, US $440 will buy as much in India as US $2,230 does in the United States. Countries with high incomes and high living costs have a lower PPP estimate of income than the GDP or GNI based on exchange rates; poorer countries often have higher estimates. In 1998, Switzerland had a GNP per capita income of $39,980 but a GDP per capita PPP estimate of $25,512; Mexico had comparable values of $3,840 and $6,041. Figure 2.9 shows that over 60 percent of world wealth is produced by 20 percent of the world's population, while just over 20 percent of world wealth is produced by 60 percent of the population.

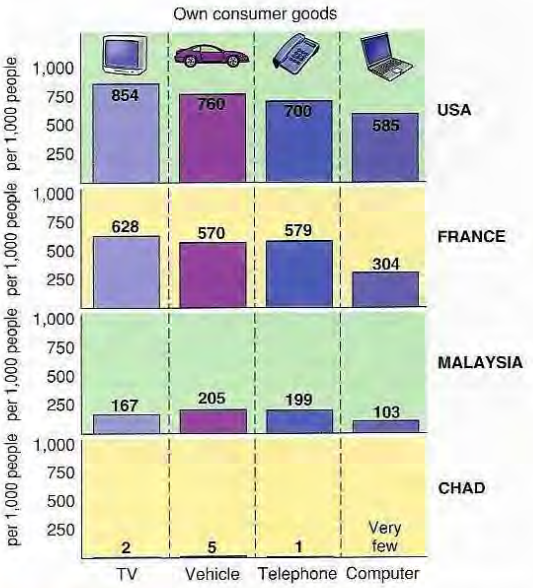

Figure 2.7 **Ownership of consumer goods.** Numbers of goods per 1,000 people in specific countries. Contrasts in affluence occur among wealthier countries (United States, France), countries with middle incomes (Malaysia), and poorer countries (Chad). Similar diagrams occur in each chapter. Source: Data (for 2000) from *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2002.

Figure 2.8 **World region comparisons: index data.**

The income per head is based on gross national income purchasing power parity in U.S. dollars averaged across each region. The human development index and gender development index ranks and the human poverty index are also averaged for each region.

World Region	Gross National Income Purchasing Power Parity Per Capita Average 1999 $	World Human Development Index Rank Average (162) 1999	World Gender Development Index Rank Average (146) 1999	Human Poverty Index Average 1999 % of Population
Europe	19,306	26	24	11.7
Russia and Neighboring Countries	4,197	86	72	no data
East Asia	16,648	38	35	15.0
Southeast Asia and South Pacific	8,957	73	61	19.2
South Asia	1,893	127	106	37.4
Northern Africa and Southwestern Asia	5,073	90	79	21.9
Africa South of the Sahara	1,745	150	123	41.1
Latin America	6,200	71	63	14.3
North America	28,600	2	2	15.0

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"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (<u>Second</u> <u>Part</u>)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.36-43

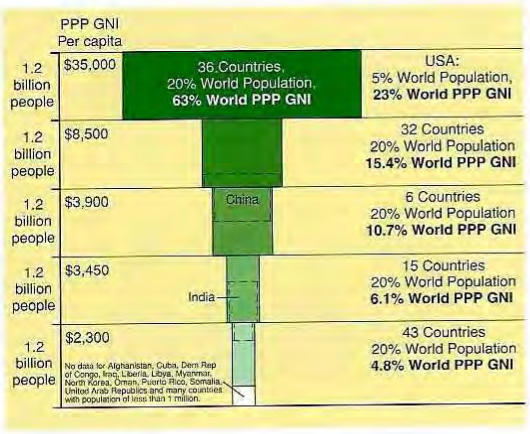

Figure 2.9 **Uneven distribution of world wealth.** The 2000 population was divided into five groups with equal numbers. Countries were linked by purchasing power parity gross national income. What striking information does this diagram provide? Information about each country's position is included in each of the regional Chapters 3 through 11. Source: Data for 2000 from *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2002.

The United Nation's **human development index** (HDI) is a broader estimate of human development, incorporating statistics calculated from life expectancy, education attainment, and health, as well as income. Poorer countries investing heavily in education and health care, such as Costa Rica and Sri Lanka, provide a better quality of life for their people and have a higher HDI than GDP (merely based on a country's income) rank. By contrast, many of the oil-rich Persian Gulf countries have high income rankings based on oil exports but lower HDI rankings because of poor provision of schooling, especially for girls.

As the emphasis in thinking about development shifted toward the needs of the poorest people, the United Nations introduced the **human poverty index** (HPI). Linked to the HDI, it focused on levels of deprivation among the least favored groups in society. The indicators used strike balances between individual material poverty and public provision for such needs, and between relevant and available data. For example, the percentage of people expected to die before age 40 indicates vulnerability to death (Figure 2.10); the percentage of illiterate adults indicates restrictions on entry to better jobs and full community life; and a combination of percentages of people without access to health care or safe water and of malnourished children under age 5 indicates a lack of decent living standards.

The HPI records the proportions of populations affected by such deprivations. Values range from around 10 percent in Cuba, Chile, and Costa Rica to over 50 percent in many African countries and Cambodia in Southeast Asia. Contrasts also occur within countries: in China the coastal regions have HPI values of 18 percent, while areas in the remote interior have values of 44 percent.

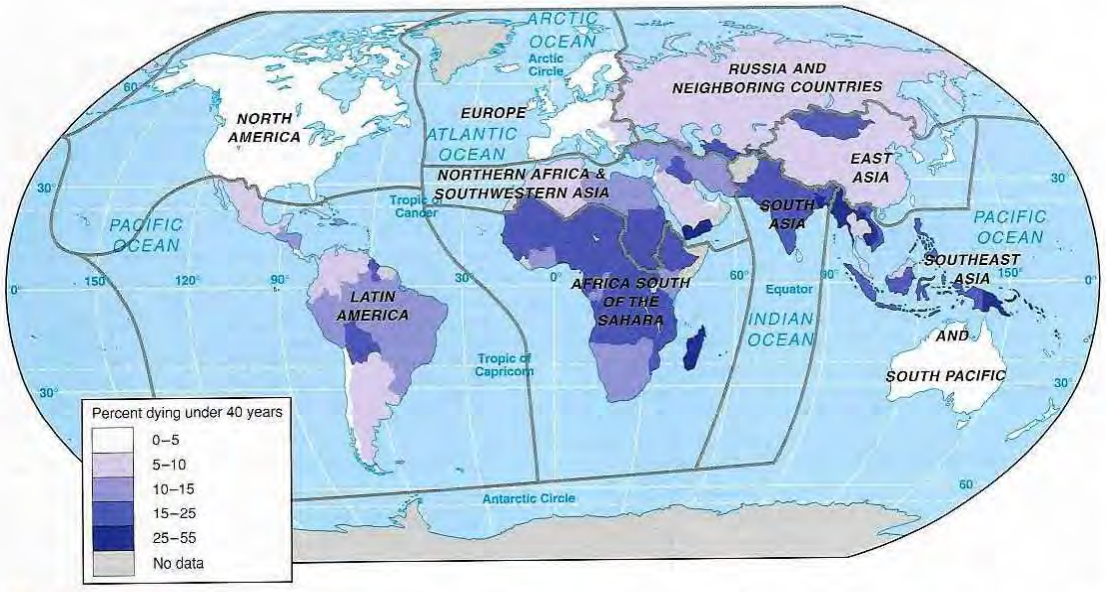

Figure 2.10 **Early death.** This map depicts the proportion of people not reaching 40 years of age for each country. How do the figures relate to major world regions? Source: Data for 1990 from *United Nations Human Development Report*, United Nations, 1997.

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Making Development Happen

No simple answers are available to answer the questions of what policies lead to economic or human development and how poor countries become materially wealthier. Several attempts were made in the second half of the 1900s to generate such development but met varied levels of success. Each had its geographical origins and impacts.

Modernization

The Western countries, such as Europe and the USA, experienced economic growth in the later 1800s and through the 1900s by developing wealth from new economic sectors in a process known as **modernization.** The production and trade in **primary sector** goods include outputs from the natural environment (mining, fishing, timber-cutting, and farming). Greater wealth (measured by the value added) comes in the **secondary sector** from converting such products through manufacturing into others of greater value. The **tertiary sector** covers the distribution and consumption of goods produced, including retail and wholesale transactions and the work of business services and government. The **quaternary sector,** emerging from the tertiary sector, includes the growing roles of specialist industries that emphasize information services, including the professions, finance industries, education, media, and government: such industries also create new wealth and high-salaried jobs.

The world's wealthier countries gain more wealth and jobs from the most profitable sectors and have more diversified economies than the poorer countries (Figure 2.11). They have a greater prominence in the new, high-value manufacturing industries such as airplane building, electronics, and pharmaceuticals, as well as in the high-profile business services.

From the 1950s, economic progress policies recommended a passage through the sectors from primary to secondary and tertiary as a formula for modernization. The expansion of manufacturing industries was presented as an essential time of "takeoff" for a country's economy, so countries invested in manufacturing. The formula worked in a few countries, particularly those, such as Japan and South Korea, that had U.S. help through war recovery investment. Other Asian countries, such as Taiwan, Malaysia, Thailand, and Singapore, also invested in manufacturing and service industries and experienced rapid economic growth. Conditions were different, however, from those that had enabled Western countries to develop the different sectors. In particular, by the mid-1900s, the Western countries themselves dominated the world economy, making it harder for others to emulate them. The East Asian successes in this process used the powers of strong, single-party governments to maintain import taxes while investing in export industries with likely growth. They achieved huge trade surpluses. By contrast, places where traditional cultures predominated and colonial powers had restricted manufacturing, as in much of Africa, appeared unlikely to "take off."

Self-Sufficiency and Import Substitution

Another approach led countries to develop their own manufacturing sector protected from imports and the need to compete in world markets. Some countries adopted this approach in response to being cut off from Western markets in the Great Depression (1930s) and during World War II (1940s). Other countries, such as India, adopted this strategy on becoming independent as a sign of moving away from their past colonial connections into self-sufficiency. Called **import substitution,** the strategy was most successful in larger countries, such as Brazil and India, where the size of the internal market could support a range of local manufactures. Even in Brazil and India, however, protection often resulted in uncompetitive and poorly managed nationalized industries with high costs arising from the political necessity of employing large numbers of workers.

Central Planning Prescription

Other alternatives emerged with the aim of development outside the free-market system. Critics among Western economic development thinkers and in the Communist governments of the Soviet Union and China claimed that the Western free-market

Figure 2.11 World region comparisons: economic sectors.

The role of each sector is assessed by using the value added in each as a proportion of each country's gross domestic product and averaged for the region.

World Region	Economic Sectors Value Added as % of Gross Domestic Product		
	Agriculture, etc. (Primary)	Industry (Secondary)	Services (Tertiary)
Europe	5	28	67
Russia and Neighboring Countries	23	31	46
East Asia	8	36	55
Southeast Asia and South Pacific	22	33	45
South Asia	29	24	47
Northern Africa and Southwestern Asia	16	34	50
Africa South of the Sahara	32	25	43
Latin America	12	30	57
North America	2	29	39

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system made poorer countries dependent on wealthier countries. Trade relations tied them to selling their products to the wealthier countries and, in return, forced them to buy machinery and other sophisticated goods from those countries. This process enabled the wealthier countries to grow at the expense of the poorer: they paid low prices for the raw materials and charged high prices for their own manufactures. And yet, the Soviet bloc, China, and countries aligned with them found that their central planning often failed on a massive scale and their attempts to be self-sufficient outside the Western economy deprived their citizens of the consumer goods they envied.

Marginalization and Dual Economies

Among the poorer countries of Latin America, Africa, and Asia, whole sections of the population were marginalized by poverty, living without hope in huge shantytowns of makeshift homes on the edges of society, often without clean water, electricity, or sanitation. Their experiences provided powerful evidence that it was not possible for all sections of a population to gain from modernization.

In Indonesia, for example, society consisted of dual economies. Traditional rural Asian ways based on farming and crafts conflicted with the new urban-industrial and materially wealthy Westernized lifestyles that many migrants to the towns wished to attain.

In many poorer countries, distinctions emerged between the **formal sectors** of an economy, in which people worked for set wages and paid taxes, and **informal sectors** ranging from unlicensed street trading to small-scale manufacturing and squatter housing. Those engaged in some informal activities, such as trash scavenging, often earn more than formal factory workers. They live in shantytowns, but these can be the rural people's transition into the urban economy. Although the informal sector was often illegal in its activities and use of land, governments began to sponsor it as a means of encouraging self-assistance. They provided building materials in the shantytowns, added infrastructure of power, water, and sewage lines, and introduced some schooling and health care.

Structural Adjustment

In the later 1980s and 1990s, a debt crisis hit many poorer countries, induced by rising interest rates on loans to them. The major world institutions lending to poorer countries, including commercial banks, the IMF, and the World Bank, insisted on new demands, known as **structural adjustment.** Poor governments in debt were encouraged to establish more efficient governments and become involved in world markets. These programs demanded export-based industries, more open trading, privatization, and reduced government involvement in the economy. In the later 1990s, debt forgiveness was linked to such measures. As with other measures, some countries found this approach helpful, but most struggled with political fallout arising from the changes that put many government workers out of jobs.

Technological Innovation

In the 1990s, a new division of the world became apparent—by technological innovation and transfer (Figure 2.12). Around 15 percent of Earth's population living in Canada and the USA, western and northern Europe, Italy, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and Australia is responsible for nearly all the technological innovations. They benefit most from the application of new technologies. A further 50 percent of the world's population is able to adopt the technologies in production and consumption. The remaining 35 percent of the world's population lies outside these two zones, is "technologically disconnected," and is often caught in a trap of poverty, disease, low agricultural productivity, and environmental decline: they need technological solutions they cannot afford. These differences indicate a need for new technology-transfer goals to encourage development.

Land Development Banks and Complementary Webs

Frustrated by an increasing knowledge that they are being left behind economically and by the lack of help from their country governments at all levels, many groups of people in poorer countries set up microcredit banks. They built on the experience of the Grameen ("Village") Bank in Bangladesh, which grew out of a program of small individual loans by Professor Mohammad Yunus beginning in 1974 and was formally established in the mid-1980s. Small amounts of money enabled craft workers and others to establish small businesses that helped them emerge from poverty. By 2001, the Bangladeshi Grameen Bank had 1,170 branches with 11,500 staff serving 2.4 million borrowers in over 40,000 villages. Each working day, the bank collects an average of $1.5 million in weekly installments. Of the borrowers, 94 percent are women, and 98 percent of the loans are repaid on time. These methods are now applied in 58 countries, including wealthier countries such as the United States and Canada.

Summary

Figure 2.13 summarizes some of the resources and processes involved in human development. It shows how the nature of government policies may strongly affect the outcome. The influence of internal and external forces will also have important effects on creating and remaking regions within countries.

The results of countries trying to develop for their future are uneven. During the 1990s, East Asian economies grew rapidly but suffered a downturn near the end of the decade, from which most have since recovered. The countries of South Asia, led by India, experienced moderate economic growth through the 1990s. By contrast in this decade, the countries in Africa South of the Sahara, most Arab countries, and the former Soviet bloc of countries in eastern Europe experienced a fall in economic well-being, while Latin American countries slowed in their advance. Even in countries where economic growth was rapid, many people fell below poverty lines.

Several positive results emerge from the experiences of development policies, refuting those who see all previous efforts at development as attempts by the wealthier countries to dominate others. Some voices stress the need to understand local conditions and culture in order to redefine what people and their communities and environments need, can cope with, or hope for. The need to promote grassroots interests and pay greater atten-

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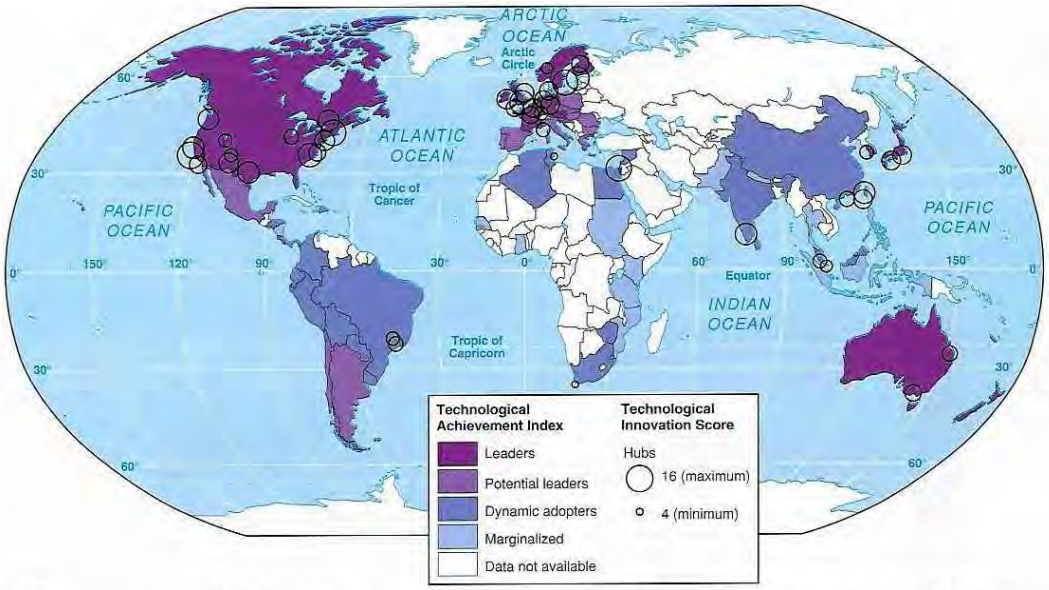
Continuación…

"***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (<u>Second</u> <u>Part</u>)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.39-43



Score							
16	Silicon Valley, USA	13	San Francisco, USA	11	Sweden-Malmö Copenhagen, Denmark	10	Baden-Württemberg, Germany	8	Saxony, Germany
15	Boston, USA	13	Taipei, Taiwan	11	Bavaria, Germany	10	Oulu, Finland	8	Sophia Antipplis, France
15	Stockholm-Kista, Sweden	13	Bangalore, India	11	Flanders, Belgium	10	Melbourne, Australia	8	Inchon, Republic of Korea
15	Israel	12	New York City, USA	11	Tokyo, Japan	9	Chicago, USA	8	Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
14	Raleigh-Durham-Chapel Hill, USA	12	Albuquerque, USA	11	Kyoto, Japan	9	Hong Kong, China (SAR)	8	Campinas, Brazil
14	London, U.K.	12	Montréal, Canada	11	Hsinchu, Taiwan	9	Queensland, Australia	7	Singapore
14	Helsinki, Finland	12	Seattle, USA	10	Virginia suburbs of Washington, D.C., USA	9	São Paulo, Brazil	6	Trondheim, Norway
13	Austin, USA	12	Cambridge, U.K.	10	Thames Valley, U.K.	8	Salt Lake City, USA	4	El Ghazala, Tunisia
		12	Dublin, Ireland	10	Paris, France	8	Santa Fe, USA	4	Gauteng, South Africa
		11	Los Angeles, USA			8	Glasgow-Edinburgh, U.K.		

Figure 2.12 Global hubs of technological innovation. In 2000, *Wired* magazine consulted local sources in government, industry, and the media to find the locations that matter most in the new digital geography. Each was rated from 1 to 4 in four categories, giving maximum scores of 16 and minimum of 4: the ability of area universities and research facilities to train skilled workers or develop new technologies, the presence of established companies and multinational corporations to provide expertise and economic stability, the population's entrepreneurial drive to start new ventures, and the availability of venture capital to ensure that the ideas make it to market. Forty-six locations were identified as technology hubs, shown on the map as black circles. Source: *United Nations Human Development Report*, 2001.

tion to women's issues, and concerns for the natural environment are prominent themes arising out of these experiences.

The Global Economy

While most of the economic aspects affecting human development and human rights operate at the country level, there are increasing trends toward global exchanges and institutions, helped by the distance-reducing roles of improved transportation and communications that speed people, information, and money around the globe. International airlines, courier services, electronic mail, and videoconferences accelerate personal information transfer. As the global connections increased, the world economy began to reduce poverty levels and economic inequalities.

Multinational Corporations

Multinational corporations (MNCs) make goods or provide services for profit in several countries but direct operations from a headquarters in one country. The term *transnational corporation* is often used instead of MNC to refer to corporations that are no longer rooted in a single country. The greater ease of travel and telecommunications contacts, together with the Internet transfer of information, encouraged MNCs to expand in the later 1900s.

Multinational corporations place production facilities in other countries to take advantage of cheaper labor, land, and energy and sometimes of less stringent environmental laws. For example, auto manufacturers spread the manufacture of components across several countries to ensure supplies during labor strikes and to react to local needs (Figure 2.14). The earliest multinational corporations were of United States origin, but

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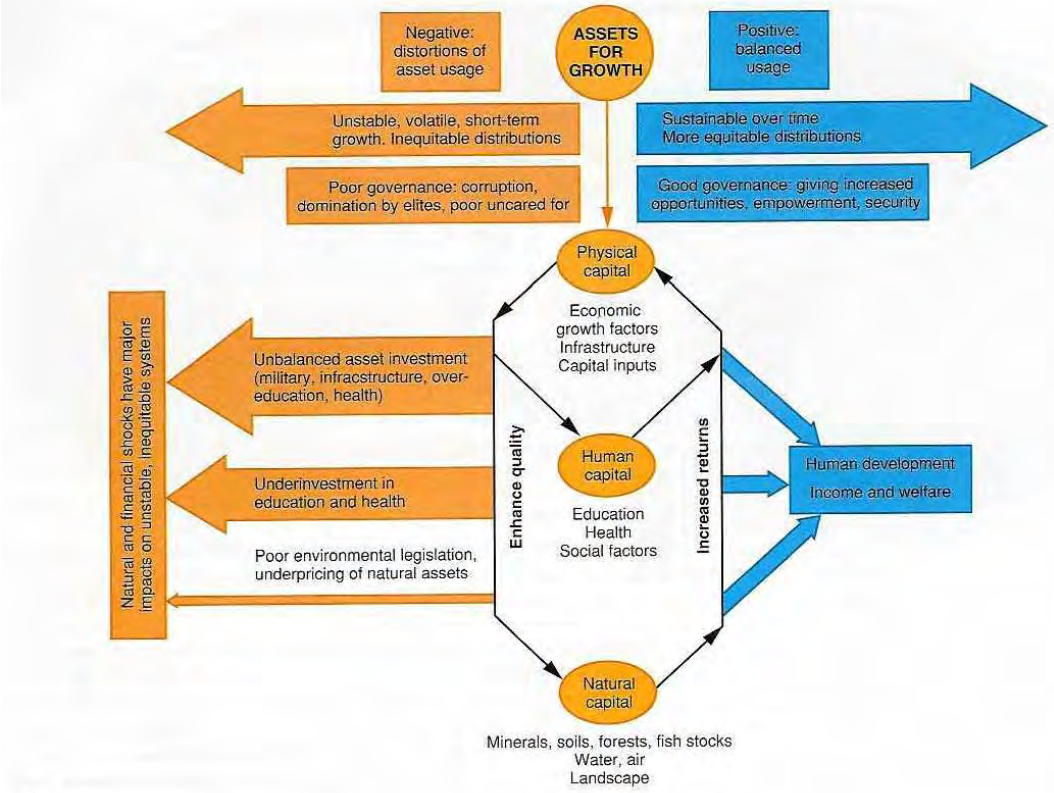

Figure 2.13 **Aspects of human development.** (a) The importance of government in the wise or wasteful use of assets. (b) The importance of internal and external country influences in the development of regions.

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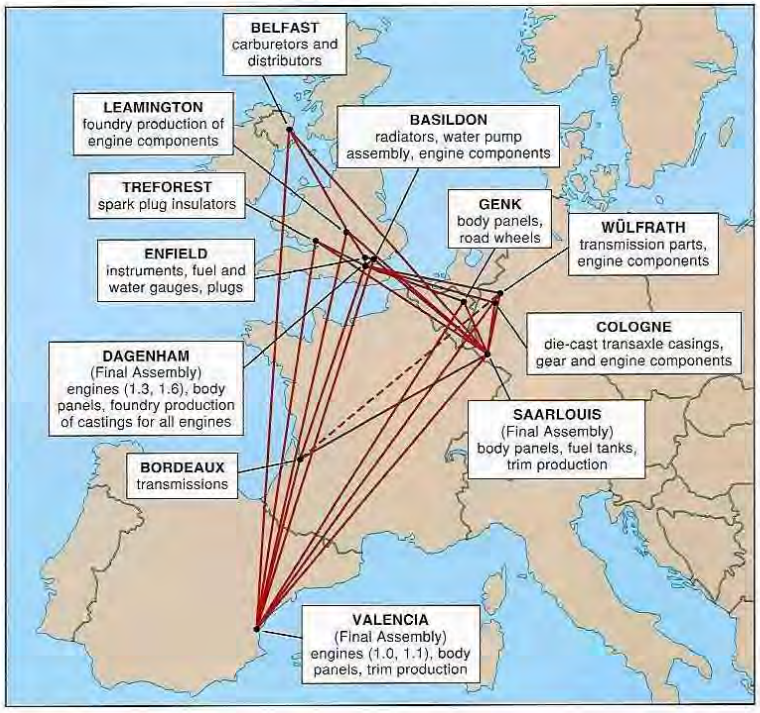

Figure 2.14 Multinational corporation's international linkages. The European spread of factories include makers of parts and final assembly locations for the Ford Fiesta in the late 1980s. Source: Peter Dicken, *Global Shift*. Copyright © 1992 Guilford Press, New York, NY.

those of European, Japanese, and South Korean origin are increasingly significant. Of the top 100 MNCs with the highest level of assets outside their home country, 50 are from Europe, 27 from the United States, and 17 from Japan. They produce a huge range of brands sold worldwide, including Coca-Cola, PepsiCo, Ford, General Motors, Volkswagen, Mercedes, Exxon, Shell, Toyota, Sharp, Samsung, Kellogg, Nestlé, Hyundai, and IBM. By the 1990s, multinational corporations accounted for 40 percent of all goods movements among countries. The 600 largest multinational corporations make up a quarter of the total world value added by manufacturing.

Multinational corporations are not only manufacturers. MNCs in service (tertiary sector) industries spread from the 1970s, and by the late 1990s, over 40 percent of foreign direct investments to countries were directed at them. These services include tourism and travel, data processing, advertising, market research, banking, and insurance. Some manufacturing corporations, such as the Ford Motor Company and General Motors, diversified into financial loans and credit cards. Others, such as banking, accountancy, and advertising companies, moved from national to international prominence.

With branch operations in any one country often representing a significant proportion of its labor force, MNCs wield considerable power. In the countries where they operate, some MNCs may strongly influence the local government and act as uncaring monolithic institutions without concern for the best interests of the people they employ in both home and adopted countries. And yet, not all MNCs adopt that approach, and many transfer wealth and technology to poorer countries, provide jobs where none existed in rural areas, and pay better wages and provide better employee benefits and prospects than local companies.

The clashes between indigenous groups and multinational mining interests in Brazil and Papua New Guinea are examples of the local voices facing up to the globally connected companies. The local people tired of leaving resource development on their lands to outsiders, who may enslave them to work in dangerous conditions and may destroy their environment. Their armed rebellions aimed at making their point by closing mines.

Nongovernmental Organizations

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that are not MNCs include any group of people engaging in collective action of a noncommercial, nonviolent manner and not on behalf of a government. Many have local or country bases, but the largest NGOs engage in international activities. International NGOs generally focus on delivering aid: they are often contracted to do this by governments and international agencies irrespective of country borders. Well-known NGOs, such as the International Red Cross, Oxfam, Save the Children, Greenpeace, and *Médécins Sans Frontières* (Doctors Without Borders) are better known than many smaller countries.

The United Nations gives a consultative status to NGOs at three spatial levels: "general status" is held by the largest NGOs

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Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.42-43

with global influence and extensive memberships; "special status" is given to NGOs with regional or specialist functions; "roster status" is for NGOs with small memberships but highly specialist roles. NGOs working or consulting with the United Nations rose from under 500 in 1970 to over 2,000 today.

Global Financial Services

The expansion of financial services to the global scale in the later 1900s both resulted from global economic activity and acted as an enabler of it. Cross-border movements of funds increased immensely in the late 1900s. A sequence of events contributed to this expansion.

- After 1970, the breakdown of the fixed exchange rates system resulted in more frequent flows among currencies. The opening of borders to foreign investments increased the amounts of capital involved.
- The oil crises of the mid- and late 1970s, caused by the producers raising prices, led to the rapid accumulation of U.S. dollars in foreign banks. Banks holding these dollars created new financial markets, lending some to poorer countries such as Brazil, which used the loans to develop infrastructure such as roads and power dams.
- The hoards of U.S. dollars increased again in the early 1980s, when the United States ran a huge budget deficit financed by borrowing in dollars.
- While money flows in the 1970s and early 1980s were mainly from wealthier to poorer countries, the huge debts incurred by poorer countries and the rising interest rates that resulted from heavy U.S. borrowing prevented the poorer countries from repaying the debts. The late 1980s and early 1990s formed a period in which foreign investment was nearly all supplied by and used in the wealthier countries such as the United States, Japan, and the countries of western Europe (Figure 2.15). Japan, for example, invested heavily in both the United States and Europe.
- Countries such as Taiwan and South Korea avoided the debt problem of many poorer countries by forcing their own peoples to save and invest at home through a form of taxation. By the early 1990s, growing trade surpluses in Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and Hong Kong added to the funds available for global investments.
- Banks and other financial houses expanded to service this international money explosion, beginning with American banks but followed by others in Europe, Japan, and the Arab countries. Those in New York, Tokyo, and London traded around the clock.
- Danger signs, however, became apparent. Financial markets dealt increasingly in equities (stock and shares) and risky forward contracts based on expectations of commodity production in relation to world prices. Many Asian funds based largely on loans were invested in major building projects around the world and led to overinvestment. A further negative aspect of the global scope of the economic system for many people occurred as corporate mergers increased through buyouts of firms followed by the closure of subsidiaries, work forces being paid off, and assets sold.
- In the late 1990s, the momentum set off by increased financial flows slowed for a while when the loans, particularly from Japanese and South Korean banks for construction projects, could not be repaid. In 1997 and 1998, several Asian countries faced economic, political, and social crises as a result; funds used to shore up their economies were not available for other investments, causing countries such as Brazil and Russia to suffer economic slowdowns. Although the Asian country economies soon returned to growth, the social and political impacts remained. Once again, problems raised by the global connections caused local voices to cry out in pain, with the prospects of the poorest being most affected.

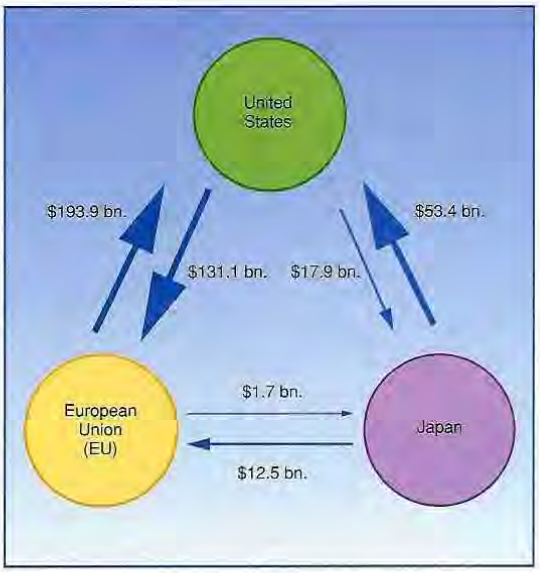

Figure 2.15 **Global investment.** The three-cornered pattern of financial flows in the late 1980s, concentrated on the world's wealthiest areas. Previously, much investment went to materially poor countries, and that began to increase again in the 1990s. Source: Adapted from P. Knox and J. Agnew, *Geography of the World Economy*, 1994. Copyright © 1994 Edward Arnold Publishers, Ltd., London.

Global Information Services

In the 1990s, the rapid expansion of Internet telephone-computer-linked services fueled the growth of the quaternary sector of information services. E-commerce (electronic commerce) is the trade-based sector of such services. Business-to-consumer ("B2C") facilities include retail sales, bidding (e.g., for airline tickets), and auctioning. Success in the initial stages of this area was varied, few companies made rapid trading profits, and many went out of business after initial high share valuations. Although some new car sales, for example, took place over the

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Internet, most people with access to the Internet in the United States used it as a source of information before going to their local auto outlet to buy. The largest volumes of e-commerce transactions are business-to-business ("B2B"). Large corporations, such as General Motors, work with their suppliers over the World Wide Web.

Just as some multinational corporations moved manufacturing production facilities to places with lower labor costs, so others moved information handling to such places. In 1983, for example, American Airlines established Caribbean Data Services in Bridgetown, Barbados, to process the paperwork related to its tickets and boarding passes. It became the largest single employer in Barbados. In Montego Bay, Jamaica, the Jamaica Digiport Interstate Communications System links clients in Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom. U.S. insurance companies process claims in Ireland. India, with its large population of English speakers, grows as one of the world's major call centers for multinational corporations. Some Indian companies even train their staff to respond in American accents.

The global availability of information services also gives people access to data and personal links that are used in local and regional conflicts, including labor disputes and political demonstrations. Offshore banking and organized crime syndicates involved in drugs, armaments, and slave trafficking—and in terrorist attacks to disrupt the world economy—exchange information and make bringing criminals to justice more difficult.

Global City-Regions

The growth of multinational corporations, international financial institutions, dense networks of telecommunications, information processing facilities, and international airline routes, together with the rising significance of quality business services, placed a new focus on some of the world's largest cities. Those cities with an increasing involvement in the global economy often have as much or more contact with foreign centers as with those in their own country. New York, for example, is the center of a region with 18 million people and an economic product greater than countries such as Canada, Brazil, or China; its businesses receive 40 percent of their revenues from foreign sources. Foreign banks with New York offices rose from 47 in 1970 to over 200 in the 1990s; over half of the U.S. law firms with overseas business are based in New York.

Such cities have major impacts on the places immediately surrounding them as well as on cross-border links to other countries. Their geographic scale of size and influence merits the term **global city-regions.** They have concentrations of high-salaried people, high-end technological and business services, specialized workplaces, hotels, homes, major sports stadia, and concert halls. They have high-rise office and apartment blocks and a wide range of arts and sporting facilities. At the same time, their corporations employ increasing numbers of foreign experts and a growing underclass of poorly paid support workers, often migrants from poorer countries.

One approach to identifying and classifying global city-regions focuses on the importance of four categories of global corporate services (accountancy, advertising, banking, and law). Prime centers in all categories are New York, London, Paris, and Tokyo, closely followed by Chicago, Los Angeles, Frankfurt, Milan, Hong Kong, and Singapore. Figures 2.16 and 2.17 demonstrate the uneven distribution of these cities—the "control centers" of the global economy: the "top 10" of global cities occur in the United States, western Europe, and East Asia.

Test Your Understanding 2A

Summary Human development and human rights are linked. Much was achieved in the 1900s, but many needs were left unmet. Issues of people and land focus on population distribution and the processes that cause populations to grow or decline. The number of people Earth can support is subject to complex factors.

Economic systems reduced to the free-market basis in the 1990s. Inequality among peoples focuses on the continuing poverty of so many and the huge material wealth of a few. Questions of how development occurs and how poverty may be reduced are foremost concerns of world organizations such as the United Nations and the World Bank, but no recipe is appropriate to all countries or local areas. The global economy spreads world trade through multinational corporations and involves global movements of capital and information. NGOs have local, countrywide, and global roles. Some are well known for bringing aid to needy places across country boundaries and for pursuing human rights and environmental issues. Global city-regions are hubs of international economic activities.

Questions to Think About

2A.1 Why do some countries not follow the demographic transition pattern?
2A.2 How have the varied elements contributing to development emerged from the experiences of different countries?
2A.3 How important is it that one-third of the world's population is poor? What can be done about it?

Key Terms

human development
development
sustainable human development
human rights
population density
demography
birth rate
total fertility rate
death rate
infant mortality
demographic transition
migration
economic geography
free-market system
gross domestic product
gross national income
purchasing power parity
human development index
human poverty index
modernization
primary sector
secondary sector
tertiary sector
quaternary sector
import substitution
formal sector
informal sector
structural adjustment
multinational corporation (MNC)
nongovernmental organization (NGO)
global city-region

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Fin de la Segunda Parte

RESPUESTA MODELO

UNAM, FFYL **Licenciatura en Geografía**
Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía, 2010-2 **6to semestre**
Profesor: Mtro. Francisco Enríquez Denton **Actividad 2b: Análisis de texto**

Semana V: Miércoles 03 de marzo de 2010
Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)

Nombre de la alumna (o):	X	X	X
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**
	X	X	X
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**

Indicaciones generales: Con base en el análisis del texto "***Chapter 2 Human Development and World Regional Geography (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.33b-43; realiza lo que se te pide:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **dos partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas.

2. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos. Se sugiere que los cuestionamientos consideren los puntos medulares de la lectura y que las respuestas sean lo suficientemente amplias y claras.

3. En la parte final, realiza un **mapa conceptual** en el que articules los términos claves. Si es necesario consulta en Internet cómo elaborar uno.

4. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 03 de marzo de 2010**.

5. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

8 Preguntas fundamentales

¿En qué se diferencia la búsqueda por incrementar el desarrollo humano y la lucha por los derechos humanos?.
Los derechos humanos son primordialmente buscados y defendidos por abogados, filósofos y grupos de presión política, mientras que el desarrollo humano es muchas veces una exclusividad de búsqueda y estudio por los economistas. El término desarrollo está vinculado con los ingresos como nación, aunque también se debe tomar en cuenta, que el desarrollo humano implica necesariamente desarrollo en educación, salud, cultura, política y respeto del entorno. Estos últimos aspectos son posicionados en los derechos humanos, convirtiendo el desarrollo humano y los derechos humanos como dos términos inseparables, que se necesitan el uno del otro para buscar entre sí sus finalidades específicas y comunes. En resumen, la única diferencia entre estos dos son las personas que lo estudian, ya que no puede haber diferencias en términos ligados entre sí. Se puede afirmar que el desarrollo humano es un derecho fundamental del hombre.
Da las características geográficas de las regiones con mayor, mediana y menor densidad de población.
Mayor densidad de población: Suficiente lluvia y suelos fértiles para agricultura de alta intensidad, recursos para industrialización y áreas planeadas para el de crecimiento urbano y desarrollo tecnológico que sustenta una industria eficiente, dirigida a saturar los mercados con sus productos

influenciando a la economía global. Europa, sur de Asia, este de Asia, este de los Estados Unidos y Canadá

Mediana densidad de población: regiones con requerimientos de mayor extensión de terreno para agricultura y ganadería, por la menor fertilidad del suelo y menor rendimiento. Ciudades más dispersas y menos recursos naturales favorables. Mayoría del sur de África, Latinoamérica, oeste de Norteamérica, áreas accidentadas de Europa y China

Baja densidad de población: más complicadas condiciones ambientales, como montañas, desiertos marginados y tierras polares.

¿Qué factor es lo que afecta el caso de Mariam en Bangladesh, una falta de desarrollo humano o la falta de derechos humanos en su país?

Los dos, factores inciden en la falta de desarrollo humano, en primer término, se puede observar que existen pocas escuelas en la región en que se encuentran, la población desplazada de sus hogares y fuentes de trabajo.

La gran densidad de población también origina una gran demanda de alimento que no puede ser producida en los suelos erosionados y agotados, situación que tiene un doble efecto no proporciona ni el alimento ni las fuentes de trabajo suficientes. En el caso de Mariam la pesca que era la actividad económica principal también es insuficiente para alimentar y dar ingresos a la población, que carece de los elementos mínimos para su desarrollo.

Aunado a lo anterior, en ambos lugares se carece de una política o un sistema de seguridad social eficiente que proporcione la oportunidad de curarse a la mayor parte de la población, que tiene que perder su patrimonio para obtener salud y poder trabajar.

Otro factor ligado a los valores culturales es el que impide a las mujeres contribuir de manera

significativa al desarrollo económico, pues sólo puede realizar actividades que la sociedad ha definido como propias de su género limitando su potencial individual y como fuerza laboral, lo que además es una violación a los derechos humanos en el concepto occidental.

¿Cuáles son los 5 escenarios de transición demográfica propuestos por la figura 2.4?

Sociedad preindustrial, en el escenario uno con altas tasas de mortalidad y de nacimientos. El escenario dos, sucede en una etapa industrial temprana, con menos tasa de mortandad e incremento de la tasa de nacimientos, debido a las mejoras tecnológicas y al avance científico en materia de salud. En la sociedad industrial, el escenario tres, un rápido crecimiento de la población da origen a una disminución paulatina de la taza de nacimiento. El escenario cuatro, que se está dando en algunos países europeos, tiene como característica una baja tasa de nacimientos, así como de muertes, dando un lento crecimiento de la población. Y el quinto escenario, que se ubica en el futuro, la taza de mortalidad y nacimiento, son bajas, con una mayor tasa de mortandad que la de nacimientos, creando una disminución de la población.

¿Qué tipos de pregunta se deben contestar para saber cuánta gente puede soportar la Tierra?

Preguntas económicas: ¿Qué niveles de tecnología serán usados para alimentos, manufacturaciones, y ofrecimiento de servicios?

Preguntas culturales: ¿Cuanto cambiarán el tamaño de las familias? ¿La gente será capaz de adoptar nuevos estilos de vida que incluyan dietas vegetarianas, transportación en bicicleta al trabajo, y gasta más impuestos en escuelas y cuidados médicos?

Preguntas políticas: ¿Qué sistema política será capaz de solucionar los conflictos entre las naciones? ¿La violencia organizada continuará hasta acabar con la vida humana y sus recursos?

Preguntas de desarrollo natural: ¿Cuánto riesgo de peligros naturales podrá soportar la gente? ¿Qué cambios provocará el calentamiento global?

¿Qué porcentaje de población mundial es la que controla las riquezas en el mundo? Explica su evolución en los últimos años.

Datos reportados en diversos medios desde 1997, coinciden en que la mayor parte de la riqueza individual y corporativa se encuentra en los Estados Unidos, en esa fecha contaba con 274 billonarios, cifra que se ha incrementado desde entonces, y es indicativa de su predominio económico. En Europa, principalmente en Alemania, Francia y los países nórdicos, también se concentra la riqueza, recientemente los países del sudeste asiático han incrementado el valor de sus economías a través del avance tecnológico y una gran inversión en la formación de cuadros competitivos.

Otra fuente que sirve para conocer la distribución de la riqueza en el mundo es el coeficiente Gini que mide la desigualdad de una distribución estadística. Se usa normalmente para medir la desigualdad de ingresos en un país**.** El coeficiente de Gini es un número entre 0 y 1. Si es 0 quiere decir que todos los habitantes del país tienen los mismos ingresos, y 1 quiere decir que una persona tiene todos los ingresos y el resto no tienen ingresos.

En Europa, en promedio de los países tienen un índice Gini entre 0,30 y 0,34, aunque hay países como Italia y Portugal que están entre 0,35 y 0,39 y los países nórdicos) llegan a tener un índice entre 0,25 y 0,29, lo que las coloca como la región más equitativa.

Este índice es menor en Sudamérica y África (continente del que apenas hay datos), en los que no es raro ver muchos países entorno a 0,50. Además hay que considerar que son economías pobres, ya que no sólo es importante cómo estén distribuidos los ingresos, sino la riqueza del país (por ejemplo, India tiene un índice Gini parecido al de España, pero su **PIB** per cápita es más bajo, y en consecuencia se vive mejor en España**.**

En 2001 se informó que el 0,0012 % de total mundial de la población, 7.2 millones de personas, controlan un tercio de los bienes capitales del mundo. Dato que hace evidente la enorme inequidad económica que existe, sin embargo la concentración y la desmedida especulación han suscitado crisis económicas en importantes sectores como el hipotecario que repercuten a nivel mundial. Dejando ver que este sistema económico actual es frágil y muy volátil, lo que pone en riesgo el bienestar de toda

la humanidad

¿Qué porcentaje de la población en África tiene sida y cuáles son las tendencias a futuro de esta en enfermedad en ese continente?

El sida o VIH es uno de los principales problemas de salud pública y causa de muerte en África. Aunque el África subsahariana está habitada alrededor del 12% de la población mundial, se estima que más del 67% de las personas que vivían con HIV en el mundo en 2007 vivían en África subsahariana y que el 72% de las muertes relacionadas con el sida en el mundo en 2007 ocurrieron en África subsahariana.

¿Cuáles con las problemáticas de desarrollo humano y de derechos humanos que trae consigo el sida?

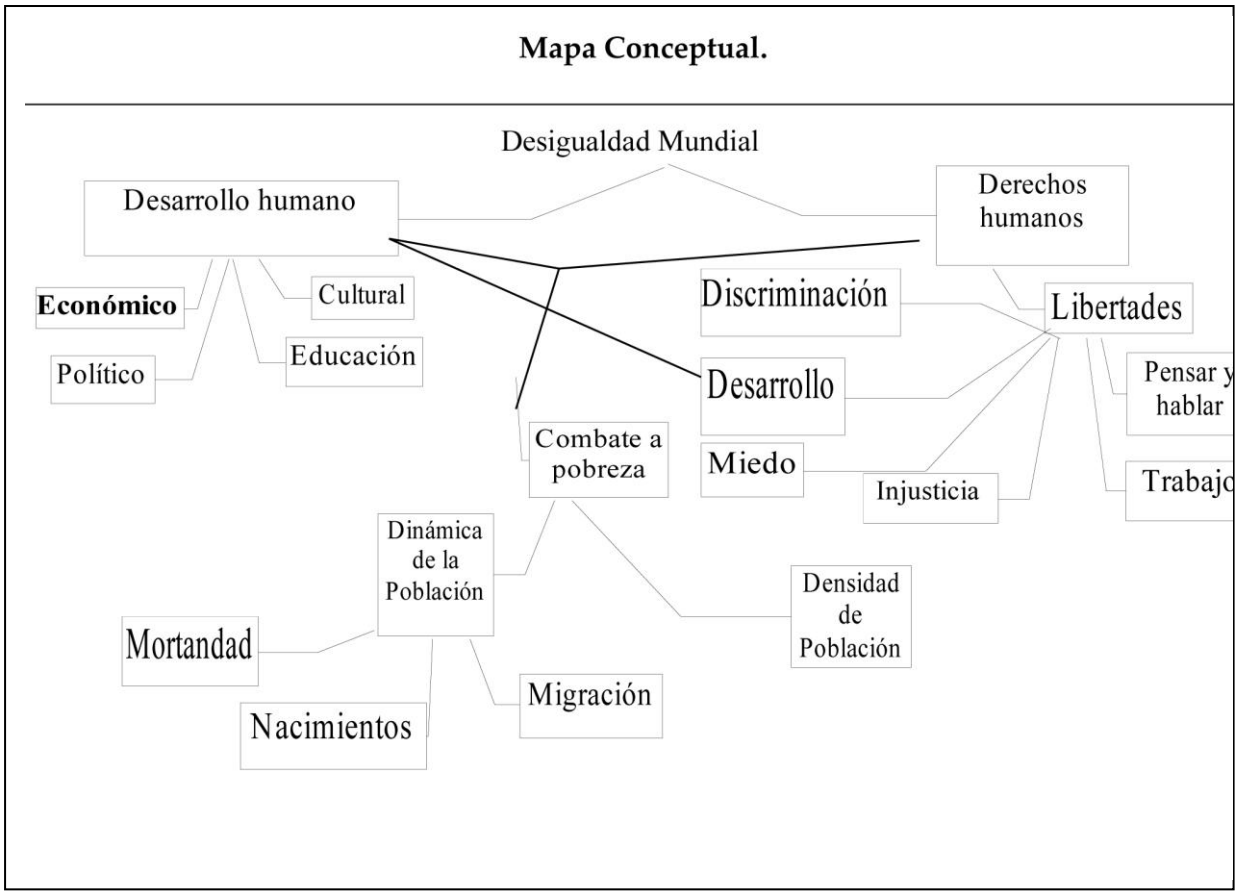
El sida es una enfermedad que tiene fuertes connotaciones sociales, pues su medio de trasmisión, crea una serie de prejuicios que se traducen en discriminación, aún en los países supuestamente más liberales, desde los años setentas las personas con SIDA han luchado por mantener su sitio en la sociedad y sus trabajos, en las etapas en las que son productivas. El algunos países, incluido México, existen ya legislaciones que prohíben la discriminación social y laboral, sin embargo sigue existiendo la violación a sus derechos humanos.

El alto costo de los tratamientos hace que sólo una pequeña cantidad de los enfermos pueda acceder a ellos, hecho que se convierte en otro tipo de discriminación, tanto en los países ricos donde las políticas públicas de salud se ven superadas por la magnitud del problema, como en los pobres que no cuentan con los recursos para atender a sus enfermos.

La cantidad de enfermos influye directamente en el desarrollo económico de los países por dos vía : la necesidad de gastar recursos en los tratamientos y porque los enfermos no producen. Los recursos que pudieran ser canalizados a la educación o a la creación de fuentes de trabajo, que mejorarían la situación individual y colectiva de un país, a veces son destinados a atenuar las precarias condiciones

de los enfermos.

Mapa Conceptual.



COMENTARIOS DEL CAPÍTULO

Dada la extensión de este capítulo, se dividió en dos partes con la finalidad de hacer ocho preguntas para cada sección, a fin de que la reflexión abarcara todos los puntos que en él se desarrollan.

Este capítulo complementa los temas abordados en la primera unidad, enfatizando la identificación de la relación entre el desarrollo humano y los derechos humanos con las características regionales y el grado de desarrollo económico logrado por los distintos países, así como la creación de regiones económicas con base al sistema económico mundial que actualmente prevalece y sus efectos en los recursos naturales.

El primer tema se refiere a la distribución mundial de la población, la cual se expresa y explica de manera clara y precisa en la fig. 2.3 denominada *World population distribution,* a través del mapa que representa con distintas intensidades de color las densidades en determinados lugares el alumno puede visualizar la relación entre las características físicas de los lugares, incluyendo su clima, y la tendencia a establecer asentamientos humanos, haciendo posible establecer que a mayores y mejores recursos corresponde una mayor densidad de población.

Las imágenes de las pirámides de población son también muy adecuadas para establecer relaciones entre los eventos económicos, sociales y políticos con el comportamiento en el crecimiento, decrecimiento o distribución de la población.

Lo anteriormente expresado denota que el uso de ilustraciones en el texto, no solo mejora la comprensión de los conceptos mencionados en la lectura, sino que promueven en el alumno, la reflexión y la curiosidad por conocer más al respecto.

En la segunda parte de la lectura se describe y analiza el orden mundial que a raíz de la implantación del capitalismo en todo el mundo, después de la desintegración del paradigma socialista, se describe cómo las grandes empresas mundiales y los organismos mundiales han subordinado el papel de los gobiernos, con la creación de nuevas regiones de acuerdo a su potencial económico, en las que se puede distinguir a tres tipos:

i) Las más ricas conformadas por Estados Unidos y las economía más fuertes de Europa
ii) Las conformadas por los llamados países emergentes en los que se encuentran los del sudeste asiático, Brasil, China, India, México y algunos del Europa oriental
iii) Los restantes.

Se hace énfasis en los efectos que esta regionalización altamente inequitativa afecta a la mayor parte del mundo, limitando el desarrollo de sus economías y el desarrollo humano de sus habitantes que no tienen posibilidad de acceso a la educación, la salud y el trabajo justamente remunerado.

La lectura permite conocer la injusta realidad vive actualmente el mundo donde muy pocos, países e individuos, tienen mucho más de lo que necesitan para tener una vida plena y la inmensa mayoría carece de lo más elemental, siendo África, el ejemplo más doloroso donde además de la indiferencia internacional se encuentra en expresión extrema la enfermedad, la pobreza, la ignorancia, fomentadas por la corrupción y avaricia de sus gobernantes.

3

"Chapter 9 Africa, South of the Sahara (First Part)". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). Pp.363-380a

Marzo, 2010

ACTIVIDADES DE APRENDIZAJE, FUENTES DE CONSULTA Y ORIENTACIONES PARA EL ESTUDIO	
Obligatorias por unidad	**Orientaciones para el estudio**
UNIDAD 2. África Subsahariana: Balance y resultados de una descolonización inacabada. **Objetivo:** Analizar la problemática económica, política, social y ambiental más relevante del África Subsahariana.	
3. "**Chapter 9 Africa South of the Sahara (*First Part*)**". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.363-391a	**Actividad 3:** Leer el texto y realizar las actividades que se establezcan (**<u>Semana</u> <u>V</u>: Fecha de entrega de control de lectura y discusión en clase, Miércoles 03 de marzo de 2010**).
4. "**Chapter 9 Africa South of the Sahara (*Second Part*)**". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.391b-417	**Actividad 4:** Leer el texto y realizar las actividades que se establezcan (**<u>Semana</u> <u>VII</u>: Fecha de entrega de control de lectura y discusión en clase, Miércoles 17 de marzo de 2010**).
<u>Semana</u> <u>VII</u>: Fecha de 2do Examen Parcial, Jueves 18 de marzo de 2010 (**Unidad 2**).	

GEOGRAFÍA DE ASIA, ÁFRICA Y OCEANÍA **PLAN DE TRABAJO**

I. Temas.

- **The Geography of Africa: South of the Sahara (*First Part*).**

II. Objetivos informativos.

- **Reconocerá desde una perspectiva geográfica los principales rasgos territoriales de lo países Africanos.**

III. Objetivos formativos.

- **Valorará la importancia de la historia como un factor fundamental en el proceso de construcción de los países del continente africano.**

IV. Motivación

➔ **Pregunta motora**: (reflexión personal)

¿Por qué África es el continente menos desarrollado en el mundo?

V. Actividad de crítica y reflexión.

- Con base en el análisis del "***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections,*

Local Voices. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.363-380a; los alumnos comprenderán el peso que tiene la historia en el desarrollo de los pueblos africanos.

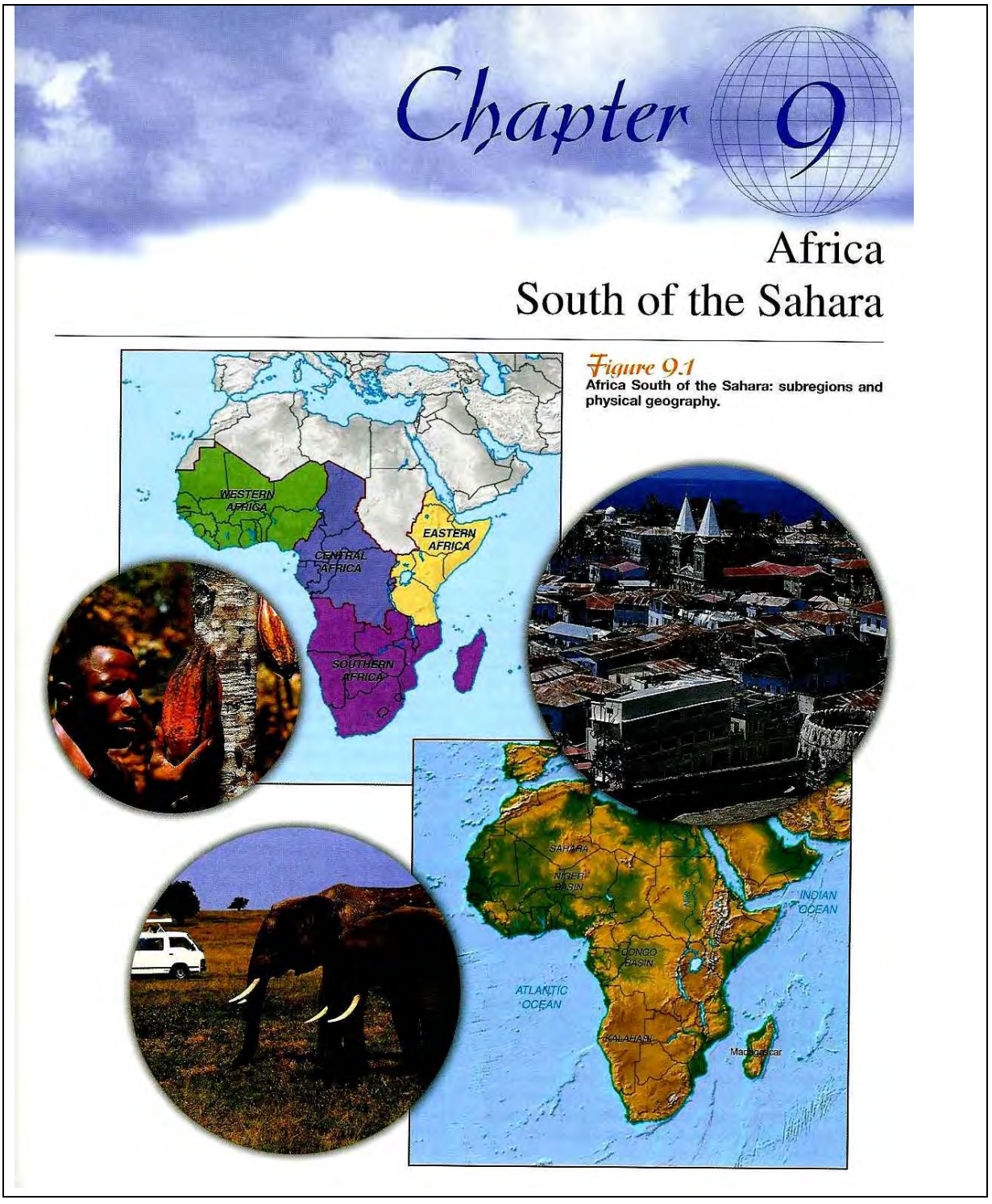
El desarrollo de la actividad consiste en:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de esta **primera parte** en las que se dividió el capítulo y contéstenlas. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos.

2. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 17 de marzo de 2010**.

3. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

VI. Contenido y Desarrollo.



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This Chapter Is About . . .

The region's past and present achievements, resources, and challenges

Ethnic diversity, colonial regimes, and prospects at independence

The natural environments of tropical climates, changing climates, ancient rocks, plateaus and rifts, tropical forests, grasslands, and deserts

Human interactions with the natural environment and the HIV/AIDS pandemic

Africa South of the Sahara and globalization

Four subregions:

- Central Africa: challenges at the heart of the continent
- Western Africa: distinctive natural environments, history of empires, and dependence on crop and mineral exports
- Eastern Africa: Indian Ocean and Arab historic orientations, and modern conflicts
- Southern Africa: most potential but feeling the worst effects of HIV/AIDS

Personal Views: Ghana; Rwanda

Point-Counterpoint: Famine in Africa

A New Dawn?

A Heritage of Resources and History

Africa South of the Sahara covers most of the world's second-largest continent (Figure 9.1). It has a great diversity and beauty of natural landscapes from plateaus to rift valleys and mountains; its climates range from tropical arid to equatorial rainy; its ecosystems include tropical rain forest, savanna grasslands, and desert—a stock of biodiversity. The rocks underlying these landscapes are mostly ancient and contain mineral resources including the world's largest deposits of bauxite (for aluminum), cobalt, copper, gold, and diamonds as well as newly valuable minerals such as platinum and coltan (tantalum, used in mobile phones). Increasing amounts of oil are being found around the coasts.

Africa was the cradle of the human species. Skeletons of the oldest known *Homo sapiens* are found only in Africa. People in other continents are probably all descended from one group that moved out of Africa after the initial phase of human genetic diversification. Modern Africans number over 600 million people.

The history of African peoples before the coming of Arabs and Europeans was rich and sophisticated. It included organized kingdoms and empires with trading connections across the continent (Figure 9.2). However, the extension of global links with Arab, Asian, and European people in the last 1,500 years was often to the disadvantage of Africans. The slave trade and the arrogance of the external powers brought undeserved low expectations of African abilities. African people, whose ancestors were forcibly moved as slaves, now form significant populations in other parts of the world. In the Americas, particularly Brazil and the Caribbean but also the United States, they contributed lasting cultural features despite local discrimination. Folklore and folk tales persisted from the rich African storytelling traditions. Musical influences from spirituals and blues to reggae affected modern Western music, while African art underlies many modern abstract paintings and sculptures.

The region itself has clear boundaries consisting mostly of coasts. The northern boundary through the Sahara reflects the impacts of the later 1800s and early 1900s colonial period. Trade routes and connections moved away from the land crossing of the Sahara that connected northernmost Africa with the rest of the continent and toward the ocean routes linked to the expanding European global economy. The Mediterranean countries became increasingly linked to the Arab world, while Africa South of the Sahara experienced selective exploitation by European colonial powers. The Sahara remains a significant boundary and transition zone, although some countries could be placed in different regions. Thus, Mauritania is included in Africa South of the Sahara, but not Sudan. The former has long links with Western Africa, while the latter is part of the lower Nile River valley and linked closely to Egypt.

The Challenges of the Present

Today, Africa South of the Sahara faces many problems. Materially it is the world's poorest region, where half the population lives on 65 cents (U.S.) a day or less. Most of its countries are not gaining in wealth as many are in the rest of the poorer world. Some African countries lost ground in the later 1900s. In 1955, Africa South of the Sahara accounted for 3.1 percent of world trade; by 2000, its proportion had fallen to 1.2 percent. In general, despite continuing support by former colonial countries such as France and the United Kingdom, this region's increasing problems were mostly ignored by the West. In 2000, the U.S. Congress passed the Africa Growth and Opportunity Act, which reduced import duties on African imports, especially in textiles and clothing, but this was a small step toward more open economic relations.

Major internal problems include the civil strife that holds back many countries politically, economically, and socially. There were reports in 2001 of a slave trade operating to force children to work on cocoa plantations in West Africa and to export them to Europe and the Arab countries. Always a problem, tropical diseases, such as malaria and river blindness, together with the new scourge of HIV/AIDS, infect many people across the continent. Environmental problems include the expansion of the Sahara as the climate becomes more arid.

African Cultures

Africa was the original stage for the generation and interaction of human cultures and has since mixed Africans, Arabs, Asians, and Europeans, all of whom call Africa South of the Sahara home. The great variety of traditional indigenous cultures, the Arab Muslim cultures entering from medieval times, the European colonial cultures, and the Westernizing cultures of the late 1900s all left their marks on the region's geography.

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(a)

(b)

Figure 9.2 Ancient African achievements. (a) The ruins of Great Zimbabwe record the existence of a major trading center from around A.D. 1100. It was based on a sophisticated political organization and economy before European exploration and colonization. Each layer of rocks in the walls is approximately 7 to 10 cm (3–4 in.) high. Great Zimbabwe became a symbol to both sides in the 1960s struggle for majority rule in Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe). For Africans, it was a symbol of African historic achievement; for white Rhodesians, it symbolized the unthinkable triumph of black Africans. (b) San (Bushmen) rock paintings that are found in caves in Southern Africa and are up to 6,000 years old. Photo: (a) © Michael Bradshaw.

Ethnic Diversity and Shared Cultures

The members of ethnic groups that form the basic social and political units of the indigenous people share kinship and territorial links (Figure 9.3a) and frequently a language, a culture, and political and economic institutions. European colonists called these groups "tribes," but it is difficult to define *tribe* with precision. Sometimes distinctive appearance marks out a tribe, such as the tall Masai herders of the grassy plains or the small pygmy groups of the forest. However, tribal identities often override physical and cultural differences; separate identities may occur within groups having similar physical characteristics; and in some places, individuals may move from one group to another.

The diversity of groups is reflected in language. More than 1,000 languages are spoken in Africa South of the Sahara (Figure 9.3b). The largest group of closely related languages is the Niger-Congo group that includes the languages of Western Africa and those of the Bantu groups in the south. The Afro-Asiatic group is important along the Saharan margins across the continent. Smaller groupings include the Nilo-Saharan languages in the north and the Khoisan languages in the far south.

Many shared features of indigenous African groups extend more widely than tribal loyalties.

- In traditional African beliefs, there is a close relationship between humans, nature, and spiritual forces. Gods and spirits influencing human success or failure inhabit rivers, rock outcrops, and tree groves. Such beliefs are collectively known as animism.
- All humans are seen as part of a continuing chain of life, with reverence for ancestral spirits and large families. The elderly are highly respected. Childlessness is a tragedy and large families a blessing. The wider family supports each member through difficult times.
- Artistic expressions in sculpture, music, dance, and storytelling are central to African cultures, linked to reverence for elders and educating the young in traditions.
- Wisdom and strong leadership are respected. Traditionally, the chief is often a feared, trusted, and spiritual leader, acting for the common welfare.
- Most Africans still get their living from the land, through cultivating, herding, or hunting (Figure 9.4), although urban populations are expanding rapidly. Land is traditionally in communal, not individual, ownership—an inheritance from the past and responsibility to the future.

External influences added to many of the indigenous cultures, especially in language and religion. With so many indigenous languages, trading languages became significant. Older creole languages, which combine several languages, often beginning with people of mixed descent or through trade,

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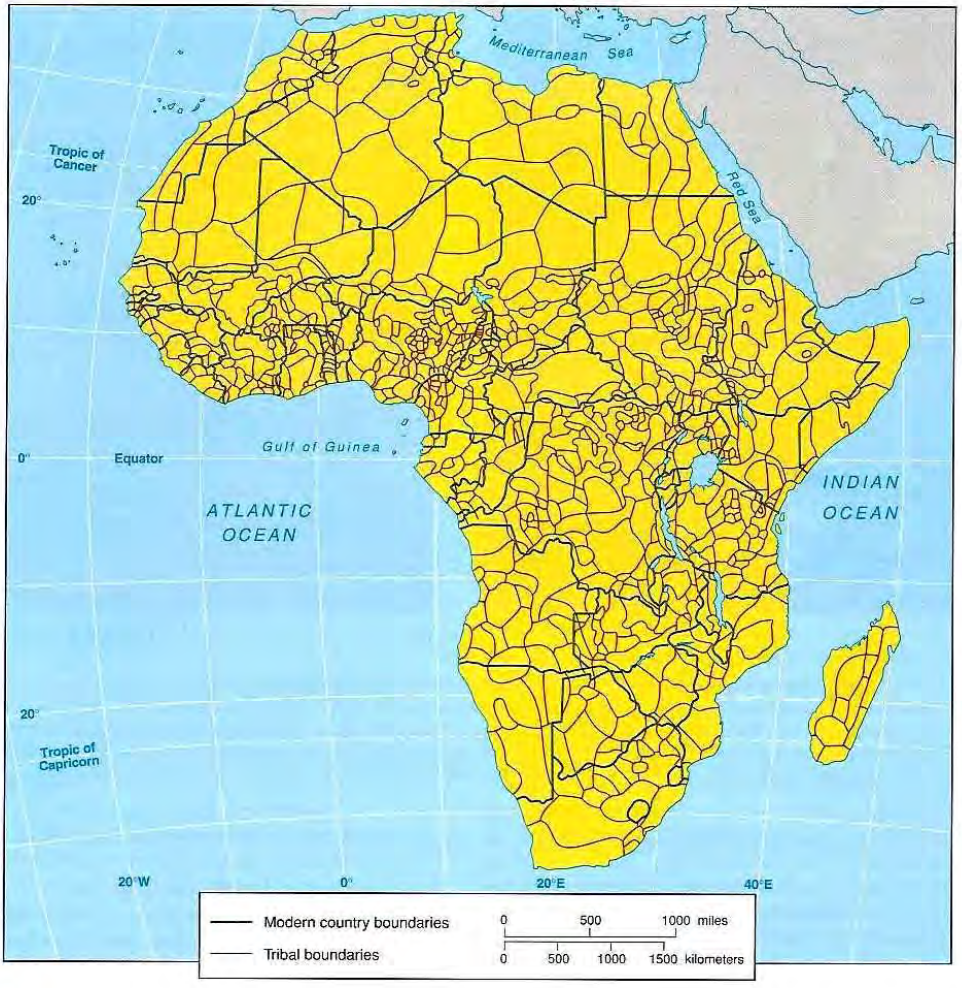

(a)

Figure 9.3 Africa South of the Sahara: cultural features. (a) The relationship of colonial-imposed boundaries of the modern countries to ethnic group areas. (b, page 367, top) Ethnic groups, languages, and precolonial kingdoms. In the zone between the area dominated by the Afro-Asiatic groups of northern Africa and the area dominated by the Niger-Congo peoples to the south, a diversity of languages exists. The advance of the Afro-Asiatic groups into regions south of the Sahara in medieval times helped to encourage southward movements of Bantu groups. By the late 1800s, they were replacing longer-established groups in the far south. Source: (a) From *World Regional Geography: A Question of Place*, by Paul W. English and James A. Miller, 3d ed., 1989, © Paul W. English and James A. Miller. (b) From *The Changing Geography of Africa*, by A. T. Grove, 2d ed. Oxford University Press, 1993.

include Swahili (combining African, Indian, and Arabic elements) in Eastern Africa, while English, French, and Portuguese are still used in former colonies. English, French, and Swahili became common in the TV and newspaper media.

The great diversity of religious allegiance is a further characteristic of this region. There are many versions of traditional animistic religions, together with strong influences from Islam, especially in the north and east of Africa South of the Sahara, and Christianity—Catholic and Protestant—elsewhere. In fact, many faiths coexist without strife between their members. Some syncretism (mixing of religious forms) occurs among Muslim, Catholic, and traditional expressions of faith. Conflicts often result where political interests take up religious differences.

African Empires

Indigenous African groups, particularly in Western Africa (Figure 9.3b), established empires based on the wealth created by trade in salt, gold, and slaves. The Western African empires of Ghana (A.D. 700–1240), Mali (1050–1500), and Songhai (1350–1600) had widespread influence. When the Malian Muslim emperor, Mansa Musa, visited Cairo, Egypt, in 1324,

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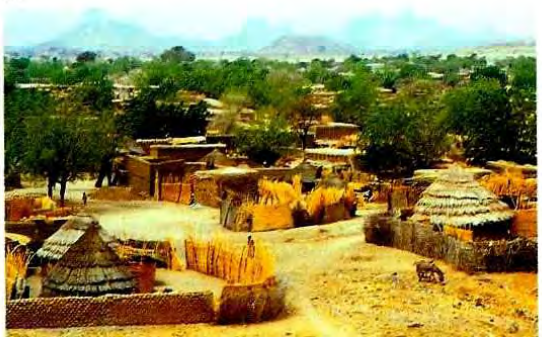
(b)

Figure 9.4 **African villages.** (a) A village in Chad with the Guera Mountains behind. (b) A feeding station at a time of drought and local famine, Chad. These pictures emphasize the closeness of people to the land, communal facilities, and the local extent of most interactions. Photos: © MAF.

(a)



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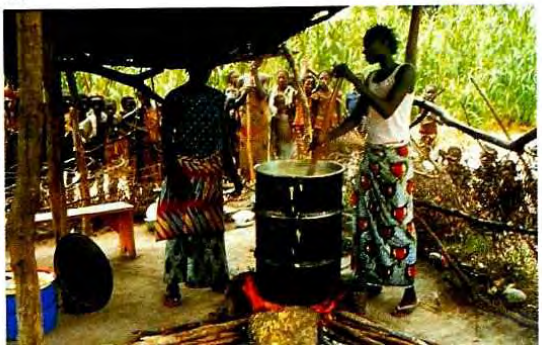

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on his pilgrimage from western Africa to Mecca, he had 500 porters, each bearing a golden staff. In southern Africa, Great Zimbabwe (see Figure 9.2) was the center of a widespread trading empire.

As an example of the influence of these empires, Timbuktu in modern Mali lies near the northernmost bend of the Niger River on the southern margin of the Sahara (Figure 9.5a). It grew as a market for local crops and cattle. By the A.D. 700s, its salt trade linked mines in the Sahara with markets down the Niger River. Local gold fields made its merchants very wealthy. Universities with libraries containing large numbers of imported books were established at Timbuktu and Djenne before any existed in northern Europe. Scholars from Greece, Egypt, and Arabia were employed as teachers.

Muslims in the North and East

The Arab Muslim expansion from the A.D. 600s (see Chapter 8) had wide geographic impacts. Culturally, Muslims brought their Islamic religion but also accommodated local practices, including polygamy and the use of the African drum. The introduction of camels enabled Arab and African traders to exchange goods along a few well-marked routes across the Sahara, reaching a major level of activity from 900 until the 1800s. In the west, the routes went south from Fez and Marrakesh (modern Morocco) to the middle Niger River valley; in the center, routes connected Tripoli (modern Libya) and the Lake Chad area; in the east, the Nile River routeway connected Egypt, Sudan, and Ethiopia. Later, Islam diffused along the same routes, setting off holy wars as Fulani warriors and zealots searched for grazing lands.

Trade across the Red Sea from Arabia to the Horn of Africa entrenched Islam and Arab culture in eastern Africa by the 1300s. Arab traders with connections to India and farther east spread from the Red Sea down the east African coast and its islands, establishing trading ports such as Zanzibar. The Arabic language came to coastal parts and led to Swahili developing as a creole trading language. Overall, Muslims had significant impacts on trade and added their influences to African culture. Arabs developed the slave trade, selling around 10 million Africans through their networks.

Colonial Regimes

European influence in Africa grew from the mid-1400s (Figure 9.5). With improved ship technology, merchants began trading along the African coasts in order to reach India without going through the Muslim countries of Southwest Asia. Coastal trading posts in Western Africa built forts to protect the Europeans. They were points where ships could be loaded with the local gold, ivory, and palm products in exchange for alcohol, guns, and sugar. Sectors of the West African coast were called the Ivory Coast, Gold Coast, and Slave Coast for their chief products. Portuguese ships took gold from eastern Africa to pay for the silks and spices of Asia (see Chapters 5 through 7).

(a)

(b)

Figure 9.5 **Africa South of the Sahara.** (a) A Moroccan sign that tells camel caravans it will take them 52 days to reach Timbuktu across the Sahara. (b) Early European map, c. 1570, showing a good knowledge of the African coast.

Slave Trade

The Portuguese were the first European colonists, reaching northern Angola in 1483 and establishing relations with the local Kongo ruler. They visited the Mozambique coast in 1498 and ousted the Arab traders who had built coastal cities as centers for their Indian Ocean trade. The slave trade devastated both Angola and Mozambique as over 3 million slaves were taken to Brazil from Angola alone.

From the 1600s, the European trading routes included the Americas, where colonies produced sugar and tobacco and later cotton. When these colonies needed labor, European ships transported slaves from Africa to the Americas (Figure 9.6), often using the sources of supply pioneered by African empires and Arab traders. Slaves entering the Atlantic trade came mainly from the coastal areas of Western Africa, Central Africa, and what is now Angola.

Europeans justified enslaving peoples of different skin color and culture through assumptions of racial superiority. Eventually, somewhere between 6 million and 30 million (with 10 million as a widely accepted figure) African slaves were transported across the Atlantic Ocean to the United States, the Caribbean, and Latin

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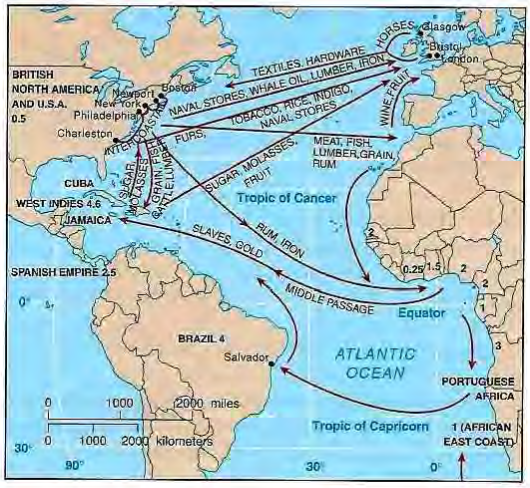

Figure 9.6 Atlantic Ocean: the slave trade. The 1700s Atlantic economy, trading colonial commodities with home countries and bringing slaves from Africa to the Americas. Numbers in millions from Africa are estimates of slave movements to sectors of the Americas. The British ended most of the Atlantic slave trade in the early 1800s. The country boundaries are those of today. Source: Data from Hugh Thomas, *The Slave Trader*, Simon & Schuster, 1997.

America. The slave trade slowed after Britain abolished slave shipments in 1808, but some countries did not abolish slavery until 1880 (and it continues today in parts of Africa and Asia). Humanitarian efforts in Europe and the United States during the 1800s resulted in the return of African families freed from slavery to people the new country of Liberia and the port of Freetown in Western Africa. However, the returnees found it difficult to integrate with the Africans who had not been enslaved.

Explorers and Colonies

From 1884 to the 1960s, a relatively short period, colonial occupation and government took over from traders and explorers, leaving major impacts on the region. European countries professed an intent to "civilize the dark continent" through missionaries and administrators, but they were also motivated by commercial interests and competition for overseas possessions.

As the slave trade declined, all of Africa South of the Sahara, except Ethopia and Liberia, became colonies of European countries. Explorers such as Henry Stanley (United States) and David Livingstone (United Kingdom) penetrated the inland regions along major rivers, meeting many of the African empire rulers and providing knowledge from their travels. While they did so, the Industrial Revolution developed in Western Europe from the early 1800s, resulting in demands for raw materials such as tropical tree crops and minerals. In 1884–1885, European countries competing for world power met in Berlin and divided the continent into French, British, German, Portuguese, Belgian, Italian, and Spanish spheres of influence (see Figure 1.15)—omitting any consultation with Africans.

Colonists Who Settled

In a few places, Europeans stayed for the longer term and made lasting impacts on the local political and economic life. In the far south, the Dutch settled from the mid-1600s around their port of Cape Town to support ships trading to and from the East Indies (now Indonesia). Farmers came to produce crops and meat to supply the port and town. When Britain bought the Cape Colony from the Netherlands in 1814, the Dutch settlers sought interior isolation to preserve their culture and undertook their "Great Trek" to the Orange and Vaal River valleys.

In the late 1800s, the United Kingdom developed the swath of land between Angola and Mozambique. The British colonization primarily aimed to develop mineral wealth, but sometimes it coincided with cries of help from indigenous peoples who perceived the threat of Portuguese colonial repression to be greater than that of British administration and loss of land to farming settlers. For example, tribes in Malawi (1891) and Zambia (1889) requested British protection, while the Ndebele in western Zimbabwe signed contracts with Cecil Rhodes to allow his British mining company to exploit the minerals on their land (1888). Settlers came to take up the good farming land, particularly in what was Southern Rhodesia (modern Zimbabwe).

Portugal discouraged settlement by Europeans in its colonies until the early 1900s, when there was a push toward greater economic exploitation of mineral resources and plantation crops led by Portuguese technology, finances, and administrators. Little attempt was made to provide schooling for the African population, and any dissension was brutally repressed. As European settlement increased, African opposition gained strength, with rival groups fighting each other in both Mozambique and Angola. In 1975, a revolution in Portugal led to the end of a dictatorship that had held onto the colonies and a new government that brought independence to Angola and Mozambique. As most people of Portuguese origin left in the late 1970s, their scorched-earth policy destroyed cropland and machinery, leaving the two countries poorly prepared for independence.

Colonial Government

Some colonial powers, such as France and Britain, provided basic education and health care. They also gave limited experience for Africans in local government, especially where traditional political institutions were in place and the rulers amenable. Elsewhere, military strength imposed control. The new university colleges, hospitals, and other social infrastructure built by the colonizers in the centers they established provided a basis of professionals, educated in European ways, for the new countries after independence and maintained a European presence. The French policy of assimilating Africans into the French way of life linked their colonies more closely to French institutions. However, Portugal, Belgium, and Germany (before 1918) provided little infrastructure outside the mining and plantation areas and limited the extent of education prospects.

Colonial powers legitimized their rule by claiming to bring peace to ethnic rivalries but often took sides that deepened the rivalries. Local ethnic groups were labeled as "dependable" or

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"lazy," encouraging regional differences of investment and forceful recruitment of some groups as laborers. Moreover, all colonial powers frequently generated so much hostility that guerrilla groups led the push toward independence.

Colonial governments built ports to link with the home country. Railroads connected the ports to interior mining and commercial crop regions. Water projects supplied commercial farming areas occupied by European settlers. Most of the wealth derived from the export products supported the growth of major industrial enterprises in the colonizing countries that grew to multinational corporations such as Unilever, Nestlé, Firestone, Dunlop, Michelin, and Hershey.

Overall, African colonies remained marginalized in the world economy by the emphasis on exporting raw materials to manufacturers in colonizing countries. African labor was used on farms and in mines, often in brutal conditions. Where local labor was insufficient, migrants were used—often under force in new forms of semislavery. The emphasis on commercial crops for exports and the attractions of the towns caused a decline in subsistence farming of traditional food crops and increasing food shortages. The mercantile colonial system ruled out manufacturing, apart from local needs, in case it should compete with the products of the colonizing countries. The discouragement of manufacturing enterprises in African colonies made them dependent on European products. Preferences for European products and ways of living brought cultural as well as economic dependency.

Independence and After

Agitation for independence began in the 1920s and was enhanced by the Italian invasion of Ethiopia in 1936, World War II isolation, and the example of independence gained by India and Pakistan in 1947 (see Chapter 7). Nationalist movements, often led by those who had studied in Europe or the United States, achieved independence, beginning with Ghana in 1957 and ending with Namibia in 1990.

On gaining political independence, most countries of Africa South of the Sahara had limited experience of government and a restricted source of income. In many African countries, the methods of the authoritarian colonial governments and bureaucracies were followed, producing sequences of dictatorship, single-party, and military rule. External pressures and internal difficulties further slowed economic, political, and cultural development.

Colonial Country Borders

At independence, the borders of colonies and the colonial administrative districts became the borders of new countries and often of their internal subdivisions. The imposed boundaries paid little attention to ethnic (tribal) territories (see Figure 9.3a). One result was the creation of many tiny countries without the resources or population numbers to become major players in the global economy. Some countries, mostly small (e.g., Somalia, Swaziland, Botswana), are dominated by a single tribal group and have few minorities. But most countries have several different ethnic groups, and some have hundreds. Nigeria has three dominant groups (Hausa with 35 million people in the north, Yoruba with 25 million in the southwest, and Igbo with 20 million in the southeast), but there are also 300 smaller groups—some of which have more members than the entire population of smaller African countries. Such divisions often became the basis of conflict with government and opposition representing two major ethnic groups, as with the Shona and Ndebele in Zimbabwe.

Multinationals and Raw Materials

At the time of independence for most African countries in the 1950s and 1960s, Western economists claimed that countries would grow economically by following the world's wealthier countries in moving from agriculture and mining into manufacturing and services. Few African countries followed this progression.

Multinational mining companies and makers of coffee, tea, and chocolate products continued to buy African raw materials cheaply. For example, multinational aluminum manufacturers helped arrange funding for the Volta River project in Ghana. It generated hydroelectricity to refine bauxite, the ore of aluminum, as cheaply as possible to provide an exportable product that could be finished in the wealthier countries. However, such reliance on producing raw materials keeps local incomes low. In 2002, Nigerian and Ghanaian coffee producers received around 50 U.S. cents per pound. Each cappuccino served in U.S. coffee chains takes about 1 ounce of coffee, bringing 4.5 U.S. cents to producers, but customers pay around $2. Most of the markup goes to the coffee traders, blenders, grinders, and retailers in the United States (and other wealthier countries). Purchasers of African raw materials often maintained low world prices by opening up new areas of production as growing markets absorbed what established areas produced. Soaring raw material prices in the 1970s (minerals) and in the early 1980s (beverages) were short-lived but often enabled the producer countries to take out loans; when the prices fell, such countries faced debts that they could not repay.

Cold War and Subsequent Pressures

During the Cold War (1950–1990), the United States and Soviet Union encouraged conflict by propping up bad governments or supporting rebel groups. They sold weapons to help the groups maintain or achieve power. For example, Ethiopia became a battlefield as Soviet forces supported its Communist government against rebels from Somalia or Eritreans fighting for their independence.

In Southern Africa, the external activities of South Africa destabilized neighboring countries. South Africa gained external support by labeling those antagonistic to its apartheid system as Communists. When Angola drew in Soviet and Cuban forces, South Africa supported the opposition. Although the Cuban forces withdrew from Angola in 1990, the civil war continued until the 2002 death of the opposition leader.

In 1980, the other countries in Southern Africa formed the Southern Africa Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) to oppose South African apartheid. In 1992, the name was changed to **Southern Africa Development Conference** (SADC), and the focus moved toward reducing economic

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dependence on South Africa. After the abandonment of apartheid, SADC in 1994 welcomed the membership of South Africa to strengthen mutual linkages in trade and to help control traffic in illegal drugs and arms.

When the Cold War ceased in the early 1990s, the powers that treated African countries as being for or against them relegated them to having little or no strategic interest. Their heavy debts made it difficult for African countries to attract new investment or aid. By the late 1990s, African countries attracted only 3 percent of the foreign investment flowing to developing countries, while countries in Latin America attracted 20 percent and those in East Asia about 60 percent.

Population and Environmental Pressures

From 1980 to 2001, the total population of Africa South of the Sahara rose from around 380 million to 638 million at rates of increase that equaled or exceeded rates of economic growth. By 2000, the annual rate of population increase in Africa South of the Sahara remained around 3 percent, while that of agricultural production growth was only 2 percent. Death rates in most countries plummeted as modern medicine was applied, but birth rates in many countries fell slowly if at all (Figure 9.7). Per capita food production dropped by 12 percent between 1960 and 2000 in contrast to the Green Revolution increases in Asia.

Population control is one major key to Africa's future. Efforts to encourage smaller families had only moderate success because of cultural, economic, and often political pressures that regard large families as a high priority. Larger families bring more support to older family members and have more children to work on farms. They are seen as a sign of male virility, and women have little say in the numbers of births. Sadly, the most likely curb on population growth is the HIV/AIDS pandemic, which is increasing death rates and reducing life expectancies in many African countries.

As if such economic and political problems were not enough, a majority of scientists now agree that environmental changes are occurring through global warming. The consequences for Africa are likely to be worst in the southern part of the continent, the subregion with greatest prospects of a better future, and along the **Sahel** (the southern margin of the Sahara). Droughts got worse and more frequent after 1980 and affect both farming and water supplies for industry.

Governments and Global Institutions

The combination of low prices in world markets, external interference in their politics and economics, and internal ethnic rivalries resulted in many unstable governments and a trend to oppressive and corrupt dictatorships in many countries. In the 1990s, partly in response to external pressures as well as internal democracy, many countries moved rapidly from single-party to multiparty constitutions and open elections. It is now conceivable that entrenched leaders may be removed by ballots instead

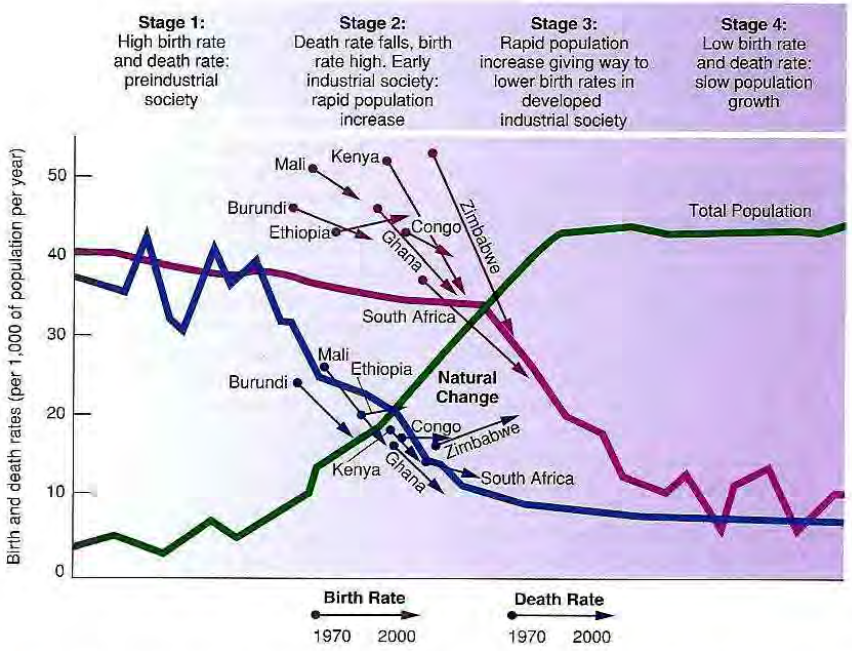

Figure 9.7 **Africa South of the Sahara: population change linked to demographic transition between 1970 and 1992.** Although the death rates fell comparably to the experience of core countries in the 1800s, many birth rates remained very high, despite some dropping sharply. Some death rates increased, especially in countries subject to HIV/AIDS.

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of bullets, but established leaders often found it difficult to hand over power. The full implementation of the new constitutions is often hesitant, people are discouraged if new governments do not produce economic growth, and tribal rivalries surface in open conflict.

In the 1980s, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund—the two major lending institutions for developing countries—established new guidelines for grants and loans. This was a response to the low rates of success achieved by previous loans and the large proportions that were absorbed by high exchange rates and the cost of internal government bureaucracies. To date, these structural adjustment policies have had little success in the countries of Africa South of the Sahara, although Ghana, Tanzania, Burkino Faso, Nigeria, and Zimbabwe came closest to following their precepts. The policies also had negative impacts by bringing about an overreliance on commercial crops for export. The reduction in government employees reduced health care and education provision. For most countries in the region, structural adjustment is not yet appropriate and each country needs specific measures. At present, countries in Africa South of the Sahara seem to lose out whether they decide to follow structural adjustment policies or not. If they do not adopt them, they lose access to funds from the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, and aid agencies. If they do adopt the stringent policies, they often alienate their people.

Can Africa Claim the Twenty-First Century?

Assuming we wish to end poverty around the world, Africa South of the Sahara presents a challenge. Many of the world's biggest development problems (see discussion of development in Chapter 2, especially Figure 2.13) are concentrated there. Lagging primary school enrollments, high child mortality, and endemic diseases—including malaria and HIV/AIDS—impose barriers to growth. Population numbers grow faster than the economic output. Many countries in Africa South of the Sahara are short of the basic human resources and infrastructure needed to achieve slower population growth, faster economic development, and political democracy.

Some external (France and the United Kingdom, the World Trade Organization, and the World Bank) critiques of Africa's problems highlight four areas of action, but external support is insufficient to meet the needs expressed.

1. *Improved governance and conflict resolution* is the most basic need. Civil conflicts, such as those in Sierra Leone, Rwanda, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Angola impose huge costs at home and in neighboring countries through deaths, maimings, destruction, and refugee migrations.
2. *Investment in people.* The vicious circle of high fertility and mortality, low enrollments in education (especially of girls), high numbers of young people who are dependent on the working-age group, little action against HIV/AIDS, and low savings lies behind much of Africa's slow or static development.

After independence, all countries increased educational achievements. By the 1990s, countries such as Botswana, Cameroon, Kenya, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe had virtually total enrollment, male and female, in elementary schools, up from 50 percent in 1965. Burundi, Chad, and Mauritania made major strides by increasing primary education from 10 to 20 percent in 1965 to 50 to 70 percent in the 1990s. However, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Guinea, Mali, and Niger still have under 30 percent of children in elementary school, and education of females lags behind that of males.

Increasing numbers of people in the region also have opportunities to become fully literate in secondary school and to earn higher academic qualifications (see the "Personal View: Ghana" box, p. 373). Many who gain higher qualifications are disappointed to find few jobs available in their home countries. African doctors, lawyers, and airline pilots are increasing in numbers, but many become part of the brain drain by finding employment abroad in the world's wealthier countries. Emigration from Africa to the United States more than doubled in the 1990s, from 15,000 to around 40,000 per year, disproportionately in the professional, managerial, and technical occupations, and continues to grow. Although they may benefit home African countries if they send money to their families or eventually return with skills and experience, many decide to live permanently in the wealthier countries. Meanwhile, African countries pay expatriates from wealthier countries high salaries to carry out professional jobs.

3. *Economic diversification* makes countries more competitive in world markets. The region's countries need new products and better terms of trade, new incentives, and wider access to markets in wealthier countries. The perceived risks of investing and doing business in Africa slow job creation.

   Internal reforms needed include the reduction of corruption, improvement of infrastructure and financial services, and the provision of better access to the information economy. All countries need improved infrastructure. They do not have sufficient all-weather roads or other forms of internal transportation. They lack clean water supplies and adequate sanitation. There are shortages of electricity and telecommunications. Ports are poorly equipped and expensive to use.
4. *Reduced aid dependence, debt, and stronger intraregional partnerships.* Africa remains the world's most aid-dependent and indebted region. World Bank and International Monetary Fund aid and loans, together with development cooperation with the European Union, continue to improve links with the former colonial countries but bring few advantages to African countries. Programs of debt relief became more significant in the 1990s as aid donors channeled investments to countries but still insisted on approved development policies to avoid corruption. The World Trade Organization tries to help African and other developing countries improve their access to markets for agricultural products and gain a reduction of farm subsidies

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Personal View

GHANA

When meeting Yaa Boadi, one is readily drawn in by her natural, high-wattage smile—an appealing West African trait. But it is not merely because she is Ghanaian that this young woman smiles so freely: it is also because of the way she feels about her life—one in which she has made remarkable strides from her rural, impoverished upbringing.

At the age of 26, Boadi's most vivid childhood memories are of beginning each day by carrying pails of water on her head. Sometimes she made three grueling trips to the village well before school.

Baodi's village, Nkawkaw, was on a red-earthed mountain in the eastern region of Ghana. It is inaccessible to motor vehicles, so getting there involves a walk of 30 minutes or more along a footpath from the main highway linking the regional capital of Kumasi with the national capital, Accra.

During the dry season, it could be so cold in the morning that Boadi warmed herself beside an outdoor fire before setting off for water. Then it could become so hot and dusty during the day that her grandmother would rub cocoa butter into her black hair as a moisturizer.

Water collection also became more arduous during the dry season. As the level in the well dropped, villagers would jostle in line. When it was her turn at the well, Boadi tried to lower her pail gently to avoid stirring up the muddy bottom.

Inevitably, the well dried up before the spring rains returned, forcing villagers to travel far to a deeper source or to buy water from a government truck in a distant town.

On a Saturday morning recently near the central market in Accra, Boadi wore jeans and a royal blue, tie-dyed shirt with white lace embroidering the collar and short sleeves. She inherited this striking shirt from her father, a man she hardly knew.

While she was still a toddler, her parents left home: her father took a teaching position in Cameroon. Boadi and a brother were raised by their grandparents. Lots of cousins lived in the compound, as well as Boadi's uncles and aunts. Everyone slept on floor mats in two rooms, except her grandfather, who had his own room and a mattress. Boadi says it was a typical, traditional, village upbringing.

In a region where many girls never attend elementary school, very few attend college, and fewer still ever achieve professional status, a doting uncle encouraged her to achieve. She could become an engineer one day, he told her. Then she could return home to build wells, so that other girls would no longer have to haul water.

Baodi made it to the university in Kumasi, the regional capital, one of only four women to enroll for civil engineering alongside 36 men and the only one in her class to stick with it as others switched to less rigorous majors. In time, Baodi found she could hold her own with male classmates from more privileged families who had been groomed in prestigious secondary schools.

On graduating four years ago, she became the first professional woman hired by an Accra engineering company, and she has worked on design teams for World Bank-funded national highway projects. She enjoys her work but also detects some bias when the men get all the field assignments while she remains office-bound with design work.

She has also become active in a support group for women engineers in Ghana and has traveled to South Africa to speak to an association of women engineers. Boadi was among seven Ford Foundation fellows selected from almost 600 applicants in Ghana. She plans to enroll in a master's degree program at the University of Southampton (United Kingdom), focusing on engineering for rural development. Within a few years, she hopes to form an NGO dedicated to attracting funding for infrastructure projects in neglected regions of Ghana. Perhaps, she says, one day she'll return home to build wells—just as her uncle foretold.

[Excerpted from "Getting the best out of Africa," by Todd Shapera, *Financial Times* (London) *Weekend*, 27–28 April 2002.]

in wealthier countries, but countries such as the United States make small concessions and increase their own farm subsidies to maintain their farming communities.

Partnerships among African countries could be more significant. In July 2001, the heads of government meeting in Lusaka, Zambia, changed the "Organization of African Unity" to the "African Union." At the same conference, the Millennium Action Plan, proposed by President Thabo Mbeki of South Africa, had a twofold thrust: on the one hand, it restated the policies previously urged by Western countries and institutions: better government, more democracy, respect for human rights, market reforms, and recognition of the advantages of globalization. On the other hand, the plan highlighted the need to reduce poverty by improving education and public health. It asked for continuing aid together with the removal of trade barriers and agricultural subsidies in richer countries, but subsequent actions suggest that the world's wealthier countries demand the first part but contribute little to the second. When the wealthiest (G8) countries met in 2002 and discussed African needs, they offered $1 billion of the $64 billion requested at a time when the United States increased its own farm subsidies by $190 billion.

Natural Environments and Resources

The tropical conditions in Africa South of the Sahara include the range of climatic contrasts from arid to all-year rain, ecosystems from desert to rain forest, some of the world's longest rivers, and some of its grandest scenery. The range of big animals, from herbivores such as elephants and gazelles to carnivores such as lions, attracts tourists from around the world. Water and mineral resources are among the world's most impressive.

Tropical Climates

The climates of Africa South of the Sahara—apart from the extreme south—range from the tropical arid environments of the Sahara, Kalahari, and Namib Deserts, through tropical seasonal to the equatorial climatic environments (Figure 9.8a). The southern tip of the continent has warm midlatitude climates. These contrasts affect human livelihoods through the diseases of the wet tropics, the lack of water in many areas, and their effects on soils. A satellite view (Figure 9.9) shows the contrasts as expressed by the dense thundercloud clusters over

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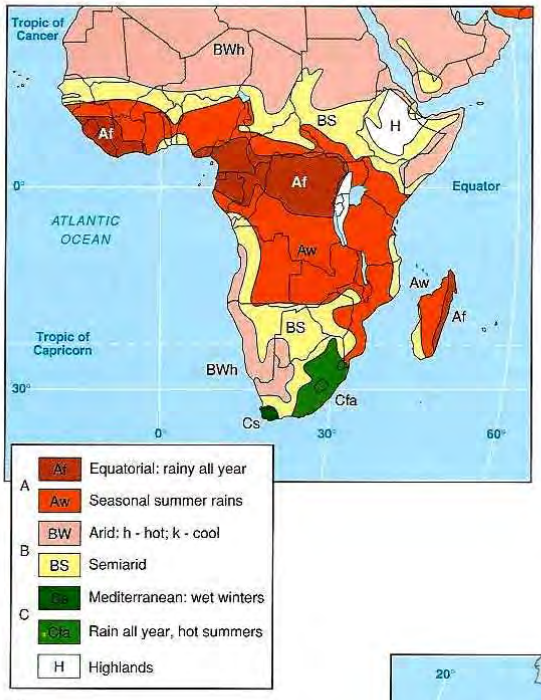


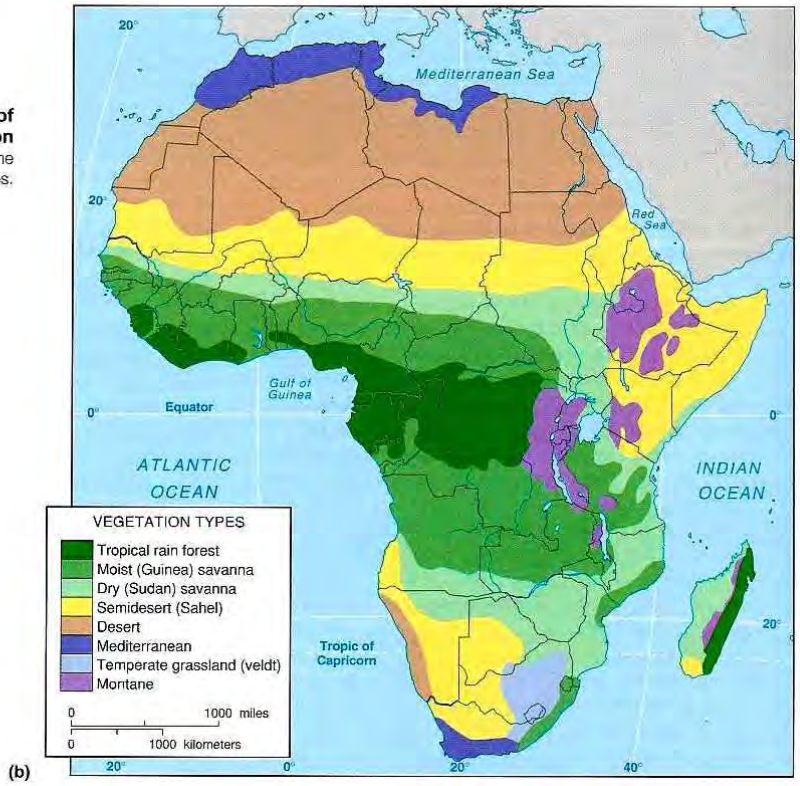
(a)

the equator, the cloudless arid areas, and the midlatitude weather systems with their frontal cloud patterns.

The equatorial climatic environment dominates the basin of the Congo River in Central Africa. Temperatures remain high all year, and rain comes in all months. The large rainfall totals and huge basin area within this environment cause the Congo River to carry to the oceans the second greatest volume of water in the world (after the Amazon River in South America; see Chapter 10). The high plateaus in Eastern Africa, however, restrict the African extent of the equatorial rains and may suffer droughts outside of rainy periods in April and November.

In Western Africa, the coastal areas have a monsoonlike climatic environment with contrasting wet and dry seasons caused by alternating airflow directions. Moist southerly air from the Atlantic Ocean brings heavy summer rains. In winter, dry northerly winds, known as *harmattan*, blow from the Sahara. Annual rainfall totals fall with distance from the ocean.

Most of Africa South of the Sahara has a tropical seasonal climatic environment in which temperatures remain high throughout the year and rains come in the season when the sun is high. Rainfall totals range from low to moderate, and all areas are subject to variations from year to year. The dry seasons increase in length and the rains become more variable closer to the arid areas.



(b)

Figure 9.8 **Africa South of the Sahara: climate and vegetation regions.** (a) Tropical climates dominate the region. (b) Major natural vegetation types. Compare the two maps.

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Figure 9.9 **Southern Africa: weather patterns.** A space shuttle photo shows a clear distinction between the cloudy (rainy) zones along the equator in the north. Moist air rises near the equator, condensing into clouds and spreading northward and southward at higher levels in the atmosphere. The air then descends at around 30 degrees of latitude, drying out and preventing cloud formation over the deserts. To the south of the continent, the swirls of midlatitude weather systems and frontal clouds over the ocean move from west to east. Photo: NASA.

The tropical arid climatic environments of the Sahara, Kalahari, and Namib Deserts have little rain in any season. The little that falls is rapidly returned to the atmosphere by high rates of evaporation.

Winters become cooler toward the southern tip of Africa. Winter cold in southwestern Africa comes from a combination of heat loss through clear skies in the dry climatic environment and the cooling of air above the cold Benguela ocean current along the Atlantic coast.

Changing Climates

The present arrangement of climatic environments in Africa is part of a sequence of changing climates. The best-known example of change is that over periods of a few decades, the southern boundary of the Sahara shifts north and south by up to 160 km (100 mi.). This affects the Sahel, a zone of very low rainfall (see Figure 9.8a), where annual amounts of rain are crucial to plant life and human activities. Drier periods cause the grasses covering old sand dunes to die and expose the sands to movement by winds. In wetter periods, the grasses extend their coverage.

Over longer periods, the Sahara boundary shifted greater distances. Five thousand years ago, the Sahara was more humid, as shown by the dry lake and riverbeds around Lake Chad that were filled with water and the remains of settled human communities in the now arid areas. Around 3000 B.C., increasing drought forced people southward toward the Western African coasts and eastward into the Nile River valley. The margins of the Namib and Kalahari Deserts in Southern Africa experienced similar changes, but the numbers of people living there were fewer than along the southern edges of the Sahara.

As the deserts retreated or expanded, the areas affected by seasonal or equatorial climates occupied more or less land respectively. Such shifts affected patterns of human occupation and migration, but little evidence exists concerning specific changes.

Uncertainty over the climatic future fuels debates about whether the drying of the continent is a human-induced or a natural phenomenon. While people can do little about the natural changes, it might be possible to modify their own activities and so reduce the impacts of change. For example, where overgrazing or the removal of vegetation for cultivation caused the expansion of desert conditions, some African countries are now implementing tree-planting programs.

This region is likely to face the worst effects of global warming, especially in the expanding drought-stricken areas. The region that contributes least to additional greenhouse gases may thus be the greatest sufferer of the consequences of an enhanced greenhouse effect—in contrast to materially wealthy regions that create most of the added greenhouse gases.

Ancient Rocks, Plateaus, Rifts, and Volcanoes

Extensive plateau surfaces on ancient rocks dominate African landscapes (Figure 9.10a). **Plateaus** are elevated areas with relatively flat tops. The main reason for Africa's extensive plateau landscapes is that most of the continent is not crossed or touched by tectonic plate margins (Figure 9.10b) that would disrupt the land surface.

Some 200 million years ago, Africa was at the center of a huge worldwide continent (see Figure 6.9c). The world continent then broke apart, and its fragments moved to form the present continents, separating from Africa by divergent plate margins. The rift valleys that cross Eastern Africa from north to south are linked to the divergent plate margin activity along the line of the Red Sea. **Rift valleys** lie along zones where Earth's crust arched, pulled apart, and broke, collapsing the central part. The rift valleys have deep, elongated lakes and volcanic activity along their margins. Geologists identify the links from the East African rift valleys across Ethiopia, the Red Sea, and the Dead Sea–Jordan River valley line (see Chapter 8) as being part of a new ocean that is widening.

The highest mountains in Africa include Mount Kilimanjaro (5,895 m; 19,340 ft.) and Mount Kenya in Eastern Africa, which are extinct volcanoes close to the rift valley. The eruption of Mount Niriganga that engulfed the town of Goma, Democratic Republic of Congo, in January 2002 was part of this pattern. The Ethiopian Highlands are built partly of lava flows, also linked to rift valley volcanic activity. The Cameroon Highlands on the Nigeria-Cameroon border include active volcanoes that are

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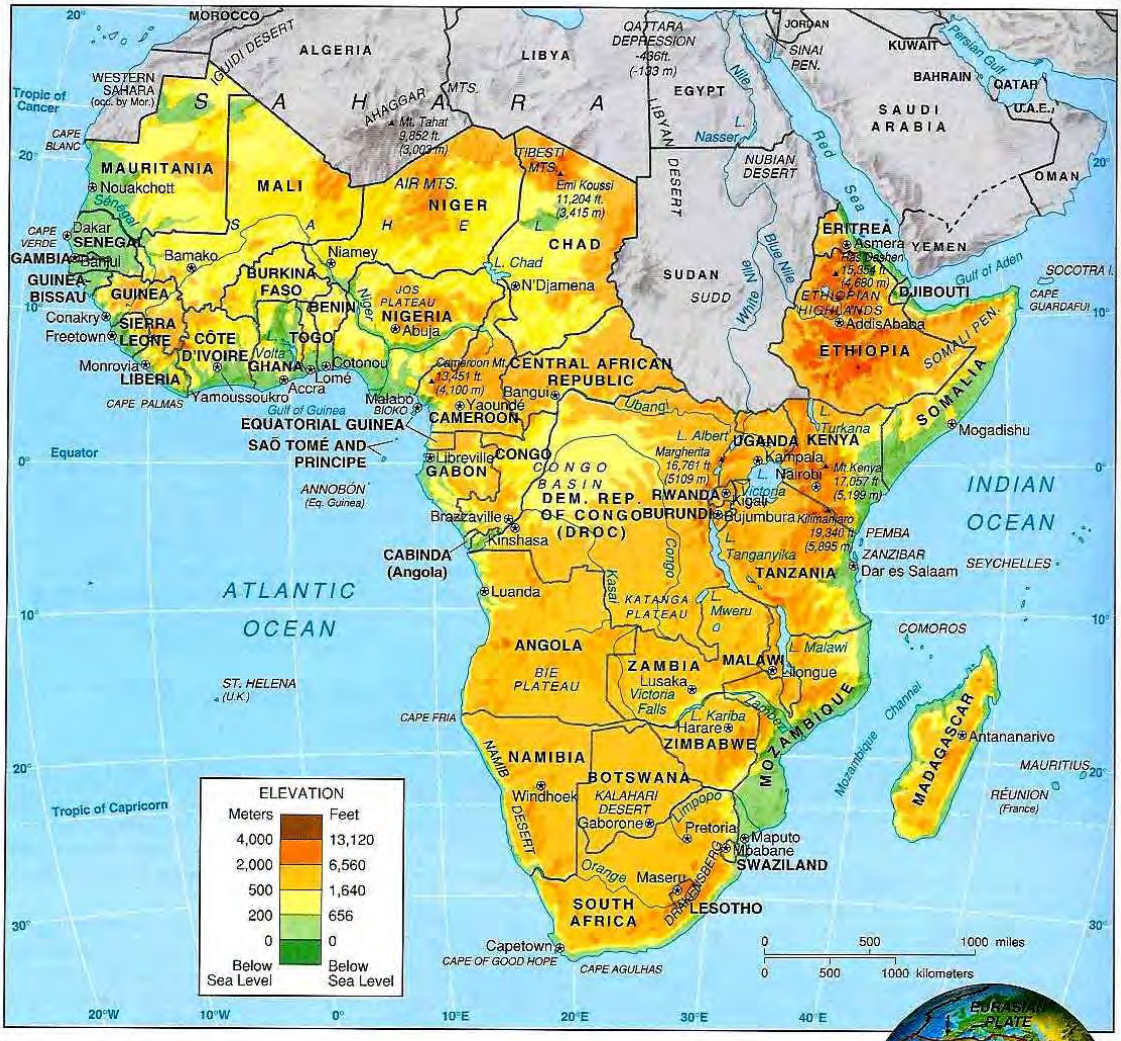

Figure 9.10 **Africa South of the Sahara: major geologic features.** (a) Map of relief (elevation) and rivers. Identify the highest points, which are mainly of volcanic origin. (b) Africa and tectonic plates: what is the significance of divergent margins (arrows moving apart) and convergent margins (arrows moving together)?

distant from plate boundaries and rift valleys, and result from the local melting and eruption of deeply buried rocks.

Ancient Landscapes

The long-term molding action of rivers and wind on stable rocks created the plateau surfaces of Africa South of the Sahara. The surfaces are formed by erosion that lowers whole landscapes (planation) in seasonally wet tropical climates and contrast with the deep valleys incised by powerful rivers or glaciers in midlatitudes. Consistent high temperatures and the availability of water in deep soils cause rapid rock breakdown by subsurface chemical action. During the dry season, the grasses and small shrubs die and the soil surface dries, detach-

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ing particles. At the start of the wet season, the combination of bare, loose soil and water carries fine sand and clay across the landscape and into the rivers. This process lowers the landscape as a whole and leaves individual hills with bare rocky sides, or inselbergs, as prominent landforms. Rocky slopes characterize the steps from one plateau level to another.

The major rivers such as the Niger, Nile, Congo, Zambezi, and Orange flow across the plateaus, enabling boat transportation. Rivers such as the Congo and Niger are much used for internal transportation. River navigation is often made difficult, however, by seasonal variations of flow related to rainfall or by waterfalls and rapids where the rivers descend from one plateau level to the next or from a plateau level to the coast.

Long-term climatic changes did not greatly alter the set of processes producing the extensive plateaus. The most recent glacial phases produced shifts in the climate zones in Africa but left few glacial landforms, except on the highest mountains. The ice caps on top of Mounts Kilimanjaro and Kenya are now melting rapidly. The desert landscapes probably formed under seasonal rainfall conditions during periods of greater humidity. Increasing aridity led to the desiccation of soil and drying of the rivers. The wind then blew away the finest soil particles and concentrated the sandy fractions into large dune seas.

Forests, Savannas, and Deserts

The natural vegetation of Africa South of the Sahara follows closely the patterns established by the climatic regime (see Figure 9.8b). Equatorial climatic areas are covered by dense tropical rain forest containing a huge variety of tree and other plant species and of birds and insect species (Figure 9.11a). The seasonal climate areas between the deserts and forests are characterized by savanna grasslands in which there is varying amounts of tree cover (Figure 9.11b). The savanna grasslands are noted for their large herbivore animals such as elephants, giraffes, zebras, and a variety of deerlike forms, such as antelopes and springboks, together with their predators, the lions, leopards, and wild dogs. Arid areas are deserts with sparse vegetation growth and a few small animals (Figure 9.11c).

The majority of soils in Africa, especially in the tropics, are poor in nutrients because of rapid chemical weathering and removal of the nutrients by water flowing through the soils. Some are workable for agriculture, however, if care is taken to cope with the high clay and iron contents that are liable to becoming cemented as they dry out. More fertile areas occur around some of the volcanoes, where soils form from the breakdown of rocks rich in plant-supporting nutrients. Overall, however, physiological population density (number of people per area of arable land) is high in equatorial Africa.

Resources

Africa has a wealth of natural resources, but, by definition, their use is a matter of economic and cultural demand (see Chapter 2). Much resource development in this region is stimulated by foreign investment for external demands. Many

(a)

(b)

(c)

Figure 9.11 **Africa South of the Sahara: contrasting ecosystems.** (a) Congo. Small village by a river in the heart of tropical rain forest—an ecosystem based on plentiful rainfall. (b) Savanna woodland of the tropical summer rains zone with Mount Kilimanjaro in the background. (c) Rocky desert with vegetation supported by subsurface water. Photo: (a) © Torleif Svensson/The Stock Market/Corbis.

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

"***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.378-380a

African countries depend for much of their foreign income on mining and exporting the minerals contained in the ancient rocks. Overall, Africa's potential resources are underused, and the economic benefits from their exploitation seldom return to Africans. The extraction of minerals, the production of commercial crops, timber, and fish, and the development of tourism are seldom carried out by African-owned companies, and most profits go to companies in the materially wealthier countries. Some large deposits, such as the iron ores of Equatorial Guinea, remain unused at present because of civil wars or the lack of internal transportation.

Until the 1990s, many African countries possessed few sources of fossil fuels. Known deposits of oil and natural gas were limited to a few areas of coastal subsidence and sediment accumulation in such areas as the Niger River Delta. In the 1990s, evolving offshore oil exploration technology identified major oil fields along the Atlantic coast of Africa. Gabon and Angola became important producers based on multinational oil corporation investments in areas judged to be safe from internal conflicts. In the early 2000s, the United States and European countries encouraged these African producers to leave OPEC so that they could increase their output—and provide an alternative and less regulated source, along with Russia. In the 1980s, South Africa developed coal mining when international sanctions prevented imports, but coal deposits in other countries remain remote from transportation.

The tropical climates make it possible to grow a variety of crops, including yams, rice, cassava, corn, millet, and sorghum that are the basis of life for many Africans, who also sell them in the growing urban markets. Commercial crops for export to midlatitude countries are grown separately, including bananas, cocoa, coffee, tea, palm oil, rubber, cotton, tropical fruits, and peanuts. More research and farmer education is focused on the export crops than on the subsistence crops.

Forest resources are extensive in the equatorial countries, and plentiful fish resources occur in the major rivers and in the areas of cold ocean currents off northwestern and southwestern Africa. Both forests and fisheries are experiencing increased rates of exploitation and depletion through demand from the world's wealthier countries.

Africa also possesses the natural resources such as sunshine, coastal beaches, and large numbers of animals now protected in the national parks of countries such as Kenya, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia, and the Republic of South Africa that form the basis for tourism. Tourist interests also center on scenic wonders such as Victoria Falls on the Zambia-Zimbabwe border and historic sites such as the former slave markets of eastern and western Africa. Many opportunities for tourist development, however, await political stability and the development of transportation facilities. Moreover, tourism brings mainly low-wage employment to local Africans.

Environmental Problems

The environmental problems of tropical Africa are associated with drought, poor soils, loss of wildlife, and diseases affecting humans and livestock.

Drought and Desertification

Water resources range from plenty in the Congo River basin to scarcity in many areas where there is seasonal rainfall, frequent droughts, or continuous aridity. Shortages of water through longer dry seasons or periods of dry years appear to be increasing in the seasonal rainy areas of Africa. Such shortages lower crop productivity and hydroelectric project efficiency. The Sahel zone suffered increasing droughts from the 1970s that indicated a change in climate combined with overgrazing and removal of woody plants for firewood—a case of desertification. It caused many livestock deaths in Western Africa and Chad and local famine conditions.

Soil Quality Losses

Many tropical soils lack nutrients or are difficult to work with simple tools. The decline in soil quality and workability following agriculture is one of the most widespread problems in Africa. For example, removal of the forest cover in the Ethiopian Highlands led to rapid erosion of the soils, forcing people to move elsewhere and impose further pressures on land resources in already crowded areas. Soil exposure in the seasonal rainfall areas may lead to a cementing of the soil into hard laterite that resists plowing. In semiarid areas, the overgrazing of slow-growing vegetation and the removal of woody plants for firewood expose soils to erosion by water and wind.

Wildlife

The tropical African flora and fauna are threatened by expanding logging, farming, and poaching. The level of the problems varies from place to place. For example, the killing of elephants for their ivory tusks in Kenya caused a fall in the elephant population and international action to ban the ivory trade in the late 1900s. Meanwhile, in Southern Africa, better conservation policies resulted in an expansion of the elephant population until it exceeded the carrying capacity of the land and forced governments to institute annual culls. The ivory from the culls fills many warehouses but cannot be sold because of the world ban.

Tropical Diseases

Despite massive efforts and advances in health care, tropical diseases remain among the main environmental problems of Africa for people and food production. Malaria, river blindness, and other diseases favored by the tropical climates remain endemic, while cholera flares up from time to time. Some areas of savanna grassland have very low populations because of the prevalence of sleeping sickness affecting humans and heavy tsetse fly infestations infecting cattle; people escaping from that threat move into river valleys where river blindness attacks. Diseases such as measles and tuberculosis are returning in the wake of HIV/AIDS, which weakens immune systems.

Great strides in immunology and antibiotics allow recovery today from many previous killer diseases such as cholera, various fevers, and even malaria. New deadly viruses, such as Ebola that affected the Democratic Republic of Congo in 1995, however, keep appearing and cause immediate panics. Other major diseases are still killers on a larger scale than the Ebola

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virus. Sleeping sickness, for example, kills 200,000 people a year in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Although a cure for sleeping sickness is known, few people are treated for it. The high cost of continuing treatments for diseases such as sleeping sickness and malaria makes them too expensive for most Africans. The continual risk of infection from waterborne diseases where water supply is untreated causes death rates to remain higher than those in other parts of the world. In many parts of Africa, a lack of sufficient food causes malnutrition and makes people less resistant to disease.

HIV/AIDS Pandemic

By 1998, the World Health Organization listed AIDS as the fifth main cause of global deaths with an expected rise to third by 2005. By destroying the immune system, HIV/AIDS makes its victims more liable to diseases such as tuberculosis, pneumonia, toxoplasmosis, fungus infections, and cancers. It is transmitted in blood and other bodily fluids, including through semen during sexual activity, unhygienic injecting needles, and transfusions of infected blood. It is passed from infected mothers to babies at birth or in breast milk. The causes of HIV/AIDS spread include poverty, the breakdown of traditional family support systems, the apartheid policy that brought miners into male-only camps serviced by prostitutes, continuing promiscuity at a time when traditional polygamy gives way to the taking of sexual partners outside monogamous marriages, and mistaken government policies.

Although reduced in Europe and North America in the 1990s by expensive triple-drug therapy, the disease diffused rapidly through Africa from the 1960s. Africa South of the Sahara has the world's highest and most rapidly increasing concentration of this disease (Figure 9.12). At present, Southern Africa has the greatest number of cases, affecting up to 40 percent of the population aged 15 to 49 years. It spreads quickly in cultures that value male sexual prowess.

In 2000, nearly 4 million new infections and 2.5 million deaths from HIV/AIDS occurred in this region—over two-thirds of the world's declared totals, although some countries inside and outside Africa do not report the full extent. Life expectancies in the worst affected countries of Botswana and Zimbabwe rose to 60 years in 1990 but fell to 40 years in the following decade as HIV/AIDS took hold. Other African countries experienced smaller but growing impacts unless special measures were adopted (see the "Point-Counterpoint: HIV/AIDS" box, p. 29).

As well as the demographic impacts, HIV/AIDS has many social implications. Half the miners in South Africa are HIV carriers, and thousands of orphans, often carriers themselves, constitute a growing need for help in the region. Throughout Africa South of the Sahara, the lives of young, often skilled workers are being shattered. Military personnel, migrant miners, and their wives and prostitutes have the highest proportions of infection. The lack of medical understanding and panic at not being able to do anything about it generate false taboos and myths, such as the one that men can cure themselves by having sex with a virgin girl, a basis for many child rapes.

Possible measures for controlling the spread of AIDS are complex and focus on treatments that recognize human frailty

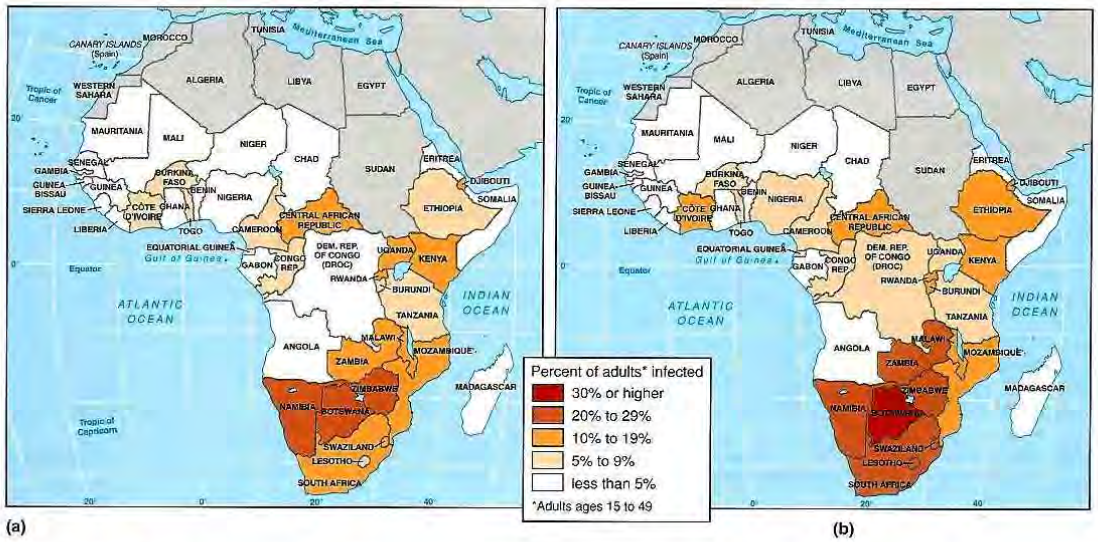

Figure 9.12 Africa South of the Sahara: HIV/AIDS. The percent of adults (age 15 to 49) infected with HIV/AIDS. Some countries are unlikely to report the full extent. What factors might account for the higher prevalence in Southern Africa? A high incidence is linked to falling life expectancy and slower population growth. (a) Data for 1997. (b) Data for 1999. Note: Congo is the former Zaire. Source: Data from United Nations and Population Reference Bureau.

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by providing cheap or free condoms and needles because HIV is spread by sexual activity and drug addicts reusing needles. These treatments gain over moralistic "better behavior" policies. In Senegal, religious groups supported a program that included sex education in schools, the "social marketing" (at low prices) of condoms and needles, and a focus on at-risk groups (prostitutes and young men in the army). HIV infections remained below 2 percent, compared to nearly 11 percent in nearby Côte d'Ivoire. Successful actions resulted from prompt responses, open discussion of sensitive issues, and repeated targeting of vulnerable groups. Even where the cost of the drugs is reduced to affordable levels, African countries still spend more on armaments than on the clinics and laboratories needed to administer and monitor the use of the drugs. HIV/AIDS requires global action—as important as controlling terrorism, the armaments and drugs trades, and slavery.

Test Your Understanding 9A

Summary Africa South of the Sahara has a rich history and a wealth of natural resources, but it is one of the world's poorest regions and faces major problems of engaging with the global economic system. The legacy of slavery, colonialism, and ethnic divisions is a negative influence on modern political, economic, and social conditions.

The African natural environment is dominantly tropical in climate and vegetation, from rainy equatorial climate with tropical rain forest, through areas of seasonal rain and savanna grassland, to arid areas of desert vegetation. The ancient rocks contain massive mineral resources, while the scenery and animals attract many tourists. Droughts, poor soil quality, and diseases are negative factors, and this region is the world's worst for the spread of HIV/AIDS.

Questions to Think About

9A.1 How can a region with such a rich history and wealth of resources end up as the poorest in the world?
9A.2 How do the histories of Asian and African people compare in their relationships with European colonizers?
9A.3 How are climate, natural vegetation, and landforms linked in Africa South of the Sahara?
9A.4 What would be the Western countries' response if they experienced the African levels of HIV/AIDS?

Key Terms

Southern Africa Development Conference (SADC)
Sahel
plateau
rift valley

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Fin de la Primera Parte

RESPUESTA MODELO

UNAM, FFYL **Licenciatura en Geografía**
Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía, 2010-2 **6to semestre**
Profesor: Mtro. Francisco Enríquez Denton **Actividad 3: Análisis de texto**

Semana VII: Miércoles 17 de marzo de 2010
Chapter 9, The Geography of Africa: South of the Sahara (First part)

Nombre de la alumna (o):	**X**	**X**	**X**
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**

Indicaciones generales: Con base en el análisis del texto "***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (First Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.363-380a; realiza lo que se te pide:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de esta **primera parte** en la que se dividió el capítulo y contéstenlas.

2. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos. Se sugiere que en dichas interrogantes contemplen los puntos medulares de la lectura y que las respuestas sean lo suficientemente amplias y claras.

3. En la parte final, elabora un **párrafo en inglés** (de seis a ocho renglones) y memorízalo, porque en clase lo vas a compartir.

4. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 17 de marzo de 2010**.

5. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

8 Preguntas fundamentales

¿Cuál es el principal patrón que presenta la agrupación de la población en el África al Sur del Sahara?
La población se encuentra mayoritariamente distribuida en grupos étnicos o tribus que comparten entre sí rasgos semejantes como la raza, lengua, religión y costumbres. Cada tribu tiene algunas características que los distinguen, como la diferencia en sus atributos físico-anatómicos y el lenguaje propio, sin embargo la fuerte influencia extranjera y el incremento de las relaciones comerciales han sido determinantes para la inclusión de términos y conceptos que modifican las lenguas originales. Todavía hoy, la mayor parte de estos grupos profesan el animismo como religión, aunque ésta no sea realmente una doctrina estructurada, con una liturgia definida y una institución establecida. .
¿Cuál es la religión predominante y qué trascendencia tiene en la vida de estas poblaciones?
El animismo como tal no es propiamente una religión, gran parte de sus preceptos son tradiciones y costumbres heredadas por generaciones, sin embargo es la creencia mayormente arraigada entre las poblaciones africanas, y mayoritariamente presente en esta zona de estudio. Este concepto representa una fuerte influencia cultural, social, política y hasta económica. Se considera al animismo como la forma de estar **en sana convivencia con el ambiente** y entorno en donde se vive. La vida de las

personas tiene estrecha relación con la naturaleza, los seres vivos y no vivos. En algunas poblaciones se considera como una bendición la familia numerosa, mientras que es un hecho trágico no tener hijos. La práctica del animismo también conlleva al manejo colectivo de los bienes, existe una propiedad colectiva de la tierra y por lo tanto de los beneficios que de ella se obtienen. En muchos de los casos, los sabios, concebidos como líderes, promueven el beneficio de todos los habitantes. El uso respetuoso de los recursos naturales es un rasgo positivo del ansimismo que ha sido avasallado por la depredación realizada durante siglos por los países europeos.

¿Qué influencia tuvo el mundo islámico en esta región de África?

La relación geográfica con los países del occidente de Asia, con esta región de ¨África fue principalmente comercial, dejando dos tipos de huellas, unas prácticas como la introducción del uso de los camellos para el transporte y el comercio, y otras más trascendentales como la construcción de puertos y rutas de comercio hacia las islas del océano Índico. En ellas se introdujeron aspectos culturales como el manejo de lenguas árabes, y el fomento de la poligamia. También los países musulmanes intervinieron y propiciaron el comercio de esclavos africanos y la gran explotación de algunos recursos naturales.

¿Cuál fue la influencia económica del Colonialismo en África?

Los principales países colonizadores de África fueron Portugal, Reino Unido, Bélgica, España y Francia. Prácticamente existió un "reparto" del continente entre estas potencias a inicios del siglo XV. El colonialismo trazó rutas de comercio a través de todo el continente africano, el objetivo inicial fue llegar a India sin tener que atravesar los países musulmanes, sin embargo la gran cantidad de recursos naturales africanos auspició que los países mencionados fundaran colonias para la explotación de una gran cantidad de riquezas que sustentaron el desarrollo económico europeo durante siglos. La abundancia de un determinado recurso en un lugar sirvió para nombrar a los países existencia de países cuyos, como ejemplos están Costa de Marfil, Costa de Oro, y Costa de los Esclavos, en la parte del ahora llamado Sahel.

Las rutas comerciales incluyeron también el tráfico de esclavos que eran enviados a Europa o a las colonias americanas quienes fueron primero la mano de obra agrícola y después industrial que permitió el nacimiento de las grandes fortunas tanto en los países colonizadores como en los Estados Unidos como país independiente de Inglaterra. Actualmente, el avance tecnológico, que requiere de mano de obra calificada y algunas políticas emanadas de las revoluciones sociales han terminado con el esclavismo legal. Además la lucha por el poder de grupos minoritarios en los países recientemente independientes ha generado una serie de guerras que tienen postrada a la mayor parte de la población que carece de alimentación suficiente, salud y educación, que les permita un desarrollo económico y humano muchos de los países africanos. El saqueo de los recursos ahora es solapado por los mismos gobiernos que los cambian por las armas que les permiten conservar el poder.

Algunas acciones puntuales de organizaciones no gubernamentales, como Médicos sin Fronteras, han querido mitigar esta problemática, sin tener una consecuencia positiva significante.

¿Cuál fue la influencia cultural del Colonialismo en África?

La influencia de las principales potencias colonizadoras en las poblaciones africanas es innegable en muchos aspectos, sin embargo el más claro es el idioma. Las colonias fueron forzadas a emplear los idiomas de los colonizadores De ahí tenemos la implementación del portugués, francés, e inglés principalmente, que ahora son un signo característico de los habitantes africanos.

Sin embargo los países colonizadores, a través de la discriminación radical, impidieron el desarrollo económico y social de los pueblos africanos a los que no les dieron acceso a la educación para evitar que pudieran ser capaces de rebelarse y gobernarse. El colonialismo implica el saqueo de los recursos hacia un lugar externo donde se concentra la riqueza para el desarrollo de la población del país que ejerce el dominio y genera el empobrecimiento físico, cultural e intelectual en los países explotados. Así, las colonias africanas no obtuvieron una influencia cultural positiva en Europa, la que debe una gran parte de su desarrollo cultural y tecnológico a los recursos extraídos de África.

¿Qué aspecto del colonialismo en África fue trascendental para el resto del mundo?

El esclavismo es sin duda uno de los resultados más atroces que dejó el colonialismo en África. Las

rutas de comercio tenían como una de sus prioridades el transporte de esclavos hacia otras partes del mundo principalmente para emplearse en trabajos pesados como plantaciones, construcciones y posteriormente la industria ya fuese textil o de otras sin descartar la explotación sexual. Los esclavos se obtenían a través de un cambio o trueque por lo que a cambio de hombres, mujeres y niños las potencias entregaban a las tribus alcohol, armas, azúcar o algunos otros artículos que no abundaban en las tierras africanas. También se empleó el aspecto físico de las personas como justificación del esclavismo, apelando a la superioridad de la raza blanca sobre la raza negra. Este hecho fue fomentado y aceptado por los pueblos africanos.

Este hecho tuvo grandes repercusiones a nivel global, en los aspectos económicos, sociales y culturales. En la economía se obtuvo mano de obra gratuita que sustentó el crecimiento agrícola e industrial, en los países donde se llevaron los esclavos se generó la dicotomía social y el racismo que ha sido fuente de numerosos conflictos, en lo cultural las sociedades se establecieron cánones de conducta diferentes, para los blancos, los negros y los mulatos, sin embargo algunas de las costumbres negras, entre las que destaca la músicas; se asimilaron en la cultura de los blancos.
Los esclavos fueron sometidos a malos tratos durante varios siglos. Sin embargo, construyeron poblaciones numerosas en los lugares de destino a los que fueron enviados, de ahí tenemos grandes comunidades de esclavos, también llamados "negros", en países como EUA, Brasil, islas del Caribe, Francia, España y otros países de Europa.

Un hecho trascendental para la historia de la humanidad han sido los movimientos sociales entorno a la defensa de los derechos civiles de la población de raza negra, desde la segunda mitad del siglo XX en principalmente en los Estados Unidos, coincidentemente en la misma época en que varios países africanos iniciaban su proceso de independencia de las potencias mundiales.

¿Qué importancia real tuvo la oleada de independencias en los países Africanos?

La creación de las naciones africanas ha sido producto de una modificación en la forma de dominio de los países europeos y de su problemática derivada de la Segunda Guerra Mundial que mermo

significativamente la capacidad de los países colonizadores para sojuzgar a la población africana. Así la independencia y la conformación de los nuevos estados **no** surge de una madurez política y económica de los pueblos y en consecuencia, la situación de los habitantes ha empeorado, pues los gobiernos, en la mayor parte de los casos no tiene la capacidad para generar las políticas de desarrollo, pues están más preocupados por alcanzar o mantener el poder para enriquecer a un muy pequeño grupo de personas.

Los países europeos siguen extrayendo los recursos africanos y en las ciudades que han logrado una relativa riqueza asientan sus empresas para vender productos y servicios, impidiendo un desarrollo local. Gran parte de los países africanos dependen todavía de las economías extranjeras que juegan un papel fundamental en sus territorios dominando las actividades productivas y sometiendo hoy en día a la población. La mayoría de los países aun son incapaces de sustentar a sus poblaciones y de satisfacer sus necesidades. Siendo problema el más grave, que no ha sido atendido, el de la pandemia de VIH, que lejos de ser un tema de sanidad, se ha tornado en un problema político y cultural, que crece día con día, en las naciones más azotadas por el virus.

¿Qué aspecto físico es relevante para esta zona del continente Africano?

Indiscutiblemente la enorme cantidad y variedad de recursos naturales , derivada de su diversidad climática, de sus formas de relieve, que alojan a especies vegetales y animales únicas en el planeta, esta riqueza, no obstante la merma sufrida por la irracional explotación de los países más racionales, puede ser considerada todavía, como una indispensable herencia mundial que es necesario recuperar a través de políticas sustentables, no sólo bajo el enfoque ambientalista sino abatiendo la pobreza y la enfermedad de sus habitantes para hacerlos responsables de su conservación y motor del desarrollo regional y mundial.

Actualmente la riqueza natural de África, como la de otros países es amenazada por el propio "homo-sapiens", cuyo origen se piensa está en África. Es un acto de elemental justicia que los países que tanto deben a África, contribuyan a la recuperación de sus recursos, no sólo en beneficio de su

población sino en beneficio del planeta que está seriamente amenazado por el abuso que se ha hecho en las explotación de los recursos, que han desequilibrado los sistemas ecológicos y modificado los climas característicos en diversas regiones. Tal vez no sea posible una recuperación completa pero si un uso responsable y sostenible de los recursos.

Párrafo en inglés

The countries of the south of the Sahara in Africa, they have been an object of the exploitation (development) during entire centuries, have received enormous cultural impacts that well can be exemplified as shocks among nations. This one is not a minor topic, since several underdeveloped countries crossed a history similar to that of Africa, which there shows a definitive boss of influence of those colonizing powers especially the world during a certain epoch.

The natural diversity (climate, the forms of relief, and other abundant forms of life) are what has allowed that these countries should possess so many natural resources, nevertheless they were an area of important enough exploitation(development) for those who distributed not alone this continent but the entire world, holding to the countries to the underdevelopment that we know nowadays and that stops to the paralyzed civilizations and without possibility of advancing towards a real humanity

Los países del sur del Sahara en África, han sido objeto de la explotación durante siglos, han recibido enormes impactos culturales que bien pueden ejemplificarse como choques entre naciones. Este no es un tema menor, pues varios países subdesarrollados atravesaron una historia similar a la de África, lo cual muestra un patrón de influencia definitivo de aquellas potencias colonizadoras sobre todo el mundo durante una época determinada. La diversidad natural (clima, las formas de relieve, y las otras formas de vida abundantes) son lo que ha permitido que estos países posean tantos recursos naturales, sin embargo fueron un foco de explotación muy importante para quienes se repartieron no solo este continente sino el mundo entero, sujetando a los países al subdesarrollo que conocemos actualmente y que deja a las civilizaciones paralizadas y sin posibilidad de avanzar hacia una verdadera humanidad.

3

"Chapter 9 Africa, South of the Sahara (Second Part)". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). Pp.380b-399a

Marzo, 2010

PLAN DE TRABAJO

I. Temas.

- **The Geography of Africa: South of the Sahara (*Second Part*).**

II. Objetivos informativos.

- **Reconocerá desde una perspectiva geográfica los principales rasgos territoriales de lo países Africanos.**

III. Objetivos formativos.

- **Valorará la importancia de la historia como un factor fundamental en el proceso de construcción de los países del continente africano.**

IV. Motivación

➔ **Pregunta motora**: (reflexión personal)

¿Por qué África es el continente menos desarrollado en el mundo?

V. Actividad de crítica y reflexión.

- Con base en el análisis del "***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections,*

Local Voices. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.380b-399a; los alumnos comprenderán el peso que tiene la historia en el desarrollo de los pueblos africanos.

El desarrollo de la actividad consiste en:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **tres partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos.

2. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 07 de abril de 2010**.

3. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

VI. Contenido y Desarrollo.

"***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.380b-399a

signs of Western-oriented well-being and a financial ability to engage with global connections (Figure 9.14).

Much of Africa South of the Sahara remains a plantation or quarry providing cheap raw materials to the materially wealthy Western world—often a hangover in underdevelopment from trade established in colonial times. Some African countries and cities are more integrated parts of the global economy. Ports and airports link commercial farms and mines to markets in wealthier countries. Cities such as Nairobi (Kenya), Johannesburg and Cape Town (South Africa), and Lagos (Nigeria) exhibit some signs of becoming global city-regions as they provide headquarters for the subregional centers of commerce, multinational corporations, and nongovernmental organizations. For many from outside, the region contains intriguing tourist opportunities because it has warm climates, historic relics, and especially, big animals.

Many African countries are part of the global economic system as dependent debtors and recipients of aid. Their postindependence focus on self-sufficiency to develop the well-being of their people did not enable them to emulate the growth realized in the countries in East and Southeast Asia or Latin America. They often spent their small resources on what they perceived to be important in raising their country's identity through lavish new capital cities and military purchases.

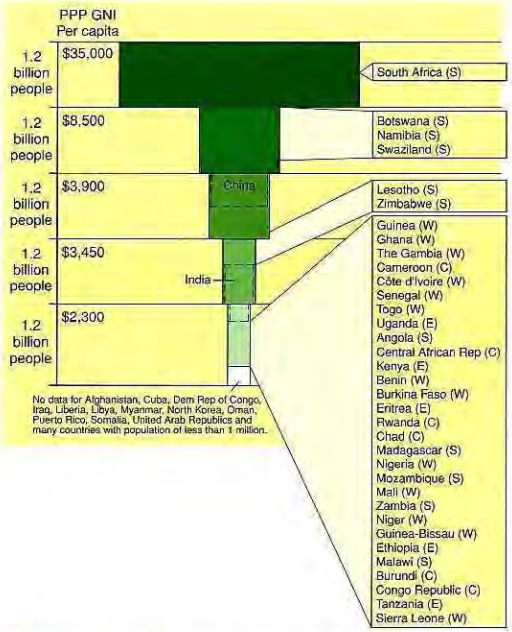

Figure 9.13 **Africa South of the Sahara: country incomes compared.** The countries are listed in the order of their PPP GNI per capita. (C) = Central Africa; (W) = Western Africa; (E) = Eastern Africa; (S) = Southern Africa. Sources: Data (for 2000) from *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2002.

Africa, Globalization, and Localization

To date, Africa South of the Sahara has been a loser in the global economy. The countries of this region produce only 1 percent of global gross national income (Figure 9.13). Most people have little access to the consumer goods that are the

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However, poorly managed projects, together with the corrupt siphoning of funds into personal bank accounts abroad, in some countries led international lenders and bankers to impose stricter conditions. Moreover, in countries with shortages of educated potential leaders, African professionals left in a continuing brain drain for the higher salaries they could earn in wealthier countries.

Within the countries, most people have local rather than global orientations. Many rural Africans live their lives with little reference to the global economy, although it now reaches into the remotest villages through the use of motor vehicles or clothes made of synthetic fibers. Small towns have increasing involvement in the global economic system as they experience a growing mobility of people, increased levels of commercial exchange, and rising demands for the consumer goods seen advertised on global TV channels. Some villages mushroom into small service centers with rapidly built shops and market stalls where food and small consumer goods are sold and buses bring people from surrounding rural areas.

Subregions

Consideration of the cultural and natural environments of Africa South of the Sahara leads to the study of four subregions with distinctive geographic patterns of human geography (Figure 9.15):

- *Central Africa:* the countries of the Congo River drainage basin
- *Western Africa:* the countries in the western bulge of Africa
- *Eastern Africa:* the countries of the eastern Horn of Africa
- *Southern Africa:* the countries south of Congo and Tanzania, influenced strongly by the Republic of South Africa

The population distribution within the region (Figure 9.16) provides an introduction to the subregions. Central Africa has the lowest density of population in Africa South of the Sahara, on average 18.5 per km^2 in 2001 (47 per mi.^{2}). Although low, it

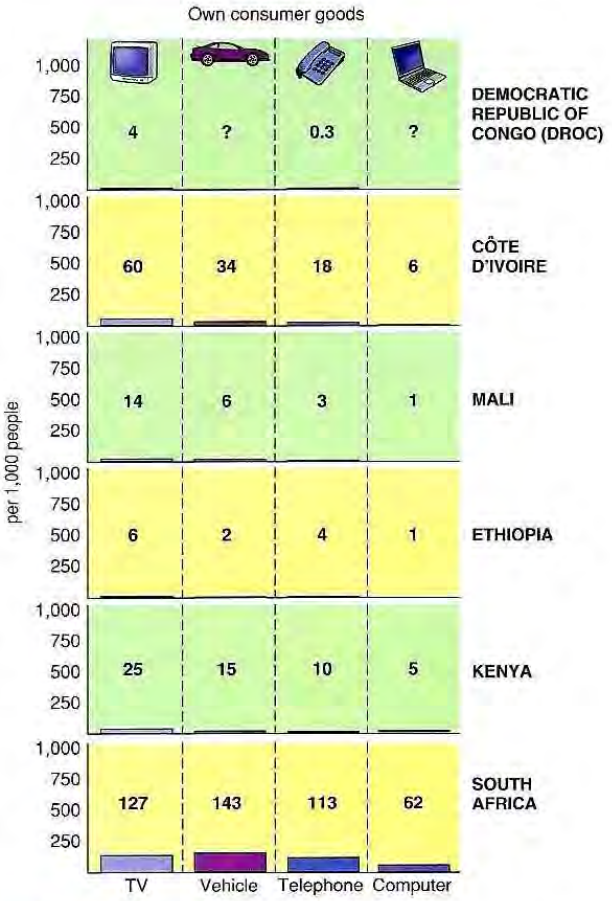

Figure 9.14 **Africa South of the Sahara: consumer goods ownership.** It is very low in African countries, apart from South Africa: compare levels with those in other world regions. How does this diagram reflect Western values? Are these items the sole criteria for prosperity? Source: Data (for 2000) from *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2002.

Figure 9.15 **Africa South of the Sahara: subregional and total data.** Further details at country level are included in each subregion section.

Subregion	Land Area (km^2) Total	Population (millions) Mid-2001 Total	2025 Est.	GNI 1999 (US $ million) Total	GNI PPP 1999 Per Capita	Percent Urban 2001	Human Development Index Rank of 175 Countries	Human Poverty Index: Percent of Total Population
Central Africa	5,419,340	100.0	180.9	20,326	1,832.5	33.4	147.2	44.4
Western Africa	6,120,380	239.6	393.2	70,813	1,167.1	34.1	157.8	49.7
Eastern Africa	3,644,040	167.8	283.0	33,819	866.0	28.4	157.7	39.0
Southern Africa	6,571,950	130.1	155.9	166,733	3112.7	33.3	135.8	31.3
Total or average	**21,755,710**	**637.5**	**1,013.0**	**291,691**	**1,744.6**	**32.33**	**149.6**	**41.1**

Source: Data from *Population Reference Bureau 2001 Data Sheet*; *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2001; *Human Development Report*, United Nations, 2001; Microsoft Encarta (ethnic group, language, religion).

"***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.382-399a

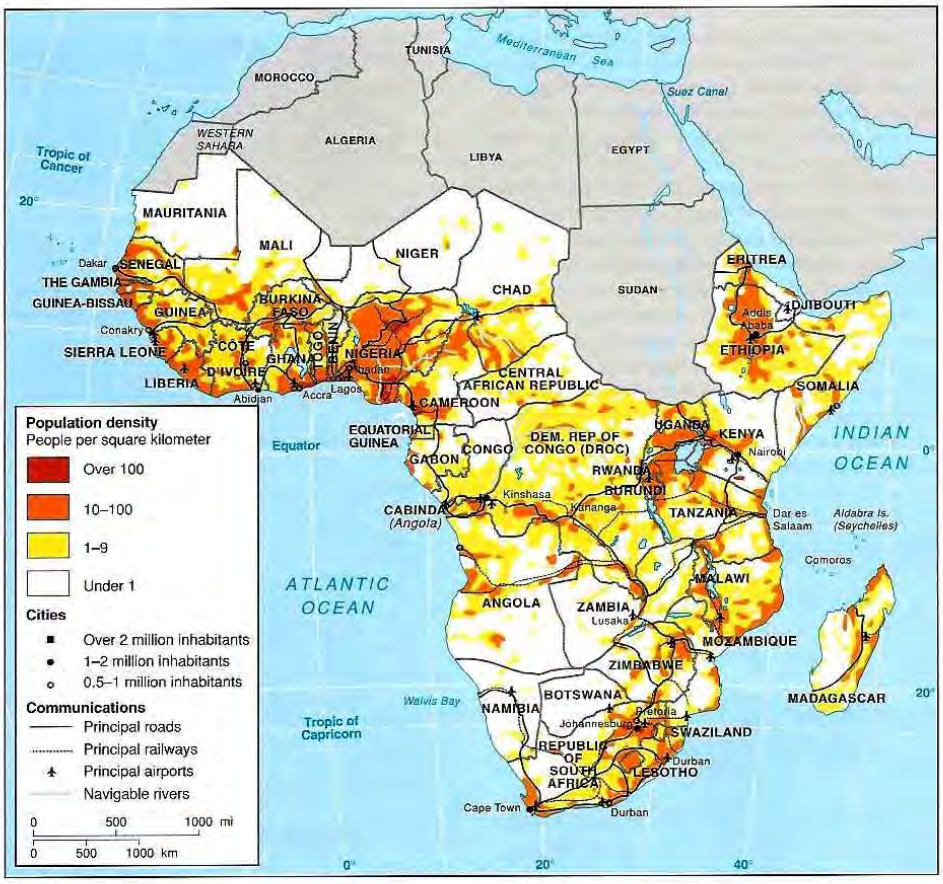

Figure 9.16 Africa South of the Sahara: population distribution. What is the relationship between the population densities and the natural environments (see Figures 9.8 and 9.10). Source: Data from *New Oxford School Atlas*, p. 98, Oxford University Press, U.K., 1990.

will almost double by 2025 to 33.5 per km^2 (85 per mi.^{2}). At present, the small countries of Burundi and Rwanda have some of the highest population densities among African countries. The Sahara of northern Chad, Mauritania, Mali, and Niger and the tropical forests of other countries have large areas with less than one person per km^2. Only coastal Cameroon, the mining areas of southern Democratic Republic of Congo (DROC), and the immediate vicinity of towns and cities have more than 10 people per km^2.

Western Africa is the most populous subregion and densities exceed 100 people per km^2 along most of the coast from Nigeria to Côte d'Ivoire. Between the coasts and interior desert, areas of moderate population, including the highest rural densities in interior Nigeria, have better transportation links and more commercial farming.

Most people in Eastern Africa—in areas with population densities of 10 and more per km^2—live in the better-watered upland areas of Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda, including the lands bordering Lake Victoria, as well as along the major routes linking inland areas of commercial activity to ports. Few inhabit the semiarid areas between the Ethiopian uplands and Indian Ocean coast.

In Southern Africa, the population is very sparse over a large area inland from the desert-bordered southwestern coasts. The main populated area is in South Africa between the mining and industrial area around Johannesburg and the southern coasts from Cape Town to Durban. Other well-populated areas are along the coast of Mozambique and the railroad lines to inland mining centers in Zimbabwe and Zambia.

In addition to the variations in population distribution, some of the subregional linkages are expressed in efforts to cooperate through trade. The regional trading groups (Figure 9.17) are attempts by countries to work with each other, often along subregional lines, and to compete with other world regional groupings of countries. Unlike the EU (see Chapter 3) or NAFTA (see Chapters 10 and 11), however, the African groups are

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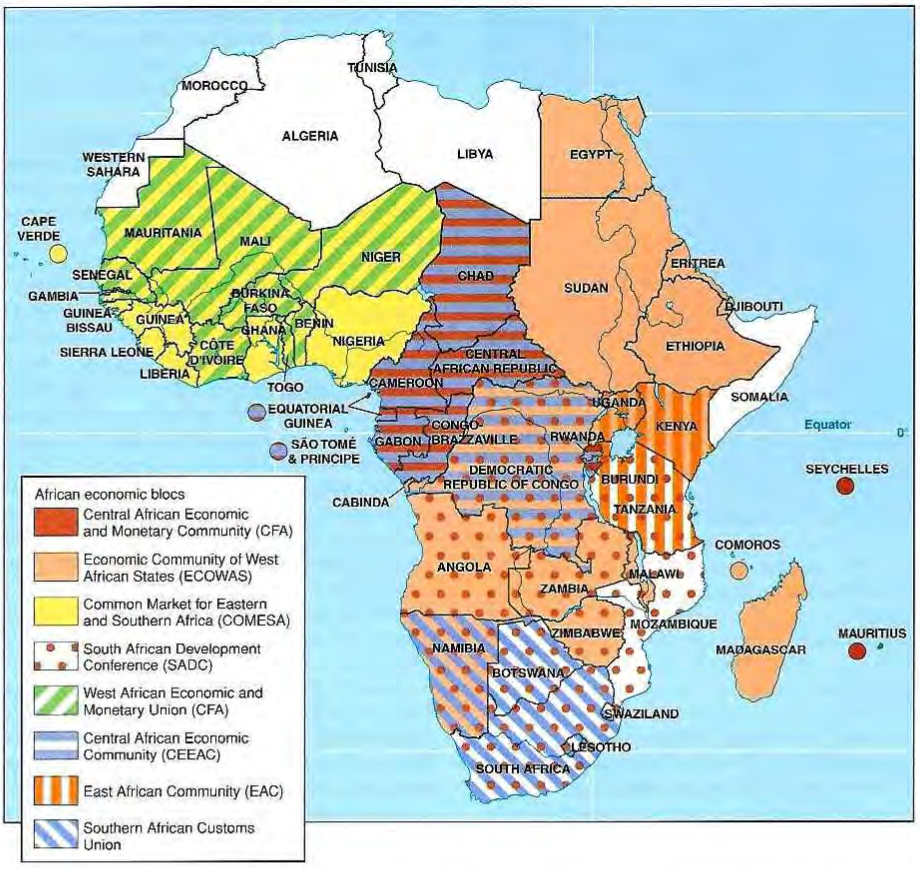

Figure 9.17 **Africa: economic blocs.** Many have little influence on world markets. There are also overlaps between regional groupings that cause problems: for example, the ECOWAS considers monetary union, but the former French colonies in the French franc (CFA) zone are expecting to change to euros. Source: © *The Economist Newspaper Group, Inc.* Reprinted by permission. Further reproduction prohibited. www.economist.com.

loosely organized and include complex overlaps. They may start up with enthusiasm but then remain dormant or achieve little for want of political support from members or credibility among the wealthier countries, or difficulties in administrating their activities.

Central Africa

Central Africa (Figure 9.18) is the least-developed subregion of the least-developed world region. Most countries in this subregion remain isolated from world trade networks. The natural environment, marked by equatorial rains, dense forest, and diseases, was sparsely populated before European intrusions and proved difficult for European colonial powers to develop. Belgium and France were the main colonizers, but they encouraged limited development except for selected extractive industries. Since independence, most governments struggled to cope with the legacy of problems, and widespread civil warfare in this subregion destroyed the prospects for raising economic output and improving people's livelihoods.

Only two small coastal countries, Gabon and Equatorial Guinea, with a combined population of under 2 million, escape the worst poverty (Figure 9.19), although the distribution of income from mineral exports is uneven. Cameroon and the Congo Republic also have coastal belts with some direct links to international markets. The Democratic Republic of Congo, Central African Republic, Chad, Burundi, and Rwanda all rely for transportation links to those markets on the Congo River waterway, which is interrupted by rapids from its mouth to its source. In the 1990s, when DROC disintegrated through civil wars, countries such as Chad, Central African Republic, Burundi, and Rwanda had to find other routes—through Cameroon to the west or Kenya to the east.

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Figure 9.18 **Central Africa: main features.** The map shows the countries included in the subregion, the major cities, and rivers.

Countries

After independence, the Central African countries mostly became dictatorships through the Cold War period, aligned to the Soviet Union or the United States, whatever the internal methods of governing. This provided some stability, but the autocracy was often harshly administered and rebel groups were encouraged by the opposition. In the early 1990s, political order broke down with the collapse of economies and the disruption of social order.

The combination of large populations, centrality in the Congo River basin, and many mineral resources might be expected to make the Democratic Republic of Congo a focal country in this subregion. It is almost twice as large as the next country in area, Chad, and with 54 million people (2001), had more than three times the population of Cameroon, the only other country with over 10 million people. However, instead of forming a central driving force for development in the subregion in the late 1990s and early 2000s, DROC was largely taken over by private armies and military from surrounding countries. Government of the whole territory is virtually impossible at present.

Soon after independence in 1960, the Democratic Republic of Congo army under Mobuto Sese Seko seized control from the Communist Patrice Lumumba. Supported by the United States, he remained in power, building up his family positions and private bank accounts abroad until a 1997 rebellion deposed him. Mobuto's robbery of the national wealth resulted in a description of his government as "kleptocratic." Laurent-Désiré Kabila led the 1997 rebellion from his base in eastern DROC, using exiled **Tutsi** and local related groups with the backing of Rwanda. The demoralized DROC armies offered little opposition, Mobutu went into exile, and Kabila became president.

Kabila could not control DROC from the capital, Kinshasa, and other countries became involved, widening the impact of the internal conflict. Zimbabwe and Namibia sent troops and equipment to support Kabila because of old Marxist ties. Uganda and Rwanda backed the eastern (Tutsi) groups to attack the Kabila regime, which used **Hutu** men as the basis of the Congolese army. Angolan troops entered from the west,

Figure 9.19 **Central Africa: data for countries.** The religious groups listed here are not always exclusive. For example, in Africa many devout Catholics also follow traditional religious practices.

Country	Capital City	Land Area (km^2) Total	Population (millions) Mid-2001 Total	2025 Est.	GNI 1999 (US $ million) Total	GNI PPP 1999 Per Capita	Percent Urban 2001	Human Development Index Rank of 175 Countries	Human Poverty Index: Percent of Total Population
Burundi, Republic of	Bujumbura	28,000	6.2	10.5	823	570	8	170	46.1
Cameroon, Republic of	Yaoundé	475,440	15.8	24.7	8,798	1,490	48	134	38.1
Central African Republic	Bangui	622,980	3.6	4.9	1,035	1,150	39	165	53.6
Chad, Republic of	N'Djamena	1,284,000	8.7	18.2	1,555	840	21	162	52.1
Congo, Republic of the	Brazzaville	342,000	3.1	6.3	1,571	540	41	135	32.3
Congo, Democratic Republic of	Kinshasa	2,344,860	53.6	106.0	No data	No data	29	140	No data
Equatorial Guinea, Republic of	Malabo	28,050	0.5	0.9	516	3,910	37	131	No data
Gabonese Republic	Libreville	267,670	1.2	1.4	3,987	5,280	73	124	No data
Rwanda, Republic of	Kigali	26,340	7.3	8.0	2,041	880	5	164	No data

Source: Data from *Population Reference Bureau 2001 Data Sheet*; *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2001; *Human Development Report*, United Nations, 2001; Microsoft Encarta (ethnic group, language, religion).

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outwardly to support Kabila but mainly cutting off the supply routes to Angolan rebels. Once there, all the countries extracted mineral wealth, from diamonds to gold and copper.

After Kabila was assassinated in 2001, Joseph Kabila, his son, replaced him, although he still did not have countrywide political support. Ethnic rivalries again erupted into local wars, such as the Lunda fighting the Luba in the south (Katanga) and attracting different external country support. By 2002, as many as 2 million Congolese people had been killed, together with many thousands of refugees, military, and aid workers from other countries.

Of the other Central African countries, the landlocked countries (Chad, Central African Republic, Burundi, Rwanda) are among the world's poorest countries. Vital roads, railways, and river facilities linking coastal ports to inland centers deteriorated as a result of conflict and lack of maintenance, restricting movements of goods and people.

Chad, Central African Republic, and Congo had 30 years of upheaval after their independence from France in 1960. Chad experienced wars between the Libyan-backed Muslim northerners and the southerners; Central African Republic had misrule and misspending by a flamboyant dictator, and although it opted for an elected civilian government with a new constitution in 1995, military rebellions from 1996 dislocated the economy; Congo had an authoritarian Marxist government from independence but also opted for more democratic status in the 1990s until civil war returned the former president in 1997. Gabon and Equatorial Guinea retain long-term autocratic government.

Attempts to establish groupings of cooperating countries in this subregion, such as the Central African Economic Community and the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (see Figure 9.17), made little progress because of the civil strife.

People

Ethnicity

The peoples of Central Africa are almost all of black African ethnic groups who hold to their long-term allegiances. The positive roles of extended family and kinship connections work together with normally harmonious interreligious group relations in societies subject to major stresses. Most people belong to groups pushed southward into the forests when Muslims took over the northern parts of the region. Small numbers of the pygmy groups displaced or ethnically cleansed by the incursions continue to decline in numbers and now make up less than 2 percent of the population.

The ethnic mosaic of Central Africa, as of all Africa South of the Sahara, sits uneasily with country borders determined by colonial powers in the late 1800s and confirmed at independence. Politics in these countries is increasingly about ethnic rivalries. Each ethnic group recognizes a territory, but a country may have from tens to hundreds of such groups. The borders cut some of the territories in half (see Figure 9.3a), and there are many cross-border links. For example, the Fang people dominate Equatorial Guinea, a small country, but Fang people also live in neighboring Cameroon and Gabon. In Gabon, a pact among smaller groups keeps the Fang—the largest group—out of government. Some of the worst ethnic warfare occurred in Rwanda and Burundi in the 1990s (see the "Personal View: Rwanda" box, p. 386).

The proportion of Muslim population declines southward in the subregion (Figure 9.20). Countries with more balanced influences of traditional, Muslim, and Christian groups in this region often saw them working together and levels of syncretism in which religions borrowed from each other. Traditional practices are often adopted or allowed by Muslim and Roman Catholic groups.

Country	Ethnic Groups (percent)	Languages O=Official	Religions (percent)
Burundi, Republic of	Hutu 85%, Tutsi 14%	Kirundi (O), French (O)	Christian 67%, local 32%, Muslim 1%
Cameroon, Republic of	200 groups; Fang, Bamileke, Fulani	English (O), French (O), 24 African	Christian 53%, local 25%, Muslim 22%
Central African Republic	Baya 34%, Banada 27%, Mandjia 21%	French (O), Sango (N)	Christian 50%, local 24%, Muslim 15%
Chad, Republic of	Muslim groups in N, non-Muslim in S	French (O), Arabic (O), Sara in S	Christian 25%, local 25%, Muslim 50%
Congo, Republic of the	Kongo 48%, Sangha 20%, Teke 17%	French (O), Kikongo, Lingala, Teke	Christian 50%, local 48%, Muslim 2%
Congo, Democratic Republic of	Over 200 African groups; Mongo, Luba, Kongo	French (O), Lingala (N), others	Christian 70%, local 20%, Muslim 10%
Equatorial Guinea, Republic of	Fang 80%, Bubi 20%	Spanish (O), Fang	Officially Roman Catholic; local practices
Gabonese Republic	Fang 30%, Eshira 20%, M'bele 15%, Kota 13%	French (O), Fang, others	Christian 70%, local 10%, Muslim 20%
Rwanda, Republic of	Hutu 90%, Tutsi 9%	Kinyarwanda (O), French (O), Kishwahili	Christian 74%, local 25%, Muslim 1%

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Personal View

RWANDA

Rwanda is one of the smallest and poorest countries in Africa, but it has often been in the world news over the last 30 years because of civil wars and horrific tales of hatred expressed in violence. Ntwari is a Rwandan who grew up in the country during this period. His experience of living in Rwanda reflects some of the events that affected people's lives and changed the human geography of the country in the later 1900s.

Rwanda is a hilly-to-mountainous country close to the equator (known as "the land of a thousand hills"), but it is landlocked and surrounded by other countries—Congo, Uganda, Tanzania, and Burundi (see Box Figure 1). The highest volcanic peak, Karisimbi (4,507 m, 14,787 ft.), is on the edge of the rift valley that contains Lake Kivu, and most of the country is over 1,220 m (4,000 ft.). This elevation modifies the equatorial climate, bringing temperatures down to just over 20°C (70°F) and resulting in a distinctive type of tropical rain forest vegetation.

Ntwari grew up in southern Rwanda, one of nine children on a typical family plot of land with the house surrounded by banana trees and segments of the land devoted to crops such as corn, beans, potatoes, tropical root crops, a little pasture for a few head of livestock, and land for growing the cash crop, coffee or cotton. From time to time, cousins might come and stay for a year or so, but any grandparents still alive maintained their own plots. Some friends lost their parents in the civil war, but the children continued to live on the family plot, with teenagers raising their younger brothers and sisters.

With a rapidly growing population, the family plots typical of Rwanda cut into almost all the preexisting forest. Even the Akagera National Park on the eastern border was largely taken over by farmed plots of land. Although the plots can provide both subsistence and cash-crop income, many on steeper slopes suffered soil erosion, reducing the harvest as soils lost their nutrients or flooding destroyed crops. Low world market prices for coffee reduced incomes and made families indebted. Rwanda became dependent on international aid to supply food and to fund rural development programs fighting soil erosion. Although the fertility rate remains high, total population growth slowed in the 1990s because of the civil war, a high incidence of HIV/AIDS, and the continuing impact of poor nutrition and tropical diseases such as malaria.

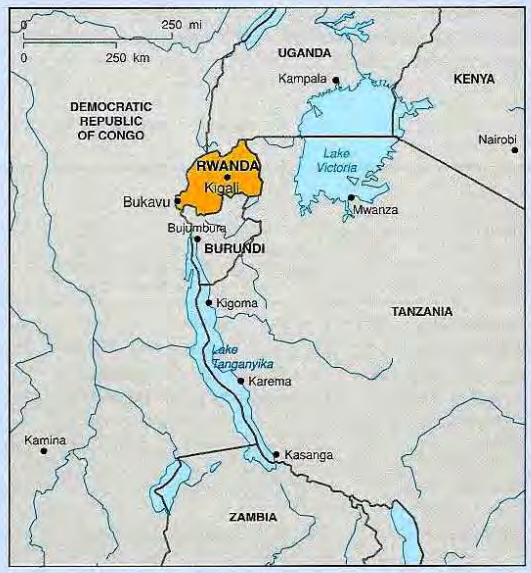
Ntwari went to the local first-level school up to age 15. There was no public transport, and so he walked the 5 km (3 mi.) to and from school each day with his friends. He was one of three from his class of 45 to go on to the second-level school up to age 21. Again, one of a small proportion who progressed further in their education, he then studied for a bachelor's degree in sociology and anthropology at the National University in Butare. Jobs were available for his fellow students in government and aid agencies, and for Ntwari in teaching. There was even a shortage of educated local personnel, requiring expatriates to be brought in.

Following a struggle for independence that involved a civil war and increasing tensions between Hutu and Tutsi peoples, Rwanda gained its independence from Belgium in 1959. Many of the former ruling Tutsi groups, including the king, went into exile in Europe and America. At first, people from the south, the Nduga, controlled the country's government through their political party, the Democratic Republican Movement. A mixture of Hutu and Tutsi peoples living together, they provided most university students and so gained most government jobs. In 1973, a military coup d'état was led by northerners, the Rukiga, mainly of Hutu peoples, who governed for 20 years through their political party, the Republican Movement for National Development. During this period, the president took control of the military and trained a militia force of northerners. At the same time, southerners, backed by the exiled Tutsis who had formed the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), trained their own militias. While the northerners were in government, the mixture of southern peoples were increasingly labeled as "Tutsis," "friends of Tutsis," or simply "enemies of the state."

Changes in the 1980s and 1990s resulted in the greater social and political polarization of groups of people within Rwanda. Rural conditions still predominate over most of the country, with traditional ways of life continuing and a social life based around neighborhood parties. As Kigali, the capital, expanded its role after independence, the increasing numbers of educated young people in government jobs there established new social groups based on professional and business interests or on college links. Increasingly, too, social gatherings brought together peoples in groups from either the north or south of the country. This division reflected increasing political rivalries.

In 1990, matters came to a head as the RPF invaded Rwanda through Uganda in the north. They advanced southward, pushing back the Rwandan forces into the southern part of the country. This led to a massacre of southerners, who were suspected of working closely with the RPF. Ntwari, working for a church helping increasing numbers of fleeing refugees in Gitarama, was beaten up because he had taught in a school with a Tutsi head teacher (who was murdered) and had a Tutsi wife (many of whose family were killed).

Peace-keeping efforts prevailed to bring this part of the conflict to an end, but strife erupted again in 1994, when hopes for a democratic government were destroyed by the assassination of the newly elected Rwandan president. The country once more descended into civil war. Ntwari and his wife moved westward to a town near the Congo border, where they stayed for a month. Then the former (northerner-based) official Rwandan army and militias disintegrated



Box Figure 1 **Rwanda.** This tiny country is located where Central and Eastern Africa meet, but has a mighty impact on its neighbors.

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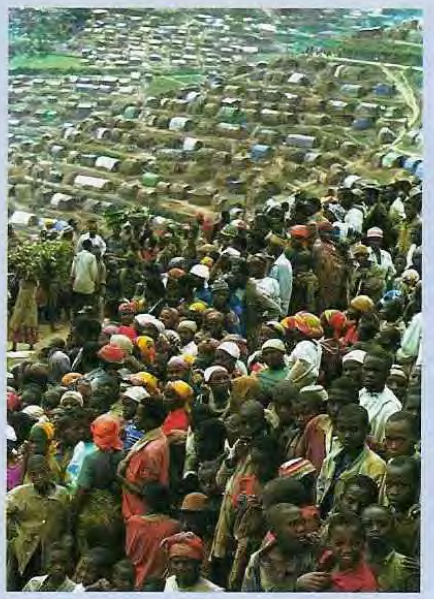

(a)

(b)

Box Figure 2 Displaced Rwandans following the 1994 Civil War. (a) Mucaca Camp, 90 km (55 mi.) north of Kigali, the Rwandan capital, in 1998, showing newly built huts and some of the 45,000 people living there. People here included refugees returning from surrounding countries and those who came from Rwandan villages. The United Nations estimates there are currently over 600,000 displaced persons in Rwanda. (b) November, 1996. Rwandan refugees cross the border bridge from Dem. Rep. of Congo back into Rwanda after leaving their country during the 1994 civil war. Many were forced back as Tutsi militias attacked Hutu camps in DROC. The column of people was 40 km (25 mi.) long and included over half a million people. Photos: © AP/WideWorld Photos.

under the RPF attacks and fled into Congo. Ntwari and his wife moved with them and entered a refugee camp at Bukavu. Almost all the people in the camp were Hutus who hated Tutsis. When Ntwari's wife was threatened with death, she fled and was cared for in hiding by a local family.

Many Tutsis were killed at this time. The remainder fled into the hills or into Tanzania. The intervention of the largely French "Operation Turquoise," backed by the United Nations, saved many Tutsis from the slaughter. They were brought together in camps within Rwanda.

Ntwari decided that there was no immediate future in Rwanda or a refugee camp outside the country. Although most of the nonmilitia Hutus from the camp returned to Rwanda (Box Figure 2), he found his way via a boat across Lake Tanganyika into Tanzania and then took a train and bus to Nairobi, Kenya. Having found that he could gain admission to Kenya through this route, he returned to bring out his wife. They persuaded the United Nations Refugee Commission that they would be in danger if they returned to Rwanda and were airlifted from Bukavu camp to Nairobi. Once there, they looked for an opportunity for Ntwari to pursue his studies in another part of the world.

The Hutu-Tutsi ethnic differences are blamed for the civil conflict, but it is clearly not just a tribal war. Colonial and postindependence events heightened previous rivalries. Before the colonization of this area by Europeans, the Tutsi tribe had the status of nobility, but people from other tribes could be transferred into the "Tutsi" group following marriage or effective military service, for example. The leadership group became broadly based in tribal terms and was identified as *imfura*—civilized people able to take leadership and speak in public.

The European influence was partly political, with a short-lived German occupation (1897–1918) and a longer Belgian protectorate (1918–1959), and partly religious. The Roman Catholic Church and Protestant missionaries had major influences, probably the greatest in any African country. In 1900, the white-robed and white-faced European Roman Catholic priests ("white fathers") entered the country. In 1943, the Rwandan king was baptized and declared his lands to be a Christian country. New social status was gained by those who became like Europeans in income or education: *umunzunga* indicates a person who is both educated and wealthy; *umusilimu* is one who is educated and not wealthy but still dresses like white people (e.g., a school teacher).

The various strands of social and cultural development led to friction between the better-educated and ethnically more varied southerners and those in the north who felt underprivileged. The military coup in 1973 and the civil war in the 1990s arose from such frictions and destroyed the fledgling economy of this small, poor country.

Ironically, despite attempts to throw off foreign influences, the country remains even more dependent on outsiders and particularly on the European countries and aid agencies that bring funding and expertise for water projects, house building, road and bridge construction, and forestry and advice for farmers. The Roman Catholic Church still runs most of the hospitals and clinics, although other churches are also involved. Any use of modern technology, from computers to telecommunications, occurs in the offices of United Nations and European agencies. All these organizations and projects are designed to work in partnership with local Rwandans and provide jobs for many of those educated to college level. But the civil war destroyed or set back many projects that had begun to improve people's lives.

Rwandans identify a need for improved education as a basis for overcoming the problems they face. This is in the widest sense. There is a need for people to understand the origins of frictions among groups of people. Who arrived first in the country—the Twa (pygmies), Hutu, or Tutsi? What were the grounds of claimed superiority? What did each group contribute? How can tolerance be reestablished? What does *democracy* mean and how can it be restored? What is the nature of development, and how can Rwandans take advantage of offered aid? What are the advantages of family planning in a country where population growth exceeds growth in economic provision? What is the truth about HIV/AIDS in a country with a high incidence and growing mortality rate? Unless the Rwandan people can come to terms with such issues openly, knowledgeably, and democratically, the future of the country will remain bleak.

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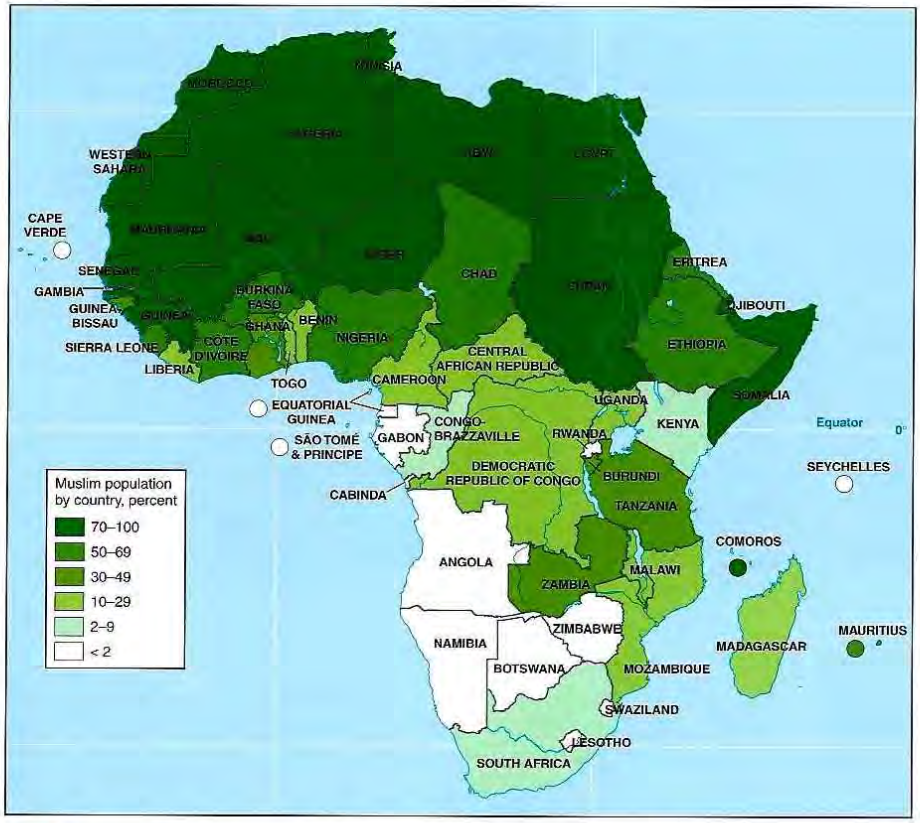

Figure 9.20 **Africa South of the Sahara: proportion of Muslims in population.** The remainder are Christian or of local traditional faiths. Countries in Western Africa are often Muslim in the north and Christian/traditional in the south. Source: © *The Economist Newspaper Group, Inc.* Reprinted by permission. Further reproduction prohibited. www.economist.com.

Urban and Rural Distribution

Most people live in rural areas: over 90 percent in Burundi and Rwanda and 60 to 80 percent in Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, DROC, and Equatorial Guinea. The high proportion of rural living is linked to the dominance of subsistence farming in the economy and the lack of urban employment apart from service industries and government jobs. Urban populations are growing, however, as people migrate into towns for perceived safety in a time of civil war, making official figures of urbanization lower than the fact. The informal economy becomes the only urban means of livelihood for these people who are cut off from their home food production.

The largest towns are often country capital cities, but none can claim the status of a connected global city. Kinshasa (DROC, 5 million in 2000) is the largest but has lost its former role as a trading center for much of the subregion because of the country's political chaos. Other capitals include Yaoundé (Cameroon, 1.4 million), N'Djamena (Chad, 1 million), and Brazzaville (Congo, 1.2 million). Libreville (Gabon) was established for freed slaves from the Americas in the early 1800s. Douala (Cameroon, 1.7 million), Pointe Noire (Congo), and Matadi (DROC) are ports, while Lubumbashi (DROC, 1 million) is an inland mining town.

Brazzaville (Congo) and Kinshasa (DROC), on opposite banks of the Congo River, illustrate different forms of urbanization and their causes. Brazzaville became the chief city of French Equatorial Africa, where French diplomats and educated African elites built large houses on quiet avenues. Its population grew after 1960 independence, from around 100,000 to over 1 million today. Kinshasa reflects grandiose Belgian purposes—continued in the Mobutu era—with its wide boulevards and postindependence construction of prestigious tall office blocks. It grew from around 100,000 people at independence to over 5 million people, with huge sprawling shantytowns.

Population Dynamics

Despite the deaths from warfare, ethnic cleansing, and HIV/AIDS, and the disruption of so many lives, the popula-

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tions of Central African countries increase rapidly. From 54 million people in 1980, the total rose to 100 million in 2001 and will likely almost double again by 2025. Such population increases place massive pressures on available resources.

The high rates of population increase, between 2.5 and 3.0 percent per year, result from continuing high fertility rates at a time of falling death rates (see Figure 9.7). The age-sex diagram for Cameroon (Figure 9.21) shows how the new births and young age groups dominate the populations. Throughout Central Africa, fertility remains high and life expectancies are low, between 40 and 55 years. Although up from 35 to 42 years in 1960, they are down from the early 1990s. Flows of refugees within DROC and from Rwanda and Burundi into DROC must affect these figures, but no statistics are available. Refugees often get sucked into military activities, including guerrilla groups, adding to disruption in countries without means of resettlement apart from special camps.

Economic Development

Although many countries have mineral deposits and tropical timber resources in demand by wealthier countries, the combination of physical isolation, repressive colonial history, continuing civil strife, and lack of foreign investment hinders the economic development of Central Africa. The Central African countries now produce a smaller proportion of total African output than they did in the mid-1960s. Only a tiny group of people in these countries can afford consumer goods, as shown by the Congo (DROC) figure (see Figure 9.14).

In real terms, incomes in almost all the countries except the oil-producing Equatorial Guinea and Gabon fell since 1980. Despite improvements in education and health since the 1960s, levels of all measures of life in Central African countries hardly rose. Human poverty indices are all over 30 percent, with those of the Central African Republic and Chad over 50 percent. Several countries depend almost totally on external aid, since their own products earn little income from world markets and do not supply internal needs.

In the absence of the wealth common in Western countries, many Africans create ways of living that enable them to survive and even enjoy life. Items that might be regarded as waste become children's toys; bicycles or walking are common modes of travel, while cheap rides on crowded vans and buses enable wider circulation; and loads from water to many goods and possessions are often carried on people's (especially women's) heads.

Dominant Agriculture

Agriculture remains the main economic occupation of over 70 percent of the populations of these countries. Most farming is for subsistence, using traditional methods to grow tropical root crops, cereals, fruits, and vegetables. Some people continue practices of gathering forest products or of shifting agriculture (Figure 9.22). Only a small part of the surface is cultivated (Figure 9.23) because of a combination of soils that are difficult to work with, plant and animal diseases, and poor transportation facilities. For example, although much of DROC has potential for cultivation, only 3 percent is used. Cattle farming in Central Africa is severely restricted by diseases, particularly those borne by the tsetse fly. Modern veterinary treatments for animals are expensive and seldom used.

Commercial farming for export crops is poorly developed in Central Africa apart from tropical tree crops such as cacao (for chocolate), coffee, and rubber that are grown on plantations. Plantation agriculture was introduced by colonial powers to produce tropical foods and raw materials cheaply for European markets. Tree-based plantation crops replicate the form of the natural equatorial forest vegetation but not its variety of species and may fall victim to disease. However, they have the advantage that they reduce the soil fertility over 30 to 40 years instead of the 5 to 10 years under field crops. Farmers in the drier northern regions of Chad and the Central African Republic produce cotton for export, but poor transportation

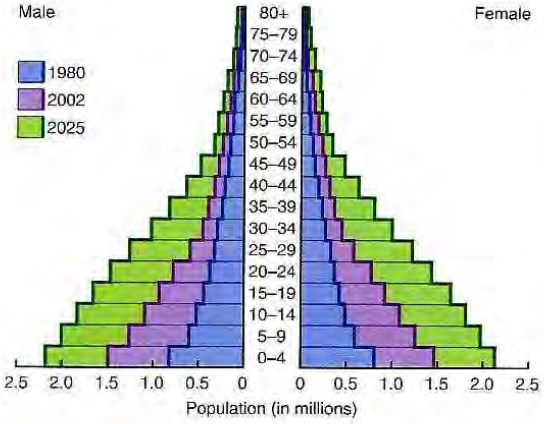

Figure 9.21 **Cameroon: age-sex diagram.**
Source: U.S. Census Bureau. International Data Bank.

Figure 9.22 **Central Africa: traditional farming in tropical rain forest.** Some 85 km (55 mi.) south of Kinshasa (DROC), the rain forest is being cleared by crude "slash and burn" methods. Some of the smaller wood is taken home for fuel. Crops will be grown for a few years until the soil nutrients are exhausted, then the land will be left to return to forest, often in a degraded form. Photo: © James P. Blair/National Geographic Image Collection.

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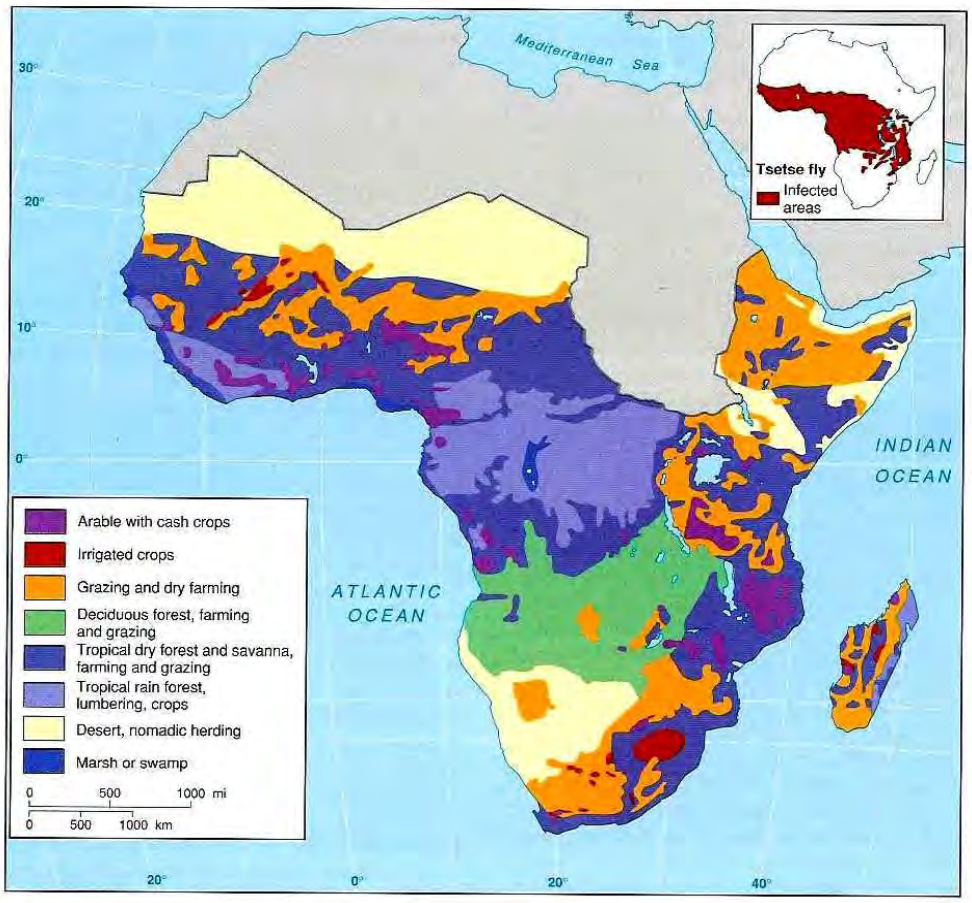

Figure 9.23 **Africa South of the Sahara: land use.** Note the distribution of intensive, commercial uses and of unusable land or low-intensity uses. The insert shows the area affected by tsetse flies, an area where cattle rearing is difficult. Source: Data from *New Oxford School Atlas*, p. 98, Oxford University Press, U.K., 1990.

from these landlocked countries makes competing in world markets difficult.

Most commercial farming was established in the European colonial era, and its continuation is often under threat. Although some countries maintained and extended such production after independence, DROC nationalization in the 1970s resulted in a decline of commercial farming within its borders. Even where plantation culture continues, growing a single commercial crop (monoculture) may bring in a good income at a time of high world market prices, but farmers suffer when low prices combine with lower yields because of declining soil quality.

Despite the dominance of farming occupations, most Central African countries find it difficult to feed their populations. Government policies maintained low prices for food in urban areas but lowered farmer incomes. The food imports made necessary by the consequent fall in local produce add to overseas debts.

Forestry, Fishing, and Mining

Timber products from the tropical rain forest, including mahogany and ebony wood, are of increasing importance to the exports of Cameroon and Congo, while Gabon produces a softwood that is used in plywood. Deep-sea fishing increases in the coastal countries such as Cameroon and Equatorial Guinea. Chad obtains fish from its lake.

Mining brings in most foreign exchange to the countries of Central Africa. It could bring more if transport infrastructure were available or world markets paid higher prices to justify investments. Before the civil disorder, southern DROC was one of the world's major copper-mining regions, and the country mined diamonds and cobalt and produced some oil. Gabon's relatively high per capita income comes from its oil and manganese production, while oil makes up 90 percent of Congo's export revenues. Cameroon, Chad, and Equatorial Guinea also have oil deposits awaiting investment before

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exploitation. Gabon possesses the world's largest unexploited iron ore deposit.

Emerging Manufacturing

Manufacturing industries are little developed in Central African countries. Internal markets are tiny because the countries (apart from DROC) have small total populations and few people who are wealthy enough to purchase consumer products. Most factories are small and engaged in part-processing of local mine, forest, and farm products or in making bulky products that do not stand transport (e.g., cement, bottled drinks). Cotton textiles are made in Chad from the local crop.

The relative size of economies in this subregion is reflected by the fact that, of the Central African countries, only Gabon generates more than 250 kilowatt hours (kWh) of electricity per capita each year, compared to 12,000 kWh in the United States; Burundi, the Central African Republic, and Chad generate less than 30 kWh per capita. The huge water resources of the Congo River basin, estimated to contain one-sixth of the world's potential hydroelectricity, could be a source of power for manufacturing and other forms of economic development. The Inga Dam downstream from Kinshasa harnesses some of the Congo River power, but the electricity from Inga is carried overland southward to the mines in southern DROC without intermediate allocations of electricity to local uses.

Transportation Is Vital

Prospects for economic development rest on improving internal transportation links, but so far, Gabon is the only country to invest some of its oil revenues in constructing all-weather roads and a railway into the interior. Elsewhere, the extensive navigable waterways of the Congo River system are the main means of inland transport, but the railways on either bank linking Kinshasa and Brazzaville with ocean ports are narrow gauge, limited in capacity, and unconnected to each other. The road from Kinshasa to the port of Matadi below the rapids, on which trucks once took five hours to cover the 350 km (220 mi.), was in such poor repair by the mid-1990s that trucks needed up to five days for the trip.

French Links

One of the major external economic factors affecting many countries of Central Africa and Western Africa is their history as French colonies and continuing financial links with France (Figure 9.24). Instituted in 1948, the **Communauté Financière Africaine** (CFA) franc shared by 14 African countries, including Chad, the Central African Republic, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, and Cameroon, continued after independence. Its value was tied to the French franc and guaranteed by the Bank of France. This link held currencies at artificially high exchange rates but allowed French companies to retain dominant positions in local contracting. The high exchange rates, however, made it difficult for French-speaking African countries to export goods, used up their foreign exchange reserves on imports, and made them increasingly dependent on France. In January 1994, the French government, in line with other economic moves encouraged by the World Bank and IMF,

Figure 9.24 **French franc (CFA) area of Africa.** These countries, formerly French colonies, were supported by French loans and their currency was linked to the French franc. The French government devalued the CFA franc by 50 percent in 1994, causing major changes in economic policies in the countries. The 2002 French adoption of the euro currency resulted in some confusion among CFA countries over their regional or European links.

devalued the CFA franc by 50 percent. Initially, this brought hardship to people in the countries that depended on France, especially by raising the cost of imports. For its part, France wrote off the debts of the poorer countries, and the World Bank made increased grants available.

By 2002, most CFA countries saw some benefits in lower inflation and better foreign currency reserves, although economic growth was not as high as in other African countries. The introduction of the euro currency in the European Union resulted in confusion over the future of the CFA franc and the moves of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) toward monetary union in Western Africa (see Figure 9.17).

Western Africa

The external orientation and environmental setting of Western Africa contrast with those of Central Africa. Its long coastline makes Western Africa (Figure 9.25) physically more open to the world than Central Africa and was the first part of Africa to receive European maritime contacts. From the equatorial all-year rains of the south-facing coasts to the margins of the Sahara in the north, the natural vegetation reflects the increasing aridity northward. A belt of tropical rain forest along the south-facing coasts merges northward through savanna grasslands, where seasonal rains support frequent trees, to dry savanna with little rain and semidesert (see Figure 9.11b). Human groups responded differently to these

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natural zones, with the African empires based in the moister parts of the savanna grasslands.

This subregion experienced more indigenous historic development than other parts of Africa South of the Sahara. It became the center of wealthy, mainly Muslim, kingdoms along the southern margin of the Sahara (Ghana, A.D. 700–1240; Mali, 1050–1500; Songhai, 1350–1600). The trans-Sahara trade exchanged gold, ivory, and slaves from Western Africa for armaments, books, and textiles from Southwest Asia and Europe.

When Europeans began trading along the coasts of Western Africa in the 1400s, they were also at first interested in the local gold and ivory. The exploration of the Americas and the devel-

Figure 9.25 **Western Africa: main features.** The map shows the countries included in the subregion, the major cities, and rivers.

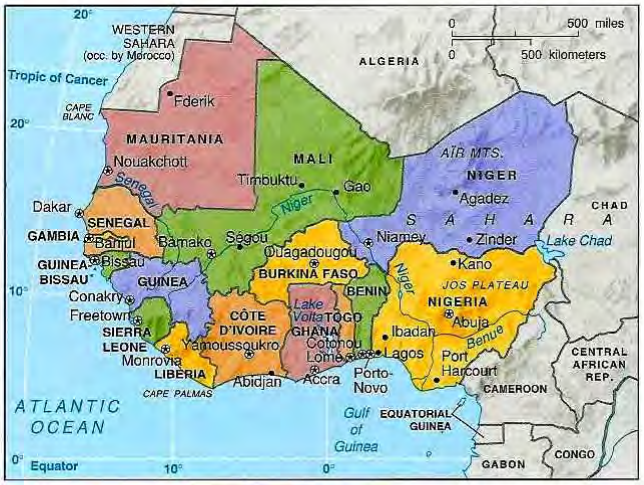

Figure 9.26 **Western Africa: country data.**

Country	Capital City	Land Area (km^2) Total	Population (millions) Mid-2001 Total	2025 Est.	GNI 1999 (US $ million) Total	GNI PPP 1999 Per Capita	Percent Urban 2001	Human Development Index Rank of 175 Countries	Human Poverty Index: Percent of Total Population
Benin, Republic of	Porto-Novo, Cotonou	112,620	6.6	11.7	2,320	920	39	155	50.9
Burkina Faso, People's Dem Rep of	Ouagadougou	274,000	12.3	21.6	2,602	960	15	171	59.3
Côte D'Ivoire, Republic of	Abidjan	322,460	16.4	25.6	10,387	1,540	46	154	46.8
Gambia, Republic of The	Banjul	11,300	1.4	2.7	415	1,550	37	163	49.9
Ghana, Republic of	Accra	238,540	19.9	26.5	7,451	1,850	37	133	36.2
Guinea, Republic of	Conakry	245,860	7.6	12.6	3,556	1,870	26	161	50.5
Guinea-Bassau, Republic of	Bisau	36,120	1.2	2.2	194	630	22	168	51.8
Liberia, Republic of	Monrovia	97,750	3.2	6.0	No data	No data	45	No data	No data
Mali, Republic of	Bamako	1,240,190	11.0	21.6	2,577	740	26	166	52.8
Mauritania, Islamic Republic of	Ouackchott	1,025,520	2.7	5.4	1,001	1,550	54	149	47.5
Niger, Republic of	Niamey	1,267,000	10.4	18.8	1,974	740	17	173	65.5
Nigeria, Federal Republic of	Lagos	923,770	126.6	204.5	31,600	770	36	146	38.2
Senegal, Republic of	Dakar	196,720	9.7	16.5	4,685	1,400	43	153	49.6
Sierra Leone, Republic of	Freetown	71,740	5.4	9.9	653	440	37	174	57.7
Togo, Republic of	Lomé	56,790	5.2	7.6	1,398	1,380	31	143	38.4

Source: Data from *Population Reference Bureau 2001 Data Sheet*; *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2001; *Human Development Report*, United Nations, 2001; Microsoft Encarta (ethnic group, language, religion).

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opment there of sugar, tobacco, and cotton plantations led to demands for labor that could not be filled locally or by indentured Europeans. From the 1600s to the early 1800s, the trans-Atlantic slave trade dominated the exploitation of Western Africa. It enriched European shipowners and merchants, who financed the growth of ports in Europe to dominate world trade. It influenced the underdevelopment of Western Africa by taking around 10 million people away and focusing on the extraction of high-value minerals, ivory, and slaves. Local payments for slaves enabled the internal African slave-trading aristocracies to buy guns and luxuries from Europe, dominate their African neighbors, and discourage European incursions. When the Atlantic slave trade ended after 1808, some slaves were repatriated from the United States to Liberia and from British colonies in the West Indies to Freetown (in modern Sierra Leone).

From a phase of trading at the margins of Africa, internal interventions increased. During the later 1800s and early 1900s, French and British companies established plantations to produce cocoa and palm oil in the coastal forests, while mining companies explored the interior. Roads and railroads connected interior mines with ports to facilitate exports.

In 1884, the Berlin Congress allocated African lands to the European colonial powers. Occupying and controlling the new colonies in Western Africa, however, was often difficult and met strong resistance into the 1900s. Colonies became inland extensions of coastal bases, and boundaries between the colonial territories divided tribes and African territories. For example, the Kanem-Bornu sultanate, founded around A.D. 1100, was divided among Nigeria, Cameroon, and Niger/Chad. Tensions also continued among the colonizers, and after World War I, Germany lost its colonies (Togo and Cameroon) to the British and French.

Countries

The 15 countries of Western Africa range from Nigeria, with Africa's largest population (127 million in 2001), to Guinea-Bissau and The Gambia, which had just over 1 million people each. Besides Nigeria, only Ghana (19.9 million), Côte d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Mali, and Niger had over 10 million people (Figure 9.26).

The largest country, Nigeria, ranges across all three natural climate/vegetation zones, and others with a southern coast—Benin, Togo, Ghana, Côte d'Ivoire—also have a strip of rain forest backed by moist savanna. The west-facing coastal countries—Liberia, Sierra Leone, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Senegal, The Gambia, and Mauritania—become drier northward. The large land-locked countries of Mali, Burkina Faso, and Niger have only dry savanna and semidesert zones. Attempts to bring together the countries of Western Africa for their mutual economic benefit centered in the Economic Community of Western African States (ECOWAS) and the West African Economic and Monetary Union, but these links grew slowly and intermittently.

Fourteen countries achieved independence around 1960, with Guinea-Bissau becoming independent of Portugal in 1974. Although many countries are small in area with small

Country	Ethnic Groups (percent)	Languages O=Official	Religions (percent)
Benin, Republic of	42 African groups: Fon, Adju, Yoruba	French (O), Fon, Yoruba	Christian 15%, local 70%, Muslim 15%
Burkina Faso, People's Dem Rep of	Mossi 25%, Gurumsi, Senufo	French (O), Sudanic tribal languages	Christian 10%, local 40%, Muslim 50%
Côte D'Ivoire, Republic of	60 African groups, inc. foreign: Akan, Kru, Mande	French (O), Akan, Dioula	Christian 12%, local 65%, Muslim 23%
Gambia, Republic of The	Mandinke 42%, Fulani, Woluf	English (O), Mandinke, Woluf, Fula	Christian 9%, Muslim 90%
Ghana, Republic of	Fanti, Ashanti, Gadangbe, Ewe	English (O), various African	Christian 24%, local 38%, Muslim 30%
Guinea, Republic of	Fulani 35%, Malinde 30%, Sousson 20%	French (O), African languages	Christian 8%, local 7%, Muslim 85%
Guinea-Bassau, Republic of	Balanta 27%, Fula 23%, many others	Portuguese (O), Kriolu, French, local	Christian 5%, local 65%, Muslim
Liberia, Republic of	African groups 95%, U.S. Liberians 5%	English (O), local Niger-Congo groups	Christian 10%, local 70%, Muslim 20%
Mali, Republic of	Mande 50%, Peul, Voltaic, Tuareg/Moor, Songhai	French (O), Bambara, others	Local 9%, Muslim 90%
Mauritania, Islamic Republic of	Maure (Arab-Berber) 80%, Fulani, Wolof	Arabic (O), Wolof, French	Muslim 100%
Niger, Republic of	Hausa 56%, Djena 22%	French (O), 10 other official	Christian/local 20%, Muslim 80%
Nigeria, Federal Republic of	Hausa 65%, Fulani, Yoruba, Ibo	English (O), Hausa, others	Christian 40%, local 10%, Muslim 50%
Senegal, Republic of	Wolof 36%, Fulani 17%, Serer 17%	French (O), Wolof, Serer, others	Christian 2%, local 6%, Muslim 92%
Sierra Leone, Republic of	Mended, Temeden, Krioles, others	English (O), Krio, others	Christian 10%, local 30%, Muslim 60%
Togo, Republic of	37 African groups: Ewe, Kabre	French (O), Ewe, Kabre, others	Christian 35%, local 50%, Muslim 15%

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populations, attempts to join Senegal and Mali, and later Senegal and The Gambia, collapsed as politicians failed to work together across the established borders. Except for Côte d'Ivoire, all countries until the early 1990s had long periods of control by dictators of military or socialist background. After that, most countries moved to multiparty democratic constitutions. These worked most successfully in Ghana, Mali, Senegal, and The Gambia. In Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, Niger, and Togo, the military retained real control, the move to democracy ended after military coups, or the elections were contested as having been unfairly conducted by the majority party. Even in Côte d'Ivoire, with its long history of democracy, internal north-south ethnic and immigrant worker quarrels damaged its stable, tolerant, and prosperous image by a military coup in 1999, continued ethnic and antiforeign violence in 2000, and reports of child slavery on cocoa and coffee farms in 2001.

In the 1990s, civil war in Liberia, Sierra Leone, and Guinea-Bissau disrupted their economies and social systems and threatened to spread into Guinea. In Liberia, the differences between local people and the slaves resettled from the United States in the 1800s were reflected in military rank. Officers came from the minority group descended from returning slaves and nonofficers from the majority indigenous groups. Sergeant Samuel Doe of the indigenous group led a coup in 1980 and became the new president. Further coups occurred into the 1990s. In 2000, President Charles Taylor supplied arms to Sierra Leone rebel groups in exchange for diamonds that he banked. The civil strife in Sierra Leone continued and spread into Guinea, where the resettling of refugees sparked external attacks and encouraged local dissidents. The combination of traditional intergroup rivalries, colonial favoritism, Cold War antagonisms, and personal ambitions lies behind current conflicts in Nigeria, Liberia, and Sierra Leone.

The largest and most populous country in the region exemplifies many of the problems facing the countries of Western Africa. Nigeria experienced so much bad government in the 1980s and 1990s that it moved from an oil-rich, middle-income country to become one of the world's poorest. A lot of the problems began in the continuing north-south ethnic and religious conflict. The northern Muslim Hausa and Fulani people took control of the military and much of the rest of the country, with the southern Yoruba being outvoted and the Igbos being widely disregarded after losing the 1960s civil war in which they had tried to assert their independence. While the 1966–1979 military rule brought life to the economy and united peoples with very different interests inside the country, the military rule from 1984 to 1999 was a disaster. It deepened cultural divisions by favoring the north and mismanaged the economy through neglect and corruption. In 1998, it was estimated that three-fourths of official GDP was generated by the informal economy. Some US $12.4 billion of government funds was paid out without proper accounting, while the military dictator in the mid-1990s stole $3 billion. Northern Muslims dominated the military governments, imposing repressive and manipulative regimes. They made Nigeria a member of the Organization of the Islamic Conference, annulled the 1993 presidential election, and repressed the peoples of the oil-producing Niger River delta region.

After 1999, Nigeria made a hasty transition from military to democratic government without an opportunity to develop countrywide political parties. It had to deal with the fragile federal system, the military undermining of the judicial system, and the reduction of the police force (in case it competed with the military).

The democratic government of Nigeria elected in 1999 faced huge problems over the legitimacy of the 1999 constitution that was hastily put together by the military before they ceded power.

The main political challenges included:

- Several states in the Muslim north declared in 1999 and 2000 that Islamic religious (sharia) law should take precedence over the colonially inherited common-law order, raising questions about the relationships between public institutions and religious traditions throughout Nigeria.
- Most of Nigeria's oil comes from the delta of the Niger River, inhabited by several small, poor ethnic groups. The oil revenues, however, go to the federal government, which takes the largest share and divides the rest among the 36 states on the basis of population and area. The oil-producing areas demand that more funds be returned to them, and local people cause pipeline disruptions. The federal government scarcely listens and replies with repressive measures such as the murder of the activist Ken Saro-Wiwa, who protested oil company and government attitudes.
- The 17 southern states complain that the central government makes most of the important decisions without listening to the states. They want more local power over the police force, education, revenues from resource exploitation, and infrastructure provision. But the 19 northern states resist this, since they are poorer and more dependent on central government funding.

People

Ethnicity

Ethnic differences in Western Africa have important political and social consequences. Many countries established in the former colonial order contained mostly unhappy amalgamations of inland Muslim groups of former pastoral people in the savannas and the sedentary coastal animist and Christian groups. However, many countries, such as Ghana and the landlocked countries, maintain good intergroup relations.

Urbanization

Urbanization is rapid, although no country in Western Africa outside the deserts of Mauritania had half of its population living in towns in 2002, and Burkina Faso and Niger were less than 20 percent urban. Compared with Central Africa, urbanization in Western Africa still partly reflects perceptions of safety but is more related to job opportunities and health and education provision in towns. Today's major cities nearly all began as ports or port-related colonial developments, although there are few natural harbors. Lagos (Nigeria, 17 million people in 2000), Abidjan (Côte d'Ivoire, 3 million), Dakar

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(Senegal, 2 million), Accra (Ghana, 2 million), Freetown (Sierra Leone), Monrovia (Liberia), and Conakry (Guinea, 2 million) are of this type. Inland centers such as Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso, 1 million) and Bamako (Mali, 1 million) began as ancient trade centers at the southern end of trans-Sahara routes and became modern capital cities of the interior countries. All these are primate cities, much larger than any others in their countries.

Many of the oldest African urban landscapes occur in Western Africa. They include the trading centers of Timbuktu (Figure 9.27), Sokoto, and Kano at the southern end of trade routes across the Sahara. These towns are still dominated by craft workshops rather than modern industry. Ibadan, the center of the Yoruba culture in southwestern Nigeria, preserves a pre-European urban landscape linked to a series of surrounding towns. Ibadan has a central palace and nearby market at the focus of streets radiating toward other towns. Fortifications were added later to resist Muslim attacks. The modern populations of these older towns remain much more ethnically unified than those in many of the newer towns. Islamic cities along the Sahel zone (e.g., Timbuktu, Kano, Sokoto, N'Djamena) have central markets, mosques, citadels, and public baths.

Cities built on the modern trade routes or as ports may retain older sections but show evidence of colonial government buildings and postindependence, often grandiose, public buildings and housing. Accra, Ghana (Figure 9.28), and Kano, Nigeria (Figure 9.29), illustrate many of the features typical of West African cities—the precolonial walled city, religious segregation, colonial expansion, and features of independence.

Population Dynamics

The population of Western Africa is increasing rapidly. The 2000 total of over 230 million compared to just over 150 million in 1980 and could reach 400 million by 2025. Although death rates continue to fall, birth rates scarcely change (see Figure 9.7). The age-sex diagram for Nigeria (Figure 9.30) shows the results of high birth rates in very large numbers of children and young people. As death rates fell across this subregion, life expectancies increased from 35 to 50 years in 1960 to between 40 (Niger) and 55 (Ghana) years in 2000 but remain low by world standards.

Economic Development

The newly independent Western African countries began with much greater hopes of an improving future than those in Central Africa or many other poorer countries outside Africa. The combination of restricted economic bases, rapid population growth, drought hazards, political conflict and mismanagement, and fluctuating world market conditions got in the way. Almost all countries in Western Africa experienced declining real income from 1980, and all were in the World Bank's lowest group in 2000. Benin, Burkino Faso, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger, and Sierra Leone have some of the highest human poverty indices in Africa, between 50 and 66 (Niger) percent. The low levels of consumer goods ownership reflect this outcome (see Figure 9.14).

Western Africa supplies world markets with a wide range of products from farms, forests, mines, and ocean waters. Although some countries diversified their output and are not as dependent on one product as they were, all primary products remain sensitive to world markets and exchange rates. After the 1970s, when the prices of oil, metallic minerals, and agricultural exports remained high, the 1980s were disastrous for many countries in Western Africa as world prices fell. Crops are affected by weather as well as market fluctuations. From the 1970s, droughts affected peanut and cattle production in the northern parts of the subregion. Furthermore, former Western European buyers of palm oil and peanuts as sources of vegetable oil began to produce their own oil crops, causing a decline in demand for palm oil and peanuts.

Primacy of Agriculture

Agriculture remains the main source of employment (50–90%) and income (25–50% of GDP) for most countries. For the majority of people, this means subsistence—based on growing crops in the south but increasingly on herding livestock toward

Figure 9.27 **African urban landscapes: precolonial.** The old buildings of Timbuktu, Mali, founded in the A.D. 1000s at the center of a former African kingdom and on trans-Saharan trade routes. Compare this urban landscape with others known to you. Photo: © Charles and Josette Lenars/Corbis.

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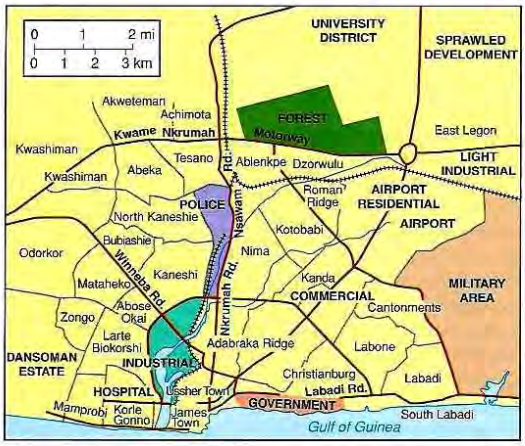

Figure 9.28 African urban landscapes: Accra, Ghana. (a) The port city of Accra, Ghana, expanded from a village for colonial trade, with port facilities along the lower river, flanked by government offices to the east and poor housing to the west. Account for locations of military, airport, and university districts. (b) A generalized pattern based on Accra that is repeated (with variations) in other Western African port cities. Source: (a) Data from S. Aryeetey-Attoh, *Geography of Sub-Saharan Africa*, Fig. 7.4, pp. 192–93, Prentice-Hall, 1997.

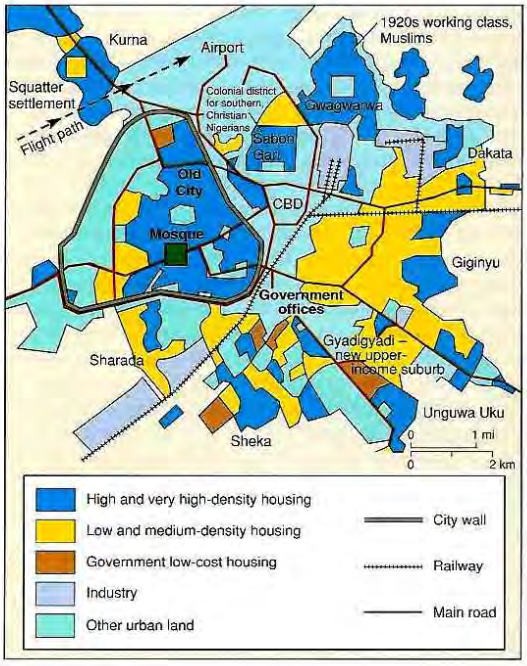

Figure 9.29 African urban landscapes: Kano, Nigeria. The inland center of Kano, northern Nigeria, reflecting over 1,000 years of change. The old city was built in the early A.D. 1100s and enlarged several times, with a central market linking trade routes northward across the Sahara and southward to the coast. The colonial period disrupted former trade patterns, but the railroad made Kano the major center in northern Nigeria with reports of cotton and peanuts and led to the establishment of government offices, industrial and residential areas outside the walls. Since independence, manufacturing, education, and civil service jobs have increased, giving rise to the new residential areas ranging from high-income to poor squatter shantytowns. Source: Data from R. Stock, *Africa South of the Sahara*, Vignette 13.1, p. 199, and Fig. 13.5, p. 201, Guilford Press, 1995.

the drier lands of the north. Of the main tropical commercial agriculture producers, Nigeria, Ghana, and Côte d'Ivoire are world leaders in palm oil, cacao (Figure 9.31), rubber, tropical fruits, rice, and coffee. Benin and Togo produce smaller amounts. Senegal, The Gambia, Nigeria, and Mali in the drier zone export peanuts, and Mali also exports cotton, but the interior countries have few commercial farm products apart from their livestock, which provided meat for the coastal countries until the major droughts of the 1970s decimated the herds.

Through the 1980s, Côte d'Ivoire diversified its established products such as cocoa, coffee, and palm oil (of which it is Africa's leading producer) into bananas, pineapples, cotton, and rubber. In the 1990s, the government privatized the largest rubber plantations. For a few years, growers benefited from the CFA devaluation, with exported crops earning up to twice the previous price.

Liberia's civil strife disrupted its output and trade in rubber produced on plantations established by the Firestone Rubber Company in 1926. Plantation owners moved their operations to countries such as Nigeria and Côte d'Ivoire.

Until the 1990s, Ghana's agriculture sector grew slowly. The crop marketing boards established in colonial times set quotas and took a percentage of income for administration. By contrast, Nigerian farmers enjoyed greater incomes after the government abolished its crop boards and their charges. Nigeria invested more in crop research and farm management education and has a better rural infrastructure, enabling farmers to get their produce to market more easily.

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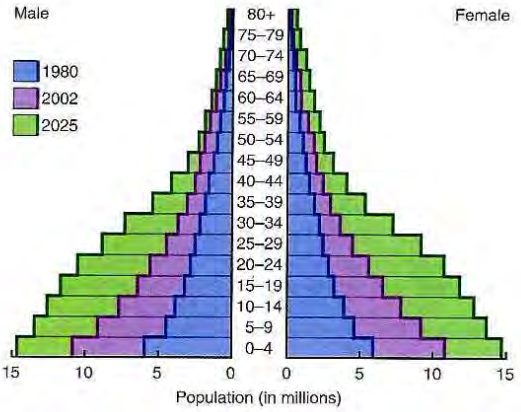

Figure 9.30 Nigeria: age-sex diagram. Source: U.S. Census Bureau. International Data Bank.

Agricultural development policies shifted from large externally funded projects to smaller-scale projects that involved the local farmers more centrally. In the 1970s, countries that neglected food production found themselves paying for expensive food imports. Attempting to produce more wheat, corn, and rice for local and national markets, they invested in large-scale water projects in the drier parts of northern Nigeria, Senegal, and The Gambia. However, poor management of human and natural resources resulted in lower-than-expected crop yields, higher costs, and disaffected farmers who were given little latitude for their own decision-making. The sudden shift to commercial crop production using high-priced new strains of crops and heavy applications of fertilizer was unsustainable environmentally and financially.

Subsequent development projects in the 1980s focused on involving local communities in sustainable development based on small-scale and appropriate technology that fed people as well as producing crops for sale in world markets. Funds were used to sink water boreholes worked by hand pumps and to provide rural infrastructure, advice, and credit. Better projects combined commercial and subsistence crops, as well as row and tree crops with some pastoral farming.

Forestry, Fishing, and Mining

Forest products remain significant in Côte d'Ivoire and Liberia. In many countries of Western Africa, however, the former coastal forests were largely cut and replaced by tree-crop plantations. In Nigeria, attempts to maintain the remnant of woodland in national forest reserves face continual challenges by farmers and timber companies.

Fishing is of growing importance in countries such as Mauritania, Senegal, and Guinea-Bissau, which are close to the Cold Canaries Current and the nutrients it brings to the surface. However, their fishermen face increasing competition from Spanish trawlers. The fishing licenses countries negotiated with

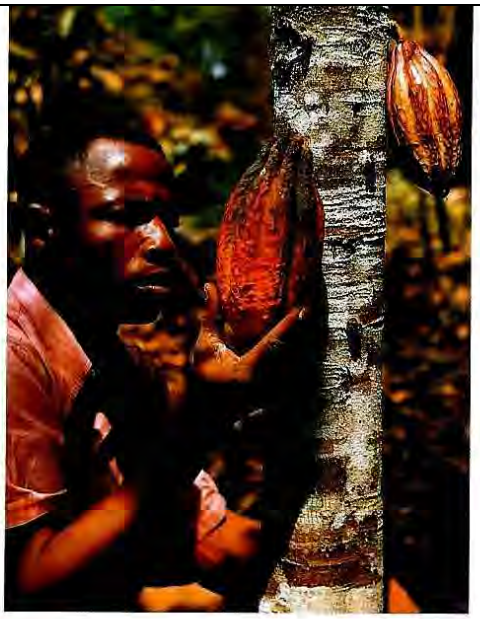

Figure 9.31 Western Africa: plantation agriculture. Cacao trees in a small plantation near Oyo, Nigeria. The pods contain beans from which chocolate and cocoa are made. They grow directly from the trunk of the tree. Photo: © W. Robert Moore/National Geographic Society.

the European Union bring in revenue that makes up one-third to one-half of their foreign exchange earnings. But enforcing the agreements is difficult, and EU boats—along with those of the Japanese, Russian, and Chinese—take more than their allocations, depleting the stocks. Lake and river fish are important foods in the interior countries such as Niger and Mali.

The main mineral developments are the oil and natural gas fields of southern Nigeria (Figure 9.32) and smaller quantities

Figure 9.32 Western Africa: Nigerian oil refinery. Africa's main oil field is located in the tropical rain forest of the Niger River delta. Notice the storage tanks, the refinery area on the left, and the stack flaring off natural gas. Imagine a discussion between two local people—one who works at the facility and one suffering from pollution and low income. Photo: © Mike Wells/Stone/Getty.

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in Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire. Oil was discovered in Nigeria in 1956, and production expanded to a maximum of 114.2 million tons at the height of world demand and high prices in 1979, making it a major world producer, before falling back to 73 million tons in the mid-1980s. Oil provides over 90 percent of Nigerian exports, but the oil income was used for grandiose infrastructure projects funded by loans that turned into debts. Dependence on oil income reduced enthusiasm for economic diversification and selling other products in world markets. Despite the great hopes Nigeria placed on using its oil income to boost its economy, its living standards are now lower than before the oil boom of the 1970s.

Most countries have mineral resources that provide income. In Ghana (formerly the colony of Gold Coast), production in the gold-mining industry increased in the 1990s following major new investments. Bauxite mining linked to local smelting of aluminum powered by the Volta Dam remains a major output. Guinea possesses one-third of the world's reserves of high-grade bauxite and is one of the world's top producers. Guinea also has major gold and diamond reserves and iron mines near the Liberian border, where production was halted by civil war. Iron ore is mined in Mauritania and Liberia. Nigeria produces tin, and Niger has important uranium deposits. Phosphate deposits are mined in Senegal and Togo, and others exist in Mali. The Sierra Leone diamonds are in the control of rebel groups that trade them for arms with Liberia's rulers.

Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire wish to use the natural gas that was previously flared off from Nigerian oil wells to fuel thermal power stations. Plans to build a gas pipeline along the coast await agreement on whether it should be on land (Nigeria's preference for increased control) or offshore along the seabed (Ghana's preference to diminish terrorist actions).

Manufacturing

The manufacturing sector produces only 5 to 15 percent of Western Africa's GDP. Most countries have import-substitution factories for food and drink products, construction materials, and other low-price or high-bulk goods for local markets. Export crops and minerals are sometimes processed locally in oil-refining, textile, fertilizer, aluminum, rubber, or fishmeal factories. Nigeria and Côte d'Ivoire have car assembly factories. The lowest proportions of manufacturing industry occur in the landlocked countries.

As a result of the devaluation of the CFA franc, some local manufacturing industries developed in Western Africa. One of the most obvious is the manufacture in Côte d'Ivoire of the highly colored printed cloth used in women's dresses across Western Africa (Figure 9.33)—after years of importing it from Europe.

Services

The service sector of the economy in Western African countries grows slowly, largely through the government employment that is a major factor in many countries. However, structural adjustment demanding the reduction of civil service bureaucracies causes pain to many countries because of the importance of family and political links into such employment.

Tourism, a service industry that is part of the development strategy of many poor countries, was little developed in Western

Figure 9.33 **Ghana.** Girls wearing kente cloth, the signature fabric of the Ashanti people (Kumasi area). The cloth is handwoven in strips that are then sewn together. Photo: © Lisa Kahn Schnell.

Test Your Understanding 9B

Summary Central Africa is isolated from the world economy by its physical environment and by the warfare that consumes the Democratic Republic of Congo, the largest country. Both physical and human resources are poorly developed. Most people depend on subsistence agriculture. Historic slavery and colonial experiences did not prepare the countries for an independence that would bring people a full life.

At independence, Western Africa was involved in the world economy through its tropical tree crops and mineral exports, but civil wars disrupted development. Connections with European markets since the A.D. 1400s have been marked by unequal exchange. Commodity trade established in colonial times continues with tropical crops and minerals but is increasingly disrupted by civil wars in the subregion.

Questions to Think About

9B.1 Summarize the differences between Central and Western Africa through five geographic characteristics (e.g., distribution of people, ethnic groups, climates and landforms, resources, economic activities, governments).

9B.2 Why is there a lack of engagement with the rest of the world in Central Africa?

9B.3 Why do many Western African countries have poorly developed manufacturing sectors?

9B.4 Why are tropical tree crops an uncertain source of income for Central and Western Africa?

Key Terms

Tutsi
Hutu
Communauté Financière Africaine

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Africa, apart from servicing small groups of travelers crossing the Sahara. When African Americans began seeking their family roots increased numbers of groups visited this subregion.

In 2001, Nigeria began to talk about encouraging tourism, despite comments such as those from Chinua Achebe, the country's greatest living novelist, saying that, "It is a measure of our self-delusion that we can talk about developing tourism. Nigeria is one of the most corrupt, insensitive, inefficient places under the sun. It is dirty, callous, noisy, dishonest, and vulgar. Only a masochist with an exuberant taste for self-violence will pick Nigeria for a holiday." Other countries, such as Ghana, Côte d'Ivoire, and The Gambia developed tourist industries based on sun and historical features.

Some Western Africans are financing small-scale enterprises by microlending. Small sums of money are lent to poor people to help them set up or expand a business. This program began in the 1970s in Bangladesh (see the section on the Grameen Bank in Chapter 7) and Latin America. In Burkina Faso, a small restaurant in a marketplace near Ouagadougou is built simply of log and thatch and serves simple meals based on rice. The owner took out a small loan to buy the rice wholesale and now employs seven people, pays her children's school fees, and owns a motorcycle. As elsewhere, microlending funds mainly businesses run by women, who are likely to use the additional income to feed and clothe children. Such lending offers independence and rewards enterprise.

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Fin de la Segunda Parte

RESPUESTA MODELO

UNAM, FFYL **Licenciatura en Geografía**
Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía, 2010-2 **6to semestre**
Profesor: Mtro. Francisco Enríquez Denton **Actividad 4: Análisis de texto**

Semana IX: Miércoles 07 de abril de 2010
Chapter 9, The Geography of Africa: South of the Sahara (Second part)

Nombre de la alumna (o):	**X**	**X**	**X**
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**
	X	**X**	**X**
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**

Indicaciones generales: Con base en el análisis del texto "***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Second Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.380b-399a; realiza lo que se te pide:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de esta **primera parte** en la que se dividió el capítulo y contéstenlas.

2. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos. Se sugiere que en dichas interrogantes contemplen los puntos medulares de la lectura y que las respuestas sean lo suficientemente amplias y claras.

3. En la parte final, elabora un **párrafo en inglés** (de seis a ocho renglones) y memorízalo, porque en clase lo vas a compartir.

4. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 07 de abril de 2010**.

5. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

8 Preguntas fundamentales

Analiza algunos factores que pueden explicar las zonas en las que se concentra la mayor densidad de población del continente.
En general la concentración de población se debe a la existencia de recursos naturales y/o actividades económicas en un lugar, los que dan posibilidad de trabajo a las personas, la concentración de población también trae consigo la demanda de vivienda y servicios tales como salud, educación, transporte, abasto, cuando la sociedad se hace más compleja a causa de la división del trabajo, surge la demanda de otros servicios menos elementales como la recreación. En el caso de la región africana que se estudia, los asentamientos humanos tuvieron su origen en la explotación de un determinado recurso, como el marfil, los minerales o inclusive la existencia de población indígena para ser utilizadas como esclavos, principalmente para los Estados Unidos. Así se puede observar alta densidad en la costa occidental del continente, zona que sirvió para extraer recursos de allí hacia las metrópolis. El área de Sudáfrica con tanta población está ligada a la actividad industrial y minera existente, las cuales fungen como polos de atracción de personas en busca de un trabajo. Otro de estos motivos se observa en áreas con bastas vías de comunicación terrestre tanto carreteras como férreas, centros de comercio y puertos. La oferta de servicios y condiciones del medio físico

geográfico naturales atraen a la población también.

De acuerdo a la figura 3.14 ¿La propiedad de algunos bienes de consumo como la televisión y los automóviles es un indicador confiable para medir el grado de desarrollo de los países?

La posesión sobre bienes materiales con alto grado de especialización tecnológica como teléfonos, autos televisiones y computadoras**, no son confiables** como indicadores generalizados para todo territorio africano, ya que esta visión está conformada dentro de una perspectiva occidental, sin considerar que los requerimientos reales de una gran parte de la población son distintos, basta considerar a las tribus nómadas , que todavía existen, que por su forma de vida, por las dimensiones de sus asentamientos y la carencia de energía eléctrica, no necesitan de estos elementos.

¿Qué características imperan en el continente a partir de las independencias de las colonias africanas y la consiguiente alineación hacia alguno de los dos bloques de la Guerra Fría?

En la mayor parte del continente, lo que siguió a las independencias fue una etapa con un gobierno bajo un régimen dictatorial militar casi en todos los nuevos territorios "independientes". Hubo una continua lucha entre grupos de poder político, económico y, en pocas ocasiones, aderezado con conflictos interétnicos (los cuales iniciaron varias veces incitados por ideas de las metrópolis dominantes y sus culturas separatistas en muchos casos). Hubo una gran movilización de personas debido a las guerras, así como millones de desplazados, de refugiados y muertos. Casi todos los nuevos gobiernos intentaron alinearse con una de las dos metrópolis que protagonizaron la Guerra Fría, lo cual polarizó más al continente e impidió la pronta creación de organismos de cooperación a nivel regional o continental que contribuyeran a un desarrollo más ágil, al menos en el plano económico

Ejemplifica varias formas y causas de urbanización de algunas áreas de África.

Aunque hay una mayoría de población rural en gran parte del continente, la urbanización se ha dado

por diversos motivos, por ejemplo, ciudades fundadas por esclavos liberados como Libreville (Gabón); otras ciudades como Pointe Niore (RDC) crecieron por ser puertos; Lubumbashi es una cuidad interior minera o ciudades como Brazzaville en el África Ecuatorial Francesa en donde tanto diplomáticos como las élites de personas con preparación académica construyeron casas en avenidas tranquilas. Esto muestra que casi siempre las ciudades se han creado con una actividad económica específica, determinada por la existencia de un recurso natural abundante y, de acuerdo a ésta, se llevará a cabo el crecimiento urbano, la configuración de su sociedad y su proceso de restructuración urbana

Mencione brevemente la historia reciente de África Central.

África Central está aislada del mundo, económicamente y físicamente hablando, La historia de la hoy República Democrática del Congo, ejemplifica claramente el proceso de muchos de los pueblos africanos. La región del Congo está dotada de una enorme riqueza natural gracias a las características de su paisaje derivadas de situación geográfica,. El territorio de la República Democrática del Congo esta casi totalmente cruzada por el Rio Congo y tiene un muy alto índice pluvial, posee la segunda selva más extensa del planeta, tiene sabanas al sur y suroeste, y terrenos montañosos al oeste y densos pastizales extendidos más allá del río Congo. Este contexto natural alberga a una enorme variedad de especies vegetales y animales.

Al sudeste, el valle de Rift, contiene una gran cantidad de riquezas minerales, que incluyen cobalto, cobre, cadmio, petróleo, diamante, oro, plata, zinc, magnesio, estaño, germanio, uranio, radio, bauxita, hierro y carbón.

La pregunta que surge es Porqué un país tan rico tiene una población tan pobre? La respuesta está en su historia En esta región se instalaron desde la prehistoria numerosas tribus, con un desarrollo tecnológico similar, basado en la agricultura de subsistencia y la

caza, el cual permaneció casi sin cambio hasta el siglo XIX cuando se convirtió en colonia Belga la colonización fue brutal, devastando muchas zonas y esclavizando a sus habitantes, hasta 1960 que Patricio Lumumba fue nombrado Primer Ministro y se declara la independencia de Bégica, Sin embargo los intereses internacionales intervienen y Lumumba es asesinado y sustituido por varios "presidentes" hasta que Joseph-Désiré Mobutu, toma el poder convirtiéndose en un dictador que lejos de fomentar el desarrollo del país protegió el despojo de los recursos naturales, por las grandes corporaciones internacionales.

Es hasta 1997 que Mobutu , fue obligado dejar el poder y a huir, dando paso, en 1998 a una guerra devastadora en la que intervienen tropas de Zimbabwe, Angola, Namibia, Chad y Sudán, para apoyar al nuevo régimen en Kinshasa, esta guerra es conocida como la "Segunda Guerra del Congo" o Guerra Mundial Africana, el conflicto que más vidas ha costado en el mundo desde el fin de la Segunda Guerra Mundial.

Después de décadas de dictaduras, guerras y conflictos, la República Democrática del Congo ha vivido a mediados de la primera década de este siglo, los primeros comicios de su historia. Las elecciones tuvieron como finalidad el aprobar la nueva Constitución del país (2005), elecciones de presidente siendo elegido Joseph Kabila, y miembros de la Asamblea Nacional (2006), y gobernadores de las provincias y miembros del Senado (2007). En esta breve relación se muestra como el colonialismo, los intereses de las grandes compañías y las feroces guerras por el poder han impedido un desarrollo económico y humano de la población. Esta situación se repite en casi todo el continente africano.

Otro factor que ha limitado significativamente la evolución de los habitantes del la República Democrática del Congo es la diversidad de formas de vida y tradiciones de los pueblos que la conforman existen 250 grupos étnicos diferentes, registrados y catalogados. Siendo el

pueblo más numeroso es el de los kongo, Se hablan alrededor de 700 idiomas locales y dialectos. Aunque los idiomas oficiales de la República Democrática del Congo deberían ser el alemán, neerlandés y francés, pero sólo este último ha alcanzado ese status. Por su parte, el lingala es usado como lengua franca. No existe un plan de educación que permita la formación de los recursos humanos para el desarrollo, se considera que existen más de cinco millones de niños que no asisten a la escuela básica, y dada la situación de la mujer considerada todavía como esclava sexual, la población crece con una tasa mayor al 6.37 % sin que exista la posibilidad de atender sus necesidades de alimentación, vivienda, educación salud y trabajo. Lamentablemente este escenario se reproduce en casi todos los países africanos

Describe brevemente algunas características de la urbanización en África del Este.

En el 2007 el África subsahariana presentó las tasas anuales de crecimiento urbano más altas: 4,58 por ciento. Asia y África continuarán dominando el crecimiento urbano mundial hasta el 2030.

Se prevé que en 2020 el 50% de la población de África sub-sahariana estará urbanizada, en 2025 será el 60%

África contará con un 53,5 por ciento de población urbana en el 2030, También se piensa que para esa fecha la población urbana de África (748 millones) será mayor que la población total de Europa (685 millones).

La acelerada urbanización de la población en África debería se un buen síntoma considerando que las ciudades son los lugares donde se produce la civilización, se tiene el acceso a la salud, la educación, a la vivienda y al trabajo. Sin embargo la urbanización en los

países latino americanos ha mostrado que la población que llega a las ciudades sin recursos ni educación es más miserable que la población rural donde tiene la posibilidad de acceder al suelo para su vivienda aunque ésta sea autoconstruida y a una alimentación de subsistencia provista de los recursos naturales. En las ciudades se generan terribles cinturones de miseria en los que la población se hacina sin los servicios más elementales, hecho que origina situaciones de conflicto social y violencia, principalmente entre los jóvenes que no tienen ni empleo ni calificación para adquirirlo.

En África del Este, esta situación se hace más difícil por diferencias étnicas que tienen influencias sumamente importantes en la política y en la sociedad. En muchos países existen rivalidades profundas por motivos de religiosos y culturales , las que serán trasladadas a las ciudades, lo que fomentará aún mas la aparición de la violencia

¿Qué sucede con la infraestructura en África?

Según la mayor parte de los agrónomos, África occidental podría satisfacer sus propias necesidades alimenticias a través del comercio regional, si los países dejasen sus fronteras abiertas al libre tránsito de los principales cereales, en particular en los periódicos más críticos. Sin embargo las diferencias políticas, las guerras que propician la migración y la carencia de carreteras otras vías de comunicación, impiden un comercio que beneficie el desarrollo económico y humano de muchos países.

Algunos prospectos para el desarrollo económico dependen directamente de la infraestructura y proyectos viales internos importantes, pero hasta ahora, Gabón es el único país en invertir un porcentaje de las ganancias obtenidas del petróleo en la construcción de infraestructura y/o carreteras, Para el resto de los países, la principal fuente de transporte hacia el centro de África es el sistema de ríos en la Selva del Congo, ejemplos como este son

muchos, que atraviesan a África. En contraste, la dificultad de acceso ha protegido a algunos de los recursos naturales, que no han podido extraer tan fácilmente.

¿Qué sucedió con los países de África del Este cuando se independizaron?

El la época que siguió a la independencia de los países del África del este, se inicia una breve etapa con una economía aparentemente próspera, que sustentaría un futuro mejor para la población de esta región, (según la lectura). A diferencia de la zona de África Central o de otros países más pobres fuera de África. Sin embargo la combinación de diversos factores como: las economías restringidas, el acelerado crecimiento poblacional , conflictos políticos, guerras civiles y la volatilidad del mercado se frustró este desarrollo y casi todos estos países (Benín, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Mali, Nigeria y Sierra Leona) experimentaron una caída de los salarios desde 1980, y en el 2000, llegó a ser el grupo más bajo en el Banco Mundial, lo que se tradujo en los índices de pobreza más altos en África.

Párrafo en inglés

Many people will say africa needs money, true but many don't know that the political powers in Africa like in South Africa, Nigeria and Ethiopia are not properly distributing the financial needs of the people, many children cant go to school because in many African countries there are fees like uniforms and tuition so a lot of Africans cannot afford that therefore, children cannot attend school so instead they join rebel groups or street gangs, adding more violence and corruption to their land, I feel children in Africa are forgotten.

3

"Chapter 9 Africa, South of the Sahara (Third Part)". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). Pp.399b-417

Abril, 2010

PLAN DE TRABAJO

I. Temas.

- **The Geography of Africa: South of the Sahara (*Third Part*).**

II. Objetivos informativos.

- **Reconocerá desde una perspectiva geográfica los principales rasgos territoriales de lo países Africanos.**

III. Objetivos formativos.

- **Valorará la importancia de la historia como un factor fundamental en el proceso de construcción de los países del continente africano.**

IV. Motivación

➔ **Pregunta motora**: (reflexión personal)

¿Por qué África es el continente menos desarrollado en el mundo?

V. Actividad de crítica y reflexión.

- Con base en el análisis del "***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Third Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections,*

Local Voices. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.399b-417; los alumnos comprenderán el peso que tiene la historia en el desarrollo de los pueblos africanos.

El desarrollo de la actividad consiste en:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de cada una de las **tres partes** en las que se dividió la lectura y contéstenlas. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos.

2. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: miércoles 21 de abril de 2010**.

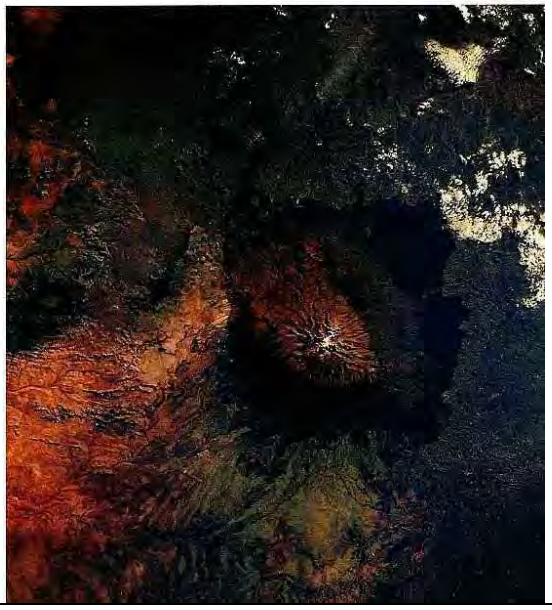
3. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

VI. Contenido y Desarrollo.

"***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Third Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.399b-417

Figure 9.34 **Eastern Africa: main features.** The map shows the countries included in the subregion, the major cities, and rivers.

Figure 9.35 **Eastern Africa: Mount Kenya.** A space shuttle view shows the remnant of former glaciers near the peak (white), the open forest of the upper slopes, the rain forest on the lower slopes, and the surrounding savanna that has been largely converted to farmland. Photo: NASA.



Eastern Africa

Eastern Africa's first orientation to the outside world was toward the Arab countries bordering the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. Arab traders established a series of centers along the eastern coast of Africa, often on islands such as Zanzibar and Pemba. From the A.D. 700s, trading increased, with an emphasis on ivory and gold until the 1700s and 1800s. As many as 5 million slaves were exported to Arabia, Persia, and even China. An African-Arabian Islamic culture developed with Indian and Persian influences and leaders constructing impressive palaces. Communication through their distinctive Swahili creole language became common throughout Eastern Africa. European colonists brought in laborers from India and redirected trade toward European countries, links that were often maintained after independence.

Countries

The countries of Eastern Africa form two groups (Figure 9.34). In the north, Ethiopia is partly surrounded by Eritrea, Djibouti, and Somalia. To the south are the former British colonies of Uganda, Kenya, and Tanzania occupying a plateau area that is broken in the west by major rift valleys and has volcanic peaks rising above (Figure 9.35). These countries have a variety of political arrangements and varied economic and cultural conditions (Figure 9.36), and most are affected by continuing internal conflicts.

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"***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Third Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.400-417

Figure 9.36 Eastern Africa: country data.

Country	Capital City	Land Area (km^2) Total	Population (millions) Mid-2001 Total	2025 Est.	GNI 1999 (US $ million) Total	GNI PPP 1999 Per Capita	Percent Urban 2001	Human Development Index Rank of 175 Countries	Human Poverty Index: Percent of Total Population
Djibouti, Republic of	Djibouti	23,200	0.6	1.1	511	No data	83	157	40.8
Eritrea, Republic of	Asmara	121,140	4.3	8.3	779	1,040	16	167	No data
Ethiopia, Federal Democratic Rep of	Addis Ababa	1,100,760	65.4	117.6	6,524	620	15	172	55.8
Kenya, Republic of	Nairobi	580,370	29.8	33.3	10,696	1,010	20	136	28.2
Somali Democratic Republic	Mogadishu	637,600	7.5	14.9	No data	No data	28	No data	No data
Tanzania, United Republic of	Dar es Salaam	945,090	36.2	59.8	8,515	500	22	156	29.8
Uganda, Republic of	Kampala	235,880	24.0	48.0	6,794	1,160	15	158	40.6

Source: Data from *Population Reference Bureau 2001 Data Sheet*; *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2001; *Human Development Report*, United Nations, 2001; Microsoft Encarta (ethnic group, language, religion).

Ethiopia and Neighboring Countries

The uplands of Ethiopia (see Figure 9.10a) force moisture to rise and cause rains that feed into the Blue Nile River (see Chapter 8) and support agriculture. The surrounding lands are mainly arid.

Ethiopia has the distinction of being the only African country apart from Liberia in Western Africa that was not colonized by a European power. Although occupied by the Italian military from 1936 to 1941, it was soon returned to the Emperor Haille Selassie's rule by British forces at the outset of World War II. Selassie reigned from 1930 to 1974, when a military coup brought a Communist government to power. After further coups, drought, and huge movements of refugees in and out of the country, rebel groups replaced that regime in 1991. A new constitution in 1994 led to multiparty elections.

The small countries to the north and east reflect attempts to expand or displace the Ethiopian monarchy, who, with their people, converted to the Coptic Church in the A.D. 300s. Muslims failed to dislodge the monarchy on many occasions, although they devastated much of the area in 1523 and established coastal settlements that are now the countries of Eritrea, Djibouti, and Somalia. Ethiopia remained an isolated feudal country.

In the late 1800s, Britain expanded the port of Aden on the Arabian Peninsula coast to guard the approaches to the Suez Canal and refuel its ships on the way to and from India. It established British Somaliland on the African coast. Italy colonized Eritrea and the Indian Ocean coast of present Somalia in the late 1800s.

After World War II, the United Nations federated Eritrea with Ethiopia and joined British and Italian Somaliland as Somalia. The former British Somaliland declared its independence from Somalia in 1991 but is not recognized by other countries. In the early 2000s, Somalia was in chaos after a United Nations force, largely made up of U.S. military, had left in 1995 without restoring order. The southern part of Somalia is ungovernable and in a state of anarchy marked by random banditry and fighting among clans. The official government controls only part of Mogadishu. A loose alliance of warlords based in Baidou and supported by Ethiopia controls most of southern Somalia. Puntland, the northeastern corner of Somalia, remained peaceful throughout the 1990s, exporting livestock and frankincense. After September 11, 2001, however, activities by Islamist extremists gave the local political struggles an international emphasis, involving Ethiopian support against the extremists.

Disappointed at being reduced to a province within Ethiopia, Eritreans fought Ethiopian and Soviet Union forces. After the latter departed and the Communist government in Ethiopia was deposed, Eritrea gained independence in 1993, making Ethiopia landlocked. Eritrea is Africa's newest country. Tensions between Ethiopia and Eritrea continued, and costly border wars from 1998 to 2001 sapped both countries' resources and made it difficult to implement the new Ethiopian constitution.

Former British East Africa

The countries of Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda present contrasts in physical and human geography to those grouped around Ethiopia. On the west, streams flowing into Lake Victoria and out into the rift valley are sources of the White Nile River. Although occupying an equatorial position, the plateau receives only moderate rainfall totals, which also fall off toward Ethiopia and Somalia in the north.

Before the European colonial era, the region was a major crossroads of African peoples. Cattle herders from the Nile River valley, such as the Masai, lived in tension with farming Bantu peoples, such as the Kikuyu of Kenya, migrating from Western and Central Africa. On the east, ports established by Arabs as part of their Indian Ocean trading system were dominated by the sultans of Oman and Muscat until the late 1800s.

When European colonists arrived in the late 1800s, they met less organized resistance to settlement than in Western Africa. Britain got involved initially to end the slave trade based on Zanzibar Island under the sultans of Oman and Muscat (Figure 9.37), who also controlled the Indian Ocean trade in cloves and palm oil. In 1886, Britain annexed Kenya

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"***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Third Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.401-417

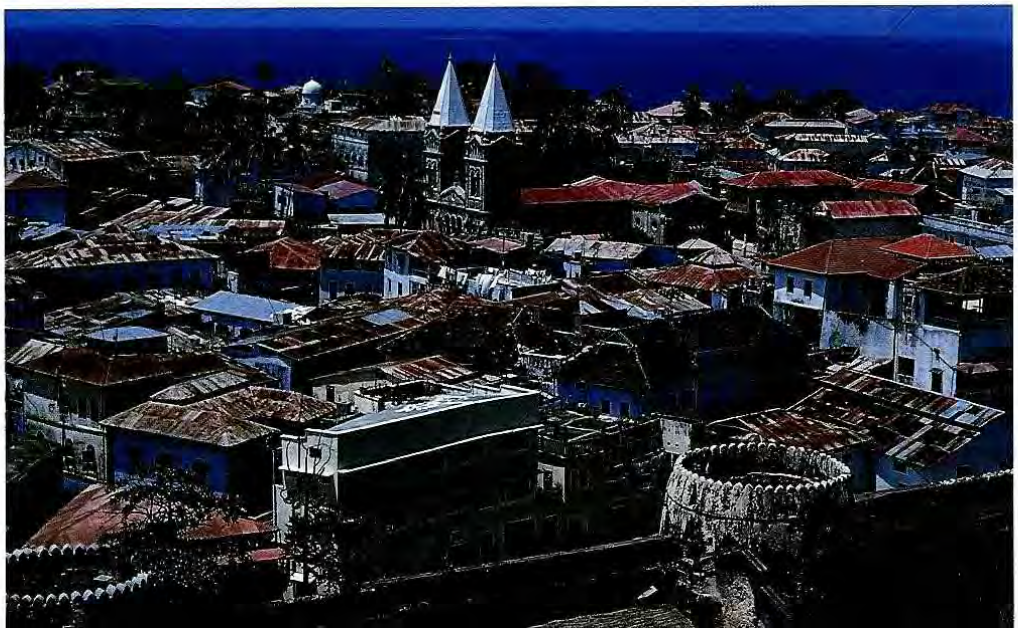
Country	Ethnic Groups (percent)	Languages O=Official	Religions (percent)
Djibouti, Republic of	Somali 60%, Ethiopian 35%	French (O), Arabic (O)	Christian 6%, Muslim 94%
Eritrea, Republic of	Tigray 50%, Tigre-Kunama 40%	Tigre, Afar, others	Christian, Muslim
Ethiopia, Federal Democratic Rep of	Oromo 40%, Amharan 32%, Tigray	Amharic (O)	Christian 45%, local 12%, Muslim 40%
Kenya, Republic of	Kikuyu 21%, Lui 15%, Luhya 14%	English (O), Swahili (O)	Christian 70%, local 10%, Muslim 6%
Somali Democratic Republic	Somali 85%	Somali (O)	Muslim 99%
Tanzania, United Republic of	120 African culture groups	Swahili (O), English (O)	Christian 43%, Muslim 35%
Uganda, Republic of	Ganda, Kamora, Teso, etc.	English (O), Luganda, Swahili, others	Christian 66%, local 18%, Muslim 16%

and Uganda and in 1902 built a railroad from Mombasa to Lake Victoria in Uganda. This encouraged British settlers to farm the fertile Kenya highland area and lands around Lake Victoria. In Uganda, local cotton was processed for export.

A smaller number of German colonists settled German East Africa for coffee and tea production, but after World War I, it became a British protectorate as Tanganyika. The British did little to develop Tanganyika and did not encourage white settlement there. Tanganyika, Kenya, and Zanzibar gained their independence in the early 1960s following guerrilla warfare in Kenya. Tanganyika and Zanzibar united to form Tanzania in 1964, although a Zanzibar independence movement still exists. Zanzibar was one of the richest countries in Africa before it became part of Tanzania.

After independence from the United Kingdom in 1963, Kenyans elected their governments. President David Toriotich

Figure 9.37 **Eastern Africa: Zanzibar.** Zanzibar was a center of Arab trade along the coasts of Eastern Africa and across the Indian Ocean before Europeans arrived. The view from the top of the Arab fort takes in part of the old city. Now that Zanzibar is part of Tanzania, many in the city campaign for its independence to be renewed. Photo: © Volkmar Kurt Wentzel/National Geographic Image Collection.



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arap Moi has been in power since 1978, but his reelection in 1997 was marred by violence and fraud. The country is beset with violence, often related to tribal rivalries and corruption. The potential successors to arap Moi have strong support from their own tribal groups, but each faces opposition from the others. Political uncertainty over the succession is enhanced by a growing gulf between urban and rural societies because of uneven effects of past policies. A country that has enjoyed more economic progress than many in Africa is now declining in prosperity.

In Tanzania, one-party, socialist rule continued until the first multiparty elections in 1995. Zanzibar has its own president and legislature for internal matters. In Uganda, dictators Idi Amin (1971–1979) and Milton Obote (1980–1985) both governed by oppression, killing hundreds of thousands of people. The first postindependence multiparty elections were held in 1996. The Tanzanian and Ugandan legislatures are elected by the whole adult population, but some seats are reserved for women.

In early 2001, Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda reestablished the East African Community that they abandoned in 1977. It is intended as a means of long-term economic integration, starting with a customs union. Fears have already arisen of Kenya products replacing local ones in Tanzania and Uganda. Further movement toward political union, including an East African court of justice and legislative assembly, is a distant dream.

People

Ethnicity

The coastal people in the north are mainly Muslims, while those in Ethiopia and the southern countries are mainly Christian or traditional animist groups. Arabs, Arab-African mixes, and South Asians are common on the eastern coasts of Kenya and Tanzania, with Asians taking many of the business opportunities. Many Ugandan Asians were expelled by Idi Amin and moved to the United Kingdom or to other countries. Languages include many of local significance, but those with wider use range from Arabic in the north and Amharic in Ethiopia, to Somali, Swahili, and English.

Population Dynamics

The population of Eastern Africa is growing rapidly. The total rose from 91 million in 1980 to 168 million in 2001 and could reach over 280 million by 2025. In 2001, total fertility rates varied from 4.4 (Kenya) to 7.3 (Somalia). With death rates falling (see Figure 9.7), population increase is rapid. Like most other African countries, the youthful element in Ethiopia remains high (Figure 9.38). Life expectancy rose from 35 to 40 years in 1960 to 40 to 55 years in 2001. In Uganda, it declined to 42 years because of HIV/AIDS.

Apart from Djibouti, where almost all the people are urban, the other countries remain largely rural with fewer than 20 percent living in towns. The largest cities are Addis Ababa (Ethiopia, 2.6 million in 2000) and Nairobi (Kenya, 2.3 million), Dar es Salaam (the current capital of Tanzania), Kampala (Uganda, 1.2 million), Djibouti, and Mombasa (the main port

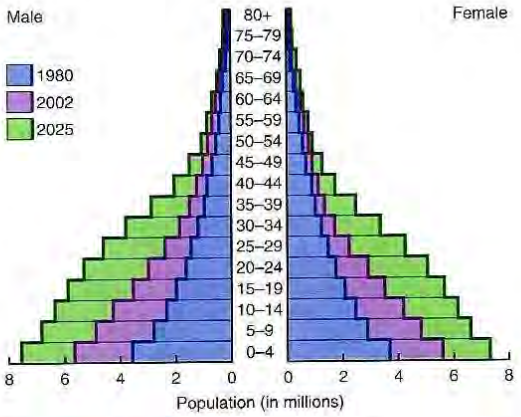

Figure 9.38 **Ethiopia: age-sex diagram.** Source: U.S. Census Bureau. International Data Bank.

of Kenya). Their fast growth combines migration from rural areas and natural population increase. It produces extensive shantytown areas, contrasting locally with the concentration of impressive office towers in Nairobi.

Economic Development

In the period 1960 to 1992, all the countries in Eastern Africa made limited progress in human development basics such as education and health care. The three northern countries had human poverty indices of over 50 percent. Only Kenya and Tanzania had indices of less than 30 percent. All countries face the disadvantages of inadequate infrastructure and the relicts of conflict (Figure 9.39).

Agriculture Is Central

In the general absence of mineral resources and the slow development of manufacturing and service industries, most countries in Eastern Africa depend on agriculture as an economic base (see Figure 9.23). They earn foreign exchange by exports of farm products.

Coffee makes up 90 percent of Ethiopian exports; coffee, tea, and tobacco are 97 percent of Uganda's exports; coffee, tea, sisal, cotton, cashews, and cloves are 85 percent of Tanzania's exports. Even in Kenya, which has greater economic diversity and output, coffee, tea, sisal, fruit, and vegetables provide around 50 percent of exports. In the 1990s, higher-priced tea, fruit, and vegetable exports replaced much of the former coffee and sisal exports from Kenya. The early 1980s boom in beverage crop prices followed a shortfall in world production, but production rose again and prices fell, remaining low in the 1990s.

The arid areas in the north of the subregion are not able to grow crops and rely on exports of livestock. Before the current anarchy, Somalia's livestock made up 65 percent of its total exports, augmented by bananas grown in the south. Few of the

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(a) (b)

Figure 9.39 **Eastern Africa.** (a) A road in Tanzania—straight but potholed and dusty in the dry season and a river in the wet season. (b) Ugandan farmer tends his crop as children play on an abandoned tank, a relic of recent oppression. Photos: © MAF.

arid countries balance their imports by exports, and most rely on external aid.

Most people in Eastern Africa gain a livelihood by subsistence farming or nomadic herding, but both are subject to the vagaries of weather. Long droughts in the region since the 1970s led to major famines in Ethiopia in the 1970s and 1980s. The central government not only fanned civil war but for long prevented aid getting to famine-affected opposition areas. The famine of 1983 to 1985, when over half a million people died of starvation or diseases contracted at the feeding sites, attracted worldwide publicity. This famine arose after soil erosion in the formerly fertile highlands area of Ethiopia led to forced migrations of people northward into the zone of drier conditions and civil war (see the "Point-Counterpoint: Famine in Africa" box, p. 404). Ethiopian farming continues to be poorly developed because of droughts, bureaucratic obstruction, little land-tenure security, and poor infrastructure (such as roads and telephones). Many parts of the country remain susceptible to famine.

Kenya has the most diversified farming community. Following independence, the government redistributed as smallholdings the land from the European-farmed highlands around Nairobi. They encouraged Kenyans to grow commercial export crops, such as coffee and tea, and food crops for the home market. Today, Kenya provides some comfort for those who see more hope than alarm in Africa. For example, in the Machakos district east of Nairobi, a region of periodic drought that suffered famine and soil erosion in the colonial period, land-reform smallholders invested in high-value crops, earning money to support this by off-farm jobs. Former badlands were transformed into terraced hills and fenced fields. Good road links to Nairobi markets made it possible to sell fruit and vegetables there. By the 1990s, the area had 1.4 million people, and output had risen 15 times with yields per hectare (2.47 acres) increasing up to tenfold.

The Tanzanian government applied socialist principles instead of the Kenyan emphasis on small, commercial family farms. It regrouped the scattered farmers into communal farms and centralized villages, and guaranteed low prices in food markets across the country. Many farmers lost interest in increasing their productivity, and the Tanzanian economy failed to grow. Although it also exports some of its crops, its total exports are less than half those of Kenya. From the late 1980s, however, efforts to improve farm management included more use of fertilizers. Experimental corn crops raised yields from 2 to 3 kilograms per hectare in 1988 to 18 to 20 kilograms in 1994. Lack of storage, the high cost of fertilizer imports, and poor roads are problems in the way of further advances.

Variable Manufacturing Development

Manufacturing makes up between 5 and 13 percent of GDP in Eastern African countries. Although several countries gave emphasis to manufacturing in their early development plans, only Kenya achieved much. In addition to processing its crops, Kenya has oil refineries and medium-sized consumer goods factories. It is a growing center of production and distribution for the surrounding countries. The other countries do not have the home demand for manufactured products or the foreign exchange needed to buy machinery and replacement parts. Most countries have small-scale enterprises based on processing local crops, manufacturing foods and drinks, and producing goods for local markets. Ethiopia has metal and chemical industries that were built in the Communist era, but such large-scale industries contrast with the more common small-scale craft manufactures.

Services and Tourism

For most countries, the service economy is poorly developed apart from extensive government bureaucracies. Once again, Kenya is ahead of the others. Its relatively stable political environment

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Point COUNTER Point

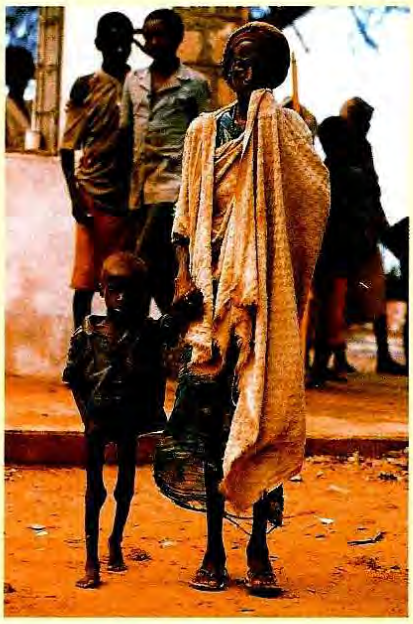
FAMINE IN AFRICA

Famine is a severe shortage of food occurring over a wide area and causing deaths by starvation and by diseases that take advantage of the body's reduced ability to fight them following malnutrition. Famines occurred in various parts of the world throughout human history, but in the last 20 years, most have occurred in Africa South of the Sahara. Despite huge injections of aid from other parts of the world, many countries remain in danger of famine from year to year. It is likely that Africa will continue to be the hungry continent into the new century as its population growth outstrips economic growth. Famine and chronic malnutrition will continue to be major problems.

Famine results from shocks to natural and human systems that disrupt food production or distribution. Natural shocks include drought, river flooding, insect plagues, and plant diseases. Human shocks include wars, civil conflict, widespread poverty, inefficient food distribution, and population growth that exceeds the ability of a country or region to feed the extra mouths. It is often not so much the immediate result of such shocks but the failure of human systems to cope with them that causes famines. For example, recent African famines have occurred on the semiarid margins of deserts where droughts that are part of climate changes have had greater famine impacts than before. The reasons for these greater impacts include pressures from increasing populations, civil wars that disrupt transportation systems, and the abandonment of long-established systems of cultivation and livestock keeping that made allowances for coping with drought.

The much publicized famines in Ethiopia and Somalia occurred when stresses resulting from drought were made worse by the difficulties of getting food to populations cut off from supplies by civil war (Box Figure 1). Warring sides stopped the delivery of aid as a

(a)



(b)

Box Figure 1 **Images of famine.** (a) A refugee camp in Kenya near the border with Somalia during a drought. (b) Starving people in the Wamma camp, Kismayo, Somalia, in 1992. Photo: (a) © MAF; (b) © Norbert Schiller/The Image Works.

attracted offices of the United Nations and the regional and continental headquarters of multinational corporations and nongovernmental organizations to Nairobi.

Tourism—the world's largest industry—provides a major potential for earning foreign currency through attracting visitors to view the unrivaled scenic grandeur and wildlife. The commitment of African governments to conservation in designated game and national parks resulted in Africa having a higher proportion of such land uses than any other continent. Unfortunately, the governments have little money to spend on maintaining the parks and their wildlife, and realistic management policies. For example, elephant numbers in Africa are around 700,000—down from several million in the 1800s and reduced by poaching, particularly in the countries of Eastern Africa.

Although many of the staff of the parks and hotels are poorly paid by the standards of materially wealthy countries, tourism brings an injection of foreign currency. Like other African products, however, tourism is subject to fluctuations according to cycles of prosperity and recession in the wealthier countries. Kenya made the most progress in its tourist industry, attracting almost a million visitors in 2000. In years

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weapon. By mid-1992, up to 4.5 million people in Somalia faced starvation. Baidoa and Bardera, two small towns west of the capital Mogadishu, lie in some of the country's best farmland. After refugees from other areas moved in, famine struck both. At Baidoa, where the population was swollen to 60,000, over 100 died each day; in Bardera, 30 to 40 died each day. Neither town had community kitchens, and the distribution of dry food was irregular. Farther inland, Belet Uan had to rely on daily flights sponsored by the Red Cross to bring in food. Distribution was slowed by the stipulation that all food had to go through Mogadishu instead of being landed directly at points along the coast. Half the food distributed by truck was lost to looters.

Famines in Zimbabwe and southern Sudan occurred in 1991 and 1992, when the drought impacts were increased by the arrival of hundreds of thousands of refugees from war in Mozambique or famine in Ethiopia, respectively. Famine in Mali and Niger occurred in the 1970s when livestock herds had to be slaughtered because the grass had dried up rapidly when overgrazing was followed by drought.

Famines get emergency attention from governments and from international aid agencies. Governments can usually cope with the onset of famine if they have distribution systems that deal equally with urban and rural areas. Famines are more prevalent in rural areas where provision is uneven, transportation is poor, and it is difficult for the people to migrate rapidly into the better provisioned urban areas. Rural areas are also at a disadvantage because many people there are undernourished compared to those in towns. Poor nourishment gives famine conditions a start as the young and old succumb rapidly to starvation and killing diseases. One of the best means of using limited resources to control famine in southern Zimbabwe in 1991–1992 was the provision of lunches for elementary school children by aid agencies. This policy kept most children attending school and ensured a good level of nutrition. In previous famines, children were neglected at home and many died. Agencies also provided seed for planting corn in the following year, leading to a more rapid return to economic health in rural areas.

International agencies bring food and medical aid to emergency situations. They are limited in what they can do by response time and access to affected areas. It takes time to assemble staff and purchase, ship, and deliver emergency food to the needy country. Once there, internal transportation is often so poor that only limited quantities can be shipped rapidly. Such emergency food often brings wheat flour and milk powder not normally consumed by local people, who may need a cultural shift to continue consuming such food.

It is clear that better systems are required to cope with the threat of famine. Early-warning systems are being implemented in some areas by monitoring nutrition levels. Improvements in education, population control, political stability, and infrastructure in the poor countries of Africa are basic to reducing the threat of famine in the long term. For some years to come, it will be necessary to improve short-term aid delivery.

Mass starvation through famine is, however, not the main problem of hungry Africa. Inadequate food supplies affect all parts of the region long term. Malnutrition is at crisis levels, linked to urban poverty and poor harvests in rural areas. Malnutrition forms a basis for short-term dramatic famine episodes. The causes are complex and wide-ranging, from the decline in environmental quality, the greater value placed on inexpensive food for urban areas and commercial crop production, and the lack of rural-urban transportation facilities, to the growing population creating demands that exceed supplies.

Complete the following table:

FAMINE DUE TO NATURAL CAUSES	FAMINE INDUCED BY HUMAN ACTIONS
Widespread famine occurs when there is drought and is a matter of climate and climate change. It is a major problem in the Sahel region of Africa.	
Local famine also arises because of pests such as locusts, plant diseases, river flooding, and destructive weather systems—also natural environmental factors.	

when coffee and tea suffer poor prices, tourism is Kenya's main source of foreign exchange—making up 20 percent of export earnings in 1990 but only 10 percent in 1999. People from the wealthier countries of Europe, the United States, and Japan visit Kenya mainly to see the many animals in the national parks (Figure 9.40). The hotels in Nairobi have a twofold clientele of tourists and businesspeople. Other countries, especially Tanzania, also have tourist industries, but the egalitarian Tanzanians resisted building large luxury hotels, and their tourist industry remained small until the government encouraged a major expansion of park resorts in the mid-1990s. It had half a million visitors in 2000, up from 80,000 in 1980, and tourism receipts made up over 60 percent of export earnings.

Southern Africa

Southern Africa (Figure 9.41) stands at the southern margin of the tropical climatic environments and includes warm midlatitude conditions. Seasonal tropical climates in the northern parts

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Figure 9.40 Eastern Africa: Masai Mara National Park, Kenya. Tourists view elephants from the safety of their bus. Tourism based on such viewings is a major source of foreign income in Kenya and other countries in Africa, but its methods are often criticized by those who wish to preserve the animals.

have summer rains that decrease southwestward toward the aridity of Namibia and western Botswana. The Republic of South Africa has midlatitude climates with winter rains at the Cape of Good Hope and summer rains along its southeastern coasts. This made it particularly attractive to European colonial settlement. A series of plateaus is drained by major rivers such as the Zambezi (Figure 9.42), Limpopo, and Orange-Vaal system and cut by the southernmost extension of the East African rift valleys.

Southern Africa has the greatest potential for leading the rest of Africa into a better future. It includes countries that have some of the best records of economic progress in the continent based on mineral wealth, diversified agriculture, and manufacturing. Over a third of Africa's rail mileage is in this subregion.

Such potential, however, rests on a fragile immediate past and present. For most of the second half of the 1900s, civil wars devastated Angola and Mozambique. When the Republic of South Africa was isolated from the rest of the subregion and the world by its apartheid policy and resulting sanctions, the separated white and black communities diverged further in well-being. Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Angola, Malawi, and Zambia remain among Africa's poorest countries (Figure 9.43). In the early 2000s, Zimbabwe's leader, Robert Mugabe, made decisions that destroyed his country's improvements in economic and human development and led to bloodshed, famine, and bankruptcy.

The future of this region depends very much on the Republic of South Africa after its rejection of apartheid policies, its democratic elections of a truly national government, and its restoration to the world economic system following decades of isolation and sanctions. South Africa has one-third of Southern Africa's population but produces three-fourths of its GDP. Many families in the rest of this subregion derive considerable income from the wages sent home by their members who work in South Africa.

The Republic of South Africa's presence dominated the subregion even through the apartheid years, largely as a perceived adversary. Countries such as Botswana, Malawi, Zambia, and Zimbabwe made public pronouncements against apartheid but maintained economic relations with South Africa. Lesotho and Swaziland, virtually encircled by South Africa, maintained political relations. To destabilize its potentially antagonistic neighbors, the South African military supported guerrilla groups in the civil wars in Angola and Mozambique. Namibia was occupied by South African troops until 1990, when the United Nations finally made Namibia independent.

Countries

The countries of Southern Africa include war-wrecked Angola and Mozambique and countries that have had more stable governments such as Botswana, South Africa, and Zimbabwe.

Republic of South Africa

The evolution of the Republic of South Africa is particularly significant in the light of the country's role in the whole subre-

Figure 9.41 Southern Africa: main features. The map shows the countries included in the subregion, the major cities, and rivers.

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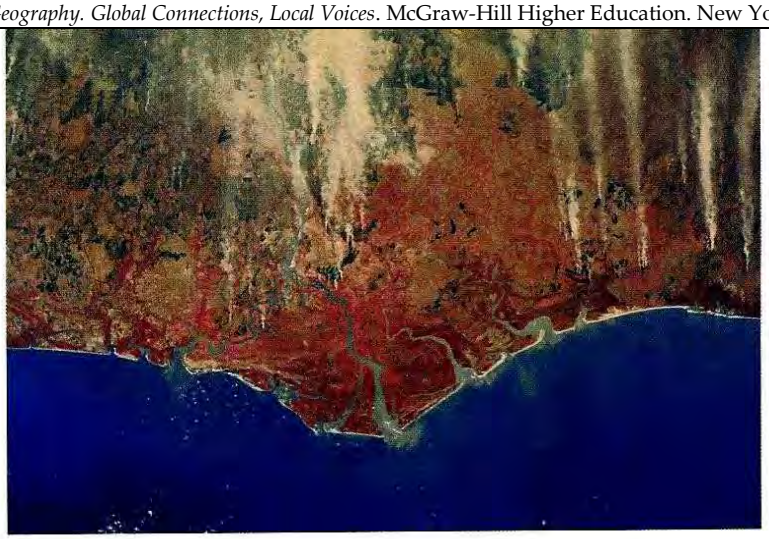
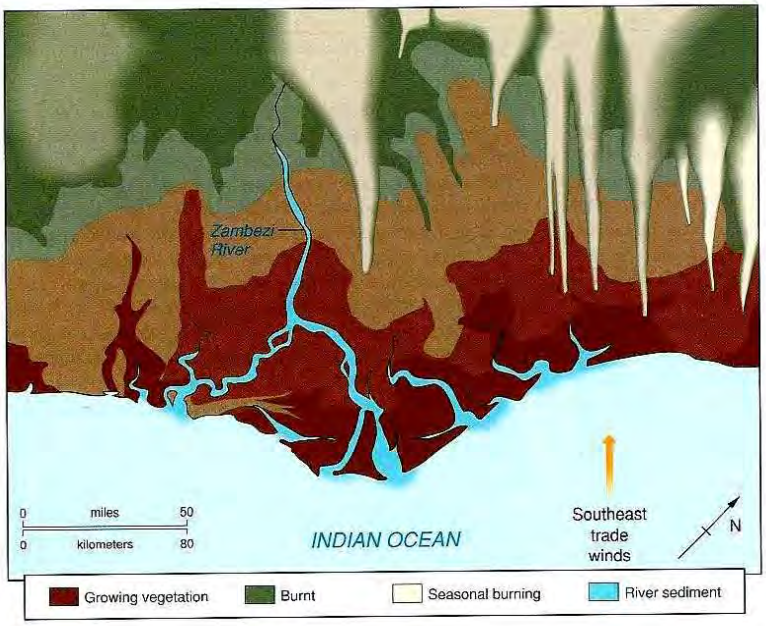


(a)



(b)

Figure 9.42 **Space shuttle photo: the coast of Mozambique, Southern Africa.** (a) The false-color reds are from the reflection of infrared radiation from growing vegetation, picking out wetlands near the coast. Red colors are absent from areas of seasonal burning. The smoke from burning areas shows the constancy of the trade winds blowing from the Indian Ocean. The map (b) provides details and scale. Photo: (a) NASA, Michael Helfert.

gion. The Dutch built Cape Town as a port on the route to the East Indies and established settlers on cattle farms, forcing the indigenous Khoikhoi northward. Following pressure on land at the Cape Colony in the 1700s, some Boers (Dutch for farmer) pushed inland. They retained their Dutch-based language (Afrikaans) and were later called Afrikaners. In places, they enslaved the Khoikhoi, whom they called Hottentots.

In 1814, the British purchased the Cape Colony from the Dutch, bringing in new colonists who demanded the use of English, the end of slavery, and the protection of the Khoikhoi. Many Boers undertook their "Great Trek" northward to join others in the Orange and Vaal River valleys, where they established the Orange Free State and Transvaal. The Boers displaced the Ndebele people, who moved north of the Limpopo River, and the Zulus, who moved southward into Natal, creating tensions with the local tribes.

The Boers declared a South African (Afrikaner) Republic in their new lands, but the discovery of diamonds and gold there from the 1860s and the occupation of South West Africa (modern Namibia) by the Germans in 1884 caused Britain to annex Bechuanaland (modern Botswana) to block German-Boer links. It also extended protectorates to Basutoland (modern

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Figure 9.43 Southern Africa: country data.

Country	Capital City	Land Area (km^2) Total	Population (millions) Mid-2001 Total	2025 Est.	GNI 1999 (US $ million) Total	GNI PPP 1999 Per Capita	Percent Urban 2001	Human Development Index Rank of 175 Countries	Human Poverty Index: Percent of Total Population
Angola, Republic of	Luanda	1,246,700	12.3	20.5	3,276	1,100	32	160	No data
Botswana, Republic of	Gabarone	581,730	1.6	1.2	5,139	6,540	49	122	27.5
Lesotho, Kingdom of	Maseru	30,350	2.2	2.4	1,158	2,350	16	127	23.0
Madagascar, Republic of	Antananarivo	587,040	16.4	30.8	3,712	790	22	147	No data
Malawi, Republic of	Lilongwe	118,480	10.5	17.1	1,961	570	43	159	42.2
Mozambique, Republic of	Maputo	801,590	19.4	21.6	3,804	810	28	169	49.5
Namibia, Republic of	Windhoek	824,290	1.8	2.0	3,211	5,580	27	115	25.0
Republic of South Africa	Pretoria	1,221,040	43.6	35.1	133,569	8,710	54	101	19.1
Swaziland, Kingdom of	Mbabene	17,360	1.1	1.4	1,379	4,380	25	113	27.6
Zambia, Republic of	Lusaka	752,610	9.8	14.3	3,222	720	38	151	38.4
Zimbabwe, Republic of	Harare	390,760	11.4	9.5	6,302	2,690	32	130	29.2

Source: Data from *Population Reference Bureau 2001 Data Sheet*; *World Development Indicators*, World Bank, 2001; *Human Development Report*, United Nations, 2001; Microsoft Encarta (ethnic group, language, religion).

Lesotho) and Swaziland after Boer attacks. In 1899, the Boers declared war on the British, who had instigated local conflicts. Although the British soon took the major centers, a costly and inconclusive guerrilla war followed.

After the South African (Boer) War, the four colonies—Cape, Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal—joined in 1910 to form the Union of South Africa as a self-governing dominion within the British Empire. However, although South Africa became a self-governing country in 1910, the rights of black Africans were never part of the arrangement, and black struggles for self-determination took longer than in other African countries.

White Afrikaners led the South African governments and imposed the apartheid policy in 1948. Apartheid laws and linked informal measures increased the separation of white, black, and mixed races. Black Africans and other "colored" (mostly Asian) people lost many human rights. Each had to carry an identity pass. At one level, "petit apartheid" legalized segregation equivalent to that in the American South up to the mid-1960s; at another, "grand apartheid" relocated black people to "independent" homelands. Their economic role was as labor for white people. Each group had a designated housing area, and each black person was assigned to a homeland area.

Germany lost Namibia after World War I, and it became a protectorate of South Africa in 1920. South Africa refused to give up the territory when the United Nations tried to cut this tie after apartheid became South African policy.

In 1961, South Africa declared itself to be a republic without ties to the United Kingdom. From the 1960s, while policies of racial separation became less significant in other countries, including the United States, the Republic of South Africa continued and extended the separation. For a time, the West tolerated South African apartheid, but then it largely isolated South Africa from the world political, economic, and sports competition systems.

The combination of internal resistance to apartheid by leaders of the African National Congress (ANC), such as Nelson Mandela, and external isolation and sanctions forced the relaxation of the apartheid policy in the 1990s, signaled by the release of Mandela from long-term imprisonment. Despite many forecasts that South Africa would descend into anarchy and a civil war bloodbath, the transition orchestrated by Nelson Mandela and F. W. de Klerk (the South African president at the time) worked, and both received Nobel Peace prizes. Democratic elections in 1994 resulted in a "Government of National Unity"—the first by the majority racial group in South Africa—with Mandela as its first president. South Africa continues to struggle with the geographic expressions raised by apartheid, including the townships, homeland policies, and separate racial schooling. The opposing communities of wealthy whites and poor blacks, of ANC Xhosas and Inkhata Freedom Party Zulus, of local Africans and those from other countries, and the parties that represent Afrikaners, other whites, and Coloureds barely tolerate each other.

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission, however, dealt with many sensitive issues that whites and blacks held against each other in a positive manner, although black Africans gave it greater credibility than many whites. White-owned businesses now employ black Africans at all levels, and restaurants mostly place profits over prejudices. When Mandela retired in 1998, other ANC leaders continued the reconciliation policies—although demands increased from black Africans for greater equality.

South Africa has extremes of wealth and poverty that bring economic development difficulties (Figure 9.44). Apartheid created a huge black underclass that now has a vote but will take decades to enjoy improved conditions. Income growth continues, and there has been no need to resort to external aid. Some benefits, such as domestic water and electricity

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Country	Ethnic Groups (percent)	Languages O=Official	Religions (percent)
Angola, Republic of	Ovimbundu 37%, Mbundu 27%	Portuguese (O), Bantu languages	Christian 85%, local 10%
Botswana, Republic of	Tswana 75%	English (O), Setswana	Christian 50%, local 50%
Lesotho, Kingdom of	Basutho 79%, Ntguni 20%	Sesotho (O), English (O)	Christian 79%, local 20%
Madagascar, Republic of	Malaysian, Indonesian, coastal groups	French (O), Malagasy (O)	Christian 41%, local 52%, Muslim 7%
Malawi, Republic of	Chewa, Nyanja, others	English (O), Chichewa (O)	Christian 70%, Muslim 20%
Mozambique, Republic of	Makua-Lomwe, Yao, others	Portuguese (O)	Christian 30%, local 60%, Muslim 10%
Namibia, Republic of	Orambo 50%, white 6%, mixed 7%	English (O), local, Afrikaans	Christian 90%
Republic of South Africa	African 75%, European 14%, mixed 8%	Afrikaans (O), English (O), Zulu, Xhosa	Christian, Hindu, Muslim, Jewish
Swaziland, Kingdom of	African 97%, European 3%	English (O), Siswati (O)	Christian 60%, local 40%
Zambia, Republic of	African 96.7%, European 1.1%	English (O), Ichbula, others	Christian 60%, Muslim-Hindu 40%
Zimbabwe, Republic of	Shona 71%, Ndebele 16%, others, European 2%	English (O), Chishona, Sindebele	Christian 20%, syncretic Christian-local 50%

supplies, are now available to areas of poorer housing; a growing black middle class enjoys the fruits of affluence; and the African National Congress-led government is not opposed disruptively. However, jobs are not expanding at a time when 20 to 30 percent of adults have no formal employment. In this context, many white managers and professionals moved out of the country for apparently better opportunities, living quality, and less crime in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States. This "white flight" reduced other employment opportunities in South Africa, although some potential leavers stayed for the sunny, mild climate and lower costs of living.

Other Former British Colonies

In 1953, the white settlers in Zimbabwe first tried to dominate the former colonies of Nyasaland (now Malawi) and Northern and Southern Rhodesia (now Zambia and Zimbabwe) by establishing a united Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, but it was resisted by black Africans and dissolved in 1963. Zambia and Malawi achieved independence in 1964 on the breakup of the Rhodesian federation, Botswana and Lesotho in 1966, and Swaziland in 1968. In 1965, the whites in Southern Rhodesia unilaterally declared independence, but Britain and other countries did not accept this move and imposed sanctions. Years of internal strife and international sanctions delayed Zimbabwe's full independence until 1980.

Former Portuguese Colonies

In Angola, the recognized government since independence in 1975 controlled only part of its country until 2002. The National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) opposed the socialist government that was backed by the Soviet Union and Cuban military. Until 1990, South Africa backed UNITA, after which it funded itself by illegal diamond sales. Following a 1994 peace accord and elections, fighting resumed in 1998, although the death of UNITA'S leader in 2002 may lead to peace if UNITA shifts from being a military to a political group. For most Angolans, their economy is in disarray, and millions of landmines make farmers reluctant to return to their fields. In the late 1990s, the promise of more secure offshore oil income attracted external investment to Angola, but enthusiasm waned in the early 2000s as few productive wells emerged.

Current Governments

In the early 2000s, governments in Southern Africa fall into three main types with implications for human development and human rights.

- In the monarchies of Lesotho and Swaziland, hereditary kings are divesting their powers to democratic systems. Lesotho's first multiparty constitution was agreed upon in 1993, retaining the king as figurehead. Internal disruption in 1998 destroyed much of Maseru, the capital. In Swaziland, student and labor unrest in the 1990s added pressures for democratic reform.
- The Republic of South Africa (since 1996) and Botswana (since 1966) elect democratic governments from multiparty systems. In South Africa, the change from a minority white-led government to an elected black government resulted in a renewed acceptance and encouragement of the government by other countries. The new government, however, faced the task of refocusing the country's education, health care, housing, and economic strategies that had depended on and supported the white population.
- From independence in the 1960s and 1970s, the other countries had long-term single-party governments, in some cases moving slowly toward multiparty systems. Angola has a long-term socialist government, but it is opposed violently by the UNITA party. Mozambique, another ex-Portuguese

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(a)

(b)

Figure 9.44 Southern Africa: contrasting environments. (a) Desert near Usakos, Namibia; an area largely empty of people. Describe the barrenness. (b) An early morning view of Cape Town and Table Mountain, South Africa. The site provided the foundation for one of Africa's major ports. The development of the area is constrained by the landforms. It is the midlatitude southernmost tip of Africa, with a climate marked by dry summers and cool, wet winters. Photos: (a) © Don L. Boroughs/The Image Works; (b) © James L. Stanfield/National Geographic Image Collection.

colony, made a successful transition from civil war to democracy in the 1990s, while Madagascar, Malawi, and Zambia moved from restrictive single-party governments toward multiparty democracies with varied degrees of openness. Madagascar added to its problems of underfunded health and education facilities by the erratic imposition of reform measures that are opposed by antigovernment strikes and demonstrations. Namibia was released from links to apartheid-ridden South Africa in 1990 and moved toward democracy, although still dominated by a single party. Zimbabwe has been dominated by the government of Robert Mugabe since its 1980 independence, although internal opposition to repressive measures is growing.

People

Ethnicity

The people of Southern Africa include a wide variety of ethnic groups. The cultural variations within Southern Africa reflect the last four centuries of history that witnessed major movements of people of all colors.

The low densities of the San and Khoikhoi hunting and collecting peoples that occupied the area were gradually displaced by the advance of agricultural and cattle-herding Bantu tribes from the north, reaching the present South Africa in the 1700s. By the early 1800s, the Bantu peoples in southernmost Africa—the Swazis, Zulus, Xhosas, and Sothos—fought each other for territory and built strong kingdoms.

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The level of European presence varied. The Portuguese were the earliest colonists (modern Angola and Mozambique), but few settled and most of those left after independence in 1975. In southernmost Africa, the Dutch settlers stayed as the Boers and British settlers also built up numbers. The British introduced people from Asia, particularly India, to carry out some laboring and administrative roles. Today, South Africa is the only country in Africa South of the Sahara with a sizable non-black population, having 75 percent black, 14 percent white, 3 percent Asian, and 8 percent of mixed race.

The island country of Madagascar has a mixture of African and Asian people and cultural influences. Peoples from the East Indies (Indonesia today) and Africa occupied Madagascar, but the Portuguese, French, and English all attempted to colonize the island. They found it difficult to overcome the forces of the powerful rulers in hilly and forested terrain. By the end of the 1800s, the French established a colony, but internal dissent gradually rose until independence was granted in 1960.

Urbanization

The Republic of South Africa is 50 percent urban. The South African proportion living in towns might be higher without the apartheid policies that forcibly sent black Africans to their tribal homelands. Large parts remain rural. It is likely that urban growth will be more rapid now that freedom of movement is allowed. Botswana, Zambia, and Zimbabwe are 30 to 40 percent urban because of their mining towns and urban industries. Other countries are less than 25 percent urbanized, since the lack of manufacturing gives their towns less drawing power.

South Africa has most of the large cities in Southern Africa, including Cape Town (3 million people in 2000), Johannesburg (2.3 million, with another 3 million in the nearby Rand areas), Durban, Pretoria, and Port Elizabeth (each with over 1 million people). Johannesburg is the only African city of global significance, classed on the levels of global business services with Boston, Amsterdam, and Melbourne (see Figure 2.17). Maputo (Mozambique, 3 million people in 2000) and Luanda (Angola, 2.5 million) are also large cities that grew mainly as a result of migration from rural areas to national capitals during the recent civil wars. Harare (1.7 million) and Bulawayo are the largest cities in Zimbabwe, while Lusaka (Zambia, 1.6 million) and Antananarivo (Madagascar, 1.5 million) are capital cities with large government bureaucracies.

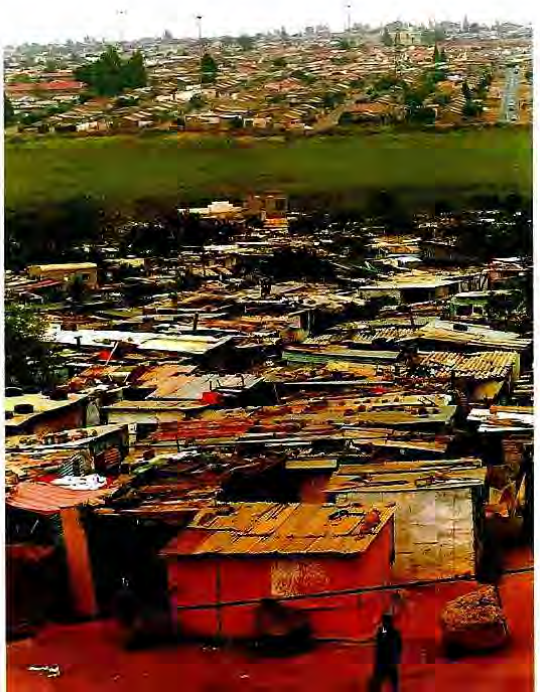
Shantytowns are a feature of towns—as they are of growing cities in many developing countries—and their inhabitants are often involved in the informal economy. Shantytowns are unplanned, constructed of any materials that come to hand—from packing cases to cement blocks and corrugated iron—and basic in their services. Some condemn families to a hopeless future of poverty. In many cases, however, people move into them on arriving from a rural area but eventually find better accommodations. Governments may supply utilities and build schools, hospitals, and roads to integrate shantytowns with the rest of a large urban area, usually after a considerable period in which they become established. Shantytowns were encouraged under apartheid in South Africa (Figure 9.45), but the long process of improving housing conditions there is under way.

Population Dynamics

The population of Southern Africa increased from 81 million in 1980 to 130 million in 2001 and may rise to over 150 million by 2025—slower than expected in the mid-1990s because of HIV/AIDS. Birth rates fell in all countries after 1970 (see Figure 9.7), but high proportions of younger age groups dominate the population structures even in the more developed South Africa (Figure 9.46). Differences of lifestyle affect life expectancy (higher for whites) and total fertility (lower for white women).

Although the Zimbabwe population grew faster than the African average of over 3 percent in the mid-1980s, its 2001 increase was under 1 percent, a rate that could soon be outstripped by economic progress if the political environment improves. Zimbabweans were reluctant to take up birth control because they saw it as a white colonialist plot to reduce black population growth. In the 1990s, a rural-based family planning

Figure 9.45 **South Africa: Soweto Township, near Johannesburg, in 2002.** The contrasts within Soweto can be seen between the squatter shacks in the foreground and the more permanent housing in the rear. The sprawling township became a symbol of the struggle by South African blacks against the racist apartheid rule. Now it is an important tourist destination. Little change appears to have occurred in the 10 years since the end of apartheid. However, postapartheid restrictions on labor migration and the high AIDS/HIV infection rates among their workers have prompted mining companies to replace hostels with family homes in some areas. Photo: © AP/Wide World Photos.



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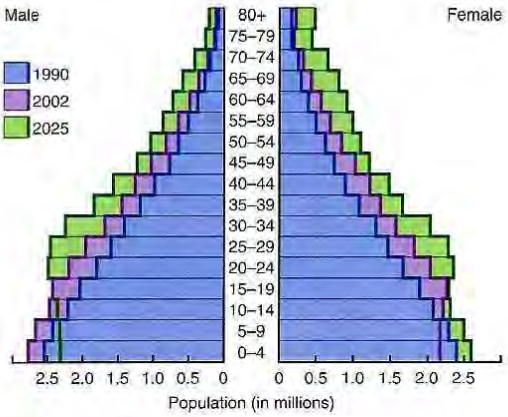

Figure 9.46 **South Africa: age-sex diagram.** Source: U.S. Census Bureau. International Data Bank.

network was successfully introduced, and a motivation campaign targeted at men helped to reduce the beating of wives discovered to be using contraceptive methods. This also made men aware of the need to control HIV infection by using condoms. In the late 1990s, HIV/AIDS was at its worst in Zimbabwe and Botswana (see Figure 9.12), increasing death rates and lowering life expectancy to around 40 years. Life expectancy is almost 55 years in South Africa but dropping because of HIV/AIDS (see the "Point-Counterpoint: HIV/AIDS" box, p. 29). By 2002, 38 percent of Botswana's population aged 15 to 49 years were HIV-positive, and tuberculosis deaths tripled in a decade as a result of weakened immunity. The disease affects what was an economically improving country, tripling health expenditure to provide universal availability of retroviral drugs and build four dispensing centers.

Economic Development

Southern Africa has 20 percent of the population of Africa South of the Sahara and produces over 50 percent of the total GDP. The Republic of South Africa has a major impact on these subregional totals. In the early 2000s, however, the subregional economic environment deteriorated with the political one through the Zimbabwean collapse, Zambian reliance on stalled copper mining redevelopment, and spreading HIV/AIDS.

Agricultural Diversity

Agriculture is the economic mainstay in the very poor countries of Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, and Swaziland, where over 85 percent of the population gains a living from subsistence farming. Even in countries with mining or tourism as important sectors, subsistence farming occupies over 50 percent of the work force. Corn is a common staple food, grown on thousands of small farms in Southern Africa.

Farming remains significant in the more diversified economies of South Africa and Zimbabwe, where commercial farming related to world markets is expanding. Landscapes of commercial farming exist alongside those of semisubsistence (Figure 9.47). South Africa made itself self-sufficient in food during the years of international sanctions against its apartheid policies. It produces a variety of temperate grains, vegetables, and fruits, together with sugar, cotton, and livestock products. Commercial crops provided nearly 40 percent of Zimbabwe's exports by value until the early 2000s destruction of commercial farms and the ousting of their white owners. Although Zimbabwe's tobacco production fluctuated, commercial farmers diversified into vegetables and flowers for European markets. Livestock products are also important in Zimbabwe and Botswana.

In Malawi, tobacco, tea, and coffee make up 70 percent of the country's exports: its tobacco output is just over half that of Zimbabwe, the subregion's leader. The two countries produced over 80 percent of African tobacco exports in the 1990s. The political turmoil in Zimbabwe in the early 2000s spread to Malawi, where financial reserves and corn stockpiles became exhausted and left a famine-prone situation. In Madagascar, coffee, sugar, vanilla, cloves, and cacao make up 70 percent of the exports. In Zambia, the potential for commercial farming was neglected in the years of high copper prices, and only one-fifth of its good arable land is used. The opening of Zambian frontiers to trade with Zimbabwe in the 1990s flooded Zambian markets with cheaper Zimbabwean grain and meat. In Mozambique, agricultural production declined to less than three-fourths of the 1980 level during the civil war and food imports were necessary—although by the late 1990s, there were signs of a return to self-sufficiency in food.

Land ownership reform is a major issue in the parts of Southern Africa where white settlers took land. Newly independent governments have to weigh the political advantages of returning that land to black Africans against the loss of income from commercial farms. In Zimbabwe, the commercial farms that remain are efficient, employ local labor, and provide valuable export crops. When the government took over some commercial farmland for redistribution in the early 1980s, many independent family farmers on smaller plots were more productive than large commercial farms because they used the land more intensively—albeit for subsistence rather than commercial export crops. In other cases, soil erosion caused the abandonment of the smaller landholdings.

In the early 1990s, droughts affected the southern part of Zimbabwe where most of the communal areas and small farms are situated but had less impact on the commercial farms in the center and north. The commercial farms gained further advantages when marketing controls were dropped as part of structural adjustment and small farmers lost various forms of government assistance. However, these events emphasized the differences between the two types of landholding and created pressure from a growing population for political action to convert more large commercial farms to smallholdings. In the late 1990s and early 2000s, the Zimbabwean government allowed the appropriation of the white-run commercial farms, and groups of former rebel fighters ("war veterans") took over a number of them, expelling or killing the occupants and black farm workers.

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

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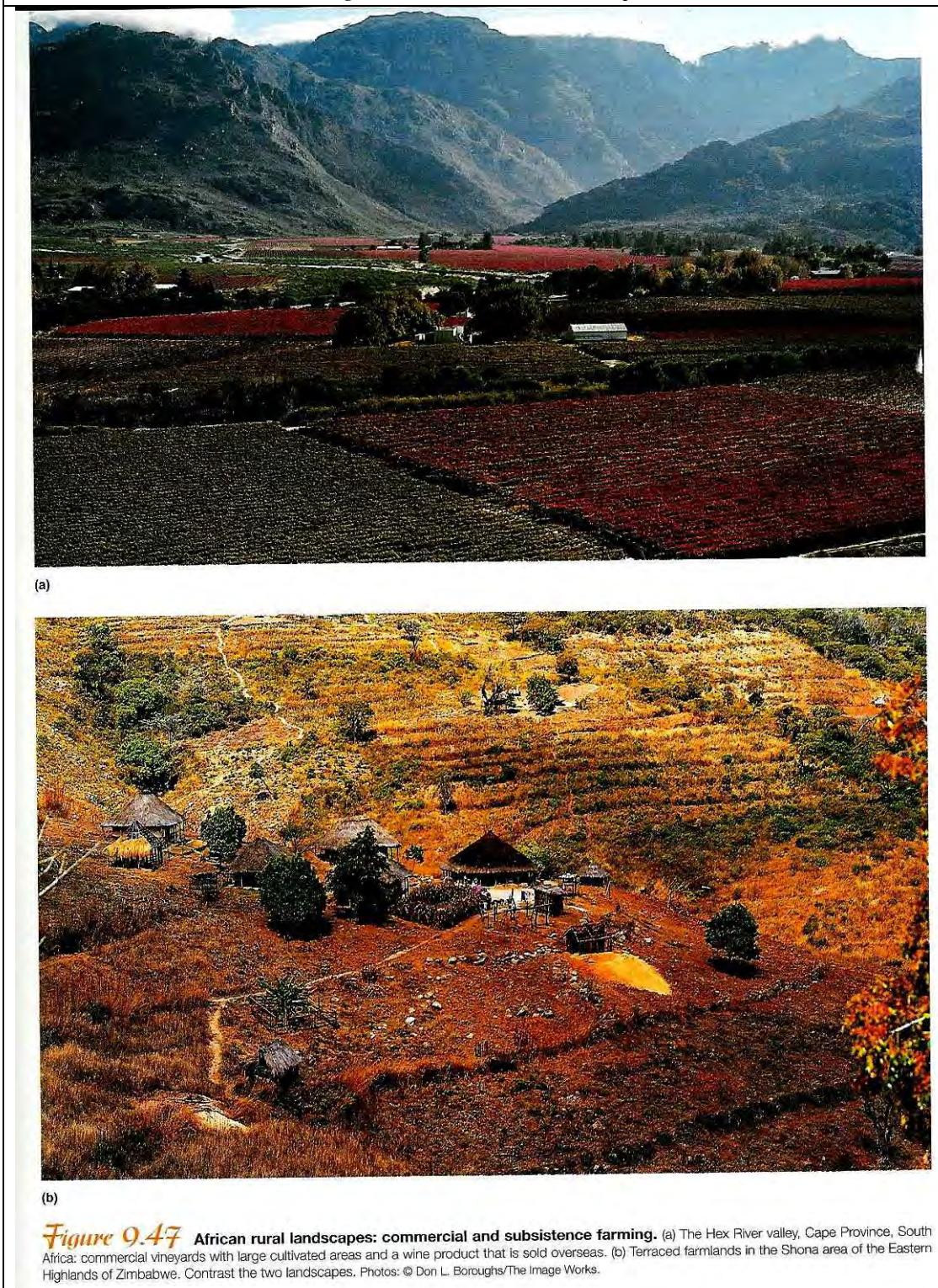

(a)

(b)

Figure 9.47 **African rural landscapes: commercial and subsistence farming.** (a) The Hex River valley, Cape Province, South Africa: commercial vineyards with large cultivated areas and a wine product that is sold overseas. (b) Terraced farmlands in the Shona area of the Eastern Highlands of Zimbabwe. Contrast the two landscapes. Photos: © Don L. Boroughs/The Image Works.

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Mining Wealth

Mining dominates the economies of Angola, Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, involving them deeply in the global economic system (Figure 9.48). The possession of such resources, however, is not always a recipe for prosperity, since cycles of economic boom and recession in wealthier countries cause fluctuating global markets to affect local employment and income. Mining also has negative environmental impacts, including air and water pollution and the desertification of local areas poisoned by fumes. Without stable political conditions, adequate transportation facilities, and good management of the national economy, attracting multinational corporation investors is difficult. Multinational corporations, however, do not always return wealth they gain to local communities, while their license payments and taxes go to central governments that may direct spending away from the mining areas.

The exploitation of minerals and their export emphasizes the position of Southern Africa in fulfilling the demands of the world's wealthier countries. South Africa is the world's top producer of platinum and one of the major producers of gold, diamonds, iron ore, and several strategic metal ores. Platinum is of growing importance because of its use in aerospace construction and pollution control (catalytic converters) in modern vehicles. South Africa has 40 percent of the world's gold reserves and 90 percent of the platinum reserves. It is the world's largest exporter of gold and platinum. Other minerals include chrome, manganese, and vanadium, which are important in special steels. Mining products, often refined in South Africa, make up two-thirds of the country's exports.

The diamond industry depends on the fashions that keep diamond jewelry in demand at high prices around the world. The South African firm of De Beers manages to maintain a cartel of producers who restrict production to this end, although challenges are increasing from new producers in other parts of Africa.

South Africa's mining industry, however, is subject to growing challenges. In 1970, it mined 70 percent of the world's

Figure 9.48 **Southern Africa: mining.** The Okiep Copper Mining Company at Nababiep, Northern Cape Province, South Africa. This is typical of many mines in the subregion: the piles of waste after the ore is separated from its containing rock, the pithead buildings, the smelter with its tall stack; location in a rural area with the surrounding vegetation killed by gases from the smelter. Photo: © Hubertus Kanus/Photo Researchers, Inc.

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gold but only 27 percent in 1995. Over that period, Australia, Canada, Russia, and the United States increased their shares, and new mines opened in other African countries such as Mali and Ghana. As the world gold price fell, South Africa's costs of deep mining rose. The major South African corporations now invest in gold mines in other parts of Africa, rather than in expanding their own mines. Employment in South Africa's mines is still a major source of income in the homes of migrant workers, mainly from Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, and Malawi, but these workers are also at the greatest risk from HIV/AIDS, which affects around one-third of the mineworkers, adding US $10 to the cost of producing one ounce of gold.

In some cases, mineral wealth is now returned to the indigenous peoples. In the 1990s, the Bafokeng people (just west of Pretoria) changed from watching multinational mining companies extracting wealth from platinum mines on their land to obtaining an agreement that ceded to them 22 percent of mining profits and a million shares in one company. The massive income was invested in community facilities and basic necessities (water, sanitation, electricity, housing, education).

Namibia is the world's fourth-largest exporter of nonfuel minerals and one of the major producers of uranium, together with diamonds, zinc, lead, and tungsten. In Botswana, diamonds make up 80 percent of exports (Figure 9.49), and the country became wealthy by exploiting these resources from the late 1970s.

Zambia was formerly a major world producer of copper, sharing a rich ore field with southern Democratic Republic of Congo (DROC). During the political chaos in DROC, Zambia became the region's main cobalt exporter. The need to restructure its copper industry lies at the heart of the Zambian future. Nationalization in Zambia led to a halved mineral output, and in the 1980s, income was reduced by falling global copper prices. The resulting lack of investment to replace exhausted mines, combined with heavy debts, made the Zambian mines uneconomic in competition against Chilean mines that produce more copper with half the workers (see Chapter 10). By the early

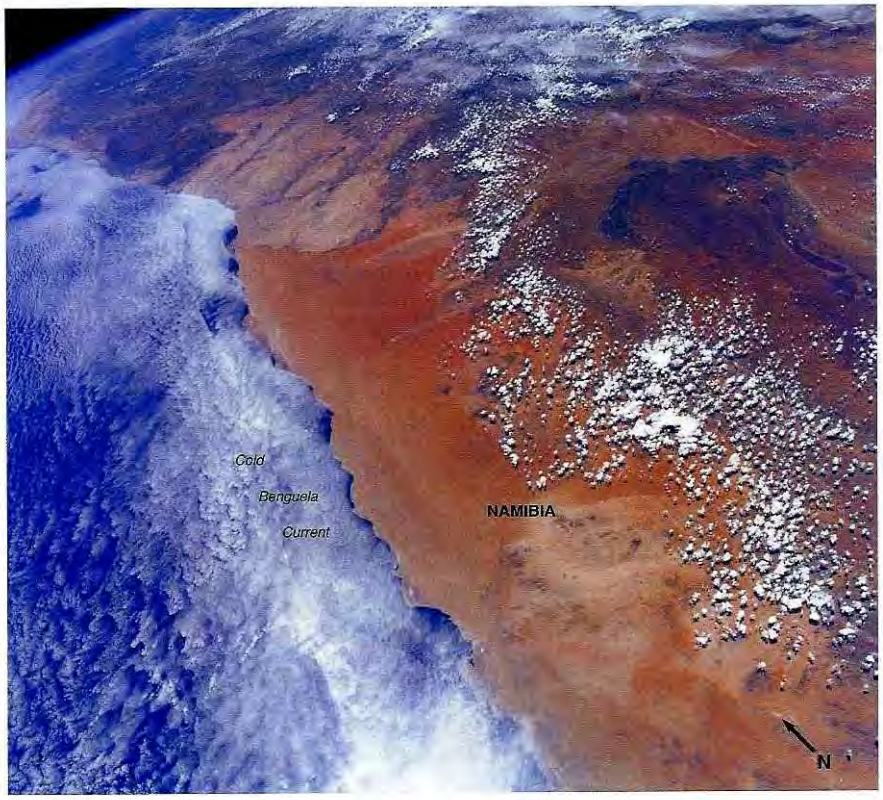

Figure 9.49 **Southern Africa: Namibian Desert.** The red sands of the desert dunes are a distinctive feature of this arid area, made drier by the offshore cold Benguela current that flows northward toward Angola in the distance. The clouds provide some rain to the higher inland areas, the cold ocean current is a rich fishing ground, and some of the world's richest diamond mines are found in the foreground of this space shuttle view. Photo: NASA.

Nota: Recuerda que puedes utilizar el "*zoom*" para aumentar el tamaño del texto y facilitar la lectura.

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2000s, foreign corporations bought Zambian copper mines, expecting to redevelop them but with much smaller work forces.

Zimbabwe's mineral output, making up 40 percent of its exports, includes coal, gold, chrome, and nickel in a wide belt along a major igneous intrusion, the Great Dyke, between Bulawayo and Harare. After some years of standstill, output increased in the 1990s, when a new platinum mine was the largest foreign investment in Zimbabwe in 25 years. It was expected to make Zimbabwe the world's second-largest producer of platinum after South Africa, but political problems inside Zimbabwe caused it to close in 2000.

Angola has oil fields along its northern coast, together with diamond mines inland. After the civil war destroyed its northern land-based oil installations, oil companies recognized the deepwater (over 1000 m, or 3,281 ft., deep) offshore resources as being of major world significance. Oil exports rose from 6,000 metric tons (6,612 U.S. tons) in 1980 to 35,000 (38,570 U.S. tons) in 1998 (20% of Africa's total oil exports) and made up 90 percent of Angola's export revenues as nine new oil fields came on stream. Angola was once the world's fourth-largest diamond producer and could be higher than that when its huge deposits are exploited after UNITA occupation of the interior diamond lands ends.

Manufacturing Contrasts

South Africa dominates manufacturing in Southern Africa, together with the linked power utility and transportation systems. As soon as mining began a century ago, there was a need for engineering services and chemical supplies, since the ores had to be refined near the mines to reduce the bulk for transportation. During World War II, sources of machinery and other manufactured goods in Europe were cut off, and South Africa diversified its manufacturing base into food products, textiles, clothing, armaments, and motor vehicle assembly in a process of import substitution. International sanctions resulting from its apartheid policy caused South Africa to increase its manufacturing base further.

South Africa raised its coal output from 50 million tons in 1970 to 200 million tons by the 1990s and developed technologies for using coal as a source of chemicals. The main coal-mining area is on the high veld east of Pretoria, where coal-burning plants generate 80 percent of South Africa's electricity. They cause acid rain downwind.

The great majority of South Africa's manufacturing is concentrated in the urban-industrial area around Johannesburg and around the ports of Cape Town and Durban. During the period of apartheid policy and the establishment of tribal homelands, factories were built just outside the homeland areas for access to cheap labor.

Six large South African corporations run almost totally by white South Africans continue to dominate mining and manufacturing. The current South African government has a commitment to enable black people to enter the white-controlled business world throughout the country. At present, most black businesses, apart from a major brewery and an insurance company, are small and engaged in trade rather than manufacturing.

The restoration of South Africa's access to world markets following the end of apartheid and the free elections of 1994 exposed its manufacturing industries to competition from cheaper overseas products. It is hoping to export some of its own products, especially armaments, which have been in demand from other countries and previously were exported in a clandestine manner. Unemployment remains a great threat to political stability in the country as the business sector expands cautiously and the government spends money on training but not on creating many new jobs.

As South African markets open to foreign manufactures, the large local business conglomerates and continuing political uncertainty deter some foreign investments. Multinational corporations, however, bought back companies they pulled out from in the 1980s. New investment was slow to start, but by 2000, companies such as Levi Strauss, Nestlé, Coca Cola, Toyota, other auto manufacturers, and some South Korean electronics manufacturers established factories. There is considerable capital within South Africa for investing in local and wider industrialization and infrastructure, but much goes abroad for investment, including to other African countries, China, and Vietnam.

Zimbabwe has the only other development of diversified manufacturing in Southern Africa. Industrialization began before the fight for independence, when cotton textile plants (Kadoma) and an iron and steel mill (Kwe Kwe) were established. During the period of independence declared unilaterally by the white minority, factories were built to produce goods that were kept out by sanctions. Manufacturing grew from 5 percent of GDP in 1965 to 26 percent in the 1990s. With the reopening of its South African trade and easier access to world trade, Zimbabwe now faces the need to move from import-substitution industries to compete with other world manufacturers. The country possesses good power sources from its own coalfields at Hwange and hydroelectricity at the Kariba Dam. Ten years of drought in the 1990s lowered the Kariba lake level to the point where only a small fraction of the potential hydroelectricity could be generated, but better rains filled it in 2000. Having one of the highest HIV/AIDS infection rates in the world (25% of the population aged 15 to 45) also weakens the economy, and its earlier progress is now changed to a static or declining position.

Among the other countries, agricultural products are processed in Malawi and Swaziland, and minerals are refined in Namibia and Zambia. Portugal did not encourage manufacturing in Angola or Mozambique until the 1960s, but by independence, Angola had vehicle assembly and chemical factories, while Mozambique produced steel and textiles using hydroelectricity from Cabora Bassa Dam on the Zambezi River. After independence, skilled managers and technicians departed, some sabotaging the factories, and further decline occurred during the civil wars. In the mid-1990s, it was estimated that Mozambique industries operated at less than half their capacity, although restoration of some with South African assistance began later in the decade.

Services

Service industries, from shops and banks to government jobs and tourist facilities, are increasing in importance throughout Southern Africa, but especially in South Africa. Tourism is a

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growing feature of the economies in Botswana, South Africa, and Zimbabwe. In 2000, South Africa received over 6 million tourists, Zimbabwe 1.8 million, and Botswana 800,000. In Zimbabwe, tourism was the fastest-growing sector of the economy before the political troubles of the late 1990s: the country attracted more tourists to its side of the Victoria Falls than Zambia did to the north. As with Kenya, there is a special interest in the national parks, where large animals are protected and able to live in something like natural conditions. Offshore island countries, such as the Seychelles and Mauritius in the Indian Ocean, are also important tourist venues.

Outlook

In the early 2000s, grounds for optimism in the economic future of this subregion and the significance of South Africa included the fact that infrastructure destroyed during civil wars in Angola and Mozambique was being reconstructed. In the latter, transmission lines take power from the Cabora Bassa Dam on the Zambezi River across 1,400 km (868 mi.) of land containing few people to reconnect South African users—and bring income to Mozambique. Port facilities at Maputo, Beira, and Nacala in Mozambique were expanded, together with the repair of railroad links into Zimbabwe and Malawi. The line from Lobito (Angola) into the southern mining area of Democratic Republic of Congo is being rebuilt. The development of major industrial zones along new roads between Johannesburg (Republic of South Africa) and Maputo (Mozambique) and between Windhoek (Namibia) and southern Angola testifies to increasing confidence by external investors and to the creation of regional marketing and development strategies.

Test Your Understanding 9C

Summary Eastern Africa received cultural influences from Arabia and was later colonized mainly by the U.K. and Italy after the opening of the Suez Canal. Plateau landscapes are carved by rift valleys and topped by volcanic peaks. Arid conditions and dangers of drought are common. Kenya has the most diversified economy based on agriculture, tourism, and service industries. Civil war and single-party governments hold back other countries.

Southern Africa contains poor countries such as Angola, Malawi, Madagascar, and Mozambique but also the wealthiest African country of South Africa. Botswana, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe have mineral wealth. This subregion has subtropical and midlatitude climates but also suffers from aridity and drought. It is where the future of Africa South of the Sahara may be worked out.

Questions to Think About

9C.1 Suggest five geographic characteristics that help to distinguish Eastern and Southern Africa (e.g., population, cultural history, economic products, government, environment).

9C.2 Assess the impact of the precolonial and colonial histories on the present human geographies of the countries in Southern and Eastern Africa.

9C.3 Discuss whether or not increasing democracy is making a better life for the peoples of these two subregions.

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- Self-test questions
- Interactive, map-based exercises to identify key places within each region
- PowerWeb readings for further study
- Links to websites relating to topics in this chapter

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Fin de la Tercera Parte

RESPUESTA MODELO

UNAM, FFYL **Licenciatura en Geografía**
Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía, 2010-2 **6to semestre**
Profesor: Mtro. Francisco Enríquez Denton **Actividad 5: Análisis de texto**

Semana XII: Miércoles 21 de abril de 2010
Chapter 9, The Geography of Africa: South of the Sahara (Third part)

Nombre de la alumna (o):	**X**	**X**	**X**
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**
	X	**X**	**X**
	Apellido paterno	**Apellido materno**	**Nombre (s)**

Indicaciones generales: Con base en el análisis del texto "***Chapter 9 Africa: South of the Sahara (Third Part)***". En Bradshaw, Michael. *et al*. (2004). *Contemporary World Regional Geography. Global Connections, Local Voices*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. New York, USA. Pp.399b-417; realiza lo que se te pide:

1. Después de haber leído **todo** el texto, en parejas, **formulen 8 preguntas fundamentales** que desarrollen las ideas principales de esta **primera parte** en la que se dividió el capítulo y contéstenlas.

2. Consideren los **subtítulos**, **mapas**, **cuadros**, **gráficas** y las **pirámides de edades** en la elaboración de sus cuestionamientos. Se sugiere que en dichas interrogantes contemplen los puntos medulares de la lectura y que las respuestas sean lo suficientemente amplias y claras.

3. En la parte final, elabora un **párrafo en inglés** (de seis a ocho renglones) y memorízalo, porque en clase lo vas a compartir.

4. Envíen sus **resultados** al correo electrónico: francisco.geoafrica@gmail.com, pero, sin el contenido de la lectura, **SÓLO LA PÁGINA DE ENTREGA. Fecha de revisión en clase: Miércoles 21 de abril de 2010**.

5. Es importante **respetar** el formato de la página de entrega, no alterándolo, ni modificándolo, ya que facilita su transmisión y evaluación.

8 Preguntas fundamentales

Explica brevemente la formación actual de Etiopía y los países aledaños.
Etiopía no fue colonizada por potencias europeas, aunque de 1936 a 1941 existió una ocupación militar italiana. En 1974 llegó al poder un gobierno comunista mediante un golpe de estado militar hasta que grupos rebeldes reemplazaron este régimen en 1991 y elaboraron una constitución en 1994 cuando hubo elecciones multipartidistas. Sin embargo, Etiopía continúa siendo un país feudal muy devastado. En sus inicios, la monarquía etíope se convirtió junto con su población a la religión ***Cóptica***, por lo que los musulmanes intentaron derrocarlos hacía 1523 establecieron varias comunidades en la costa dando origen a los actuales países: Djibouti, Eritrea y Somalia. A finales de 1800 al imperio británico se expandió el puerto de Adén en la Península Arábiga para controlar el paso de los barcos mercantes por el Canal de Suez. Para aumentar su dominio, Gran Bretaña estableció la Somalilandia Británica en la costa africana. Italia colonizó los territorios correspondientes a Eritrea y Somalia formando la Somalilandia Italiana. Tras la Segunda Guerra Mundial, las Naciones Unidas formaron un estado juntando Eritrea con Etiopía y otro uniendo la Somalilandia Británica con la italiana. El área que correspondía a Gran Bretaña declaró su independencia de Somalia en 1991 pero no fue reconocida. La zona

sur de dicho país es ingobernable.

Eritrea iba a ser nombrada como una provincia de Etiopía, por lo que los eritreos lucharon contra las fuerzas de Etiopía y la Unión Soviética hasta que, gracias al gobierno comunista etíope, se reconoció la independencia de Eritrea en 1993.

¿Cuál es la actividad económica productiva más relevante para los países del este africano?

La agricultura es la base económica de todos los países de esa zona. Gran parte de la población se mantiene mediante agricultura de subsistencia o ganadería nomádica, pero ambas están sujetas a las variaciones del medio ambiente. La situación de la agricultura de esa región es deficiente en términos generales, debido a factores como las obstrucciones burocráticas, la poca inversión, el alto costo de fertilizantes importados y la poca infraestructura reflejada en las malas condiciones de los pocos caminos establecidos. De todos los países de esa área, el único que tiene una comunidad con agricultura más diversificada es Kenia, gracias a la introducción de terrazas y campos cercados.

La economía de Etiopía está basada en la agricultura que absorbe el 45% del Producto Interior Bruto, el 85% de la mano de obra[1] y el 90% de las exportaciones. El producto principal es el café destinado en su casi integridad a la exportación, del que viven directa o indirectamente el 25% de la población. Este alto volumen, unido a la variabilidad de los precios internacionales del café, hacen que la balanza exportadora sea muy vulnerable

Etiopía tiene recursos minerales de oro y tantalio, y otros como mármol, potasa, mineral de hierro y gas natural. La explotación ha sido muy restringida a causa de los numerosos y frecuentes conflictos bélicos hasta 2002.

Otras actividades económicas productivas son la manufactura, escasamente desarrollada por Kenia y menos aún por Etiopía. En cuanto al turismo y los servicios, de nuevo Kenia es la que

va a la cabeza de la región debido a su relativa estabilidad política. Otro país con turismo considerable es Tanzania, actividad que representa el 60% de sus ingresos.

¿Cómo se define a una hambruna y cuáles son algunas de sus principales causas?

Una hambruna es una reducción abrupta de comida que ocurre en un área grande que causa las muertes por inanición y por las enfermedades derivadas de la inmunodepresión causadas por la desnutrición. Las hambrunas son el resultado de choques o desequilibrios tanto en la naturaleza como en los sistemas humanos que trastocan la producción o distribución de alimentos. Entre los choques naturales pueden contarse fenómenos extraordinarios como las sequías, las plagas, enfermedades en las plantas o inundaciones por desbordamiento de ríos, entre otras. Las causas humanas de las hambrunas puedes ser guerras, conflictos civiles, pobreza en grandes magnitudes, ineficiente distribución de los alimentos, o que el crecimiento poblacional sea mayor a la capacidad de un gobierno o región para alimentar a quienes viven allí.

Como ejemplo, en Etiopía los problemas del hambre como consecuencia de una mala cosecha en el periodo 2004-2005 han provocado que 3 millones de personas, de las cuales 750 mil son niños, estén, según la ONU, en situación de alto riesgo,

¿Quiénes son los principales personajes que históricamente han combatido las hambrunas en África y qué crítica se puede hacer al respecto?

Quienes han intervenido para terminar con las hambrunas han sido, principalmente, agencias de ayuda humanitaria internacional que generalmente no tienen injerencia directa de los gobiernos (ONGs), como la Cruz Roja., Oxfam, Save the Children y Christian Aid. las cuales han implementado diversas medidas como la provisión de almuerzos para los niños que cursan la educación elemental, asegurándoles niveles aceptables de nutrición. O han

proporcionado semillas para restablecer las economías regionales.

Aunque debe reconocerse la labor de las agencias extra-gubernamentales que logran poner algunas soluciones muy puntuales e insuficientes, también debe señalarse que muchos de los países en donde están las sedes de dichos organismos son los que en algún momento de la historia han conducido a la paupérrima situación actual de todo el continente en cuestión y que siguen interviniendo directa o indirectamente en el encarecimiento de los niveles de vida de la población africana.

También se debe emitir una crítica muy fuerte a los gobiernos de las regiones que han llegado a tener estos padecimientos, ya que ello es muestra de que, en la mayoría de los casos, no han procurado mejorar o ni siquiera mantener las condiciones de vida de la población que representan o de la que están a cargo, a pesar de tener cierta capacidad para poder cambiar de manera positiva su situación.

Describe brevemente la guerra de los Boers

Esta guerra fue un conflicto bélico entre Gran Bretaña y los aliados afrikáners del Transvaal y el Estado Libre de Orange, que tuvo lugar, desde 1899 hasta 1902, en el sur de África, concretamente en los territorios que actualmente forman Suráfrica. Durante el siglo XIX, después de que Gran Bretaña consiguiera el cabo de Buena Esperanza y expandiera sus posesiones en el sur de África, surgieron resentimientos entre la población de ascendencia holandesa, conocida como bóer o afrikáner, y los colonos británicos. Esto provocó la migración bóer denominada la gran Trek (1835-1843) y el consecuente establecimiento de las repúblicas bóers Transvaal y el Estado Libre de Orange. En 1886 el escenario estaba preparado para la guerra con el descubrimiento de oro en Witwatersrand, región que entonces ocupaba partes del sur del Transvaal. El influjo de miles de mineros y prospectores británicos como colonos de la zona condujo a la fundación y muy rápido desarrollo de la ciudad de Johannesburgo en el Transvaal. Los bóers, principalmente agricultores, protestaron por la invasión de

los cazadores de fortuna británicos. El resentimiento en ambas partes siguió aumentando durante unos años y al final condujo a una revuelta por parte de los uitlanders en Johannesburgo contra el gobierno bóer.

Describe brevemente el término *apartheid* y explica cómo se empleó en el sudeste de África.

Este término significa en Afrikaans, variante sudafricana del holandés, separación. Apareció oficialmente en Sudáfrica en 1944 y sirve para designar la política de segregación racial y de organización territorial aplicada de forma sistemática en África del Sur. El objetivo del apartheid era separar las razas en el terreno jurídico (Blancos, Asiáticos, Mestizos o Coloured, Bantúes o Negros), estableciendo una jerarquía en la que la raza blanca dominaba al resto (*Population Registration Act)* y en el plano geográfico mediante la creación forzada de territorios reservados: los Bantustanes. En 1959, con el *Self Government Act* el apartheid alcanzó su plenitud cuando la población negra quedó relegada a pequeños territorios marginales y autónomos y privada de la ciudadanía sudafricana. Hasta ese momento, Sudáfrica con sus importantes riquezas mineras y su situación geoestratégica se había alineado con el bloque occidental. Sin embargo, el sistema racista hizo que, en un momento en que se desarrollaba la descolonización, las presiones de la comunidad internacional se acrecentaban en la región.

El fin de la guerra fría precipitó el fin del apartheid. El presidente Frédérik de Klerk, tras diversas negociaciones con los representantes de las comunidades étnicas del país, puso fin al régimen racista en junio de 1991. En adelante la población negra recuperó sus derechos civiles y políticos. El proceso culminó con la llegada Nelson Mandela, mítico militante anti-apartheid que había pasado veintisiete años en la cárcel, a la presidencia de la República de Sudáfrica.

¿Cómo ha sido la historia racial del Sur Africano?

Las personas en el sureste de África incluye una amplia gama de grupos étnicos, las

variaciones culturales sumergen a esta región geográfica durante los últimos cuatro siglos de historia que han sido testigo de una gran cantidad de movimientos de gente de diferentes colores, la baja densidad de individuos que ocupaban esas tierras fue gradualmente cambiando, la población que allí vivía originalmente fue desplazada y en su lugar se ocuparon esas tierras con técnicas para la agricultura, la presencia europea varió, los portugueses fueron los primeros en llegar, pero pocos se quedaron y los otros continuaron con su viaje (en Angola y Mozambique), y la mayoría se retiró posteriormente a la independencia en 1975, en la parte más al sur, los alemanes se quedaron como Boers y los británicos también se alzaron en número, los últimos introdujeron a asiáticos, principalmente indios para que continuaran algunos trabajos y cubrieran algunos roles administrativos, hoy en día Sudáfrica es el único país en África al sur del Sahara que cuenta con población **no** negra siendo la conformación racial de la siguiente manera; 75% negra, 14 % blanca, 3% asiática y un 8% de razas mezcladas.

¿Cómo son las tasas de urbanización en el sur del Sahara?

En África, la población se distribuye desigualmente. Las zonas más pobladas son las costas, principalmente el delta del Níger en el golfo de Guinea, y las cuencas de los principales ríos, como ocurre en las orillas del río Nilo. Las zonas menos pobladas son los desiertos del Sahara y de Kalahari y las selvas; en estas zonas subsisten aún pueblos primitivos, como los bosquimanos y los pigmeos.

Todavía la proporción de población que vive en las ciudades africanas es menor al 50%, sin embargo las tasas de crecimiento de la urbanización de la población van del 2.5% al 5% de acuerdo a las características particulares de cada país

África es el continente con menos población urbana. El 62 % de los africanos vive en el campo, aunque, desde hace unos años, tiene lugar un constante éxodo rural. Por eso, las

ciudades africanas crecen a un ritmo muy acelerado, el más rápido del mundo. La ciudad más poblada es El Cairo (Egipto), seguida por Kinshasa (R. Democrática del Congo), Casablanca (Marruecos) y Ciudad de El Cabo (República Sudafricana).

La República de Sudáfrica tiene el 50% de población urbana, la proporción que vive en pueblos pudiera ser mayor si no hubiera sido por las políticas del apartheid que obligaban a los pobladores negros a regresar a sus tierras de origen, también existen grandes partes que permanecen en un estado rural, ahora crece más la parte urbanizada debido a la libertad permitida que existe hoy, Botswana y Zimbawe son entre el 30 y 40% urbanos debido a las grandes industrias que allí se encuentran, las tasas de urbanización de otros países se encuentran en menos de 25%.

Párrafo en inglés

This region of Africa is an example of what happened when there are policies that aren´t designed to improve population situation, that are made just to make a benefit to a group into the power or a country. Lamentably, the world situation more unequal than the local one. There still foreign companies taking African resources out that can´t be well regulated by the governments of the countries that are affected, it´s due to the corruption of the burocracy on them. It´s necessary to renew the politic and economic systems or regulate the measurements on these ones taking as a base the principle of the equality and justice.

COMENTARIOS DEL CAPÍTULO

Esta lectura, debido a la extensión del capítulo, se dividió en tres partes y se solicitó a las y los estudiantes que elaborarán ocho preguntas fundamentales de cada una de las secciones.

El capítulo estudiado se refiere a la problemática existente en la región del sur del Sahara (África Subsahariana). La portada del capítulo incluye dos mapas interesantes, que permiten la mejor comprensión del contenido a través de la comparación entre los límites de las regiones de África, que se muestran en el primero y las características que se expresan en el mapa físico, invitando al análisis y la relación de ambos.

La lectura comienza con un título llamativo ¿Un nuevo comienzo? Una herencia de recursos y de historia. Donde se proporciona al alumno(a), una reseña del medio físico, señalando que según estudios, en este contexto se produjo la aparición de los antropoides que dieron origen a la raza humana. Explica también, la influencia que ha tenido la cultura africana en el desarrollo económico de los países occidentales como consecuencia del colonialismo que llevó inmensas riquezas a lugares remotos y proporcionó mano de obra esclava a su agricultura e industria.

En el capítulo se encuentran diversos mapas que mejoran y amplían la comprensión del texto, como por ejemplo, el mapa *Africa South of the Sahara: Cultural features* (figura 9.3) muestra la diferencia de la división política actual, con la distribución de los territorios ocupados por diversas tribus o grupos étnicos, lo que hace evidente la causa de muchos de los conflictos que se suscitan por la falta de correspondencia en la organización del territorio. Otro de los mapas que mejor contribuyen al aprendizaje de los problemas de la región que se estudia es *Africa South of the Sahara: climate and vegetación regions* (figura 9.8) al combinar la información

que se encuentra en ellos es fácil construir conclusiones y nuevo conocimiento para el estudiante. Lo mismo puede decirse de los demás mapas e ilustraciones que aparecen en el capítulo.

El texto explica claramente la relación que existe entre las características físicas del territorio y los aspectos culturales de sus pobladores. Menciona la historia y las tradiciones de los muchos pueblos que conforman cada país y de su diversidad en las de formas de vida y, sobre todo, de cómo la heterogeneidad en el lenguaje ha dificultado la consolidación de la identidad nacional en los países, que se han formado posteriormente a la época colonial.

Otro tema fundamental en el documento analizado, es el colonialismo y su efecto en el desarrollo económico de Europa, por el aprovechamiento de los recursos africanos y en los Estados Unidos por la utilización de la mano de obra esclava. Posteriormente, se refiere al proceso de la independencia de las colonias y a la formación de una nueva división política, sus conflictos bélicos y su repercusión en las economías nacionales.

En las partes siguientes de la lectura, se describe la situación más reciente en el África Subsahariana, establece las causas de la dinámica demográfica, expone la distribución actual de la población y la tendencia de urbanización como producto de las migraciones provocadas por las guerras, la búsqueda de trabajo y mejores condiciones de vida. Además narra el proceso de la conformación de los bloques económicos que se encuentran en el territorio, basado en la modificación del peso de las actividades económicas en las que la agricultura empieza a declinar y la industria y las actividades terciarias se colocan como elementos del desarrollo económico.

Se reseñan también, los efectos que han tenido las catástrofes naturales como las sequías e inundaciones y las provocadas por las guerras o la corrupción de los gobiernos, en la generación de hambrunas.

La redacción, las ilustraciones y mapas, favorecen el cuestionamiento, la reflexión y la curiosidad para seguir aprendiendo acerca de este tema que toca aspectos fundamentales de la geografía humana que inciden en el futuro del planeta y de los seres humanos.

CONCLUSIONES

El curso de **Geografía de Asía, África y Oceanía 2010-2** es una parte esencial de la currícula de la Licenciatura en Geografía, porque permite al estudiante conocer y ampliar su conocimiento de estos continentes e interrelacionar aspectos muy diversos, ampliando su perspectiva y criterio para evaluar los eventos pasados y presentes, que seguramente influirán en el desarrollo mundial. Porque el fenómeno de la globalización hace que todos los países formen parte de un sistema económico y cultural.

El estudio del vínculo que existe entre las características del medio físico y la historia de los pueblos es esencial para la compresión del contexto internacional actual y hace posible que los estudiantes se ubiquen en él, tanto como individuos, como miembros de una sociedad que tiene rasgos singulares que debe aprovechar para participar competitivamente, en la lucha feroz que el modelo económico dominante ha impuesto a las personas y a las naciones.

Por las razones antes mencionadas, el contenido del curso es sumamente interesante, pero también es acertada la instrumentación didáctica que se emplea para lograr la adquisición del conocimiento, ésta se sustenta en la teoría didáctica constructivista, en la cual, el estudiante es el protagonista y responsable de su cambio en su actitud hacia nuevos aprendizajes, lo que amplía su estructura cognitiva. Así, lo plantea el Maestro Francisco Enríquez Denton, titular de la asignatura (2010-2) quien expresa a sus alumnos y alumnas:

"En el curso de Geografía de Asia, África y Oceanía, el profesor (a), además de explicar las dudas que se generan durante las clases, orienta y guía a los alumnos, para que ellos, mediante una actitud comprometida y responsable sean los principales protagonistas del curso, pieza fundamental en la

construcción *de su propio conocimiento y en la adopción de una postura crítica y de búsqueda de la verdad frente a la vida."*

La instrumentación didáctica está conformada principalmente, por cinco técnicas de enseñanza:

1. La lectura de comprensión.
2. La elaboración de juicios, a través de la formulación de preguntas.
3. El debate.
4. La mesa redonda.
5. La elaboración de conclusiones.

Todas ellas encaminadas al desarrollo de las habilidades del pensamiento, hecho que contrasta con la didáctica tradicional, enfocada a la memorización y repetición de la información.

Las lecturas que se utilizaron a lo largo del curso analizan y exploran las regiones, en las que de acuerdo a sus semejanzas, y para facilitar su estudio se ha dividido el mundo. Contiene temas fundamentales de la realidad actual como la conexión global y sus efectos en los distintos países, en el incremento de la inequidad social y la asimetría económica, en una presentación muy clara, que permite vincular, a las características físicas de las regiones, con los aspectos y los problemas demográficos, económicos, ambientales y sociales que en ellas suceden. Lo que conforma una visión integral en la percepción de los estudiantes, facilitando la comprensión de la realidad y la formación de opiniones sustentadas al respecto.

Para utilizar la técnica de la formulación de preguntas, es necesario que el docente se haya cerciorado, mediante un examen diagnóstico, que los alumnos cuenten con la habilidad de lectura compresión, y evaluación de textos para identificar la idea central de la lectura y los argumentos e ideas subordinadas que las sustentan. Lamentablemente, en nuestro país, todavía la mayor parte de la educación básica, no desarrolla de manera suficiente esta habilidad. Por lo cual es recomendable realizar algunas lecturas en clase para desarrollar o consolidar esta habilidad en los estudiantes y puedan alcanzar los objetivos previstos.

Con base en la deficiencia en la comprensión de la lectura, anteriormente descrita, las preguntas que debían conducir a la reflexión y posteriormente al debate, no fueron suficientemente comprendidas o fueron mal interpretadas, por los alumnos, en consecuencia, se sugiere que cuando menos en los primeros temas, tener sesiones en donde se pueda establecer claramente la intención o propósito de las preguntas.

Es encomiable la intención de incrementar el dominio del idioma inglés, todavía que es, el dominante en la cultura global, pero la realidad, como ha sido expuesto anteriormente, es que un número significativo de los estudiantes no tiene la competencia para entender los conceptos centrales en su propia lengua y menos en otro idioma. Por lo cual se hace evidente la necesidad de que los estudiantes aprendan este idioma desde la educación básica.

Para mejorar la calidad de los trabajos extra clase, ya sea individual o en grupo, se requiere de una guía más cercana y puntual de parte del maestro, que evite equivocaciones y pérdida de tiempo. Esto no significa de ninguna manera que el docente se convierta en el protagonista del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje, pero sí un facilitador, que pueda detectar oportunamente las deficiencias que deben ser superadas por un alumno en particular o por el

grupo. Recordando que cada grupo e individuo tienen características singulares, que deben ser consideradas, por el maestro para adaptar la instrumentación didáctica.

Uno de los mayores aciertos del curso, es la utilización de las tecnologías de comunicación. Contar con la información digitalizada es de gran ayuda para los alumnos, ya sea porque no pueden adquirir los libros o porque no están ni en bibliotecas ni librerías. Asimismo que las entregas de los trabajos sean por medios electrónicos, contribuye a que se cumplan los tiempos, se tenga una mejor comunicación y evita que el alumno no entreguen oportunamente, si por una causa de fuerza mayor no puede llegar en la fecha y hora establecida. Adicionalmente, este es un buen entrenamiento para que los estudiantes dominen las comunicaciones electrónicas.

Así, desde la perspectiva del alumno, se puede afirmar que la instrumentación didáctica utilizada es muy buena, principalmente porque promueve el desarrollo de las habilidades del pensamiento en los estudiantes y les otorga la confianza para que ellos se responsabilicen de su aprendizaje, hecho que no sólo les sirve para acreditar un curso de licenciatura, sino para enfrentar y resolver problemas académicos y personales.

En cuanto al contenido de la asignatura se puede concluir que el conocer la situación por la que han pasado y siguen padeciendo la mayor parte de los pueblos africanos, con guerras, explotación, hambre, enfermedades, corrupción, circunstancia que se traduce en ver a los niños soldados, a mujeres esclavas y a los hombres incapaces para acceder a los mínimos elementos para desarrollar sus potencialidades, provoca el deseo de adquirir una mejor formación académica y humana, que permita a los jóvenes ser factor de cambio en este mundo donde la ignorancia y la falta de valores son el medio, en donde se cultiva la degradación de la raza humana y la destrucción del planeta.

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