*HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 99*

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# BELGIAN CONGO

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

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# EDITORIAL NOTE

In the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious, and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous inquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics, and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes ; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly*
*Director of the Historical Section.*

*January* 1920.

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# I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

## (1) Position and Frontiers

The Belgian Congo is situated in the basin of the River Congo in Equatorial Africa, and lies between 5° 20′ north and 14° south latitude and between 12° 5′ and 31° 18′ east longitude.

Practically the whole region drains to the River Congo, and the chief means of access is from the Atlantic coast, but the Congo does not give that unity to the country which might be expected from these facts, as both it and its tributaries are in certain parts of their courses interrupted by falls and do not form good through routes. The Katanga region belongs physically to the South African plateau and has been developed as a result of the general movement towards the north, which may be seen in most of the South African colonies. The Eastern Highlands which border the Western Rift valley belong to East Africa, and the movement to bring them within the hinterland of the Indian Ocean has become pronounced within recent years. The north-eastern districts which border the Congo–Nile divide and the eastern part of the country between the Welle (Uele) and the Ituri may conceivably turn towards the Nile as they develop, and even at present a certain amount of trade takes place by that route.

The original idea in the foundation of the State was that it should include the whole basin of the Congo, but various political circumstances have restricted it within somewhat narrower limits. The frontier, as it exists at the present time, is therefore of varying character, and is in places more or less arbitrary.

To the north of the mouth of the Congo lies the Cabinda enclave, which is administered by Portugal. The boundary between it and the Belgian Congo was for long in doubt, but on July 5, 1913, it was defined by protocol. From the point (13° E., 4° 40′ S.) at which French, Portuguese, and Belgian territory meet, the boundary follows the Shiloango river southwards as far as its confluence with the Lukula, and then ascends the latter river to the point (5° 10′ S., 12° 32′ E.) at which it is joined by the N'Zenze or Culla-Calla. From there a straight line is drawn southward as far as the parallel (5° 44′ S.) which passes through the sources of the River Lulofe on the western slope of the plateau of Nime Chiama. The boundary then runs along this parallel westward as far as Yema (5° 44′ S., 12° 18′ E.), whence it follows first the Lulofe and then the Venzo river as far as Mallango. Beyond Mallango a purely conventional frontier runs to the coast, which is reached about 1¾ miles north of the lagoon of Lunga.

From the Cabinda enclave to the point at which the boundary touches the Congo the line between French and Belgian territory is defined in the main by minor geographical features. By the Convention of February 5, 1885, it was agreed that it should follow the Shiloango to its sources, and then continue along the divide between the waters of the Niari Kwilu (Quilloo) and those of the Congo about as far east as Manyanga. From this point to the Congo the frontier was left unsettled, but it was resolved that it should agree as far as possible with some natural division of the land, and that it should end at a point on the navigable portion of the river between the station of Manyanga and the cataract of Ntombo Mataka. A protocol of November 22, 1885, defined part of the boundary, which follows various minor irregularities of the land.

The frontier now changes in character By the

Convention of February 5, 1885, modified by the Declaration of February 5, 1895, it was agreed that the line should follow the Congo up to Stanley Pool and then take the median line of Stanley Pool up to its point of contact with the island of Bamu, the southern shore of that island up to its eastern extremity, and again the median line of Stanley Pool and the Congo.

By the Protocol of April 29, 1887, and the Boundary Agreement of August 14, 1894, the Franco-Belgian boundary was carried from the Congo up the whole course of the Ubanghi to the confluence of its constituent streams, the Mbomu and the Welle, and thence up the Mbomu to its source on the confines of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

From here the Congo–Nile watershed forms the dividing line between British and Belgian territory as far as a point situated about 2° 25′ north and 30° 45′ east. A delimitation commission, whose work was confirmed in 1915, carried the boundary thence by a line, partly conventional and partly determined by minor geographical features, to Lake Albert near the mouth of the Oguta.

By an agreement, now some years old, the boundary between the Belgian Congo and Uganda was carried practically down the centre of Lake Albert and along the Semliki river and its tributary the Lamia to the source of the latter. It is continued by a straight line from there to Margherita Peak, the highest point in the Ruwenzori range, and thence by another straight line to the source of the Lubilia-Chako, which it follows to Lake Edward. It then crosses the lake to the mouth of the Ishasha and follows that river and its tributary, the Muniaga, to a point from which it is carried by an arbitrary line running east to the summit of Mount Nkabwe and then more or less due south to the summit of Mount Sabinio in the Mfumbiro range, and

the meeting-place of British, Belgian, and German territory.

From the summit of Mount Sabinio the boundary between the Belgian Congo and German East Africa is defined by a Convention signed in 1911. As far as Lake Kivu, which it reaches near Ngoma, it is very irregular and can be followed only on a large-scale map. Many of the irregularities are due to the fact that in certain places all native settlements were included in German territory.

Across Lake Kivu the boundary is continued from a point between Ngoma and Kisenyi (Kissegnies) to the mouth of the Rusizi, and is so drawn as to give four islands in the lake to Belgium and four to Germany. It then follows the Rusizi to Lake Tanganyika, takes the median line of that lake to a point opposite Moliro, and terminates near this town.

Between the Belgian Congo and Rhodesia the boundary is defined by the Agreement of May 12, 1894. It runs from the extremity of Cape Akalunga on Lake Tanganyika to the right bank of the Luapula (Luvua) where that river issues from Lake Mweru. It then crosses the lake to the point at which the Luapula enters it, but is deflected in the south so as to give the island of Kilwa to Great Britain. The Luapula river is followed to the point at which it leaves Lake Bangweulu, and the line then runs directly south along the meridian of that point to the Congo–Zambezi watershed, which then forms the southern boundary as far as the meeting-place of British, Belgian, and Portuguese territory. In 1911 an Anglo-Belgian commission was appointed to survey this part of the frontier, and from the maps it prepared it appears that the Luapula crosses the stretch of the meridian in question, and that consequently some modification of the frontier will here be necessary.

Various agreements define the Belgo-Portuguese frontier, the most important of which are the Agreement of May 25, 1891, the Declaration of March 24, 1894, and the letters exchanged between the two Powers in April and June 1910. From the meridian of 24° east the boundary runs westward along the Congo–Zambezi watershed to the neighbourhood of Lake Dilolo. At this point the boundary leaves the divide and strikes the upper course of the Kasai, which then becomes the boundary as far north as 7° 17′ south. From this point the frontier runs westward for a considerable distance across the tributaries of the Kasai and becomes very irregular. Its general direction is westwards along the parallel of 7° 17′ south as far as the Chikapa, down that river to a point a little north of the 7th parallel, west to the Loange, and up that and other rivers as far as the 8th parallel. This it follows fairly closely to the Kwango, along which it runs to the north. The details of the delimitation, which was carried out in 1894, can be shown only on a large-scale map. (See Appendix No. IV.)

From the Kwango to Noki on the lower Congo the boundary was finally adjusted by an agreement of July 5, 1913. It follows approximately the parallel of 5° 52′ south; but, of forty-five places mentioned through which it is to pass, a number lie a little to the north and a number a little to the south of that parallel.

## (2) Surface, Coast, Lakes, and River System

### *Surface*

The greater part of the south of Africa consists of a high plateau which is continued northward by the highlands of East Africa and the coastal ranges of West Africa. Between these lies the low plateau which forms the

basin of the central Congo. It is bordered on the south-east by the Katanga, a continuation of the high veldt of South Africa and Rhodesia, and on the south by the lower lands of the Angola plateau. In the east it rises to the mountains bordering the great rift in which lie Lakes Albert, Edward, Kivu, and Tanganyika, and on the north-east to a lower plateau which forms the divide between the waters of the Congo and the Nile; while on the west the low Congo plateau merges into the Crystal Mountains. To the west of these mountains lies the small coastal region.

*Coastal Region.*—Behind the Atlantic coast of the Belgian Congo, which is generally low and sandy, there are cliffs which form the escarpment of a low plateau. Upon this plateau are considerable areas of marsh-land, in which the rivers pursue winding and uncertain courses. Farther inland the land rises through a second sandy plateau to the region of Mayumbe, which occupies the remainder of the country north of the Congo basin and west of the Crystal Mountains. It is a hilly district, and the numerous rivers which traverse it are frequently interrupted by falls and rapids. In the valleys, and on the lower slopes of the hills, there is a more or less dense tropical forest, but elsewhere brushwood and savanna are the prevailing types of vegetation. The banks of the Congo are frequently covered with mangrove forests, while farther inland there is again savanna. The region as a whole contains considerable areas of fertile soil, and numerous plantations have been established within it.

*Crystal Mountains.*—These mountains run along the western coast of Africa from Cameroon to Angola. Within the Belgian Congo they form a great barrier between the coastal region and the central basin of the Congo. Their average height seldom exceeds 2,500 ft., the most conspicuous parts of the range being the massif

of Palaba and the plateau of Bangu. The former reaches its greatest height near Matadi, and the latter rises in Mount Wia (north of Tumba) to a height of about 3,450 ft. The Congo cuts its way through the mountains in a deep gorge, but, owing to the rapids in this part of its course, is here useless as a means of communication.

*Central Basin.*—As a whole the central basin may be regarded as a vast plateau which is raised along the margins and depressed in the centre. In the neighbourhood of the larger rivers flooding frequently takes place, and there are numerous districts in the interior of the plain which are always more or less marshy.

This region, covered as it is in many places by dense tropical forests, has only been partially explored, and comparatively little is known about the details of its surface features. It would appear, however, to reach its lowest level in the country round Lake Leopold II, where it is only about 1,100 ft. above sea-level. Elsewhere, however, as one goes from the main river towards the north, the land becomes higher and more deeply incised by the tributary streams.

*Congo–Nile Plateau.*—The north-east of the Congo region rises gradually into a plateau which forms the watershed between the Congo and the Nile, and that part of this divide which belongs to the Belgian Congo is drained by the Welle and its tributaries. The character of the surface in general has the form of a plateau which slopes from the east towards the west and south-west, while on the south it falls somewhat steeply towards the central basin. The country reaches its greatest elevation in the north-east, where it has a height of 3,000 to 4,000 ft. above sea-level. Here the water-parting assumes the form of a crest, and in this neighbourhood there are some considerable hills, such as Mount Barara and Mount Baginze.

In the south-east also of the Congo–Nile plateau,

between the Welle–Kibali and the Bomokandi rivers, the country is hilly and even mountainous, rising to 3,600 ft. or more at the head-waters of the former river.

To the west of the districts just described the country becomes lower and forms a series of broad plateaus more or less uniform in character. North of Niangara the surface is level or gently undulating, with an average elevation of about 2,500 ft. Here therefore the Congo–Nile divide is not a well-defined crest, although the actual water-parting is clearly marked.

To the south and west of Niangara the country retains the same general character but is somewhat lower. Among the hills which rise above the average level of the land are Mount Angba on the Welle near Amadi, Mount Madjema near Poko, and Mount Tena on the Bomokandi.

In the broad level plains which are characteristic of the greater part of this region the surface features are generally monotonous. The Welle and most of its tributaries wind their way between high banks of clayey alluvium, but the broad basins in which they flow are much too shallow to be termed valleys in the ordinary sense. Numerous rapids prevent continuous navigation, and in the intervening reaches, where the fall of the land is slight, the rivers frequently expand during the rainy season into enormous swamps. As a general rule the country north of the Welle is a savanna region, and its open character is therefore in marked contrast to the densely wooded lands in the central basin of the Congo.

*Eastern Highlands.*—These form the eastern border of the central basin and rise from it to the inner escarpment of the Western Rift valley. To the north of the Lukuga the mountains of Ugoma run along the northern part of the west coast of Lake Tanganyika. Farther to the north, where they border the Rusizi and Lake Kivu,

the mountains are broader on the whole, while to the west of Lake Edward they seldom exceed 6,000 ft. in height. The range finally merges into the southernmost part of the Congo–Nile divide.

*Katanga.*—The term *Katanga* has been assigned to a definite administrative region (cf. p. 51, *foot-note* [1]), but is here taken to include that part of the south-east of the Belgian Congo which belongs to the plateau of South Africa, and the districts more closely associated with it.

To the south of the district lies the High Katanga, which is a vast undulating plateau. In the copper-producing area near the southern frontier its height varies from 4,000 to 5,000 ft., but farther to the north it sometimes rises to over 6,000 ft. The greater part of this region is covered with thin forest.

To the north-east of the High Katanga the plateau of Kundelungu lies between the Luapula and Lake Mweru on the east and the Lufira on the west. This plateau, which has an average elevation of about 5,000 ft., possesses a gently undulating and only slightly diversified surface. Climate and soil combine to give it a steppe vegetation.

Separated from the Kundelungu by the high valley of the Lubule lies the mountain region of Mulumbe, of which large areas are covered with comparatively dense savanna. To the north of it are the Kibara Mountains, which in reality form an undulating plateau. The soil is as a rule poor, but in the valleys there are often fertile districts.

On the north-west the High Katanga is bordered by the southern border of the Biano plateau and the south-west prolongation of the Bia Mountains. The flat surface of the plateau is almost unbroken, and the rivers which originate upon it descend by steep slopes to the lowlands. The Bia Mountains, which border this plateau on the west, contain stores of tin, which

will probably give them considerable economic importance in the future.

To the north-west of the Bia Mountains, and between them and the Hakannson Mountains, lies the lowland which is generally known as the rift-valley of Upemba. Lakes Upemba and Kisali are the largest remnants of the great lake which once occupied this region, but there are, in all, about thirty-five fluvial lagoons along the course of the Lualaba, and at times of high water much of the land is converted into marsh. The soil is fertile and the vegetation rich, but the district is unhealthy.

To the east of the Kundelungu lies the Mweru-Luapula valley, where there are considerable tracts of alluvial soil. Many fertile districts exist along the course of the Luapula and to the south-west of Lake Mweru. Notwithstanding its height—over 3,000 ft.—the country has a tropical climate, and much of it is covered with forest.

On the west of Lake Tanganyika from the Luvua to the Lukuga extends the mountainous region of the Marungu, which may be regarded as a transition zone between the Katanga proper and the Eastern Highlands.

*Southern Kasai Basin.*—To the west of the Katanga region the land merges into the Kasai country. This region is on the whole one of the least known parts of the Congo, but its general structure is comparatively simple. From the Kasai and Sankuru rivers the land rises gradually to the plateau of South Africa. This plateau is much dissected by the numerous rivers which rise upon it and flow northward to join the Kasai.

On the plateau, where the land rises to an elevation of over 3,000 ft., the rivers usually flow in shallow depressions within which they expand or contract according to the season of the year. Their banks are often marshy, and the intervening lands are also badly drained. As they go northward the rivers cut deeper

and broader valleys, and the country, though decreasing in height, presents a more mountainous appearance, being better drained and less marshy.

*Coast*

In proportion to the area of the colony the coast-line of the Belgian Congo is extremely short. Its frontage to the Atlantic lies between the Portuguese territory of Cabinda and the estuary of the Congo, and is little over 20 miles in length. For shipping purposes its value is small. The coast is generally low and sandy, and the shoals by which it is fringed make it unsafe for vessels to approach very close.

For its communication with the sea the country has therefore to depend upon the estuary of the Congo, which may be considered as beginning at Boma, 50 miles from the coast. The estuary can as a rule be navigated without much difficulty, though the conditions are not ideal.

*Lakes*

On the eastern frontier of the Belgian Congo is the Western Rift valley, in which lie Lakes Albert, Edward, Kivu, and Tanganyika. As a general rule these lakes are bordered by lofty mountains which prevent alike the formation of good ports and the development of communication with the interior. Lake Tanganyika is at the present time of most value for navigation; on the other lakes, of which Mweru is the chief, there is little organized trade.

*River System*

The general characteristics of the Congo and its numerous tributaries are determined by the physical structure of the basin which they drain. Most, though not all, of these rivers rise upon the uplands surrounding the central region and descend more or less rapidly towards it. In this part of their course they tend to be

narrow, while their valleys are more or less deeply incised. Exceptions to this general rule are, however, found in the Welle district, where the tendency is for broad navigable reaches to alternate with falls or rapids, and in the Katanga, where the rift-valleys of Upemba–Lualaba and Mweru–Luapula have a structure more or less independent of the rivers which traverse them.

On reaching the central basin the velocity of the rivers is checked; they become wide and sluggish, and in many places overflow at certain seasons of the year. The débris which they have carried down with them forms numerous submerged sandbanks, but with each flood the rivers once more pick up this material only to redeposit it elsewhere. Their channels are consequently never the same for two years in succession. In addition to this the rivers are frequently blocked by weeds and other vegetation, and in their efforts to overcome this obstacle the main currents are constantly taking new directions.

After it has collected the drainage of its vast basin the Congo carries it down from the sandstone plateau through the gorge which it has cut in the Crystal Mountains to the lowlands bordering the coast. As the difference in level is considerable its course is again interrupted by rapids and falls.

The Congo, as will be seen from the map, has countless tributaries. The largest on the right bank are the Ubanghi, which forms for a considerable distance the boundary between Belgian and French Congo, and has as its main affluent the Welle with its system of smaller rivers; the Aruwimi (or Nowelle), which joins the Congo at Basoko; the Lukuga, which connects Lake Tanganyika with the main stream; and the Luvua or Luapula, which connects the Congo with Lake Mweru.

On the left bank the main tributaries are the Lomami, which pursues a course almost parallel to that of the

main stream, finally joining it at Isangi; the Ruki, which joins the Congo at Coquilhatville; and the Kasai, whose basin has been described above (p. 10), and which receives as its main affluents the Lulua, the Sankuru, and the Lukenie (Fini or Mfini) on the right bank, and the Kwango system (including the Kwilu and Kwengo) on the left.

In the upper part of the Congo and in the Kasai there are, as a result of the double rainy season, two annual floods and two periods of low water. The Sanga (whose course lies entirely in French territory) and the Ubanghi, which are the principal tributaries from the north, have floods of the Nilotic type with one period of low water in April and one of high water in October. These make their influence felt on the main river in the exaggeration of the November–December flood as compared with that of May and June.

### (3) Climate

The data available for a consideration of the climatic regime of the Belgian Congo are very scanty and imperfect, but they are sufficient to give an idea of its general character. At the Equator the temperature is high at all seasons of the year, and at Eala (0° 5′ N.) the annual mean is about 76° F. (24·5 C.), while the range between the warmest and coldest months is only about 2° F. (1° C.). Farther to the north the mean annual temperature is somewhat higher, and at Nouvelle Anvers (1° 36′ N.) it is 78° F. (25·5° C.). On the other hand the range between February, the warmest month, and August, the coldest, is about 3·5° F. (2° C.). No figures exist for places actually in the Belgian Congo north of Nouvelle Anvers, but there appears to be a further increase both in the mean annual temperature and in the mean annual range, as far north at least as the limits of the tropical forest.

To the south of the Equator somewhat similar conditions prevail. The mean annual temperature tends to increase southward and varies from 75° to 78° F. (24° to 25·5° C.). The annual range also increases and in places is as much as 9° F. (5° C.). Over this part of the central basin March is generally the hottest month.

In the Katanga, which is farther removed from the Equator and is at the same time much higher, the climatic regime is more varied. At Elisabethville the mean annual temperature is 68° F. (20° C.), while the range between October, the warmest month, and July, the coldest, is about 16° F. (9° C.). This region and perhaps some districts of the Eastern Highlands for which figures are not available appear to be the only parts of the Congo suitable for European settlement.

The greater part of the Congo falls within the belt of equatorial rains which moves backward and forward with the apparent motion of the sun. The region of heaviest rainfall is at or near the Equator, where there is a mean annual precipitation of 65 to 70 inches (1,650 to 1,780 mm.). In this region rain falls at all seasons, and although it is fairly well distributed throughout the year, there is a double maximum—one in April or May and the other in October and November.

Over the whole of the region north of the Equator the conditions are somewhat similar. As a rule the double maximum is well marked, but there is no distinctly dry season. In the district north of the Welle, however, there is very little rainfall in December and January, when the sun is well to the south. Taking the region as a whole the mean annual precipitation tends to fall between 60 and 65 inches (1,520 and 1,650 mm.), except in the Eastern Highlands, where it is less.

South of the Equator the rainfall is on the whole lower. In the central basin it is generally over 55 inches (1,400 mm.), but it decreases to the east, south-east,

and south, where the somewhat scanty records all indicate less than 50 inches (1,270 mm.). Except in close proximity to the Equator there is everywhere a well-marked dry season, and little rain falls between May and September. In the northern parts of the region there is a double maximum, but in the south this becomes much less pronounced.

### (4) Sanitary Conditions

Sleeping-sickness and malaria are the most serious diseases of the Belgian Congo.

Sleeping-sickness has, at one time or other, ravaged most parts of the Belgian Congo, and has probably caused a great reduction of its population. The only districts which appear to be safe are those situated at a height of over 4,000 feet above sea-level. Both natives and Europeans are liable to malaria, which is probably the chief cause of the high infant mortality which prevails.

Tick fever, filaria infection (the cause of elephantiasis), and jigger lesions are all common among the native population, while blackwater fever, which is generally recognized to be a sequel of neglected malaria, is met with. Pulmonary diseases cause many deaths among the natives, and among other diseases may be mentioned small-pox, which has at various times ravaged parts of the Congo, venereal troubles, which appear to be common, dysentery, and affections of the skin.

### (5) Race and Language

#### *Race*

The population consists almost entirely of Bantu negroes, similar in race to the natives of both South and West Africa. Along the northern boundary, south

of the Ubanghi and Bomu rivers, a group of peoples, the Azande and cognate tribes, and in the north-east, near the Nile, Nilotic elements, cover considerable areas, while the Watussi near Lake Kivu are of Abyssinian origin. Scattered over the whole State there are isolated groups of people of small stature, the Nains,[1] who are probably the remnants of indigenous races. The chief group of Nains inhabit the Ituri forest. The predominant people of the Azande group are the Avunguru, who are almost white in colour.

### *Language*

There are four languages in common use: Fiote, Bangala, Kiswahili, and Kiluba. These are degenerate mixed tongues, which serve as a means of intercourse along the main arteries of communication.

The development of a *lingua franca* tends to be carried still farther, for it is asserted that Fiote and Bangala tend to merge into a single hybrid speech. As a rule identity of speech implies identity of race; but the Bakango are known to use different dialects.

Bantu race and Bantu speech, however, do not always coincide; the Bongo and Warega, for example, are Bantu peoples who do not use a Bantu dialect; the Wagenia and Bushongo, on the other hand, have a Bantu language, although they are not Bantu by race.

The whole area of the Congo State has not been fully explored linguistically, but it seems possible to group the numerous tongues as North, South, and East Bantu. North Bantu includes the languages in use along the middle Congo and the Aruwimi, South Bantu those of the lower Congo and the Kasai–

[1] The people of small stature have been called Pygmies, Batwas, Nains. The (French) term *Nain* is used here in preference to the term *Batwa* in order to distinguish these Congo pygmies from the Bushmen of South Africa, to whom the term *Batwa* is also applied.

Sankuru district, and East Bantu those which serve the people near the lakes.

On the hypothesis that the Bantu migrated from the north-east, this classification implies that East Bantu is the most archaic speech, South Bantu is intermediate, and North Bantu is farthest removed from the original speech.

The Azande have a language of their own, which has driven out those of many of the tribes whom this conquering people have largely absorbed.

## (6) Population

### *Distribution*

Data are lacking for a precise estimate of the density of the population. There is some evidence that the people are most numerous in the north-east and south-west, that they tend to congregate along the banks of the large rivers and lakes, and that their numbers are either stationary or declining. It is asserted also that the natives tend to desert the country crossed by a main line of traffic.

### *Nomads*

Only the Nains are nomads. The most numerous groups of Nains are the Mambutti pygmies of the Ituri forest ; other smaller groups of pygmy peoples occur scattered among the tribes of the east and south. All Nains are hunters, and barter meat for vegetable produce with the sedentary tribes. The Ituri Pygmies change their location in the forest in accordance with the facilities which arise for barter ; the Nains elsewhere attach themselves to the tribe which offers superior inducements to provide meat ; it is regarded as a mark of high repute for an agricultural tribe to be served by a group of Nains.

*Settled Tribes*

Most of the tribes have reached their present situation as a result of migratory movements which have been in progress for centuries. European influences tend to fix each tribe in the locality it occupied twenty or thirty years ago, but the migrations can hardly be said to have ceased.

One important result of these migrations is that one tribe occasionally attains a position of 'overlord' over another; there are three important instances of the domination of a more intelligent people over a more numerous, less capable folk. South of the Sankuru the Bushongo, who originally came from the Shari district in the French Sudan, maintain a dominant position among the Bakuba; the Watussi are the leading race near Lake Kivu; and the Avunguru-Azande exert a dominating influence on the Bakango, Ababua, and Abarambo of the Welle–Bomokandi district.

In recent years the demands of Europeans for labourers have introduced a new element which causes movements of the people, but not necessarily a change in the permanent home of a tribe. At Stanley Pool so many workers are needed that Bangala from the middle Congo and Batetela from the east of the upper Sankuru are employed in large numbers. When these natives are accompanied by their women the stability of the tribal settlements is disturbed.

*Europeans*

On 1 Jan., 1918 there were 6,266 Europeans in the Congo. 3,263 of them were Belgians, while the remainder included representatives of various nationalities. Outside of Katanga they are either Government officials, traders, miners and prospectors, or mis-

sionaries. The Government officials and missionaries are distributed throughout the country; traders are settled either at the ports or at the main collecting centres in the interior; and miners and prospectors are found in the outlying regions such as the Eastern Highlands and the Kasai region. In Katanga the Europeans, many of whom are British, are mainly connected, directly or indirectly, with the mining industry.

# II. HISTORY

## Chronological Summary

1485 Discovery of Congo by Diogo Cão.

1490–1608 Semi-Christian kingdom of San Salvador under Portuguese influence.

1644–1717 Period of activity of Italian Capuchins with Papal support.

1766–74 Abortive French Catholic mission.

1778 Last Italian mission to San Salvador.

1781–82 Failure of Portuguese Franciscans to reopen relations with San Salvador.

1783 Portuguese occupation of Cabinda.

1784 Expulsion of Portuguese from Cabinda by the French.

1816 Effort of Captain Tuckey to explore Congo.

1827–29 Survey of Congo estuary by Captain Owen's expedition.

1855 Activity of European business houses on Congo begins.

1857 Survey continued to Matadi by Captain Hunt.
Dr. Bastian visits San Salvador.

1859–66 Portuguese occupation of San Salvador in favour of Dom Pedro V.

1863 Burton explores Congo to Yalala Falls.

1871 Livingstone reaches Nyangwe on Lualaba (Congo).

1873–75 Cameron reaches Nyangwe; he recognizes Lualaba as Congo, but cannot follow stream to mouth.

1876 Leopold II of Belgium summons Geographical Conference, which creates International African Association for exploration of Africa and repression of slave-trade.

1877–82 Futile expeditions of Association to east coast of Africa.

1878 Arrival of Stanley in Europe, after crossing Africa and descending Congo from Nyangwe to sea (1875–7).

Leopold II creates Comité d'Études du Haut-Congo.
De Brazza, having explored Ogowe (1875–78), offers to establish French influence on Congo.

1879–82 Stanley in Africa as representative of Comité; reaches upper river and makes treaties, returning to Europe August 1882.

1880–82 De Brazza, acting for France, establishes Franceville on Ogowe, Brazzaville on Stanley Pool; he explores Niari Kwilu.

1882 Portugal opens negotiations with England to secure Congo mouth.

1883–84 Stanley secures Niari Kwilu valley for International Congo Association (the new name of the Comité), and makes treaties in upper Congo.
De Brazza, sent to anticipate Stanley, arrives too late.

1884 Anglo-Portuguese Treaty (Feb. 26) assigns Congo mouth to Portugal.
United States recognizes Association as a friendly State (Apr. 22).
Association accords rights of pre-emption to France (Apr. 23).
France and Germany declining to accept Anglo-Portuguese Treaty, Portugal suggests International Conference (May 1884).

1884–85 Berlin Conference (Nov. 15, 1884—Feb. 26, 1885) regulates position of Congo basin; the Powers by separate treaties recognize the Association as a State, and it adheres to Berlin Act (Feb. 26).

1885 Leopold II assumes sovereignty and proclaims neutrality of State.

1886 Slave-traders of eastern Congo destroy station at Stanley Falls.

1887–89 Stanley, appointed to relieve Emin Pasha in Equatoria, secures Falls by installing Tiputipu as Vali, and brings Emin back to Congo.

1890 Brussels Conference regulates trade in liquor and provides better means for suppression of slave-trade.
Agreement between State and Belgium for loan, giving Belgium right to annex in 1901.

1891 Agreement with Portugal as to boundary in Kwango district.

Death of Msiri and successful occupation of the Katanga.

1891–92 Beginning of monopolies and concessions.

1892–94 The Arab war ; complete overthrow of slave-traders.

Steady advance of State forces into Nile basin.

1894 Final settlement of boundary with Portugal.

Large territorial concessions by United Kingdom in Nile region in return for strip between Lakes Tanganyika and Edward (May 12), which, on German protest, is abandoned (June 22) ; boundary on south defined.

Modification of northern boundary by agreement with France (Aug. 14).

1895 Proposed immediate annexation by Belgium, subject to transfer of obligation to respect French right of pre-emption ; change of policy of King in close communication with French President, Faure ; withdrawal of treaty and renewal of expansion towards Nile.

Judicial murder of Stokes.

Outbreak of revolt of Batetela.

1896 Foundation of Domaine de la Couronne to secure funds for public works in Belgium and royal annuities.

1898 French and English at Fashoda ; Anglo-French agreement ; activity of Belgian officers in Nile basin.

1900 Suppression of revolts in progress since 1895 now nearly complete.

Creation of Comité du Katanga with full administrative and commercial powers.

1901 Annexation by Belgium definitely opposed by King, who greatly extends activity of State in exploitation.

Belgium agrees to postponement of annexation (Aug.).

Death, while in custody of State officials, of the Austrian subject, Rabinek, accused of trading in Katanga.

Growth of public uneasiness (especially since 1898) as to maladministration of Congo, and protests against restraint of trade.

1903 British circular to the Powers, raising question of carrying out of Berlin Act as regards free trade and treatment of natives.

1904 Mr. Casement's report on atrocities communicated to Leopold II.

1905 Commission of Inquiry's report published (Oct. 31, 1905); it condemns in many respects the policy of the State.

1906 The King's reform decrees; declaration that annexation is premature, and that in annexation the Domaine (renamed Fondation) de la Couronne and other foundations must be respected.

M. Hymans's interpellation; Government undertakes to secure annexation.

Convention regarding liquor traffic; increase of duties.

Convention between King Leopold and Great Britain (May 9), which gives him only the Lado enclave for life.

1907 Treaty for annexation of Congo to Belgium (Nov. 28); dissatisfaction in Belgium at retention of Domaine de la Couronne.

1908 Additional Act (March 5) providing for suppression of Domaine.

Treaty and Act approved by Parliament; Colonial Charter voted; annexation (Nov. 15).

French right of pre-emption recognized (Dec. 23).

United Kingdom represents to Belgium conditions of amelioration of native position and freedom of trade which must be fulfilled prior to recognition by her of annexation.

1909 Death of Leopold II. Definite change of policy on accession of King Albert.

1910 Various reform decrees, including introduction of freedom of trade in three stages, and resumption by State of administration of the Katanga, which by railway connexion with the south is now opened to exploitation. Surrender of Lado enclave to Sudan.

1911 Arrangements for suppression of Government share in monopolies of Abir and Société Anversoise, and dissociation from Kasai Company.

1912 Freedom of trade extended to whole of Colony (July 1).

1913 From January 31 liquor traffic suppressed throughout the Colony.

1914 Neutrality of Colony violated by Germany; colonial forces take part in war.

## (1) The International African Association

The evolution of the Belgian Congo from its original conception as a commercial undertaking to a recognized status among the great African Powers is the work of Leopold II, King of the Belgians. While the discoveries of Burton, Livingstone, Cameron, Rohlfs, du Chaillu, and other great African travellers aroused the interest of many different classes of individuals in Western Europe, the political potentialities of the territories lying within the basin of the Congo were as yet unrevealed to the average European, whether manufacturer, trader, or philanthropist. King Leopold II, however, who had succeeded to the Belgian throne in 1865, beheld a different vision; and, though it is improbable that he foresaw exactly the train of events which was to lead to the creation of the Congo Free State, he grasped the political advantages attaching to the systematic encouragement of African exploration. Stanley had barely started on the journey which was to take him from one coast of the continent to the other when King Leopold resolved to utilize the generally aroused European interest in Central Africa in the creation of an African State under his own rule. On September 12, 1876, therefore, he summoned an international conference of geographical experts to Brussels. From this assembly sprang the International African

Association, which undertook not only the exploration of unknown African regions, but also the furtherance, by all means in its power, of the suppression of the slave trade and of the promotion of legitimate commerce. After lengthy discussion it was unanimously agreed that each country wishing to take part in the enterprise should form a national committee. Money was to be collected by these bodies and delegates sent to an International Commission, whose permanent headquarters were to be situate at Brussels.

This scheme, however, very soon lost its international character. In England the Royal Geographical Society preferred to form a separate African Exploration Fund, and sent out Keith Johnston and Joseph Thomson on scientific expeditions; while France and Italy followed England's example in dispatching separate expeditions respectively to the Gabun, under de Brazza, and to Abyssinia. These defections notwithstanding, the Executive Committee of the Association equipped several expeditions which were based on the East African coast. For various reasons these met with little or no success, the solitary result being the establishment of a station at Karema, on the eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika, which was shortly afterwards to be transferred to Germany.

### (2) Leopold II and Stanley

This, then, was the situation in August 1877, when news reached Brussels that Stanley had successfully completed his great journey across Africa from Zanzibar, whence he had started in 1874. On the explorer's return to Europe, King Leopold lost no time in inviting him to visit Brussels. Thereafter, events moved swiftly; and at a meeting which took place on November 25, 1878, between the King, Stanley, and certain members of the International Association, it

was decided to form a body, to be known as the *Comité d'Études du Haut-Congo.* The title-deeds of the new committee were somewhat obscure, but in effect the new body speedily superseded the International Association, adopting the title of *Association Internationale du Congo.* A great and important change in method was made by King Leopold in concert with Stanley, when it was determined to prosecute the work of exploration no longer from the eastern coast of Africa, as had previously been done, but from the west coast, up the great river from its mouth.

In accordance with the policy determined upon, Stanley was invited to return to the Congo. This he did, and spent the next four years in making treaties with the natives. By 1884, twenty-two stations had been founded on the Congo and its tributaries, while numerous expeditions, penetrating the country lying within the great bend of the river, were rapidly acquiring territory for the Association. This activity did not escape the notice of the various European Powers interested in Africa. De Brazza succeeded in establishing French influence on the northern banks of the Congo and in the Shari and Ubanghi districts; and a series of disputes arose which drew attention to the fact that the Association held no status as a sovereign Power.

### (3) The Anglo-Portuguese Convention (1884)

The question came to a head early in 1884, when Lord Granville, taking advantage of claims advanced by Portugal to the Congo in virtue of its discovery centuries before, concluded a convention (February 26, 1884) with that country, recognizing both banks of the mouth of the Congo as Portuguese territory, and placing the navigation of the river under the control

of an Anglo-Portuguese Commission. Later, Great Britain suggested that this commission should be an international one.

The publication of the treaty aroused a storm, for the instrument not only threatened to hamper the operations of the International Association, but set a limit to French expansion on the Lower Congo. King Leopold, however, found his opportunity in the proposed arrangement, and began forthwith a diplomatic campaign which was to end in the recognition by the European Powers of his sovereignty over a vast territory in Central Africa. He first of all approached France, who was admittedly irritated by the menace to her new colonial empire contained in the Anglo-Portuguese Convention. An agreement (April 24, 1884) was quickly arrived at, and, in return for the recognition of the Association by its most serious rival, King Leopold caused a note to be addressed to the French Government, declaring that the Association would not cede its possessions to any Power, 'except in virtue of special Conventions which may be concluded between France and the Association for fixing the limits and conditions of their respective actions'. The note further engaged to give France the right of pre-emption, were the Association compelled to sell its possessions.

This arrangement concluded with France, King Leopold turned to the German Government, with whom he was on good terms. Bismarck was by this time committed to a policy of colonial activity. He therefore agreed to support the cause of the Association, and on May 5, 1884, the German Ambassador in London was instructed to inform the British Government that, though Germany sought no privileges on the Congo for herself, she was definitely opposed to any arrangement which might place her and other

European Powers in a disadvantageous position. Furthermore, a series of negotiations between the Imperial Chancellor and Baron de Courcel, the French Ambassador at Berlin, resulted in the establishment between France and Germany of 'perfect identity of ideas' on the subject in question. France and Germany, therefore, having joined hands, the British and Portuguese Governments gave way (June 26, 1884). Moreover, Lord Granville agreed to the proposal which shortly afterwards emanated from the Wilhelmstrasse, that this difficulty and other outstanding African questions should be submitted to an International Conference to be summoned to Berlin, with a view to the establishment of an understanding on the following bases:

1. Freedom of commerce in the basin and mouth of the Congo.

2. The application to the Congo and Niger of the principles adopted by the Congress of Vienna for the preservation of freedom of navigation on certain international rivers, principles applied at a later date to the River Danube.

3. A definition of formalities necessary to be observed in order that new occupations on the African coasts might be deemed effective.

### (4) The Berlin Conference

On November 15, 1884, Bismarck formally opened the conference at Berlin. Representatives and experts from Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Italy, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden and Norway, Turkey, and the United States of America were summoned, and took part in the proceedings. The results of the conference were embodied in the General Act, better known as

the Berlin Act, of February 26, 1885. The importance of the Act in its political and economic aspects and in its relation to the history of African civilization, warrants a separate discussion. Lack of space, however, prevents more than the briefest outline of the principles which it formulated and their bearing on the claims of the International Association of the Congo. Freedom of trade in the Congo basin, which was geographically defined, was provided for in the widest sense, while elaborate clauses assured the protection of the natives and the suppression of slavery and slave traffic. The navigation of the Congo was declared free, and the important principle was laid down that the signatory Powers were under obligation to ensure the establishment of authority in the regions occupied by them on the coasts of the African continent sufficient to guarantee freedom of trade and transit. Briefly, the provisions affecting the Congo may be said to have placed the territories watered by the Congo river and its affluents, including Lake Tanganyika, at the disposal of the International Association, with the proviso that commercial and religious freedom should be guaranteed, slavery and the slave trade suppressed, and no trade monopolies granted. It should be added that the International Association, having no recognized status at the date of the assembling of the conference, was not formally represented at Berlin; but, the recognition taking place during the conference, the Association duly adhered to the General Act.

### (5) Recognition of the International Association

The position of the Association, from an international point of view, was established only after considerable negotiation with the Powers concerned. Germany was the first European Power to recognize its status

by a convention of November 8, 1884,[1] which acknowledged the right of the Association to the territories claimed. In return the Association promised to protect the property of German subjects, and to allow them free exercise of their religion and the rights of navigation, commerce, and industry. Further, these engagements extended to any cession of territory by the Association, and were to hold good, any subsequent transfer notwithstanding. Great Britain followed suit on December 16 with a similar convention, but added the very important provision that British consular officers should be allowed to hold Consular Courts for the exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction over British subjects within the Congo area. Conventions of recognition were also concluded with Italy, Austria-Hungary, Holland, Spain, Russia, Sweden and Norway, and Denmark, while on February 23, 1885, Belgium formally recognized the Association. An agreement with France proved more difficult to arrange, but by dint of surrendering certain territories to the north of the Congo coveted by France, King Leopold persuaded the French Government to renounce their territorial claims on the south side of the Congo. Further, France promised her good offices in the dispute with Portugal. The Portuguese Government, therefore, abandoned by France and pressed by Great Britain, gave up its claim to both banks of the mouth of the Congo. On the north bank, however, she received an enclave at Cabinda which she valued especially as the origin of one of the royal titles. Further, Portuguese national honour was satisfied by the acquisition of Cape Padrone, on which the Portuguese explorer, Diogo Cão, had set up a stone pillar three hundred years earlier, and of the southern bank of the Congo

[1] The United States had already (April 10, 1884) recognized the Association as a sovereign Power.

river for nearly one hundred miles inland. The Final Act of the conference was signed on February 26, 1885; and at the same time the International Association declared, in accordance with Art. 37, its adhesion to the resolutions then adopted.

### (6) King Leopold's Sovereignty of the Congo

The conclusion of the Berlin Conference set a term to the quasi-international character of King Leopold's enterprise. It was recognized throughout the conference, and soon came to be generally known, that the real negotiator of the treaties which had been formed in the name of the International Association was the King of the Belgians himself. Shortly after the conference had terminated its labours, King Leopold applied to the Belgian Parliament for authorization to accept the position of sovereign of the new-born State. This assent was accorded without much difficulty by the two Houses on April 28 and 30, 1885, but on the express condition that the connexion between Belgium and the Congo territories remained a personal one. On July 19 Sir Francis de Winton, the Administrator-General of the territories acquired by the International Association, formally announced at Banana the establishment of the State and the accession of Leopold II as its sovereign; a fortnight later King Leopold circularized the Great Powers accordingly, at the same time notifying them of the neutrality of the State as defined by the treaties with Germany, France, and Portugal.

It should be added that no question was raised on any side concerning the validity of King Leopold's action, and that the International Association was merged in King Leopold's new sovereign State without further international comment. King Leopold, having therefore assumed absolute rulership of approximately

900,000 square miles of territory, prepared to define the limits of his African kingdom. On the north the Convention of 1885, supplemented by that of 1891 with Portugal, determined the boundary of the Cabinda enclave, and, on the south, settled the frontier on the Lower Congo from its mouth to Noki, and from that point to the Kwango; thence the line follows the course of that river as far as the 8th parallel, and, dividing the Lunda country (otherwise known as the territory of Muato Yanvo), ascends the Kasai to the watershed of the Congo and the Zambezi, which it follows to the 24th meridian east.

### (7) Frontier Conventions with France

The frontier with the French Congo was the subject of lengthy negotiations. It was finally laid down by the Convention of 1885, under which France acknowledged the right of the Association—now the Congo Free State—to the course of the Lower Congo below Manyanga as the boundary between her possessions and those of the Congo Free State. A further convention, signed in 1887, defined the frontier from Manyanga to the confluence of the Ubanghi with the Congo, and thence to the intersection of the Ubanghi, with the 4th parallel, which was declared the northern limit of the Congo Free State. The Free State was thus excluded from the Niadi valley, and, within certain limits, from the right bank of the Ubanghi. In return, King Leopold obtained from France a statement that the French right of pre-emption to the territories of the Congo Free State was not intended to prejudice that of Belgium, should the King declare that country his successor; he was further allowed to have quoted on the French Bourse 80,000,000 francs of the loan (150,000,000 francs) which, in 1888, he decided to float.

Notwithstanding the express limitation of the northern frontier of the Free State to the 4th parallel, the officials of the State continued to press northwards. In 1891–2 the Sultanate of Bangasso, lying beyond the Ubanghi river, was occupied, while two years later the French frontier had been pushed back by the encroachments of the Free State frontier officials to the 9th parallel.

### (8) King Leopold and the Nile

Before, however, considering the arrangement which finally settled the Franco-Congolese boundary, it is necessary to refer to the relations of the Free State with Great Britain in the valley of the Upper Nile. Although the surrender of the Egyptian troops under Slatin Pasha and Lupton and the conquest by the Mahdi of the Equatorial Provinces had been followed in 1885 by the withdrawal of the Egyptian frontier to Wadi Halfa, the Anglo-German 1890 Convention had recognized in effect that the Sudan was still an Egyptian appanage. King Leopold, however, not choosing to conform to this view of Great Britain's claims to the district, endeavoured to obtain control of the rich province of Bahr el-Ghazal and to secure an outlet to the Nile. To this end Captain van Kerckhoven, in command of a considerable force, was dispatched to the Upper Welle, whence he made his way to the Nile and there opened up communications with the remains of the old Egyptian garrison at Wadelai. Another Belgian, Hanolet, entered the Shari valley and began to negotiate with Rabah, the bitter enemy of France, who had carved out a sultanate for himself to the south-east of Lake Chad. Finally the northern posts of Katuaka and Lifi were occupied, and, though the abandonment of these and the Nile posts had to be effected in the face of the Mahdi's advance, the latter's troops were successfully routed in a subsequent engagement on

December 23, 1894. Thus by the end of this year the whole basin of the Welle was in Belgian occupation, while a good foothold had been won in the Bahr el-Ghazal province.

### (9) Anglo-Congolese Agreement (1894)

When it became apparent that King Leopold projected an effective occupation of these regions, the British Government instructed its Minister at Brussels to open negotiations with a view to terminating this aggressive policy. After considerable discussion the Anglo-Congolese Agreement of May 1894 was drawn up and signed. By this instrument King Leopold recognized British supremacy in the Nile valley and in the Bahr el-Ghazal province, but in return obtained a lease of certain territory in the western basin of the Upper Nile, which virtually gave the Congo Free State possession of the province in question during the King's lifetime, and secured to his successor that part of it lying west of the 30th meridian. The Anglo-Congolese Agreement provided also for the lease by Great Britain of a strip of territory 15½ miles in width, stretching from the most southerly point of Lake Edward to the most northerly point of Lake Tanganyika.

### (10) German Intervention

The importance of this lease was manifest, for under the Berlin Act navigation on Lake Tanganyika was declared free. This concession in effect was intended to constitute the last link in the chain of Great Britain's possessions in North and South Africa. King Leopold also agreed to allow the erection of a British line of telegraphs through the Free State territory. This proposal to facilitate territorial and water communication between British North and South Africa drew a vigorous protest from Germany, and the Wilhelmstrasse acted

with decision. Belgium was informed that she remained responsible for her treaty obligations of November 8, 1884, until such time as Great Britain had taken over those obligations with the consent of Germany; and the British Government was warned that the proposed lease, as the equivalent to an alteration of the frontier between German East Africa and the Free State, depended on Germany's good-will. The British Government argued in vain that Germany's claim to intervention was unjustifiable in international law; the German Government, backed by opinion in Germany, persisted, and the British Cabinet felt itself obliged to give way, the offending article being shortly afterwards withdrawn from the treaty. The rest of the Agreement remained untouched. It provided, *inter alia*, for the definition of the boundary between the Congo Free State and the British sphere to the north of the Zambezi, which, broadly speaking, constituted the frontier of the valuable mining district of Katanga and northern Rhodesia. From Lake Tanganyika this line runs in a south-westerly direction to Lake Mweru, thence following the Luapula to its issue from Lake Bangweulu; thereafter it runs along the meridian of longitude to the watershed between the Congo and the Zambezi, which it follows to the frontier of Angola.

### (11) Further Frontier Agreements with France and Great Britain

Meanwhile, France viewed with considerable displeasure the northward advance of the Free State frontier. The conclusion of the Anglo-Congolese Agreement of May 12, 1894, gave her the opportunity she desired; and she protested against this convention as restricting her march towards the Nile. The French Government also drew attention to the occupation by the Free State of Bangasso and other territories north

of the Ubanghi, contrary to the terms of the Franco-Congolese Convention of 1887, which, it will be remembered, fixed the 4th parallel as the northern limit of the Free State. A compromise was reached under the Agreement of August 14, 1894, by which King Leopold, in exchange for French recognition of the Mbomu river as the northern frontier of the Congo Free State, renounced all exercise of political influence west of 30° east longitude, and in the Nile valley north of a line drawn through that meridian to the river along 5° 30′ north.

In 1899, upon France renouncing her claim to the Upper Nile territory, King Leopold again attempted to effect a permanent occupation of the Bahr el-Ghazal province. His ambition to dominate both the great rivers had led him, in 1897, to send a military expedition to the Nile valley, which occupied Rejaf on the Upper Nile. This claim, however, Great Britain was not prepared to allow. A series of negotiations was at length concluded by the signature of an Agreement on May 9, 1906, which annulled the 1894 lease and gave the King possession for life only of the Lado enclave, with the proviso that this territory should not extend beyond 5° 30′ north, and should return to the Sudan within six months of King Leopold's death. This instrument also defined the boundary of the Free State with the Sudan, and provided for a lease to the King and his successors of a strip of territory 25 kilometres in breadth from that boundary to Lake Albert, including the town of Mahagi.

### (12) Events leading to Annexation

The commercial development of the Congo Free State, the administrative abuses, the monopolist persecutions, the raids and rebellions which stained its history, and the pecuniary difficulties which hampered

its progress and were the chief cause of ruthless exploitation, are outside the scope of the present sketch. It remains to give in briefest outline a chronological summary of the constitutional events which led to its annexation by Belgium in 1908. In his will, dated August 2, 1889, King Leopold made Belgium heir to the sovereign rights of the Congo Free State. Further, on July 3, 1890, His Majesty signed an agreement with the Belgian Government whereby the latter consented to advance a loan of 25,000,000 francs, in the course of ten years, on condition that, six months after the expiry of that period, Belgium should have the option of annexing the Free State with all its possessions, rights, duties, and liabilities. It was provided that, if this was not done, the debt should only be recoverable after another period of ten years, interest being paid on it meanwhile at the rate of 3½ per cent. per annum. When the time limit expired on January 2, 1901, the actual debt had swollen to 31,850,000 francs, by the addition of a loan of 6,500,000 francs, bearing interest, which had been illegally contracted by the Congo Government with a syndicate of Antwerp bankers in March 1894, and for which the Belgian Chamber had been induced to make itself responsible in 1895.

The question of the annexation of the Congo State by Belgium formed the subject of prolonged parliamentary discussion in the Belgian Chamber. The King strongly opposed immediate annexation, while the Belgian Government, begging the question, proposed to let the debt run on without interest. Under the terms of the measure which eventually passed the Belgian Parliament in August 1901, Belgium retained the right of option, though not the right to exercise it at a fixed date. Meanwhile, the exploitation of the country continued apace, the situation being aggravated by the creation in 1896 of the *Domaine de la*

*Couronne*, a vást territory between the Kasai and Ruki rivers, covering about 112,000 square miles, which was treated as the private property of the King. The charges of maladministration multiplied until in July 1904 King Leopold was forced to appoint a commission of inquiry to investigate the condition of the natives, and, if necessary, to recommend reforms. The report of the Commissioners was published in December 1905; it went far to justify the charges levelled at the Congo administration, and bore fruit when the King signed, in 1906, a number of decrees embodying various reforms in the Government of the Free State. Leopold, however, qualified his action by intimating (June 1906) that certain conditions would attach to the Congo inheritance, among them the duty of respecting the arrangements known as the *Fondations*, by which he had provided for the establishment of the *Domaine de la Couronne* and the *Domaine privé de l'État*.

### (13) Cession of the Congo to Belgium

A crisis was manifestly approaching, and the special commission, known as the Commission of XVII, appointed in 1907, carried, after a severe struggle, a colonial bill, which replaced the absolutism of the King by effective parliamentary control. On November 28, 1907, a treaty was signed for the cession of the Congo Free State to Belgium. This treaty stipulated for the maintenance of the *Fondations*, but eventually, under severe pressure from Great Britain, the King gave way; and on March 5, 1908, an additional act was signed at Brussels annulling the clauses in the treaty of cession concerning the *Fondations*. Shortly afterwards, on August 20, the treaty of annexation, the additional act, and the colonial law, were voted by substantial majorities. On September 9, 1908, the three measures passed the Senate, and on Novem-

ber 14 the Congo Free State became defunct, Belgium assuming the rights of sovereignty on the following day. A law on the government of the colony—a sort of colonial charter, separating the Congo State from Belgium, giving it a distinct financial administration, limiting the powers of officials, and securing the rights of the natives—was signed by the young King Albert and promulgated on October 18, 1908. The French right of pre-emption over the territory in question was finally accepted by Belgium under the Franco-Belgian Agreement of the same year.

The frontier between the Belgian Congo and German East Africa, originally contemplated by the Convention of 1884, was defined in 1910 as starting from the summit of Mount Sabinio, which marks the point of contact between the Belgian, British, and German territories, and as running in a general southerly direction through Lake Kivu to Lake Tanganyika. This arrangement formed part of a Protocol signed on May 14, 1910, by Belgian, British, and German representatives, in modification of the Anglo-Congolese Agreement of 1906. The Anglo-Belgian section of the Protocol suggested a definition of the limit of the Belgian Congo in relation to Uganda. In 1913–14 the question was again raised, together with that of the Belgian Congo frontier with the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. In 1915 an agreement was finally reached and the boundary laid down from Mount Sabinio to the Congo-Nile watershed.

# III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

## (1) Religious

### (a) *Christianity*

*Protestant Missions.*[1]—The beginnings of Protestant missionary effort on the Congo are to be traced to the initiative of Mr. Arthington, who in May 1877 offered the Baptist Missionary Society £1,000 as a contribution towards a project of establishing a mission at San Salvador, which had long since ceased to preserve any but formal reminiscences of its former Christian connexions. This establishment he regarded as preliminary to efforts to establish connexion with Nyangwe, a view which is interesting as showing that Cameron's researches had already convinced many that the Lualaba was none other than the upper Congo. The Society made a public appeal and obtained large subscriptions, which enabled it to select Messrs. Grenfell and Comber, who had done excellent work in the Cameroon. They finally reached San Salvador on August 8, 1878, and received a welcome from Dom Pedro. An effort to reach Stanley Pool failed, and Comber returned to England to obtain additional aid. This was accorded, and in 1879 Comber, with Crudgington, Hartland, and Bentley, arrived at San Salvador; on March 10, 1881, Bentley and Crudgington actually attained the site of Léopoldville but had to retire. With the opening up of the country, however, by the activities of Stanley, the missionaries found it possible to proceed up the river; and by 1908 they had founded nine stations,

[1] Sir H. H. Johnston's *George Grenfell* gives full accounts of part of the Mission work. See also Masoin, *Histoire*, ii. 373–95.

with 2,450 communicants, at a cost of ten million francs and of the lives of 50 of the 160 missionaries. The mission was specially noteworthy for the linguistic studies of Bentley and the explorations of Grenfell, who was especially selected by the Congo State to delimit in 1892–93 part of the Congo-Portuguese boundary.

A slightly earlier arrival at the Congo was achieved by the Livingstone Inland Mission, represented by Strom and Craven, and supported by Dr. Guinness; in 1884 it was handed over to the American Baptist Missionary Union, which by 1909 had 32 churches, with 5,000 adults and 7,000 children. Some, however, of the Swedish missionaries of the Inland Mission declined to accept the transfer, and attached themselves to the Svenska Mission (founded in 1881). In 1909 they numbered 51, with 1,800 adults and 5,000 children. In 1885 the Christian Missionary Alliance of New York began work; in 1887 the Congo Balolo Mission was founded by a former member of the Inland Mission; in 1890 the American Presbyterian Mission began work; in 1896 the Christian Disciples Mission took over a station at Bolenge from the Baptist Union; and minor work has been done by the Plymouth Brethren, who were early in the field, and by the Westcott Independent Mission.

*Roman Catholic Missions.*[1]—In 1860 Livingstone had heard rumours of the persistence of the Christian faith at San Salvador, and in 1865 three emissaries of the *Congrégation du Saint-Esprit* sought to discover and revive these remains of the influence of Portugal, but their researches showed that the rumour which had reached Livingstone was ill-founded. In 1873 three further emissaries established a mission at Landana near the mouth of the Shiloanga, and in 1877 they crossed the Congo to establish themselves in Santo Antonio;

[1] Masoin, *Histoire*, ii. 303–53.

they occupied Banana in 1880 and Boma in 1881, and advanced up the river, establishing in 1885 a post at Kwamouth, which, however, was surrendered in 1888, the mission thereafter confining its work to the coast region. More far-reaching were the schemes of Lavigerie, who decided to follow up the geographical aims of the International African Association by an energetic campaign. The Pope was sympathetic, and on February 24, 1878, created four Apostolic Vicariates for Central Africa. In 1879 missionaries of the Algiers Mission proceeded to Lake Tanganyika, and to the western coast. The proceedings of Lavigerie were, however, regarded with suspicion by the King, who held that his motives were not without political significance, and the State decided to secure for itself a Belgian propaganda. After much negotiation, it was definitely arranged on May 11, 1888, that the activities of the Algiers Mission should be confined to Tanganyika, the seat of an Apostolic Vicariate, but that the priests sent there should be Belgian by nationality, and that there should be created the Apostolic Vicariate of the Congo, entrusted to the Pères de Scheut and to the African Seminary established by the King at Louvain. The development of the work which followed, to which the Jesuits lent valuable assistance, led to the division of the territory by the creation of three Apostolic Prefectures on the Kwango (1903), the Welle (1898), and the upper Kasai (1901), and there were also set up missions of the Pères du Sacré-Cœur at Stanley Falls, which became in 1908 the seat of an Apostolic Vicariate, and in the Aruwimi, of Redemptorists at the cataracts, where they replaced in 1899 secular clergy from Ghent who had carried on the work there from 1891 to 1899 for the sake of the labourers on the railway, and of Trappists in the province of the Equator (1893).

*Charges against the Roman Catholic Missionaries.*—

An essential part of the work of the Roman Catholic missions was the education of children, and for this special facilities were provided by two decrees of the State. The first, of July 12, 1890, conferred on the State the duty of educating and caring for children liberated from slave-traders, of whom at that time there were many, or abandoned, or orphans, or whose parents did not in fact care for their upbringing and education. A second decree of March 4, 1892, gave the right to exercise the same supervision over these categories of children to religious bodies approved by the State. The Protestant missions, with hardly an exception, declined to undertake this duty, which, as the children were only entitled to their liberty at the age of 25,[1] raised grave problems, but the Roman Catholic Church readily assumed it as an easy and effective means to secure converts. The result was inevitable; the Commission of Inquiry of 1904–5 made definite charges against the Roman Catholic missions,[2] which, they stated, exercised constraint on their pupils by chains and flogging, allowed them to acquire no property of any sort, separated husbands and wives, and would only with difficulty concede permission to marry; moreover they pointed out that many of the children alleged to be abandoned were really taken away or withheld forcibly from their parents or natural guardians, children in the Congo being regarded as objects of value and rarely, if ever, abandoned. The accusations cannot be discounted[3] on the ground that the agents of the State, who were certainly not devout Christians, disliked the missions, or that Protestant

[1] Since reduced to 18 (decree Jan. 3, 1911).

[2] Masoin, *Histoire*, ii. 362.

[3] As by Masoin. See Johnston, *George Grenfell*, i. 471–73. The discussion of the question by R. P. de Pierpont (*Bulletin de la Société belge d'Études coloniales*, No. 5, mai 1912) is very unsatisfactory.

missionaries attacked the Catholics. They were obviously due to a wholly wrong system; and so late as 1912 the same complaints were echoed by M. Vandervelde, who had himself travelled in the Congo. It is characteristic of the King that, far from giving any effect to the criticisms made by his own Commission, on May 26, 1906, he concluded a concordat with the Pope, under which he undertook to provide land gratis for Catholic missions in return for their undertaking educational work. Protestant missionaries, on the other hand, complained with truth that their efforts to obtain land by purchase were defeated by the State—an anomaly remedied by the Belgian Government in 1912.

### *Present Position of the Missions*

The Charter provides for the free exercise of all forms of religion, and the holding of land is made legal to the different denominations in connexion with their work. In the case of the Roman Catholics an agreement with the Holy See of May 26, 1906, provides for grants larger than the usual limit of holding (100 or even 200 hectares as against 50 hectares) in return for the giving of education; priests appointed as chaplains receive pay, and a decree of June 3, 1906, authorizes the appointment of priests who, after celebrating the ecclesiastical marriage of natives, may perform also the requisite civil ceremony. In practice, since the inauguration of the new regime, the difficulties experienced by Protestant missions in obtaining land appear to have been removed, while these missions, by abstaining from seeking to make artisans or agriculturists of their converts, avoid the attacks for abuse of authority which have been levelled against Catholic missions.

In 1908, 211 Protestant missionaries were at work

in the Congo; many stations, schools, hospitals, and dispensaries had been opened, and considerable numbers of converts had been made. The Roman Catholics had, in 1907, 343 missionaries (male and female) and claimed 41,000 converts, about double the number ascribed to the Protestants. In either case the genuineness of the Christianity of the converts is not always free from question. The total number of converts is, however, in any case so small as to indicate that the process of Christianizing the people must be slow, especially as Christianity is opposed to polygamy, and polygamy is still the basis of native life. But it would be unfair to under-estimate the value in the way of civilizing influences of the work which the many devoted missionaries of the Congo have performed at great personal sacrifice. The Protestant missionaries have been ably assisted by their wives, while Catholic nuns have worked with great devotion. The State recognizes fully its duty to aid and protect missionary enterprise at least as far as Catholic missions are concerned, and since the advent of King Albert to the throne Protestant missions also have been promised fair treatment, if not assured of active support such as is accorded to the Catholics.[1]

### (*b*) *Paganism*

Despite the efforts of the Christian missions, the vast majority of the people of the Congo are still wholly pagan, nor is there any probability of the early conversion of the tribes to a higher faith. The paganism of the Congo is unprogressive and devoid of points of contact with more advanced religions. A vague belief in a supreme deity is counterweighed by the fact that this spirit is held not to interest himself in the affairs of the world, and consequently is not the object of

[1] Cd. 6606, p. 39.

worship or prayer. For practical purposes the worship of the Congo native is animism: he believes himself to be surrounded by countless spirits usually malevolent, invisible to himself, but discernible by the medicine men, of whom in the lower Congo alone there are some fifty different kinds. The medicine man has the power to attract spirits to the fetishes which he manufactures; and these fetishes have the power either to work evil on the enemy of the man in whose interest the medicine man is employed, or to avert injury from him. On death the spirit survives and may be dangerous; hence the human sacrifices, especially to dead chiefs, which have so far as possible been suppressed under Belgian rule. Belief in witchcraft is universal and a most potent factor in preventing a rise in the standard of civilization.[1]

### (c) *Mohammedanism*

From the north, Mohammedanism appears never to have made any appreciable advance; the Mahdists, who might have carried their tenets south from the Sudan, were decisively repelled by the Belgian advance in 1890–98. On the other hand, Arabs from Zanzibar reached Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika in 1840, and by 1865–66 had discovered the Lualaba and the Lomami. By 1871, when Livingstone reached Nyangwe in the Manyema country, it was already an Arab station; and by 1879 the Arabs had extended their sphere of control not merely across the Lualaba to the Lomami, but also down the former river to Stanley Falls.[2] Until the war of 1892–94 they were in fact the dominant power in the eastern Congo, but since that struggle their political power has been definitely overthrown.

[1] Johnston, *George Grenfell*, ii. 632–71; J. H. Weeks, *Among Congo Cannibals*, pp. 246–93

[2] Johnston, i. 84, 124, 318.

Certain traces of their civilizing influence are nevertheless still evident.

The number of pure Arabs who attained political control of Manyema was apparently very small,[1] but the people of Manyema, or Bakusu, after vain efforts to resist their advance, accepted their rule, and aided them in imposing it upon other tribes; while from the marriages contracted by the Arabs with negro women sprang a mixed race of *Arabisés*, physically and intellectually much superior to the average Congolese negro.[2] Though their rule rested on the slave-trade, they introduced many valuable improvements in agriculture, while the villages in the regions which came under their influence are marked out by their broad streets and well-built rectangular houses. Before their political downfall they had also introduced the element of a higher political organization and of a legal regime, and they maintained close commercial relations with Zanzibar.[3] The Swahili language has become, as a result of their action, the *lingua franca* of all the eastern third of the Congo;[4] and the habits of industry which their rule exacted from their subjects have left distinct traces in the superiority of the Congolese labourer of the region above Stanley Falls.[5] Nominally at least the population under their rule became Mohammedan, including not merely the tribes of Manyema, but also those of the upper valley of the Aruwimi, between the rivers Lindi and Lomami.

Lord Mountmorres during his tour in the Aruwimi district in 1905 was struck by the similarity in civilization between the large thriving towns above Stanleyville and those of Morocco. In the eastern regions of the Congo, between the Falls and the British and

[1] Masoin, *Histoire*, ii. 102.
[2] Johnston, ii. 539.
[3] Masoin, ii. 103–7: Johnston, ii. 600, 743.
[4] Johnston, i. 427.
[5] Cd. 7048—77, p. 21.

German frontiers, he found the chiefs and notables intelligent and well conducted, able to read and write in the Arabic character, and well versed in the Koran, of which and of other Mohammedan devotional books there were copies in every village. In all the larger villages Mohammedan schools were established, at which attendance by all the children was enforced by the chief. The men all wore the traditional Mohammedan dress and were most devout and rigorous in the observance of their religion, while the women were suitably clothed and were treated with a degree of respect and consideration far ahead of that prevailing among Africans generally.[1] On the other hand, Consul MacKie, who travelled in the same district in 1911, wrote in his report [2] as follows:

The Tambatamba (Arabisés)—Bokusu, Batetela, and other followers of Arab families—are congregated at Stanley Falls on both banks as far down as La Romée. These two latter tribes live in large mud-wall houses, detached, with yards or courts. They are both farmers and stock-breeders. The former are clean, clothed, and polite, while the latter are like the Arabs, superior in appearance, dress, and manners—in fact, the aristocracy of the land. Their fields are tilled by women and dependents and slaves. They are not true Arabs, though there are a few of these too among them. In all things except religion the Tambatambas follow their Arab conquerors of earlier days, but of religion they have only the superstitions without the bonds, rules, or system of worship of the Mahommedans.

There is probably no fundamental discrepancy between these reports. Lord Mountmorres was doubtless in the main impressed by the attitude of the chiefs who have the Arab tradition, while Mr. MacKie deals with the attitude of the people and with tribes at some distance from Manyema, which was the head-quarters of Arab power.

[1] Johnston, i. 321, n. 1.

[2] Cd. 5860, pp. 62, 63.

It seems hardly probable that Mohammedanism is destined to play an important part in the Congo. It owed its introduction to foreign aggression, and its spread was conditioned by political circumstances which have ceased to exist. There appears to be no evidence that any converts to Islam have been made among tribes exempt from Arab domination, or that any missionary enthusiasm has displayed itself among the arabized tribes. Entire freedom of worship and of missionary effort is secured by the Berlin Act; but, though Mohammedanism has the advantage over Christianity in that it sanctions polygamy, domestic slavery, and the exploitation of women as workers, it is handicapped by the fact that it is no longer a State religion, and that in its general teaching it is far above the animism of the Congolese negro. The Government of the Congo has made no effort to encourage Mohammedanism since the definite abandonment of the policy, pursued till 1890, of permitting the Arabs to control the eastern Congo. Mohammedan law and native education receive only the same degree of recognition as is accorded to pagan institutions; and opinion in Belgium [1] seems to be distinctly opposed to the idea that the improvement effected in civilization by Mohammedanism is such as to justify the encouragement of its spread as a possible preliminary to the adoption of Christianity. On political grounds a Mohammedan revival would doubtless present formidable difficulties; and Belgium is directly interested in any steps which may be taken to secure that the policy of the Power or Powers holding territory in East Africa shall not be such as to stimulate a Mohammedan reaction against efforts to overthrow that faith where it is already established, such as were apparently meditated by Germany before the late war.

[1] Masoin, ii. 119–24.

## (2) Political

*The Central Government.*—The Belgian Congo, under the Constitution of 1908, as since modified in detail,[1] is placed under the legislative and executive control of the King, acting, however, on the responsibility of the Minister for the Colonies, an office created after the passing of the Colonial Charter. The King exercises his legislative power by decree, and his executive authority by regulations (*règlements et arrêtés*), but subject to any law of the Belgian Parliament. He alone possesses the power of pardon and remission of penalties. In the government of the Congo the King is aided by a Colonial Council consisting of the Minister of the Colonies as president, and fourteen members—eight chosen by himself, and three each by the Senate and the Chamber; none of the members can be a member of the Senate or Chamber; they retire by rotation, but are eligible for reappointment. The powers of this body, which may have been copied from the Council of the Secretary of State for India, are advisory; they may be consulted on any matters by the King, and they must, save in cases of urgency, be consulted on any proposed decree, and their opinions, including that of any minority, must be published; they may demand information and may express opinions. The Belgian Parliament retains in its own hands the control of the colonial budget, which must be submitted to it annually, and, as the Colonial Charter, unlike the Belgian Charter, is not part of the formal Constitution, Parliament can at any time alter the Constitution or deal directly with any matter affecting the Congo. The foreign relations of the Congo are entrusted to the King acting on the advice of the Minister for Foreign Affairs. An annual report on

[1] The details are given in Lannoy, *L'Organisation coloniale belge.*

the political, economic, financial, and moral state of the Congo must be presented annually to Parliament along with the budget.

*The Local Government.*—Since 1911, for all practical purposes, the Congo has been divided into two Colonies, separated in everything except the possession of a common budget, the Congo[1] and Katanga, to which has been assigned some portions of the Kasai and other districts. The head of the executive power in the Congo is the Governor-General, who has also the right in cases of urgency to exercise the power of legislating by *ordonnance*, in derogation even of a decree, but such legislation ceases to be effective after six months, if not within that time approved by decree. He is assisted by a head-quarters staff of seven directors, by vice-governors and inspectors, and a secretary-general; with other official and unofficial members if desired, these form a consultative council whose services are little used. The twenty-two districts are administered by commissioners, who represent the Governor-General and exercise wide powers. The former independence of the heads of *secteurs* and *zones* has disappeared, and the commissioners control the administrators and agents of the territories into which each district is divided. Under the new regulations these officers are not in a position to abuse their powers. The administrators are formally forbidden by a decree of June 25, 1912, to order military expeditions against the natives, to remove villages, or to prohibit or subject to conditions the recruiting of men.

[1] No term is in official use for the Congo in this reduced sense. By a royal decree of November 3, 1913, a Province Orientale was created under a Vice-Governor, and another decree of July 28, 1914, divided the territory into four Provinces, Congo-Kasai (capital Léopoldville), Equateur (capital Coquilhatville), Orientale (capital Stanleyville), and Katanga (capital Elisabethville), each under a Vice-Governor-General.

*Native Administration.*—The decree of May 2, 1910, for the first time provided a code regulating the position of native chiefs, the State administration having left the matter wholly undetermined.[1] The chiefdoms are determined by the commissioners, sub-chiefdoms being established if customary. The chief will as a rule be the customary head of the tribe, but the commissioner may remove a chief and appoint another. All the natives must normally be attached to a chiefdom, usually that in which they were residing when the formal determination took place; up to the end of 1911, 2,700 chiefs had been recognized with nearly 2,300,000 subjects, and at present over 4,000 chiefdoms have been formally established. The authority of the chief is that which is possessed by custom, and it must be exercised in the customary manner (for example with a council if customary [2]), but the authority is limited by the requirement that it must not be contrary to public order, or contravene laws or regulations intended to supersede customary rules. Though the chief is not hierarchically subordinate to the territorial administrator, he is subject to interference by the commissioner [3] or the administrator acting for him; but it is the policy of the Government to limit such interference to cases where the chief acts contrary to the public order, the prestige of the Colony, or the general interests of the Colony or of civilization. The chief has also other functions as a State official; he is required to co-operate in enforcing the law, in policing his tribe, in carrying out measures for public health, and in executing public works, and for

[1] Cf. Cd. 5860, pp. 3, 4, 20–26.

[2] Cf. Johnston, *George Grenfell*, ii. 689, 690, 697–700.

[3] A class of native messengers acts as intermediary between the commissioner and the chief. Their position is open to abuse, but need not actually result in a revival of the old practices.

this purpose can require two days or sixteen hours' work monthly from his subjects; he is also employed in the collection of taxes, with sometimes unhappy results; and his power to forbid the migration of his subjects is liable to grave abuse, since he can use it to prevent their obtaining employment unless he is well paid himself. It is in fact doubtful whether the chiefs in the Congo are likely to make satisfactory use of their powers. Experience, so far, has not produced very encouraging results.[1]

*The Judiciary.*—The reforms of the Belgian regime [2] have added to the number of the courts and improved their procedure. The European courts consist of (*a*) seven tribunals of first instance with unlimited civil jurisdiction, which are alone competent to hear criminal cases against Europeans punishable by over 5 years imprisonment; (*b*) *tribunaux du parquet*, with power to hear any criminal case against natives, or against non-natives where the punishment cannot exceed five years' penal servitude, or is a fine subject to appeal to a tribunal of first instance; they can dispose of any civil case if not over 100 frs. value, and, subject to appeal, of any case not over 600 frs.; (*c*) *tribunaux du police*, composed of *magistrats de carrière* in urban areas, and of territorial administrators elsewhere, who can hear cases of offences by non-natives or natives, where the penalty does not exceed seven days' imprisonment or 200 frs. fine, and certain specified classes of other offences by natives; the decisions of the former are subject to appeal, of the latter to revision by the *tribunal du parquet*. There are Courts of Appeal at Boma and Elisabethville, which hear appeals in civil cases where the matter in dispute exceeds 2,500 frs. in

[1] See Lannoy, *L'Organisation coloniale belge*, p. 91, n. 1.
[2] Completed by the decree of August 11, 1913.

value or a question of competence arises, and appeals in criminal cases unless the offender is a non-native and the punishment exceeds five years' imprisonment, and which also act as a criminal court in cases of charges against inferior judges. The *Conseil supérieur du Congo* which sits at Brussels acts as a Court of Cassation in civil matters, as a criminal court of appeal in cases affecting judges, and as a criminal court in cases affecting judges of the Courts of Appeal. Crimes committed in the Congo may also be punished by the Belgian courts acting on the Congo law. The native courts are those held by the chiefs according to native custom. Their power of punishment is limited in two respects: they can inflict no other corporal punishment [1] than flogging, which is forbidden for old men, invalids, women, and children, and the punishment must not exceed twelve strokes; and they must report to the European authorities all cases of cannibalism, ordeal by poison, human sacrifice, slave-trading, and the trade in or use of hemp, none of which are crimes by native law. The competence of a chief never applies to Europeans, and is normally confined to cases between natives neither of whom is 'matriculated'.[2] The native court is the normal court for cases between such natives; but either party may insist on going to a European court. In criminal cases the native court is the normal one; but the officer of the *ministère public* may decline to let the chief deal with any case, and any man dealt with by the chief may ask a European court to rehear the charge. These provisions are held to render any formal appeal from

[1] For the other native punishments see Johnston. *George Grenfell*, ii. 695, 696.

[2] Matriculation is the entry in a register of civil status, normally that kept by the Territorial Administrator of the territory to which is attached the chiefdom to which a native belongs.

a native court unnecessary except in so far as under native law an appeal lies from a subordinate chief's court to that of the superior chief.

*The Rights of the Subject.*—The Charter grants the same civil rights to Belgians, foreigners, and to matriculated natives, who enjoy the benefit of the written law, and fall under the operation of the customary law only when the written law does not cover the case. Any native can obtain matriculation on his own application, and certain classes, composed of natives who have been in service with Europeans, in the army, &c., are automatically matriculated. All natives are protected from forced labour for any individual or company by the Charter itself; the executive power is absolutely forbidden to suspend the operation of the judicial power, which is placed, through the Procurator-General, directly under the Minister of the Colonies, and the judges are given security of tenure against the executive.[1] On the other hand, while the law does not recognize or regulate the status of domestic slavery, it does not penalize it, and the institution forms an essential part of the native regime which the native courts sustain.[2]

*The Commission for the Protection of the Natives.*—The State regime created in September 1896 a commission[3] which was to exercise a benevolent guardianship over native rights. The project was at the time an idle farce; the members selected were 200 miles or more from the districts where atrocities were being committed, and no provision for travelling expenses was made. The Charter provided for a more effective body,

[1] The actions of the executive are not subject to control by the civil courts, a decision reaffirmed in 1913 by the Colonial Council in their report of July 12 (*Bulletin officiel*, 1913, pp. 716 seq.).

[2] Cd. 5860, p. 40; Weeks, *Among Congo Cannibals*, pp. 112–14.

[3] Cd. 1754; see Johnston, *George Grenfell*, i. 440, n. 2.

which subsequent legislation has further strengthened.[1] The commission consists of ten members with the Procurator-General of the Court of Appeal at Boma as president; it must meet once a year at least; the expenses of its members are paid, and they take an active interest in their duties, which are advisory in character. An annual report suggesting measures for the benefit of the natives must be sent to the King, and published. The Governor-General is also required by the Charter to give special care to the advancement of native interests, especially in regard to liberty, the repression of polygamy, and the development of private property; but so far no attempt has been made to recognize individual property in land, all natives being deemed to hold collectively;[2] while polygamy[3] and domestic slavery are institutions which are at the basis of native society, though they are discouraged in a minor degree by the imposition of an additional tax of 2 frs. for each extra wife. More effective and useful is the duty thrown upon the officers of the *ministère public* to safeguard the rights of the natives, especially as regards contracts of service, and the power given to them to take civil action in the name of a native who has suffered wrong.

### (3) Military Organization

The Charter forbids the compulsory employment of any Belgian in the Congo forces, and the colonial charter forbids even voluntary enlistment of serving soldiers. The Congo *force publique*, which performs police and military duties, and had a nominal strength of 17,800 men in 1913, is recruited in part voluntarily, in part by compulsion, the annual contingent before

[1] Cd. 6802, pp. 39–41; 6606, p. 38. [2] Lannoy, pp. 140–42.
[3] For a criticism of it see Weeks, *Among Congo Cannibals*, pp. 134–39.

the war being about 3,750. The period of service is seven years, with five years in the reserve. The men are trained in instruction camps before being drafted to companies. The officers (with 192 non-commissioned officers in 1913) are all Belgians, largely lent from the Belgian army, to which they return in due course. The rank and file and some of the non-commissioned officers are Congolese, and in peace the troops, which are organized as infantry, were scattered throughout the country in platoons of about fifty men. Recently a distinction has been drawn between the soldiers proper, some 12,000 in number, and the police, numbering 6,000.

### (4) Educational

Comparatively little has yet been done by the Government for native education. The State maintains orphan and abandoned children, and educates them at Boma and Nouvelle Anvers by Roman Catholic priests; at 18 they are given their liberty; for these orphans there are also two special schools of training, created in 1897 and 1906, leading up to careers in the military and civil service of the Colony. For other natives there are professional schools attached to the workships at Boma, Léopoldville, and Stanleyville, open to boys from 12 to 20 authorized by their parents and presented by the chief to the commissioner of the district, a number of primary schools taught by members of religious orders, and a school for the sons of chiefs at Stanleyville. In addition there are many schools conducted by Roman Catholic and Protestant missionaries,[1] many absolutely free, others subject to Government inspection, which is insisted upon in the case of schools for orphans, and when grants of land have been made to the mission.

[1] 482 and 190 respectively in 1912 (Cd. 6606, p. 80).

Instruction includes manual instruction, and the Belgian languages must be taught in subsidized schools.

The education of Europeans in the Colony is not yet provided for; instruction for those desiring to proceed to the Colony is given in Belgian schools; administrators are trained at the Colonial School, which is under the control of the Minister for the Colonies, while at Vilvorde, and in less degree at Laeken, instruction is given in agriculture and horticulture.[1]

[1] For agricultural institutions, &c., in the Colony itself, see below, pp. 75, 76.

# IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS[1]

## (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

### (1) Internal

#### (a) *Roads and Paths*

Inhabited tropical Africa is everywhere intersected by a network of native paths, and along these, the ordinary routes away from the waterways and railroads, the sole means of transport is human porterage. The average load weighs about 60 lb., and in most parts of the Colony a porter has no difficulty in carrying this weight, in addition to which he usually takes his own food, water, and cooking-pot. If he is allowed to proceed at his natural pace, he will cover 20 miles a day, or more if necessary; but a day's march is usually from 10 to 15 miles. The official rate of pay is generally 60 centimes per day, but in some localities the private rate is as high as 1 franc, or even more.

The presence of the tsetse fly renders animal traction impracticable in most districts, and the luxuriant vegetation and heavy rainfall make the upkeep even of metalled roads an arduous task. A network of good roads is nevertheless essential, if the country is to be effectively opened up for administration and commerce. The winding native paths are quite inadequate.

The State-built roads already exceed 6,000 miles in length. They include several motor roads. One of these, 154 miles long, connects Bambili on the Welle river with Buta on the navigable Itimbiri–Rubi. A second, running from Kasenyi, on the western shore of Lake Albert, to Kilo and Moto, includes a zigzag

[1] The economic conditions of Katanga, so far as separable from those of the rest of the Belgian Congo, are discussed below on pp. 110–18.

section along which, by a fine piece of engineering, the road is carried up 1,200 feet from the flats by Lake Albert to Bogoro on the summit of the escarpment. Motor lorries are now running on this road.

From Kilo another road, to run through the Ituri forest to Stanleyville, is being constructed with gradients so designed as to render it adaptable for a railway track. Until rails can be laid it will be used for motor transport. In the Welle district also are several useful roads similarly built with a view to carrying railways in the future. One of these follows the course of the Welle from Bambili to Aba ;[1] another runs from Niangara northward to the old station of Pupwandi. Neither of these, however, has as yet any service of motors, and the former still lacks bridges over most of its length.

### (*b*) *Rivers*

The Colony possesses about 8,000 miles of river waterways, navigable for large or small river steamboats. This mileage is almost entirely contained within the central equatorial basin, outside which only a few short stretches are navigable.[2]

The main waterways are :

(*a*) The Congo river from Léopoldville to Stanleyville (1,050 miles), with further navigable sections from Ponthierville to Kindu (196 miles), and—under favourable conditions—from Kongolo to Bukama (397 miles). The points between which navigation is impossible are now connected by railways.

(*b*) The Kasai–Sankuru, from Kwamouth, at the junction of the Kasai with the Congo, to Lusambo or Pania Mutombo higher up (660 miles).

[1] This road is continued to Rejaf, the limit of navigation on the Nile; see below, p. 67.

[2] See for the navigation of the Congo, *International Rivers*, No. 149 of this series.

(*c*) The Ubanghi, the greatest tributary of the Congo, and the boundary between French and Belgian territory, broken in places by rapids, but otherwise navigable for steamers as far as Mokoange, and during the high-water period as far as Banzyville.

The first steamer to reach the great central waterway of the Congo was the *En Avant*, a small paddle-boat, 43 ft. long by 8 ft. beam. It was brought out by Stanley in 1879, and by strenuous exertions lasting for two years was dragged in three sections from Vivi, below the cataracts, to Stanley Pool, 250 miles up-stream.

The navigation of the rivers of the Congo basin is by no means easy, being hampered by shoals, rocks, snags, and floating vegetation. Much has been done to improve matters by marking the banks and buoying the channels. Sandbanks also impede navigation. These, however, occur less frequently than in other great rivers such as the Niger, since the current of the lower and middle Congo is too sluggish and the riparian vegetation too luxuriant to favour their formation. The islands and the river banks are covered by a dense growth of swamp-grass or tangled forest which tends to fix their limits. The navigation of the tributary Kasai–Sankuru is somewhat more difficult than that of the Congo, owing to its being a swifter stream. Above the central basin of the Congo, where the altitude rises and streams are swifter, navigation is greatly affected by season and rainfall.

The administration possesses seventeen steamers, besides a number of shallow-draught barges on the lower Congo, and forty-four smaller steamers on the upper river and its branches. Within the last five years private firms—Lever Brothers, the 'Citas' Company (see p. 103), and others—have put steamers on the river.

As a result of the opening of the Colony to free

trade in 1912 and the abandonment of the Government monopoly in rubber and ivory, the Government steamers plying on the river made the return journey from the upper Congo practically empty, for the traders could not afford to pay, even for rubber and ivory, the high freight rates charged. The Government was therefore obliged in 1913 to reduce these rates by 50 per cent. in order to get cargoes, with very satisfactory results as regards the increase of general traffic.

The river steamers are almost universally stern-wheelers. The largest of them are of about 500 tons burden, but the building of steamers of 800 to 1,000 tons was contemplated before the war. Large flat-bottomed barges pushed or towed by a tug are also utilized. There are a floating dock, several large slip-ways, and ample facilities for construction and repairs at Léopoldville. The necessity of burning wood fuel has hitherto been a source of much difficulty and delay. In 1913 the construction of a 4-inch oil pipe-line with several pumping-stations was completed, for the purpose of pumping oil for fuel from Matadi to Léopoldville, a distance of 246 miles. The concession is for fifty years, at the end of which time the whole of the plant reverts to Government. Whatever difficulties may be experienced on the upper reaches of the Congo and its great tributaries, there can be no doubt that the long stretches of navigable waterways in the central Congo basin are of immense value to the Colony. It has been proposed to install light motor-boats on the main stream between Léopoldville and Stanleyville, and experiments with an 80-horse-power boat having a speed of 23 miles per hour have proved satisfactory.

The great lakes on the eastern frontier, Albert, Edward, Kivu, and Tanganyika, Lake Mweru on the Katanga frontier, and Lakes Leopold II and Tumba in

the central basin, as well as those in the basin of the Lualaba, offer additional facilities for the development of inland navigation. Tanganyika, which is over 400 miles in length, is specially important. On its western shore are the Belgian ports of Uvira and Albertville, the latter being near the head of the Kabalo Railway. The construction of a canal between Matadi and Léopoldville at a cost of £4,000,000 has been proposed with a view to relieving the congestion of the Congo Railway, but the scheme is hardly likely to be realized.

In addition to waterways navigable for steamboats, there are in the Belgian Congo many rivers and streams which are capable of being utilized for the transport of produce by means of canoes. These craft, made by the natives from the trunks of forest trees, are propelled by long bamboo or raphia poles. They are strong and last for years, and in spite of their weight and apparent clumsiness can under skilful control be guided with astonishing ease even over rapids and broken water.

### (c) *Railways*[1]

The following railways are now working:

(*a*) *The Congo Railway* (*Chemin de fer du Congo*), from Matadi to Léopoldville, a single line, 0·765 metre gauge, 248 miles in length, linking the estuary navigation with that of the Congo basin. Begun in 1893, it took six years to construct. Its highest point is at Thysville, 2,444 ft. above sea-level. Matadi is 20 feet and Léopoldville 1,000 feet above sea-level. The line has many severe gradients and sharp curves. Three passenger trains a week run in each direction. In 1913 freight charges were reduced; that on raw rubber was lowered from 430 francs (£17 4*s*.) to 135 francs (£5 8*s*.) per ton.

[1] For the relations of the railway companies to the administration, see below, pp. 91, 92.

(*b*) *The Great Lakes Railway* (*Chemin de fer du Congo supérieur aux Grands Lacs*):

(i) Stanleyville–Ponthierville section, sometimes called the Falls Railway, completed in 1910, a single line, one metre gauge, 78 miles in length, linking the middle Congo with its upper reaches above the Stanley Falls. Its gradients and curves are fairly easy. For most of its length it traverses forest, crossing several deep river-beds. Three trains a week run each way. It is on the left bank of the river.

(ii) Kindu–Kongolo section, sometimes called the Manyema Railway, a single line, one metre gauge, 218 miles in length, passing through hilly country and linking the Ponthierville–Kindu reach with the upper navigable reaches of the river above Kongolo. It is also on the left bank of the river.

(iii) Kabalo–Kalemi section, from Kabalo, 40 miles above Kongolo, to Kalemi, a little south of the township of Albertville [1] on Lake Tanganyika. This line was only completed after the outbreak of war. Its first section runs through a bad tsetse-fly area. It is a single line, one metre gauge, 168 miles in length, connecting the Cape–Congo rail and steamboat system with Tanganyika and the Cape–Cairo route. It has also opened, between the Atlantic and the Indian Ocean, a route of through communication *via* the Congo river, Lake Tanganyika, and the railway from Kigoma to Dar es-Salaam. The latter line is 780 miles long, and, as this distance is traversed in forty-eight hours, Lake Tanganyika can now be reached in twenty days from Naples.

(*c*) *The Katanga Railway* (*Chemin de fer du Katanga*), from Sakania on the Rhodesian frontier, *via* Elisabeth-

[1] It is understood that steps are being taken to transfer the name and township of Albertville to Kalemi, so that township, lake port, and railway terminus shall coincide.

ville and Kambove, to Bukama on the Lualaba (upper Congo), a single line, 1·067 metre gauge, 468 miles in length.

The line is of primary importance for the development of the mining district of Katanga, which in the meantime finds its most convenient outlet along the railway to Beira. At some future date, however, the Katanga Railway will be joined, between Kambove and Bukama, by the Benguela line from Lobito Bay in Angola, and when this happens much of the Katanga traffic will probably be diverted to the west coast.[1]

The permanent way of the Katanga Railway had been constructed to the terminus at Bukama by 1916, but for several months rails could not be obtained for the last 30 miles of line. Ultimately, however, a sufficient number were taken up from an uncompleted line between Tabora and the Kagera river, a projected branch of the Central Railway in German East Africa. With the help of these it became possible to complete by August 1917 the final section, in which the line is carried across the Mitumba Mountains, descending sharply from the summit (9,960 ft.) to Bukama. From this point on the upper Congo through communication has now been established northward over a distance of 2,300 miles, by railway and steamship services alternatively, along the Congo to the Atlantic, and southward by rail to Capetown, 2,600 miles distant. The journey from the Cape to Elisabethville occupies six and a half days.

(*d*) *The Mayumbe Railway* (*Chemins de fer vicinaux du Mayumbe*), in the coastal region, from Boma to Chela on the Lubuzi river. It is a single line, of narrow gauge (24 inches) and 85 miles in length, and taps the rich cocoa, coffee, and timber districts in Mayumbe. It is being extended to the Cabinda

[1] For discussion of this question in connexion with the competing interests in the trade of Katanga, see below; pp. 105–6, 111–12.

frontier. In 1911 this line was said to possess 93 locomotives, 37 passenger coaches, and 589 freight trucks. Hitherto it has been hampered by excessive freight charges. The passenger rates in 1912 were 50 centimes ($4\frac{3}{4}d.$) per kilometre first-class and 7 centimes ($\frac{3}{4}d.$) second-class.

(*e*) *The Alberta Railway*, a private line, 12 kilometres (7·5 miles) in length, built by Messrs. Lever for the purpose of connecting their oil-palm concessions with the Congo at Ebonda, a few miles west of Bumba.

The following lines have been projected (see also below, pp. 104–6):

(*a*) *The Benguela Railway*, 1,330 miles in length, to connect Lobito Bay in Angola with the Sakania–Bukama line near Kambove. About one-third of this line is completed from the coast. When finished it will afford a route from Katanga to the sea shorter than any at present existing.[1] Lobito Bay is an excellent harbour.

(*b*) *The Kiambi Railway*, from Ankoro on the Lualaba at its confluence with the Luvua river, *via* Kiambi to Pweto at the north end of Lake Mweru and thence to Moliro on Tanganyika.

(*c*) *The Kongolo–Kabalo Railway*. This line, only 56 miles in length, would link up the Kindu–Kongolo and Kabalo–Albertville sections of the Great Lakes Railway, obviate two trans-shipments, and span a section of the river not easily navigated in the dry season.

[1] Compare Kambove to Beira, 1,740 miles, Kambove to Matadi, by the Great Lakes Railway, 2,200 miles, by the projected Lusambo route, 1,600 miles, Kambove to Dar es-Salaam, *via* Albertville and the Tabora line (with four trans-shipments), 1,600 miles. It should be noted, however, that the projected railway from Salisbury, Rhodesia, to Kafue would materially shorten the Kambove–Beira route. The Lobito Bay route would, however, have the advantage of a shorter sea voyage for European trade.

(*d*) *The Welle Valley Railway*, from Bumba on the Congo to Buta on the Itimbiri–Rubi river, thence by the existing motor road to Bambili, and along the Welle to Aba on the Nile–Congo divide. This would be a single line and would open up the rich and thickly-populated Welle basin. The permanent way was completed about 1908, but the streams are unbridged, and it is only used for porter traffic. When the Lado enclave (now British) was administered by the Belgians, this road was continued over the divide to Rejaf on the Nile. This section, which for some years has been used for cart traffic, is rocky and uneven, but has recently been improved by the Sudan Government, and a service of motor lorries has been inaugurated upon it. Since the reversion of the Lado enclave to the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, the project of a railway seems to have been abandoned. This is regrettable, for an extensive traffic is rapidly developing between the Sudan and the north-eastern territories of the Congo, *via* Rejaf and Aba. The wholesale houses in Khartoum dispatch quantities of goods to Greek and Arab traders in upper Welle, in return for ivory, rubber, hides, &c.

(*e*) *The Irumu Railway*, connecting the Lake Albert region with the Congo at Stanleyville. This railway is intended to open up the rich alluvial gold districts of the eastern Welle, and divert the traffic from Kilo and Irumu, which now passes through Uganda to the east coast, towards the Congo and the west. The route has been surveyed and the construction already begun from Stanleyville.

(*f*) *The Lusambo–Kabalo Railway*. This line, about 250 miles in length, would unite Lake Tanganyika with the Atlantic by connecting it with the head of the Kasai–Sankuru waterway. It has been surveyed, and is said to cross fairly easy country, following an important caravan route.

(*g*) With a view to keeping the Katanga traffic to some extent within the Belgian frontiers, it is proposed to connect the Katanga Railway with Luebo at the limit of navigation on the Lulua tributary of the Kasai river. Such a railway in its northern part would traverse one of the most heavily timbered forest regions in the Congo. A proposed extension of this line to Léopoldville would pass through some of the richest and most densely populated districts. A branch line would probably be built to Lusambo on the head navigable waters of the Sankuru. The construction of this line would bring Matadi and seaboard shipping within 1,700 miles of Elisabethville, but would increase the already severe strain upon the Congo Railway. The enormous population of the Kasai and Kwango districts is at present almost untouched by European influence, and the advent of the railway would open up extensive markets for European goods.

(*h*) It should be mentioned that the French contemplate tapping the resources of the Congo basin, a large portion of which is in French Congo, by means of a line from the Atlantic to Brazzaville on Stanley Pool. A finished section of this line, running from the Pool to the copper mines of Minduli, is already feeding the Congo Railway.

(*i*) The Portuguese also are pushing forward their Northern Angola Railway from Loanda towards Luchiko in the upper Kasai region.

(*j*) *The Western Rift Railway*, connecting Lake Albert (altitude, 2,030 ft.) with the north end of Lake Tanganyika. The route surveyed by the Belgians for this line passes through the Semliki valley, along the western shore of Lake Edward (altitude, 3,200 ft.) and the western side of the rift, reaching its highest altitude (about 6,000 ft.) by the Mfumbiro volcanoes, then along the western shore of Lake Kivu (altitude,

5,000 ft.) and down the course of the Rusizi river to Lake Tanganyika. The only engineering difficulty of any consequence is in the last section, where, within the first 20 miles of its course from Lake Kivu, the Rusizi river falls 2,000 ft., nearly to the level of Tanganyika.

### (*d*) *Posts, Telephone and Telegraph Lines, and Wireless Stations*

There are in the Colony 51 post offices, nearly 2,000 miles of telegraph lines, and 15 wireless stations. The Congo is included in the Postal Union.

There are telephone lines along all the railways, and each of the larger towns has its own telephone service.

The chief telegraph lines are: Banana to Coquilhatville, 800 miles; Boma to Chela, 85 miles; Stanleyville to Ponthierville, 79 miles; Kasongo to Uvira on Lake Tanganyika, 265 miles; Kindu to Kongolo, 219 miles; Kabalo to Albertville, 169 miles; Sakania to Chilongo, 280 miles.

The wireless stations are Banana, Boma, Kinshasa, Coquilhatville, Basankusu, Lisala, Basoko, Stanleyville, Kindu, Kongolo, Lukuga, Kikonja, Elisabethville, Lusambo, and Kilo. It will be noticed that ten of these stations are at more or less regular intervals along the curve of the main river, forming an uninterrupted chain of communication between Boma and Elisabethville. A low-power installation is also mentioned as connecting Kabalo and Albertville.

The system in use is similar to that used at the Eiffel Tower, and known as the *radio-électrique*. The construction work has been undertaken by the Société Française Radio-Électrique. Many stations in French Africa, notably those at Loango, Pointe Noire, and Brazzaville, are on the same system.

## (2) External

### (a) *Seaports*

The River Congo has but one mouth, which widens out immediately within the entrance and forms Banana Harbour. The depth of water in the harbour is 5 fathoms, and safe anchorage, protected from all winds, is afforded for vessels of large displacement. It is entered by a somewhat narrow channel between two sandbanks, visible at low tide. Vessels of 19 ft. draught have no difficulty in entering this channel. The Customs Stations, Government buildings, and houses of the business firms are situated amongst coco-nut palms upon a narrow sandspit between the harbour and the sea. Banana might be developed into a considerable port of call.

The estuary at places is 15 to 17 miles wide, with the great depth of 70 to 900 ft. in mid-channel. This deep trough, increasing in depth to 4,000 ft., is carried west-north-west outside the river's mouth through a shallow coastal sea for some 120 miles, till it merges in the ocean depths, and all this distance the current and the fresh water of the mighty river are still discernible.

Boma, on the right bank, 60 miles up the wide estuary, is the administrative capital of the colony and the port for the Mayumbe region, with which it is connected by railway. There are two steel piers, having 23 and 17 feet of water off them at low tide, but there are no shipbuilding facilities.

Matadi is nearly a hundred miles from the coast, at the head of the lower Congo, on the left bank of the river, close to Stanley's old camp of Vivi, immediately below the last cataract. Ocean-going vessels ascend to Matadi, which is the port for the whole of the interior, and is served only by a single

line of railway from Stanley Pool. Although there are ample docks and landing facilities, and quay accommodation, 1,657 feet in length, for ocean steamers, the congestion is acute owing to the fact that the railway, which taps an enormous area, is only a single line. The swiftness of the current in the 'Devil's Cauldron', just below Matadi, makes it difficult for steamers of less than twelve knots to reach the port. An additional port is shortly to be established at Ango Ango, three miles lower down, opposite the Portuguese port of Noki.

In 1913, 168 vessels, of 370,000 tons, were cleared at Banana; 302 vessels, of 364,000 tons, at Boma; and 124 vessels, of 198,000 tons, at Matadi. In 1914 the tonnages fell to 310,000, 278,000, and 141,000 respectively.

### (*b*) *Shipping Lines*

The two chief shipping lines from Europe to the Congo before the war were the Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo (Antwerp) and the Chargeurs Réunis (Havre). Some of the vessels of the former line called at Teneriffe and Sierra Leone, accomplishing the voyage in eighteen days. The service of these two companies was so arranged that a mail steamer arrived at Boma every ten days. A monthly service was also supplied by the Elder Dempster Combine (African Steamship Co. and British and African Steam Navigation Co.) and by the Hamburg-Amerika, Hamburg-Bremer-Afrika, and Woermann lines jointly. Other callers were steamers of the Empreza Nacional and Bromport (Lever Bros.) lines.

### (*c*) *Cables and Wireless Stations*

Previous to 1913 cablegrams to Europe or elsewhere had to be sent by boat from Matadi across the river to the Portuguese port and frontier station of Noki,

which is connected by means of an overland line with Loanda, a cable station on the Portuguese Angola coast. Matadi and Noki are now connected by wire. Matadi is also connected with Boma, and Boma with the Eastern Telegraph Company's cable system. The charge per word between Brussels and Boma is 5·85 francs, with half-rates for Belgian Government and press telegrams.

There is no wireless station in the Congo powerful enough to send messages to Belgium without the assistance of some intermediate station, nor was the Laeken station in Brussels able to send as far as the Congo.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) Labour

The white man in the Congo State used to compel and now attempts to persuade the native to work. The labour demand affects the native in two ways; it makes serious calls upon his physical vigour and heavy inroads into his time. Unless the employer supplements the native diet and arranges that there shall be sufficient native labour available for the necessary forest clearing and tillage, so as to ensure a harvest adequate to the needs of each village, he may involuntarily cause considerable suffering. The white man frequently makes excessive demands upon the natives to supply food-stuffs for his own consumption or that of his labourers. A striking example occurred in the case of the Baholoholo, a tribe to the west of Lake Tanganyika, whose fate is summarized in the phrase, *un peuple qui meurt.* Formerly they possessed large herds of cattle; owing to the demands of the white men at a neighbouring post, these cattle are now extinct.

No effort has been made by the Government to develop the Congo by Indian labour, the employment of which the Indian Government would doubtless have refused to sanction, and its recruiting of African labour from outside the territories has been merely sporadic, for definite public works which required men of skill. The latest legislation on the recruitment of labour is a great improvement on the earlier legislation. It applies to all engagements of natives of the Congo and the neighbouring territories by a non-native of the Congo. The contract must be in writing; the conditions must be stated clearly; the master must normally house and feed the labourer, and pay his wage monthly; no contract can exceed three years; if for a period over three months it must be submitted to the *visa* of a Government officer, who must assure himself that the employé understands the conditions. A contract may be enforced civilly, in which case, however, imprisonment cannot be inflicted; criminally it can be enforced by penalties up to 7 days' imprisonment or 200 frs. fine, and a decree of February 9, 1912, prescribes a summary procedure under which a Territorial Administrator may order a native to be sent back to his master if he is still bound by his contract of service.

There are apparently no available statistics to show the number of natives who enter or leave the Congo. The extent of European immigration can only be gauged from the estimate of the European population already given (p. 18). It is obvious that the European immigrants, though numerically a negligible fraction of the total population, are, nevertheless, in their capacity not of labourers but of employers of native labour, the chief factor in the economic development of the country. In the Congo, as distinct from Katanga, there is no prospect of a large influx of white settlers,

for the climatic conditions are such that European residents can only preserve health by careful observance of precautionary measures and by frequent visits to Europe.

### (2) Agriculture

Except in the great forest areas where the Nains and the marginal forest tribes live by hunting, the natives of the Congo are almost all cultivators. Their only idea of cultivation, however, is to clear and burn the forest or bush and hoe the soil, moving on to another area after three or four years and leaving the old clearing to revert to secondary forest or bush. This universal system leads to enormous destruction of forest. Women do most of the field work, and the hoe is almost the only implement used.

The exploitation of the agricultural wealth of the Congo has as yet been scarcely attempted, owing to the difficulties of transport from the interior to the sea. Several Europeans, assisted by the Agriculture Department, have attempted farming. In 1914, 2,270 acres were being cultivated, chiefly in the Katanga and Mayumbe districts, where there happens to be a demand by Europeans for garden produce. The small farmers then numbered 37, of whom 20 were Belgians. Some fairly successful cocoa, coffee, and rubber plantations exist in the Mayumbe district. The rice cultivation is almost entirely in the hands of the *Arabisés* ('Manguana' or 'Wangwana') in the Stanleyville–Ituri regions. It is all dry rice, and irrigation is unknown.

Mainly owing to the prevalence of malaria, no part of the Congo is suitable for white colonization, that is, for the squatter who intends to make a living off the land and bring up a family.

Probably no tropical African colony has expended so much money and energy on agricultural and scientific

research as the Belgian Congo. Besides numerous botanical gardens and experimental farms the Colony possesses five agricultural laboratories, established in the general interest and for the use of the various districts. Two (Elisabethville and Zambi) are equipped specially for agricultural chemistry; one, at Eala Botanical Gardens, specially for mycology (fungoid diseases of plants) and economic entomology. An extensive bacteriological laboratory for veterinary research exists near Zambi, and a well-known laboratory for medical and veterinary work at Léopoldville.

For experiments in cattle-breeding and acclimatization similar to those being carried out at Katentania in Katanga[1] there are at present twenty special farms and stations.

### (a) *Products of Commercial Value*

Of vegetable products, copal, rubber, and the oil-palm are commercially the most important.

*Copal.*—This is a gum exuded from the roots and branches of a large forest tree, and used in the manufacture of varnish. Enormous supplies exist in the riverain forests of the Congo basin. Since the fall in the prices of wild rubber the natives have taken to collecting it in place of that commodity. Although the industry is a recent one, the tonnage of shipments already exceeds that of rubber, in spite of the light weight of copal.

*Rubber.*—The 'Congo Free State' may be said to have created the African rubber industry, as before the State was founded the natives hardly knew the rubber vine, and certainly were unaware of its value. Up to 1910, rubber accounted for 75 per cent. or more of the total exports. This was all collected by the natives as wild rubber, chiefly from vines

[1] See below, p. 114.

(*Landolphia*), but some from trees (*Funtumia*). A considerable quantity is obtained from the so-called 'grass or root rubbers', aberrant Landolphias of the grass uplands of the southern Kasai plateau. Originally forest climbers, but now growing in a region long denuded of its forest, these Landolphias creep at a level of a few inches beneath the soil for 80 or 100 ft., throwing up each rainy season a tuft of small branches bearing leaves, flowers, and fruit. The rubber is contained in the bark of these subterranean lianes or rhizomes, which are first sun-dried, then beaten to loosen the bark. This is then beaten until the small pieces of rubber can be picked out of the resulting débris. The most valuable of the several species is *Landolphia thollonii*.

Supplies of wild rubber in the Congo are still almost unlimited, but after 1910, owing to the withdrawal of the Government monopoly and the drop in prices on the European markets, the natives ceased to interest themselves in its collection, and the industry declined by nearly two-thirds. In 1913 the freight charges on river steamers and railways were therefore reduced by about 50 per cent., in order to stimulate export.

As regards plantation rubber, *Hevea brasiliensis*, a South American species, grows and yields well, but as it is expensive to cultivate and needs skilled labour and machinery, it is not likely that Pará rubber will ever bulk largely in the rubber exports of the Congo.

*Funtumia elastica*, the indigenous rubber-tree of tropical Africa, might with great advantage be planted over wide areas of forest land in some districts, where the red laterite soil, in which this tree flourishes, is to be found. It requires special planting methods, which are well understood by the natives. No skill is required for the tapping, and the rubber, which is of high quality, need not be prepared by machinery.

About 1900 it was decreed by King Leopold that for every ton of rubber exported 500 trees or vines were to be planted. Very large areas were consequently planted with young *Funtumia* trees, but at that time knowledge of rubber planting was derived almost entirely from Ceylon, where *Hevea*, belonging to a different natural order and to another continent, was grown successfully. The result was that the trees were planted widely instead of in coppice formation, their growth was stunted, and the plantations ruined. If the life-history of the tree, the histology of the bark, and the chemical composition of the latex had been studied before planting was undertaken, there would to-day have been a very considerable export from the Belgian Congo of plantation rubber of high quality.

Ceará rubber (*Manihot*), another South American species, and the hardiest of all rubber plants, might also be grown over even larger areas than *Funtumia*, though not in similar localities. Most bush-covered country is suitable for it, but not forest. The *Manihot* is a quick-growing tree, and no skill is required for either planting, tapping, or preparation for the market. The Germans were the first to realize the advantage of planting this species of rubber in the waste lands of Africa, and extensive areas of bush country in the Tangangika Territory have been utilized for its cultivation. The bark of the tree is merely pricked, the latex coagulated on the trunk, and the rubber collected as scrap by men, women, and children. After four or five years, when the bark has become thickened and useless owing to the continued pricking, the tree is discarded and another one reared in its place.

If the natives were induced to plant these two species, *Funtumia* and *Manihot*, in the neighbourhood of their villages, or wherever suitable in forest

or bush, a very flourishing native rubber-industry might be developed, to the great advantage of the finances of the Colony.

*Oil-palm Products.*—These are (*a*) palm oil from the red pericarp of the fruit, (*b*) the kernel, which when crushed produces white nut-oil, used for making margarine, soap, candles, &c., and (*c*) the fibrous refuse, which is pressed into oil-cake. Mayumbe is at present the chief centre of production, but the tree grows over almost the whole of the lower, middle, and south Congo regions, and could be cultivated in these districts to any extent. The wild trees in the forest are of little use, as they only produce one small bunch of fruit in several years, while trees in full sunlight may produce three or more large bunches every year.

The cultivation of the oil-palm is capable of being developed into a very extensive native industry, profitable both to the natives and to the Government. Before the war 95 per cent. of oil-palm products from the west coast of Africa went to Germany, owing to the continental demand for edible oils, and the high price Germany was able to pay for the materials.

Other vegetable products of which commercial use is being or might be made, or which might be used for the initiation of native industries, may be briefly noted.

*Bananas.*—This fruit contains all the essential elements of nutrition. It consists mainly of carbohydrates, and is an article of high dietetic and antiscorbutic value. Throughout Uganda and other large areas of tropical Africa the banana is the staple food of the inhabitants. Mixed with wheaten flour, banana flour makes excellent bread. Banana flour or sun-dried bananas for flour-making should become an important article of export.

*Beans* of many species are to be found in almost every native garden, and their cultivation could be extensively developed.

*Bees-wax.*—In the Kasai and other districts bees are kept for the sake of the honey. If the value of the wax and the best methods of its collection were explained to the natives, as was systematically done in the German African colonies before the war, a very profitable industry might be started.

*Benniseed* (Sesame, Simsim).—This is grown extensively in the Welle basin, and yields an oil which is used chiefly for cooking, but also occasionally for lighting purposes. Mixed with kerosene it will burn in an ordinary European lamp.

*Camwood.*—The red heartwood of at least two species of forest trees (*Pterocarpus* and *Baphia*) growing between Stanley Pool and the Western Rift. It produces a crimson dye used as a cosmetic by the natives.

*Cassava* (Manioc).—The staple food of the natives of most of the central Congo basin. It is known locally as *chiquang* or *quanga.* The leaves and tubers contain prussic acid, which is got rid of by a process of washing and desiccation in the sun. The leaves are used as a spinach. Tapioca is made from the tubers, which could also be utilized for the production of commercial starch, since they are almost pure starch.

*Castor-seed.*—A hardy perennial, seen in most districts. The oil is not used by the natives as a purgative, but only as a lubricant for the skin.

*Cocoa.*—In the Mayumbe district there are several fairly successful cocoa plantations. The Equator district is also suitable for cocoa, and successful experiments have been carried out in the upper Congo (Aruwimi district). The plant was introduced from San Thomé. There is no reason why its cultivation

should not be a flourishing native industry, as in the Gold Coast.

*Coco-nut.*—Though this palm will flourish as far inland as Stanleyville, it usually grows best near the sea. Hitherto its cultivation has been neglected. The Mayumbe district should be very suitable. The demand for coir and copra is always brisk.

*Coffee.*—Several species grow wild in the Welle and northern parts of the Congo, as well as in the Kasai-Sankuru region. Robusta coffee (*Coffea robusta*), one of the most successful and widely cultivated species in tropical Africa, is a native of the Congo. It has been very successful in Java, where it now occupies thousands of acres, largely interplanted with Pará rubber. It is said to have been less successful in Ceylon. It will grow from sea-level up to 2,000 ft. It is being successfully experimented with in several parts of the Congo, where unsuccessful State plantations of *Funtumia* are being interplanted with it, the rubber trees being utilized for shade for the young coffee-plants. There is some likelihood of the Congo becoming an important coffee-producing centre.

*Cotton.*—The cultivation of cotton is at present almost unknown in the Congo. Many experiments have recently been carried out by the Administration, and it would appear that the Manyema, upper Kasai, and Lomami districts and the central Welle basin are the most suitable areas. The cultivation of cotton in these districts should in time become one of the most flourishing of native industries, provided that educational methods are successful and railway facilities improve.

*Dura* or *durrah* (*Sorghum*), known also as Guinea-corn, Kaffir-corn, millet, &c., is grown extensively only in the northern and north-eastern Welle regions, where it is used for local consumption.

*Fibres.*—There is an almost unlimited field in the Congo for the cultivation of vegetable fibres in addition to cotton. *Sanseviera* grows wild in many districts. The eastern territories would probably be as suitable for the cultivation of sisal hemp (*Agave*) as the Tanganyika Territory has proved to be.

*Ginger.*—Several species belonging to *Zingiberaceae* grow wild in the northern Congo forest belt.

*Ground-nuts* (*Arachis*).—The 'monkey-nut' or 'pea-nut' of commerce could be grown to any extent in the eastern territories, but the central Congo basin is not a ground-nut country. The oil extracted from the nuts is extensively used for the manufacture of soap. There are endless varieties of oil-bearing edible nuts and seeds, as yet unexploited, in the forest areas of the Congo basin, which could to a large extent take the place of the ground-nut. In general the natives of the Congo basin and most of West Africa derive their oils and fats from the oil-palm (*Elaeis*), while in East Africa, much of which is comparatively dry and open country, the oil-palm is not found, and the ground-nut is the chief source of oil.

*Kapok.*—This is the pappus or hair surrounding the seed of a species of *Eriodendron*, one of the biggest trees in Africa. It is used in upholstery and life-belt making. This could be cultivated by the natives to almost any extent.

*Kola.*—The kola-nut is scarcely met with in the Congo in a cultivated state, nor are its value and uses known as in Nigeria. It grows wild in the Ituri forest, and its cultivation could be carried on as a native industry.

*Piassava.*—The fibre from which 'bass' brooms are made. It is obtained from the leaf-stem of the Raphia palm.

*Raphia fibre.*—The 'raffia' or 'bast' of commerce is

the epidermis stripped from the under-surface of the leaves of the same palm-tree that produces the piassava fibre. It has many uses. The natives collect it in quantities for their own purposes.

*Raphia vinifera* is common all over the Congo, as in most parts of tropical Africa, and the quality of the fibre is similar to the Madagascar product. In the Kasai and Bakuba country the making of mats and raised-pile cloths is a considerable native industry. Recently raphia fibre has increased in value owing to its military uses. The possible supplies from tropical West Africa are almost unlimited.

*Rice.*—The cultivation of rice in the Congo is almost confined to the Stanleyville–Ituri region, where the Kiswahili-speaking Arabisé natives clear annually large areas of forest, and grow hill or dry rice. This has a ready sale all over the upper Congo region, and is now shipped to the lower Congo. Great progress had been made during 1916, and it is noteworthy that 5,000 tons of rice were supplied to General van Deventer for the use of the troops in East Africa. The policy of sending experts to teach the natives the best methods of rice cultivation has been highly successful, and now that the natives are assured of the sale of their crops at a good price, the output has been tripled.

*Sugar.*—Sugar-cane is grown in most districts, especially by the riverain people, and the production of molasses, or of Indian 'jaggery', would be a very profitable industry, for all African natives are inordinately fond of sugar.

Of animal products, apart from live-stock, the most important are silk and ivory.

*Ivory.*—Ivory was formerly one of the chief articles of export, and a Government monopoly. Before the war the export was still about 300 tons a year, but

its relative importance had decreased considerably. The minimum weight of a tusk for export is 6 kg. In spite of reiterated assertions to the contrary, elephants are probably not on the decrease, though the number of large tuskers is declining, and the average weight of the tusks exported has probably diminished year by year. Tusks of over 100 lb. are now rare, though common enough ten years ago. The best elephant localities are in the eastern and northern territories.

*Silk.*—Large quantities of cocoons (of a species of *Anaphe*) could be collected by the natives in the forest areas. If the natives were shown how to wind and work the silk, a profitable wild-silk industry could be initiated. For exploitation by Europeans the industry has no future, unless the breeding of this silk-moth caterpillar were undertaken, for the cocoons have to be searched for over very large areas of forest.

*Live-stock.*—The chief cattle districts of the Congo are the grass-covered uplands near the great lakes of the eastern frontier. The natives in these regions seldom kill their animals, and live largely on milk, as do those in the cattle regions of Uganda and East Africa.

The natives in Katanga, the low plateaux of the Sankuru district, and the open country of eastern Welle, also own herds of cattle, sheep, and goats. The cattle are all of the large long-horned type from East Africa. The goat is the typical dwarf domestic animal from Egypt and western Asia. The sheep is the common woolless sheep of all negro Africa. Fat-tailed sheep are only found east and south of the Western Rift. Horses have done well in tsetse-free open-country areas in Welle and Katanga, but the mule is the hardier and more useful animal, and is

less influenced by fly-bite. The universal pye-dog is of Portuguese origin.

At Api, a post in Lower Welle, wild elephants have during the last fifteen years been domesticated and trained for field labour with some success. There are now on the farm thirty-three tame elephants, most of them in regular work. Attempts at domesticating the zebra have been abandoned.

### (*b*) *Forestry*

The two main forest areas are (*a*) the north, from Lakes Albert and Edward and the Semliki river, westward to the Ubanghi river, and extending onward into the French Congo and Cameroon; and (*b*) the south, on the upper Lomami, between the Lualaba and Sankuru rivers. These are the great virgin forests for which the Congo is famous, and which are equalled only in Liberia and Brazil. In addition along all the riverain regions of the Congo basin heavy forest exists, but of a more dense and tangled soft-wood type, with less timber. With the exception of the grass cattle-regions already mentioned, the remainder of the Colony is bush-covered country, in which the prevailing vegetation is of a drier type, consisting chiefly of acacia-bush, long grass and scrub, with scattered trees.

*Timber.*—Owing to the great timber forests being far inland, and railway communications with the Atlantic as yet almost non-existent, the timber of the Congo, which includes mahogany and many other valuable woods, has scarcely been touched for commercial purposes. The natives yearly destroy large areas of the best of it to make room for their plantations. In the Mayumbe region there are still small areas of virgin forest, and there only has exploitation by the Europeans been possible. The annual destruction of the timber forests by the natives is

a serious problem. Timber could be floated from the forests of the northern territories for a thousand miles down the Congo, but it could not pass by water through the cataract regions to the sea.

### (3) Fisheries

Fishing is naturally one of the chief occupations of the riverain people, and of those round some of the lakes. At certain seasons, when flooded areas are drying up, whole villages migrate for several weeks to the rivers to catch fish with baskets or by spearing. They split the fish or cut them into strips and dry them in the sun or over wood fires. At Stanley Falls, and many other places on the upper Congo and its tributaries, enormous quantities of fish are caught during the low-water season by means of large funnel-shaped wicker baskets held in place by timber platforms erected in the falls and rapids. On the lower Congo netting is the more usual method of fishing. Poisoning is practised on the Semliki river, and on many of the upper Congo streams. Dried fish is one of the most familiar articles of barter in all the native markets, but is not exported.

### (4) Minerals

#### (a) *Natural Resources*

*Coal.*—Large quantities of inferior coal have been found on both banks of the Lukuga river over a wide area lying near Lake Tanganyika. Borings have disclosed several horizontal seams from 30 to 60 ft. thick. As mined up to the present the product is too ashy to be utilized for steam coal. Coal of the same quality has also been found near Bukama.

*Copper.*—In addition to the copper ore of various types to be found in almost every part of the province of Katanga (see below, pp. 115–16), good ores occur in the

upper Ituri district near Kilo; near the junction of the Ubanghi river with the Congo; between Lakes Kivu and Tanganyika; between the rivers Lowa and Oso, south-east of Stanleyville; and in the Mayumbe district.

*Diamonds.*—In 1911 the Société Internationale Forestière et Minière, a Belgian-American prospecting and trading company, discovered diamonds on a tributary of the Kasai river near the Portuguese frontier in the region of Mai Munene. The area over which they are found is wide, but their source has not yet been traced. The stones are all of small size. Fifteen American prospectors were at work here before the war. More recently the Tanganyika Concessions, Ltd., have discovered diamond pipes on the Kundelungu plateau in Katanga.

*Garnets* are common in river sands.

*Gold.*—The Congo is rich in alluvial gold deposits, chiefly in the eastern Welle region to the west and north-west of Lake Albert, where grains of gold can be found at the first washing in practically all the streams of the district.

Rich quartz reefs have also been discovered, but none of them has as yet been worked, owing to their distance from any railway and the impossibility of obtaining machinery.

The Government alluvial gold-mines at Kilo were the first mines to be worked and have been the most successful. Receipts in 1912 were 3·5 million francs and expenditure less than 2·25 million, while in 1913 receipts were 3·75 million and expenditure less than 2 million. Other successful mines are at Moto, eighty miles or more north-west of Kilo, and at Babeyru near the Nepoko river, some eighty miles south of Poko.

*Iron.*—The iron ore deposits of the Congo are extremely extensive. Vast supplies are to be found

along the Nile–Congo watershed. A range of hills of almost pure hematite exists between the Ituri and Bomokandi rivers. The Welle region is specially rich in iron. Rich iron ores are also to be found in the neighbourhood of the Western Rift, in Katanga, and along the Zambezi–Congo watershed.

*Kaolin* is found in the coastal region, and is reported to occur also near the junction of the Kwango and Kwilu (Juma) rivers.

*Lead.*—Lead ore (*galena*) has been found in several places—for example, near Matadi—occurring in quartz veins, though in small quantities.

*Lime* is known to exist in several regions, notably in Katanga, where it is needed chiefly for the manufacture of cement and for smelting purposes. Limestone of fair quality appears in the rock formations near the River Luezi (Léopoldville), and it has also been recorded in the cataract region, and in the district between the upper Kasai and Sankuru rivers.

*Mica* exists in the Ituri district, but the largest plates hitherto found are no more than 8 inches square.

*Petroleum.*—Mineral oil has not yet been discovered in paying quantities in the Congo.

*Platinum* associated with gold has been discovered.

*Salt.*—Hot salt springs exist at several spots along the Western Rift and Tanganyika. Some of these are worked by the natives for salt.

*Silver* occurs in the Mayumbe district, and in Katanga.

*Tin.*—Katanga is also rich in tin. The metal was being successfully mined before the war, and the first shipments had been dispatched to Europe. The richest mine is the Muika mine at Kiambi on the Luvua river.

*Uranium* compounds have been found in the Kasai and other regions in conditions which are said to suggest the existence of veins of radio-active minerals.

*Zinc* has been found in the Ituri region.

### (*b*) *Output*

The following table gives the approximate figures for the output from the principal mining centres:

| *Year.* | *Copper* (Katanga). | *Diamonds* (Kasai). | *Gold* (Kilo and Moto). |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Metric tons.* | *Carats.* | *Ounces.* |
| 1913 | 7,400 | 15,000 | 43,600 |
| 1914 | 10,700 | 39,000 | 55,000 |
| 1915 | 14,200 | 49,000 | 82,800 |
| 1916 | 22,200 | 54,000 | 95,200 |

The copper output for 1916 amounted in value to 66,000,000 francs (from Katanga), the gold output for the same year to 9,000,000 francs, the diamond output to 1,000,000 francs. The estimated output of diamonds for 1917 was 87,000 carats. In 1914 the average price of diamonds on the Antwerp market was £1 per carat. In 1916 the price of copper in Europe reached £120 per ton.

## (5) Manufactures

The native manufactures of the Colony, as of other undeveloped African protectorates, are of small economic importance, since they are usually produced by the individual for his own use, and at best subserve a limited barter trade.

They include roughly fashioned products of native craft such as huts, canoes, pottery, mats, baskets and woven fabrics, fish-traps, iron-bladed implements, and weapons. The only manufacture of first-class importance was introduced by Messrs. Lever, whose firm, the Société des Huileries du Congo Belge, has several factories—on the Kwilu, Kwengo, and Koo rivers, at Alberta near Bumba, and at Elisabetha above Barumbu. The firm employs 140 Europeans, and up

to 3,000 natives, for whom it has built a hospital. The establishment of these factories has not only created a new industry, but has appreciably stimulated the cultivation of the oil-palm.

### (6) Water-power

The water-power available in the Congo is undoubtedly very great, though no survey has as yet been made of the total supply which might eventually be utilized. In all the regions bordering the central basin, where the courses of the rivers are frequently broken by falls and rapids, power could easily be generated. The Lualaba above Bukama and the Luvua above Kiambi have a succession of falls which might supply all the power required by the mines and railways in these districts; the falls of the Congo on the reaches between Kongolo and Kindu and between Ponthierville and Stanleyville could be used to electrify the railways which connect those places; the numerous rapids of the Welle lie upon the track of the proposed railway from Buta to Rejaf on the Nile.

In the central basin there is little water-power, but there the rivers make railways less necessary. Where the Congo leaves it, however, to descend to the coast the Livingstone Falls supply an enormous amount of power in a district where it is needed for railways and mines.

The mechanical difficulties which have to be surmounted in each instance before the power can be utilized are very great, and the execution of any such project would involve the expenditure of much capital.

## (C) COMMERCE

### (1) Domestic

(*a*) *General Conditions.*—When the primitive native has come in contact with civilization and acquired a taste for European goods, he may be induced to work or bring in trade commodities in order to acquire the money to buy those goods ; his needs soon expand and lead to a demand for such articles as knives and cloth, or even gramophones and bicycles. In this way development indirectly depends upon transport facilities and railway expansion, and the greatest need of the Congo to-day is railways. European commodities are easily obtained in Katanga from Rhodesia and the Transvaal, in the Welle from Khartum *via* the Nile, and in lower Congo by sea from Europe, but in the rest of the Colony they are procured only with difficulty. Cloth, beads, cutlery, and all other kinds of ' trade goods ' are sought after by the natives throughout the whole Congo basin, while in some districts there is a demand for tinned goods and general stores to supply the wants of Europeans.

The two most densely populated regions in the Congo are probably the central Welle and Kwango–Kasai districts. Neither of these is as yet opened up to European civilization and trade. Over large portions of the latter, in fact, the sway of the Congo Government is not recognized by the inhabitants, and tax-collecting is not attempted. In the thickly populated and fertile regions of the central Welle, however, the natives are of a far higher potential value, being physically and morally of a better type. They have acquired, probably from the north, a comparatively high civilization. Their arts and crafts—ornamental iron and ivory work, &c.—their code of laws and morals, their architecture, their weapons and dress, and their display on cere-

monial occasions, are probably not equalled by any other tribes of Equatorial Africa. During the last few years they have readily acknowledged the Congo administration and have paid their hut-tax willingly. The advent of a railway in either of these two districts, and the introduction of European influences, would open up great trading possibilities.

(*b*) *Markets and Fairs.*—Markets, weekly or bi-weekly, have been instituted at Government posts in most administered districts. Officials and police attend them, in order to prevent abuses and ensure fair dealing. These markets are greatly appreciated by the natives, and besides encouraging trade serve the purpose of familiarizing them with Europeans and their goods, and disseminating the news of the district. They are quite a feature of the Belgian Congo, and have done much to simplify the difficulties of the administration and raise the standard of civilization. In spite of its success in the Congo this system is apparently not encouraged in the British protectorates in Africa.

The chief caravan and trade routes in the Belgian Congo are provided with rest-houses, and porterage services are arranged for under Government supervision.

(*c*) *Foreign, including British, Interests.*—As a relic of the old regime must be reckoned the large number of powerful companies holding concessions from the Government, which now, no longer as a rule in any relation of community of interest with the Government, carry on operations in the Congo. A special position is occupied by the railway companies, which still, with one exception, have close relations with the administration. The line to Léopoldville is entirely in private hands, though 15,000,000 francs of its capital of 82,000,000 francs were provided by the State, and the terms on which the State was authorized by agreements of 1896 and 1901 to acquire the line if desired

in 1916 were very onerous. The arrangement with the Great Lakes Railway Company of 1902 requires the Government to exploit and pay three-quarters of the profits of 8,000,000 hectares,[1] while the company is to work the minerals. The actual construction of the railways was carried out by the State at the expense of the company, which, however, works the lines.

In Katanga the Katanga Railway Company, instituted by a decree of March 11, 1902, started with a capital of 1,000,000 frs., of which three-fifths were provided by the State, and the rest by the English group headed by Mr. R. Williams. On January 25,1909, the capital was increased by 25,000,000 frs., in order to permit of the construction of the line from the frontier to Elisabethville, 10,000,000 frs. being provided by the Union Minière du Haut-Katanga, and the rest by the Compagnie du Chemin de fer du Bas-Congo au Katanga, which latter added 54,000,000 frs. to cover the additional cost of the line from Elisabethville to Bukama, and constructs and operates the lines for the Katanga Company. This second body, which has now as its main function the construction of the lines to meet the Portuguese line, and to the lower Congo by a direct route through the Kasai basin, is also entrusted by the agreement of November 4, 1906, with the duty of representing the Government in relation to the Katanga Railway Company. Its own capital is only 2,000,000 frs., all the other sums required being provided from a loan of 150,000,000 frs. at 4 per cent. authorized in 1906 by the State, which will obtain half the profits on the working of the lines to be constructed. The company will also work minerals, for which it has the sole right to prospect in a large part of the Kasai–Sankuru basin on half shares with the State.

[1] The agreement was under revision in 1913 (Cd. 6606, p 114). The capital is 75,000,000 francs.

The Government, which has since the decree of June 8, 1888, claimed all minerals, granted on February 27, 1911, the right to exploit for 99 years gold, &c., in an area of 20,000 hectares on the Tele, a tributary of the Itimbiri-Rubi, to the Société Internationale Forestière et Minière du Congo, which also has the right to prospect over nearly 4,000,000 acres and to exploit 150,000 hectares of land. In Katanga the Comité Spécial, which represents the agreement between the State and the Compagnie du Katanga, under which a joint body was to exploit the lands of the territory of which in 1891 a third was ceded to the company, occupies a special position in all mining concessions; not only does it decide whether to grant them, but 33 per cent. of the shares of any company must be allotted to it gratis, and it can subscribe for 20 per cent. more, thus acquiring full control.[1] The actual exploitation is mainly in the hands of the Union Minière, formed in 1906, which was created by Belgian and English capital with a slight preponderance of the former.

Other important concessions in Katanga include two approved in 1912, with some hesitation, one between the Comité Spécial and the group representing the Comptoir National d'Escompte of Paris and the Société Générale, and one between the Comité and the Brussels branch of the Deutsche Bank;[2] both were for 150,000 hectares, and doubt was felt as to the wisdom of granting such large areas for prospecting and mining.

There are also in the Congo the remodelled companies, the Abir, the Société Commerciale Anversoise, and the Compagnie du Kasai,[3] with the Compagnie du Lomami and the American Congo Company, as well as minor concessionaries. The opening of the country to

[1] Lannoy, *L'Organisation coloniale belge*, pp. 162–67

[2] Cd. 6606, p. 36.

[3] Three offshoots from the original Anglo-Belgian Indiarubber Company (A.B.I.R.).

free trade since 1910, however, has enormously increased the number of traders, mainly Belgian and Portuguese, with business in the country, and has brought into the field the important firm of Messrs. Lever Brothers, to which reference has been made above. An imposing effort to colonize the Katanga attempted by the Compagnie Foncière, Agricole et Pastorale du Congo (1909–12) ended in failure, and the company surrendered the 150,000 hectares which the State had conceded gratis, and on which a Benedictine monastery was to be founded. The presence of so many powerful companies naturally renders the entry of any mere individual trader difficult, unless he restricts himself to petty trade as do the Portuguese, but there is still room for powerful firms.

### (2) Foreign

#### (*a*) *Exports*

In 1912 the exports from the Congo amounted to 16,000 tons, while those of 1913 reached a total of 19,600 tons. As regards values, however, these figures are misleading, for the price of rubber having dropped from 10 francs per kg. in 1912 to 5 francs per kg. in 1913, a fall of about £500,000 occurred in the value of exported rubber. Quantities are therefore a better basis of comparison than values, and the progress of export trade in recent years is indicated by the following returns for 6 leading items[1] out of 150 shown in the official reports:

| | 1913. *Metric tons.* | 1916. *Metric tons.* |
|---|---|---|
| Rubber | 3,600 | 3,200 |
| Ivory | 276 | 318 |
| Copal | 4,698 | 8,700 |
| Palm nuts and kernels | 7,195 | 22,400 |
| Palm oil | 1,981 | 3,850 |
| Rice | 2 | 901 |

[1] The figures are from *Congo Belge, 1916, Rapport Annuel.* London, 1918.

In considering the import and export figures for the Belgian Congo, it should be noted that the Congo and Ubanghi rivers serve other parts of the Congo basin, notably French Equatorial Africa (French Congo). It is desirable, therefore, to specify what proportion the figures for the Belgian Congo bear to the total river-borne trade in and out of the Congo ports. This is shown as far as possible in the tables which follow.

EXPORTS OF RUBBER.

(From *Renseignements de l'Office Coloniale, Ministère des Colonies Belges.*)

[A]

| | *Produce of the Belgian Congo only.* | |
|---|---|---|
| 1913 | *Quantities (kg.).* | *Values (frs.).* |
| Grass rubber . . . | 758,000 | 2,654,000 |
| Wild vine rubber . . | 2,865,000 | 15,043,000 |
| Plantation rubber . . | 451 | 2,480 |
| 1914 | | |
| Grass rubber . . . | 409,000 | 1,431,000 |
| Wild vine rubber . . | 1,840,000 | 9,200,000 |
| Plantation rubber . . | — | — |
| 1915 | | |
| Grass rubber . . . | 877,000 | 3,946,000 |
| Wild vine rubber . . | 1,302,000 | 7,161,000 |
| Plantation rubber . . | — | — |

[B]

| | *Total exports of rubber through Congo ports.* | |
|---|---|---|
| 1913 | *Quantities (kg.).* | *Values (frs.).* |
| Grass rubber . . . | 901,000 | 3,153,000 |
| Wild vine rubber . . | 4,705,000 | 24,699,000 |
| Plantation rubber . . | 451 | 2,480 |
| 1914 | | |
| Grass rubber . . . | 600,000 | 2,098,000 |
| Wild vine rubber . . | 2,500,000 | 12,500,000 |
| Plantation rubber . . | — | — |
| 1915 | | |
| Grass rubber . . . | 1,446,000 | 6,508,000 |
| Wild vine rubber . . | 2,250,000 | 12,375,000 |
| Plantation rubber . . | — | — |

*Export Values in 1916.*—According to the report of M. Leplae, Director of Agriculture for the Belgian Congo, the exports for 1916 were in quantity three times, and in value twice, those of 1912.[1] The total value of the exports of rubber, palm kernels, palm oil, copal, and ivory in 1916 was 44,000,000 francs, nearly three-fifths of the value of the mineral exports from Katanga. Of the products of cultivation, cocoa was the most important item; 770 tons, produced mainly in the Mayumbe district, were exported, and were valued at 1,400,000 francs.

### (*b*) *Imports*

The total value of the principal imports for 1913 amounted to £2,297,791, an increase of £416,131 [2] over the previous year. But of this total, machinery, iron and steel materials, and metals and manufactures thereof, accounted for about £500,000, and as they were required for railway extension, &c., their value must be deducted in estimating the amount of ordinary trade. There were, however, large increases in textile goods (£415,418 against £362,608 in 1912), clothing (£156,268 against £109,553), provisions (£346,162 against £249,731), and perfumery and toilet articles (£20,035 against £14,014), 'entirely due to the enormous credits which were given on the easiest possible terms by German firms, who apparently determined to capture trade for what it is worth in this Colony'.[3] This fact explains also the figures of the trade of 1912 which perplexed the author of the Consular report for that year:[4] there was an increase of £224,000 over 1911,

[1] Figures recently published give the total export values for 1916 and 1917 as 122,300,000 and 161,490,000 francs respectively (*African World*, Jan. 11, 1919).

[2] The official Belgian figures, which have since been published, show a much larger increase over 1912, viz. £694,316.

[3] Cd. 7820—103, p. 4.

[4] Cd. 7048—77, pp. 5, 6.

and of the total for the year Belgium supplied 66 per cent., the United Kingdom 10 and Germany 8, while in 1911 Germany had only 5 per cent. to the United Kingdom's 12. There is also a considerable trade with Rhodesia and the Union of South Africa, and the total of British imports rose in 1912 to 17 per cent. as against 15·8 per cent. in the previous year. France and Holland come next, then Portugal and then Angola, but the total amount of imports in these cases is comparatively small.

The goods imported for the natives are of the usual type, cotton fabrics, loincloths, blue and white striped prints, indigo blue drill, scarlet baize, cotton covers, ready-made and second-hand clothing of the cheapest kind, German slippers, straw hats, and a few sun hats of British manufacture. Of other imports for native use Germany supplied in 1912–13 nearly all the perfumes and perfumed soap, padlocks, scissors, pocket-knives, imitation pearl beads, mirrors, machetes, and beer. Other articles in demand are matches, pipes from Gouda, condensed milk, biscuits (mainly of British or French manufacture), Portuguese sardines, Dutch gin, Portuguese wines, Belgian sugar, American or Australian corned beef, American tobacco, Austro-Hungarian flour and Dutch crockery, soap, starch, and rice.

The import trade is small in relation to the size of the country and number of its people, but it must develop largely with the opening of the country to free trade, and it is impossible not to recognize the energy shown by the Germans in their endeavour to capture the market, by sending representatives to the different centres to exhibit their wares and solicit orders. British firms have done much less work in this direction,[1] and in 1912 Manchester goods were meeting with serious competition from German cheap prints.

[1] Cd. 7048—77, pp. 9, 10. German trade made its first great advance in 1911 (when Germany ousted France from the third place) by the energy of Hamburg agents (cf. Cd. 6665—1, pp. 6, 7).

### (c) *Customs*

By the terms of an agreement signed at the Brussels Conference in 1890, the import duties of the Congo Free State were limited to a maximum of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*. The schedule of duties levied under this regulation was replaced by a new tariff introduced by the Belgian administration in 1911 and modified by amendments published in 1912 and 1914. The new tariff observed the old maximum of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*, and applied this rate to all but a few categories. Seeds and fertilizers were admitted free; railway material and agricultural or industrial machinery paid only 3 per cent. *ad valorem*, but spirits were charged high rates, varying with their alcoholic strength and amounting to 70 francs or more per hectolitre.

In 1914 a royal decree announced the conversion of the 10 per cent. *ad valorem* duties in a number of cases to specific duties; about thirty articles were affected, the tariff in certain cases being carefully graded, e. g. for cotton tissues of various qualities and for blankets. A table showing the new rates leviable from October 1914 was published in the *Board of Trade Journal* for April 2, 1914.

As regards exports, the tariff was revised in 1913, some of the duties originally imposed by the Free State Government being abolished. On the other hand, since that date, prohibitions of certain exports have been issued from time to time. Ivory, copal, and rubber are liable to export duty, but rubber is not dutiable when the market price in Europe falls below 1*s*. 10*d*. per lb. for vine rubber, or 1*s*. 1*d*. per lb. for grass rubber. Plantation rubber, of which there is very little, goes out free. In 1917 the export of rice was totally prohibited.

The Budget estimates of Customs receipts for the years 1912–14 amounted to:

| *Year.* | *Francs.* |
|---|---|
| 1912 | 7,069,000 |
| 1913 | 8,261,500 |
| 1914 | 6,031,156 |

In 1913, of the 8,000,000 odd francs received under this head, 3,000,000 came from exports and 5,000,000 from imports. The scantiness of the Customs receipts (barely 16 per cent. of the total revenue) is largely the result of the policy of monopoly and restrictions on trade, and of the operation of *exploitation en régie*, which held sway before the inauguration of the present regime. It cannot be doubted that the maintenance in the Congo of the system of free trade introduced in 1912 will under normal conditions result in a rapid rise in Customs revenue. During the first year of its operation, 1913, the new system had produced an increase, arising from imports alone, of 1,000,000 francs, and the set-back in the following year was wholly due to the outbreak of war.

## (D) FINANCE

### (1) Public Finance

The immediate result of the abandonment, in 1912, of the system of Government exploitation was a great reduction in the gross revenue of the Colony. In 1908, out of 35,000,000 frs., 16,000,000 were credited to 'products of the domain, tributes and imposts paid in kind', a category which embraced resources of very different kinds. Even in 1911, the last year in which a considerable part of the Congo remained under Government exploitation, the receipts were over 10,000,000 francs.

The Colony, however, still enjoys important revenues from lands, proceeds of sales and leases (385,000 francs in 1913), dues on licences to collect rubber, &c. (140,000 francs), and the tax on ivory, which in 1913 produced 2,110,000 francs. The proceeds of the taxes of 40 centimes per kilogramme on tree or vine rubber, and of 20 centimes on grass rubber, which together amounted to 800,000 francs in 1913, were laid aside for the creation and maintenance of domain rubber plantations. An active policy of extension in regard to these has now apparently been abandoned, but a certain number of plantations, of coffee and cocoa as well as rubber, are being worked by the State, and although in 1913 the return was only 110,000 francs, it should increase largely in course of time. A small sum, 17,000 francs in 1913, was obtained from the dues payable on wood cut within domain forests. These dues are not levied on wood cut by natives or others for domestic use.

Mines, which in 1913 yielded 3,780,000 francs, are, as is natural, a Government monopoly. Posts, telegraphs, river transport, and minor services yield hardly any surplus over the cost of working. The proceeds of the Government's share in companies, which even in 1911 exceeded 3,000,000 francs, fell practically to zero after the abandonment of the policy of exploitation. Fees of court, survey fees, and minor licence and permit fees yield a trifling revenue.

Direct taxation includes a personal tax paid almost entirely by Europeans, and based on the size of the buildings used by them, and on the number of their employés and of the boats used in their business; it yielded in 1913 a comparatively small sum (825,000 francs). The payment of this tax confers the right to trade within the Colony; the European trader must otherwise pay 500 francs for a special licence to deal in rubber, copal, or ivory,

or 200 francs for a licence to trade in other commodities. Natives must pay from 5 to 12 frs. per adult male, and 2 frs. for each wife beyond the first, though the rate may be lowered in case of distress. The tax yielded some 9,000,000 francs in 1913, and its yield will steadily increase with the bringing of the tribes under control and the growth of the wealth of the natives. It can only be paid in cash, in terms of a decree enacted in 1910 in order to prevent the old abuses.

The total revenue [1] is not sufficient to cover the necessary cost [2] of developing the administration, and on the strength of the potential wealth of the Colony new loans have been contracted, so that by 1913 the interest on the public debt amounted to 9,673,035 francs.[3]

### (2) Banking and Currency

Of the three banks in existence, the chief is the Banque du Congo Belge, established in 1909 with a capital of 5,000,000 francs, with branches at Boma, Matadi, Kinshasa, Stanleyville, Kilo, Kigoma, and Elisabethville, and head office (at present) in London. The Banque Commerciale du Congo has a capital of 1,000,000 francs, and its profits for the year 1912–13

[1] 40,418,410 francs in 1913; 45,367,639 in 1912; 30,451,276 in 1914; 30,451,250 in 1915; 32,049,082 in 1916 (Cd. 6606, pp. 1 and 13).

[2] 63,076,573 francs in 1914; 65,957,084 francs in 1913; 66,538,970 in 1912. The ordinary expenditure in 1915 was 51,936,000 francs; in 1916, 54,755,912 francs. The central administration at Boma, the Governor-General's head-quarters, is conducted on very expensive lines, costing 2,170,000 francs in 1913. The annual instalment of 3,300,000 francs payable under the arrangement of cession to the King for colonial purposes is devoted to works of utility, such as the campaign against sleeping-sickness.

[3] Of the total debt on which this interest was paid 62,545,000 francs represented the floating debt, and 99,780,000 francs the loan of 1888, the repayment of which is not quite adequately provided for by *fonds d'amortissement*.

were reported to be 77,578 francs. The Banque Coloniale de Belgique (capital 3,000,000 francs) had profits amounting to 778,269 francs in the same year.

The currency of the Congo is that of Belgium, consisting of 20 and 10 franc pieces in gold; 5, 2, and 1 franc pieces and 50 centime pieces in silver; 25, 10, and 5 centime pieces (perforated) in nickel; and 2 and 1 centime pieces (perforated) in copper. In 1912 the Banque du Congo Belge put into circulation notes of 10, 20, 50, 100, 500, and 1,000 francs, current only in the Congo. Up to August 1, 1912, the total imports of coin into the Congo were 24,317,500 francs, equivalent to £962,700 sterling.

Gold disappeared from circulation almost immediately after the outbreak of war, and silver was hoarded to such an extent that it became necessary for the Banque du Congo Belge to issue bank-notes for nominal values of 1 and 5 francs, a large number of which were put into circulation on October 15, 1914.

The metric system was introduced by law on August 17, 1910.

### (3) Influence of Foreign Capital

On the inception of the Congo Free State in 1884, difficulty was experienced in attracting capital, and the method adopted was to form large 'concessionnaire' companies for the development of the territory. The most important of these and the parent of numerous other companies was the Compagnie du Congo pour le Commerce et l'Industrie, founded December 27, 1886, with an original capital of 1,227,000 francs. This company soon formed five others: the Compagnie de Magasins Généraux (October 20, 1888), the Société Anonyme Belge du Haut-Congo (December 10, 1888), the Compagnie du Chemin de Fer du Congo (July 31, 1889), the Compagnie des Produits du Congo (Novem-

ber 29, 1889, and the Compagnie du Katanga (April 15, 1890), the last of which organized three expeditions to counteract Mr. Rhodes's schemes of expansion. Two other companies were also formed a few years later—the Compagnie du Lomami (July 5, 1898), and the Süd-Kamerun-Gesellschaft (December 8, 1898).

After the Free State passed into the hands of the Belgians in 1908, a new impetus was given to commercial enterprise, and there were formed the Compagnie Internationale de Transport au Stanleypool (Citas), the Inter-tropical Anglo-Belgian Trading Company, and the Banque du Congo Belge (January 11, 1909).

After King Albert's accession, activity in this direction increased, and there were formed in quick succession the Société des Recherches des Minières du Bas-Katanga (June 29, 1910) to prospect in Katanga, the Société d'Alimentation du Bas-Congo (August 1, 1910), the Société Industrielle et Financière du Katanga (November 15, 1910) for prospecting, the Société des Pétroles du Congo (December 13, 1910), and the Compagnie Maritime Belge du Congo (January 1, 1911). These are also daughter companies of the Compagnie du Congo, and nearly all have been successful. In Katanga this group stood in 1913 in opposition to that of the British concession-holder, Mr. Robert Williams (Tanganyika Concessions, Ltd.). In 1902 the Compagnie du Congo took shares in the founding of the Great Lakes Railway Company, and in 1906 it took shares in the Union Minière du Haut-Katanga. In 1911 it widened its activities, taking shares in the Société des Mines du Djoue (French Equatorial Africa) and in a Dutch East Indies exploiting company. Much pioneer work stands to its credit, in general development, in railway construction, and in cattle-breeding, and it can claim to have held Katanga for Belgium.

## (E) GENERAL REMARKS

Though the resources of the Congo are large, both in minerals and in agricultural products, it must be borne in mind that there are many factors which will certainly tend to make progress slow, and which must be weighed against those considerations which point to an early development of the territory after the war. Of these the chief are the following:

(i) *The Expense of Communication.*—The energetic development of means of transit by the Government is extremely satisfactory, and the river system is an invaluable asset, but none the less the necessity of trans-shipment and the heavy charges on the Matadi–Léopoldville section of the railway, though these have been diminished in deference to pressure by the Government, make carriage in any event costly. Some reduction can doubtless be effected by improving the steamship service through the employment of larger vessels carrying goods at a cheaper rate, but this in its turn requires considerable improvement of the channel of the river, steps to effect which are being carried out. Whatever may be the improvements ultimately possible by generation of electricity from water-power, the immediate future shows this grave impediment in the way of rapid progress.

(ii) *The Inadequacy of the existing Railway System,* which will have to be supplemented by measures designed to remedy the congestion of traffic on the Congo, and by the construction of a number of new lines.

As regards new construction the most important question from the British point of view is that of the establishment of communication between Rhodesia and Rejaf,[1] the limit of navigation on the Nile, or some

[1] Rejaf is separated from Dufile, to which Uganda steamers run, by 104 miles of cataract.

other point in the Sudan. At present the Katanga Railway extends to Bukama; the river is navigable thence to Kongolo, whence the railway runs to Kindu, from which there is again navigation by river to Ponthierville, and then a railway to Stanleyville. From Stanleyville a line designed to open up the Kilo goldfields is projected to run to Mahagi, where in due course it will presumably be met by a line from the Sudan, through Darfur and along the watershed between the Nile and the Congo, which offers a practicable route. More direct communication by a line from the north of Lake Tanganyika to Lake Albert was contemplated when the treaty of 1894 was negotiated; and Mr. R. Williams obtained from Leopold II the right to carry out this project, for which surveys have been made.[1] This route would have to be completed by railway connexion between the Rhodesian system and the south of Lake Tanganyika, either *via* Elisabethville or from Broken Hill, and even assuming the extension from the north to Lake Albert, the making of a line thence to the north of Lake Tanganyika, and the connexion of the lake with the Rhodesian railways, there would still remain as gaps in the chain of railway connexion both Lake Tanganyika and the short stretch of the Nile between Halfa and Shellal. The difficulties therefore in the way of an early completion of the Cape–Cairo project are not to be minimized.

From the Belgian point of view, interest in the Cape–Cairo project is naturally secondary to that in plans intended to preserve Matadi as the outlet for the traffic of the Congo, including Katanga, in successful rivalry with either the route from Benguela, the Congo portion of which has yet to be constructed, or that from Dar es-Salaam, or that from Rhodesia and Beira. It is admitted that the actual route *via* the

[1] R. Williams, *United Empire*, 1917, p. 450.

Congo, with its three portions of railway (859 kilometres) and its 2,770 kilometres of river to Bukama, where the line to Elisabethville begins, cannot in the long run compete either with the line to Benguela or with the Beira line, especially as shortened by the variant route of Salisbury–Broken Hill, and that accordingly two further routes should be created; the first should follow the Congo, the Kasai, and the Sankuru to Lusambo (1,300 kilometres), where navigation normally ceases, then be carried by rail to Kabalo, the terminus of the line from Lake Tanganyika, then proceed to Pweto on Lake Mweru, and possibly thence to the south of Lake Tanganyika; the second should be entirely a railway route, extending from Elisabethville *via* Bukama to a point on the line from Matadi to Léopoldville, probably Thysville, west of the valley of the Inkisi. The first of these lines would combat the competition of the Tanganyika line; the second would compete, it is hoped successfully, with both the Benguela and Beira routes, between which competition will be minimized by the existence of the pooling agreement of 1908. The funds required for these great projects, however, would obviously be considerably more than the Colony is likely to be able to afford for a considerable period to come.

(iii) *The Character of the Native*, whose labour is indispensable for all important development. The native is, doubtless as the result of environment and heredity, by nature disinclined to hard work, and he has been accustomed to delegate as much toil as possible to his numerous wives and domestic slaves, and to regard this state of things as ideal. Moreover, of late years the ravages of sleeping-sickness have added to the disinclination and inability of the native to work, while the episodes of the State regime have inevitably tended to make every native detest work.

Relief from the excessive tasks and oppression of the old regime have encouraged a spirit of insolent disregard for the white population, which has been as unfavourably commented on by British consular officers [1] as by Belgians.

The remedy for this state of things is not at all simple. It is easy enough to suggest that the procedure of Germany in East Africa or in Samoa should be followed, and that the Government should instruct the chiefs to secure that so many rubber trees should be planted; but the suggestion is open to the fatal objection that the whole root of the evils which prevailed in the Independent State was precisely the application of the principle of compulsory labour, and that no British Government could approve it. It is of course perfectly true that the aim of the policy would be to benefit the native, but it is equally certain that it could not be carried into effect without reintroducing all the evils of quasi-slavery.

It remains, therefore, to adopt a policy similar to that of the British on the west coast of Africa, and to find means of inducing the natives to work in a legitimate manner by encouraging them to become anxious to attain a higher standard of comfort, and to advance in the scale of civilization. This end is undoubtedly fostered by the opening up of the country by railways and other means of communication, and doubtless a good deal can be done by other means. Of these, one of the most effective is the providing of work on regular wages, as is done by the Lever Company, the native thus easily earning enough to pay the native tax, and, owing to free competition, being able to acquire goods at prices which bear some reasonable relation to the actual cost of production, instead of, as formerly, paying a wholly fanciful price estimated in produce. By this means

[1] See e.g. Cd. 6606, pp. 10, 11, 54, 56.

large areas will in due course be effectively worked for the production of palm products.

The natives should also be encouraged by the Government to apply for grants of land, to be given free on condition that they are brought under effective cultivation in a specified time; and in this manner rubber, palm-trees, manioc, pea-nuts, bananas, perhaps cocoa, coffee, and even cotton, may be effectively cultivated. Any substantial extension of this system beyond production for domestic wants will require co-operation by the Government or capitalists in setting up machinery to deal with the produce and prepare it for commercial export. An obvious desideratum is an agricultural bank on something like the Egyptian model.

Another question for serious consideration is whether the development of industry does not render requisite a departure from the present policy of recognizing only communal rights on the part of the natives. In the case of chiefs so far from enlightened as those of the Congo, there is grave risk that the individual may find himself disinclined to efforts from which he will not reap substantial benefits.

In any case, however, there is really no doubt that for a long period the labour supply of the Congo will not be equal to the demands upon it; the importation of outside labour is practically impossible; white labour is very expensive, and the possibility of white settlement on a substantial scale cannot be regarded as at all promising.

(iv) *Lack of Capital.*—Whatever potentialities of development may exist in the Congo, they cannot be exploited except by the free expenditure of capital. It is not at all clear from what source after the war such capital will be forthcoming on a purely commercial basis, for the risks of large enterprises in the Congo are obviously considerable, and can be faced

only by firms so powerful as that of Messrs. Lever. Delay in development need not be regarded as in itself a great evil. Slow but sure progress is probably the wisest course for the Colony.

(v) *Financial Difficulties.*—The financial position of the Government is unquestionably serious ; the receipts for 1914 showed a falling off by 9,966,824 francs from 1913, and 1915 saw a further decline by 11,700,000 francs. The loss of revenue is due in part to abiding causes such as the inevitable loss of revenue on ivory (due both to the necessity of lowering the duties and to the actual diminution of the amount available) and the decision to sacrifice the revenue from trade spirits, in part also to the decline in the price of rubber, which may be temporary and is clearly due to various causes, such as the coming on the market of large supplies from other sources, the invention of synthetic rubber, &c. The deficit in 1914 was 22,500,000 francs, and in 1915 not under 25,000,000 francs, and since the annexation there has been no success in balancing revenue and expenditure, the deficit being made good from loans, although much of the expenditure is unproductive. On the other hand, increase of revenue can be confidently expected from (i) the growth of land revenue of a legitimate character ; (ii) the mineral royalties ; (iii) the native taxation, which will increase as the country is effectively brought under administration, and as the rate is raised, as it legitimately can be when the native is able to earn more money ; and (iv) import duties, which will develop with the growth of the spending power of the natives. It must, however, be remembered that at any time sleeping-sickness may develop and produce demands on the Colony which it would be difficult to meet.

# *NOTE ON KATANGA*

## (1) Descriptive

Geographically, Katanga cannot be regarded as part of the Congo, but belongs rather to Rhodesia. Its fauna and flora are both more akin to those of South Africa. It is connected by railway with the Cape and Beira, and at present its outlet is towards the south, whence it derives all its stores, machinery, &c.

In the matter of climate also, Katanga stands apart from the rest of the Colony. Owing to its altitude, from 4,000 to 7,000 ft., it is much more temperate than most other parts of the tropics, the mean daily temperature being about 70° F. The annual rainfall is from 50 to 80 in., the rainy season being from October to April.

The greater portion of Katanga is hilly, and the country chiefly rolling grassy uplands or well-timbered bush, with some forest areas in the west. No part, however, is wholly suitable for colonization by whites, the climate, though in some respects favourable, being too hot, and severe malaria being prevalent.

The boundaries of the province (cf. pp. 9, 10) are roughly the following: north, the Lukuga river; east, Lakes Tanganyika and Mweru, and the Luapula river; south, northern Rhodesia; west, the River Lomami.

## (2) Sleeping-sickness

As in other parts of the Congo, this disease is prevalent amongst natives, though large areas of the plateau country are said to be free from 'fly', and

therefore also from sleeping-sickness. Before the war 18 doctors and 30 sanitary brigades were employed in the Congo, many of them in Katanga, mainly in connexion with this disease, the cost being borne by the civil list of the King of the Belgians. The most seriously affected areas are on the Lufira and Luvua rivers.

### (3) Means of Communication

(*a*) *Roads.*—In Katanga a great deal of labour has been expended on the construction of roads. The new road branching towards the Kundelungu plateau from mile 60 on the road from Elisabethville to Kasenga is finished as far as the Lashipuka river, a distance of 40 miles, while the Elisabethville–Kasenga road has been continued to mile 73, and is being actively pushed forward. An alternative road has been built between Elisabethville and the 'Star of the Congo' copper mine. During the war a rough bush-track was cut from Elisabethville to the south end of Lake Tanganyika. It was used in the dry season by motor lorries conveying stores and munitions for the troops in German East Africa, and may one day carry a section of the grand trunk Cape to Cairo Railway.

(*b*) *Railways.*[1]—The natural outlets from Katanga to the sea are to be found not in the far north-west at the mouth of the Congo, but on the east or the west coast, and the official scheme of railway construction has these considerations in view. The Lobito Bay (or Benguela) line seems to be the most obviously advantageous route. The sea-journey from England would be shortened by 2,000 miles, and the route affords the obvious outlet for the copper of Katanga (already over 22,000 tons a year). The late war, however, has

[1] For the Katanga Railway, see above, pp. 64–5, 68, 105–6; for the Lobito Bay (Benguela) Railway, see p. 66.

prevented work on the Congolese section of the line, and meanwhile the Beira and Mashonaland Railway Company is making efforts to secure the Katanga trade both as against that route and as against the competition for the trade of northern and central Katanga of the Tanganyika–Dar es-Salaam route. From January 1, 1913, it leased the section of the line from the south lying between Broken Hill and the Congo border, on which the rates had previously been very heavy—often thrice as great as on the rest of the system—and from January 1, 1914, it announced large reductions in the rates from Beira and Port Elizabeth to the Congo frontier; thus the rate on *limbo* (coloured cotton prints), blankets, and beads for natives was reduced from £1 4*s.* 3*d.* to 17*s.* 10*d.* per 100 lb., in order to enable the merchants in Katanga to attract rubber caravans to Elisabethville to buy, the rubber thus being sent to Europe by the Beira route instead of by the Kongolo–Boma route. If Ayrshire, in southern Rhodesia, were connected by railway with Broken Hill in northern Rhodesia, Salisbury would for the time being replace Buluwayo as the base of the foreign trade of Katanga, and with the shortening of the route the position of Beira as the chief port of entry for the province would be temporarily strengthened.

### (4) Industry

(*a*) *Labour Conditions.*—Most of the arrangements for the recruiting and repatriating of native labourers are in the hands of the Bourse du Travail du Katanga. In 1916 over 2,000 passed through the compound of the Bourse at Elisabethville. In 1914 the Union Minière employed 2,670 natives in the copper mines and smelting works. Most of the labour has hitherto been recruited from Rhodesia and Portuguese territory, some also from Northern Nigeria. The food supplied

consists of maize meal (from Rhodesia), meat, salt fish, rice, pea-nuts, sugar, salt, and beans. (Beans and tobacco are raised locally.) Now that the railway has been completed to Bukama, it is probable that recruits and food supplies will be drawn largely from the north.

Beyond the mining areas native unskilled labour is plentiful, and wages are low, though higher than in other parts of the Congo. In the Lake Tanganyika zone porters are paid 1.50 frs. (1*s.* 3*d.*) *per diem*; in the Lomami region, 1 fr. (10*d.*); while 5*d.* to 8*d.* is the usual rate elsewhere.

(*b*) *European Settlement.*—In regard to European settlement, conditions in Katanga are in some measure different from the rest of the Congo. The Belgian element in the population is much less numerically strong, being 51·5 per cent. on January 1, 1912; since then the population is estimated to have increased by January 1, 1914, to about 2,500, of whom about 1,000 are at Elisabethville, where the population is extraordinarily cosmopolitan. The political danger of the swamping of the Belgian element in Katanga by the South African element has been recognized by Belgium,[1] and a real attempt has been made to encourage agricultural settlement by Belgian farmers, the Government giving free passages third class and obtaining large reductions for emigrants on the South African railways, while the Agricultural Department, as has been seen, is endeavouring to clear land and establish a pastoral industry. A special company for this purpose operated for some time, acting on the basis of bringing out settlers to whom, after a year's work, land and assistance were given, while for others industrial employment for two years was guaranteed.

[1] Cd. 6606, pp. 50–71. Of 434 Belgians imported in 1910–12, 82 left (Cd. 6665—1, p. 3). Undesirable persons may be deported (ibid., p. 18.)

Through this means 434 Belgians, including 41 farmers and 189 artisans, 89 women, and 80 children, were introduced up to June 30, 1912 ;[1] the effort, however, collapsed in 1912, doubtless for the simple reason that the Belgian is not anxious to colonize, especially in circumstances which are probably more difficult than those of northern Rhodesia. Only 30 farmers and their families were established in Katanga by 1913, and there is as yet no evidence to show whether or not the country is really adapted for permanent European settlement of the Rhodesian type, though it appears to be generally assumed, perhaps without adequate consideration, that this is the case. In any case, if white settlement is possible, the most natural way to foster it would be by the introduction not of Belgians but of South Africans with experience of colonial life; but naturally enough South Africans for the present find the agricultural prospects in Rhodesia more attractive.

(*c*) *Agriculture.*—Although most of the country is extremely fertile, little interest has been taken in the exploitation of its vegetable wealth, owing to the great distance of Katanga from the sea, and to the smallness of its white population, which in 1914 was said to number about 2,500.

Stock-raising offers a more promising future, the Biano plateau being reported to be free from 'fly' (tsetse). This and the Kundelungu plateau are about 400 metres above the surrounding country, and covered with short grass, which, however, is thin and poor. Reports from the Government experimental breeding station at Katentania on the plateau have been uniformly good. In 1914 it had 1,737 head of cattle, 734 of which had been imported from northern Rhodesia. Sheep-farming has also given good results. The export of cows from Katanga is prohibited.

[1] Cd. 6665—1, p. 18.

A large number of cattle are imported monthly from Rhodesia for slaughtering, and their hides are largely exported.

(*d*) *Mining.*—In 1916 the value of the export of minerals from Katanga amounted to more than half that of the total exports of the Colony. Katanga is a copper country. Its southern copper belt is said to extend for a distance of 200 miles, with a breadth of from 35 to 60 miles. The region derives its industrial importance from this great copper belt, now being exploited by the Union Minière du Haut-Katanga, a Belgian company. There are several other mining companies, but they are of little importance as compared with the Union Minière. Most of them have ceased to operate since the outbreak of war, for example the Simkat Company, mining tin at Muika, and the Comité de Kundelungu, working diamonds at Msipashi. On the other hand, war needs and the high price of copper have served to redouble the energies of the Union Minière, and to increase its output. It is fortunate that the very necessary fluxes, ironstone and lime, are to be obtained in close proximity to the copper mines.

The majority of the ores are of low grade, containing about 7 per cent. of copper, but there are large deposits containing from 10 to 20 per cent., and some even 30 per cent. or more. It is hoped that for the treatment of low-grade ores a method will be perfected in the near future. The electrolytic leaching process by which electrolytic copper is produced seems to offer promising results. The smelting plant of the Union Minière is at Lubumbashi, and when the additional blast-furnaces recently installed are in working order, it is estimated that the annual output will be about 40,000 tons of metal and matte, in which case Katanga would be one of the most productive copper-fields in

the world. The present mining programme will keep the plant supplied until 1920 or 1921.

Up to 1915 five furnaces had been installed. Two others, capable of turning out 600 tons monthly, are now in course of erection. The production of copper since 1911 is as follows:

| *Year.* | *Copper (metric tons).* |
|---|---|
| 1911 | 997 |
| 1912 | 2,492 |
| 1913 | 7,407 |
| 1914 | 10,722 |
| 1915 | 14,190 |
| 1916 | 22,200[1] |

The cost of production per ton has been reduced considerably by the latest improved furnaces. The cost per ton of copper from Katanga delivered in England in 1916 is shown by the following figures:

| | £ | *s.* | *d.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| By old furnaces | 27 | 16 | 0 |
| By new furnaces | 22 | 15 | 0 |
| Average cost | 25 | 12 | 0 |
| Average cost of rail, freight, insurance, &c. | 15 | 19 | 3 |
| Total cost of production and dispatch to England | 41 | 11 | 3 |

In normal times, with improved furnaces, the last figure would be about £30, and on the completion of the Benguela Railway it is expected that the cost of transport will be greatly reduced.

About 50 per cent. of the shares of the Union Minière are held by the Tanganyika Concessions, Ltd., which also holds 90 per cent. of the Benguela Railway Company's shares, the remaining 10 per cent. being in the hands of the Portuguese Government; 70 per cent. of the shares of the Rhodesia–Katanga Junction Railway Co. are also held by Tanganyika Concessions.

[1] The value of the output in 1916 is given as 66,000,000 francs; the total exports from the Colony in that year were valued at 122,000,000 francs.

*Prospecting licences* for two years may be obtained for £4. The working of minerals discovered is subject to a royalty of 1 per cent. of the value of the output (except in the case of precious metals and diamonds, on which the royalty is 5 per cent.), and 33 per cent. of the net profits go to the Treasury. There is, however, very small scope for new undertakings, most of the country in the mineral regions in the east of the Belgian Congo being included in concessions of prospecting or mining rights issued to wealthy corporations.

### (5) Commerce

(*a*) *Local Trade.*—Most of the local trade of Katanga is in British hands, but it rests on a system of credit which is often disastrous.

(*b*) *Foreign Trade.*—In 1914 the value of imports into Katanga (wholly from the south) was £564,365; the value of the exports (southward) was estimated at £781,893, their weight being approximately 10,500 tons. The foreign trade of the province is therefore considerable for a newly-opened country so far removed from the usual trade routes. Iron and steel goods, machinery and rails, are the chief imports. These come mainly from Belgium; Rhodesia and the United Kingdom being next on the list. Copper, of course, was the chief article of export—over 10,000 tons, more than 95 per cent. of the total, being exported in 1914.[1]

There is no preferential tariff on goods of Belgian origin, all imports paying an average of 10 per cent. *ad valorem.* The Customs receipts for 1914 were £29,591, as against £34,906 in 1913. The decline in imports indicated was probably due to the war. The Customs receipts of the Congo have always been extremely small (see p. 99).

[1] The export of copper reached 14,000 tons in 1915, while both the export and the price further increased in 1916.

(c) *Elisabethville.*—At the beginning of 1912 this town, of which there was no sign eighteen months previously, covered an area of 560 acres, and had some 20 miles of streets, and a population, according to the census of that year, of 1,132, of whom 519 were Belgians, 228 British, and 385 of other nationalities [1]. By March 1912 a collapse of the 'boom' set in, and a somewhat acute financial crisis was produced. This was complicated by the action of the Banque du Congo Belge, which, realizing that there were no mortgage laws in force in the country, promptly called in its various loans on land and building property. By 1914, however, business had revived and indeed increased, and the original wattle-and-daub huts of the town had been largely replaced by substantial buildings.

## (6) Finance

In 1910 it was estimated that the capital invested in Katanga in connexion with mining, agricultural, and commercial operations, and railway construction amounted to £10,000,000. A branch of the Standard Bank of South Africa was opened at Elizabethville in 1919.

[1] At the end of 1919 the whole population was estimated at about 1,600. A. de Bauw, *Le Katanga*, Brussels, 1920.

# APPENDIX

## I A

### Declarations exchanged between the Government of Her Britannic Majesty and the International Association of the Congo, December 16, 1884

*Declaration of the Association.*

The International Association of the Congo, founded by His Majesty the King of the Belgians for the purpose of promoting the civilization and commerce of Africa and for other humane and benevolent purposes, hereby declares as follows :

1. That by treaties with the legitimate sovereigns in the basins of the Congo and of the Niadi [Niari] Kwilu and in adjacent territories upon the Atlantic there has been ceded to it territory for the use and benefit of Free States established and being established in the said basins and adjacent territories.

2. That by virtue of the said treaties the administration of the interests of the said Free States is vested in the Association.

3. That the Association has adopted as its standard, and that of the said Free States, a blue flag with a golden star in the centre.

4. That, with a view of enabling commerce to penetrate into Equatorial Africa, the Association and the said Free States have resolved to levy no customs duties upon goods or articles of merchandise imported directly into their territories or brought by the route which has been constructed around the cataracts of the Congo.

5. That the Association and the said Free States guarantee to foreigners established in their territories the free exercise of their religion, the rights of navigation, commerce, and industry, and the right of buying, selling, letting, and hiring lands, buildings, mines, and forests on the sole condition that they shall obey the laws.

6. That the Association and the said Free States will do all in their power to prevent the slave-trade and to suppress slavery.

*Declaration of Her Britannic Majesty's Government.*

The Government of Her Britannic Majesty declare their sympathy with, and their approval of, the humane and benevolent purposes of the Association, and hereby recognize the flag of the Association and of the Free States under its administration as the flag of a friendly Government.

I B

EXTRACTS FROM THE CONVENTION BETWEEN HER BRITANNIC MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT AND THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE CONGO, DECEMBER 16, 1884

ART. V. Every British Consul or Consular Officer within the said territories who shall be thereunto duly authorized by Her Britannic Majesty's Government may hold a Consular Court for the district assigned to him, and shall exercise sole and exclusive jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, over the persons and property of British subjects within the same, in accordance with British law.

ART. VI. Nothing in the last preceding article contained shall be deemed to relieve any British subject from the obligation to observe the laws of the said Free States applicable to foreigners, but any infraction thereof by a British subject shall be justiciable only by a British Consular Court.

[These advantages belong by express grant to Italy, France, Austria-Hungary, Denmark, Portugal, and Russia, and by most-favoured-nation clauses to the United States, Germany, Spain, Norway and Sweden, and Holland; the operation of Art. VI is conditional on Art. V being put in effect by the erection of such courts; otherwise the territorial jurisdiction applies, and in the absence of the courts has always been exercised.]

ART. X. In the case of the Association being desirous to cede any portion of the territory now or hereafter under its government, it shall not cede it otherwise than as subject to all the engagements contracted by the Association under this convention. Those engagements and the rights thereby accorded to British subjects shall continue to be in vigour after every cession made to any new occupant of any portion of the said territory.

## II

### Extracts from General Act of Berlin Conference, February 26, 1885

Chapter I. *Declaration relative to Freedom of Trade in the Basin of the Congo, its mouths and circumjacent regions, with other provisions connected therewith.*

Art. 1. The trade of all nations shall enjoy complete freedom :

1. In all the regions forming the basin of the Congo and its outlets.

This basin is bounded by the watersheds (or mountain ridges) of the adjacent basins, namely, in particular, those of the Niari, the Ogowé, the Schari, and the Nile, on the north ; by the eastern watershed line of the affluents of Lake Tanganyika on the east ; and by the watersheds of the basins of the Zambezi and the Logé [Loje] on the south. It therefore comprises all the regions watered by the Congo and its affluents, including Lake Tanganyika, with its eastern tributaries.

2. In the maritime zone extending along the Atlantic ocean from the parallel situated in 2° 30′ of south latitude to the mouth of the Logé.

The northern boundary will follow the parallel situated in the 2° 30′ from the coast to the point where it meets the geographical basin of the Congo, avoiding the basin of the Ogowé, to which the provisions of the present Act do not apply.

The southern boundary will follow the course of the Logé to its source, and thence pass eastwards till it joins the geographical basin of the Congo.

3. In the zone stretching eastwards from the Congo basin as above defined to the Indian Ocean from the 5° of north latitude to the mouth of the Zambezi in the south, from which point the line of demarcation will ascend the Zambezi to five miles above its confluence with the Shiré, and then follow the watershed between the affluents of Lake Nyassa and those of the Zambezi, till at last it reaches the watershed between the waters of the Zambezi and the Congo.

It is expressly recognized that in extending the principle of free trade to this eastern zone the Conference Powers only undertake engagements for themselves, and that in the

territories belonging to an independent sovereign State this principle shall only be applicable in so far as it is approved by such State. But the Powers agree to use their good offices with the Governments established on the African shore of the Indian Ocean for the purpose of obtaining such approval, and in any case of securing the most favourable conditions to the transit (traffic) of all nations.

Art. 2. All flags, without distinction of nationality, shall have free access to the whole of the coast-line of the territories above enumerated, to the rivers there running into the sea, to all the waters of the Congo and its affluents, including the lakes, and to all the ports situate on the banks of these waters, as well as to all canals which may in future be constructed with intent to unite the water-courses or lakes within the entire area of the territories described in Art. 1. Those trading under such flags may engage in all sorts of transport, and carry on the coasting trade by sea and river, as well as boat traffic, on the same footing as if they were subjects.

Art. 3. Wares, of whatever origin, imported into these regions, under whatsoever flag, by sea or river, or overland, shall be subject to no other taxes than such as may be levied as fair compensation for expenditure in the interests of trade, and which for this reason must be equally borne by the subjects themselves and by foreigners of all nationalities. All differential dues on vessels as well as on merchandise are forbidden.

Art. 4. Merchandise imported into those regions shall remain free from import and transit dues. The Powers reserve to themselves to determine after the lapse of twenty years whether this freedom of import shall be retained or not.

Art. 5. No Power which exercises or shall exercise sovereign rights in the above-mentioned regions shall be allowed to grant therein a monopoly or favour of any kind in matters of trade. Foreigners without distinction shall enjoy protection of their persons and property as well as the right of acquiring and transferring movable and immovable possessions, and national rights and treatment in the exercise of their professions.

Art. 6. *Provisions relative to protection of the natives, of missionaries and travellers, as well as relative to religious liberty.*

All the Powers exercising sovereign rights or influence in the aforesaid territories bind themselves to watch over the preservation of the native tribes and to care for the improve-

ment of the conditions of their moral and material well-being, and to help in suppressing slavery and especially the slave-trade. They shall, without distinction of creed or nation, protect and favour all religious, scientific, or charitable institutions and undertakings created and organized for the above ends, or which aim at instructing the natives and bringing home to them the blessings of civilization. Christian missionaries, scientists, and explorers, with their followers, property, and collections, shall likewise be the objects of especial protection. Freedom of conscience and religious toleration are expressly guaranteed to the natives, no less than to subjects and to foreigners. The free and public exercise of all forms of divine worship, and the right to build edifices for religious purposes, and to organize religious missions belonging to all creeds, shall not be limited or fettered in any way whatsoever.

### Chapter III. *Declaration relative to the neutrality of the territories.*

Art. 10. In order to give a new guarantee of security to trade and industry, and to encourage by the maintenance of peace the development of civilization in the countries mentioned in Art. 1, and placed under the free trade system, the high signatory parties to the present Act, and those who shall hereafter adopt it, bind themselves to respect the neutrality of the territories or portions of territories belonging to the said countries, comprising therein the territorial waters, so long as the Powers which exercise or shall exercise the rights of sovereignty or protectorate over those territories, using their option of proclaiming themselves neutral, shall fulfil the duties which neutrality requires.

Art. 11. In case a Power exercising rights of sovereignty or protectorate in the countries mentioned in Art. 1 and placed under the free trade system, shall be involved in a war, then the high signatory parties to the present Act, and those who shall hereafter adopt it, bind themselves to lend their good offices in order that the territories belonging to this Power and comprised in the conventional free trade zone shall, by the common consent of this Power and of the other belligerent or belligerents, be placed during the war under the rule of neutrality and considered as belonging to a non-belligerent State, the belligerents henceforth abstaining from extending

hostilities to the territories thus neutralized, and from using them as a base for warlike operations.

Art. 12. In case a serious disagreement originating on the subject of, or in the limits of, the territories mentioned in Art. 1 and placed under the free trade system shall arise between any signatory Powers of the present Act, or the Powers which may become parties to it, these Powers bind themselves before appealing to arms to have recourse to the mediation of one or more of the friendly Powers. In a similar case the same Powers reserve to themselves the option of having recourse to arbitration.

## III

### Declaration signed at Brussels, July 2, 1890, modifying Article VI of the General Act of Berlin

The signatories or acceding Powers who have possessions or protectorates in the said conventional basin of the Congo shall be able, so far as authority is required to this end, to establish duties upon imported goods, the scale of which shall not exceed a rate equivalent to 10 per cent. *ad valorem* at the port of entry, always excepting spirituous liquors, which are regulated by the provisions of Chapter VI of the General Act of this day.

[By Declaration of June 15, 1910, Powers 'which have possessions or protectorates in the conventional basin of the Congo are authorized, so far as such authorization is necessary, to impose therein upon imported arms and munitions, duties exceeding the maximum limit of 10 per cent. at the port of importation fixed by the aforesaid Declaration'. The liquor duties are fixed by the Brussels Convention of November 3, 1906.]

## IV

### Declaration, Portugal and the Congo, March 24, 1894

Following the thalweg of the Kwango (Cuango) from the 8th parallel as far as its confluence with the Tungila (Utunguila) 8° 7′ 40″ south latitude approx.; the thalweg of the Tungila (Utunguila) as far as its intersection with the canal through which pass the waters of the Lola; the thalweg of the same canal as far as its junction with the Komba, 8′ west

of the Wamba (Uhamba), and 8° 5′ 4″ south latitude approx.; for want of a natural boundary, the frontier as far as the thalweg of the Wamba (Uhamba) shall be marked out by the line due east passing through the aforesaid point of junction (Komba and Lola).

The thalweg of the Wamba (Uhamba) from the parallel of the point of junction between the Komba (Comba) and the Lola, as far as its confluence with the Uövo (Nuovo); the thalweg of the Uövo (Nuovo) as far as its junction with the N'Kombo (Combo); the thalweg of the N'Kombo and of the Kamanguna (Camanguna) (or the river by which the waters of the river Lué flow into the N'Kombo), as far as the 8th degree south latitude. From this point the boundary shall be the 8th parallel, as far as the thalweg of the Lucaïa, then the thalweg of this river (Lukaï) as far as 7° 55′ south latitude; the parallel from this point (7° 55′ south latitude) as far as the Kwengo (Cuengo); from this point the thalweg of the Kwengo (Cuengo), as far as the 8th degree; from thence a parallel as far as the river Luita; the thalweg of the Luita as far as its junction with the Kwilu (Cuilu). From thence (7° 34′ south latitude approx.) the parallel as far as the thalweg of the Kama Bomba (Camabomba) or Kangulungu (Congulungu); the thalweg of the Kangulungu as far as the junction of its waters with the Loangué, and the thalweg of the Loangué as far as 7° south latitude. From the intersection of the thalweg of the Loangué and of the 7th degree, following this parallel as far as its intersection with the thalweg of the Lovua; the thalweg of the Lovua as far as 6° 55′ south latitude. From this point (6° 55′ south latitude) the boundary shall be marked out by the parallel as far as its intersection with the thalweg of the Chikapa (Chicapa); the thalweg of this river (Chicapa) as far as 7° 17′ south latitude; from this point (7° 17′ south latitude) the parallel as far as the thalweg of the Kassaï (Cassai).

## V

### Art. I of the Treaty between Great Britain and the Congo State, May 12, 1894

(*a*) It is agreed that the sphere of influence of the Independent Congo State shall be limited to the north of the German sphere in East Africa by a frontier following the 30th

meridian east of Greenwich up to its intersection by the watershed between the Nile and the Congo, and thence following this watershed in a northerly and north-westerly direction.

(*b*) The frontier between the Independent Congo State and the British sphere to the north of the Zambezi shall follow a line running direct from the extremity of Cape Akalunga on Lake Tanganyika, situated at the northernmost point of Cameron Bay, at about 8° 15′ south latitude to the right bank of the River Luapula, where this river issues from Lake Moero. The line shall then be drawn directly to the entrance of the river into the lake, being, however, deflected towards the south of the lake so as to give the island of Kilwa to Great Britain. It shall then follow the 'thalweg' of the Luapula up to its issue from Lake Bangweolo. Thence it shall run southwards along the meridian of longitude of the point where the river leaves the lake to the watershed between the Congo and the Zambezi, which it shall follow until it reaches the Portuguese frontier.

## VI

### Boundary Agreement between France and the Congo Free State, August 14, 1894

Art. I.—The frontier between the Congo Free State and the colony of French Congo, after following the thalweg of the Oubanghi up to the confluence of the Mbomou and the Ouelle [or Welle], shall be constituted as follows :—(1) The thalweg of the Mbomou up to its source. (2) A straight line to the watershed between the Congo and Nile basins. From this point the frontier of the Free State is constituted by the said watershed up to its intersection with longitude 30° East of Greenwich (27° 40′ E., Paris).

Art. IV.—The Free State binds herself to renounce all occupation, and to exercise in the future no political influence west or north of a line thus determined :—Longitude 30° E. of Greenwich (27° 40′ E., Paris), starting from its intersection of the watershed of the Congo and Nile basins, up to the point where it meets the parallel 5° 30′, and then along that parallel to the Nile.

## VII

### Agreement between France and Belgium, February 5, 1895, reaffirmed Dec. 23, 1908

Art. 1. The Belgian Government recognizes that France has a right of pre-emption over its possessions on the Congo in case of their alienation by sale or exchange in whole or in part. Any exchange of territory with a foreign Power, any placing of the said territories in whole or in part in the hands of a foreign State, or of a foreign company invested with rights of sovereignty, will also give occasion to France's right of pre-emption, and will become therefore the object of preliminary negotiation between the Government of the French Republic and the Belgian Government.

Art. 2. The Belgian Government declares that there shall never be gratuitous cession of all or a portion of the said possessions.

Art. 3. The arrangements contemplated in the above articles apply to the whole of the territories of the Belgian Congo.

## VIII

### Art. II of the Agreement between the United Kingdom and the Congo State, May 9, 1906

The boundary between the Independent State of the Congo, on the one hand, and the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan on the other, starting from the point of intersection from the south of the meridian of 30° longitude east of Greenwich with the watershed between the Nile and the Congo shall follow the line of that watershed in a general north-westerly direction until it reaches the frontier between the Independent State of the Congo and the French Congo.[1]

Nevertheless the strip of territory, 25 kilometres in breadth, stretching from the watershed between the Nile and the Congo up to the western shore of Lake Albert, and including the port of Mahagi, of which a lease was granted to the Independent State of the Congo by Article 2 of the agreement of May 12, 1894, shall continue in the possession of that State on the

[1] The details of this boundary and of the boundary from Sabinio where German, British, and Belgian territory meet are given in the agreement of February 3, 1915.

condition laid down in that article [i. e. 'so long as the Congo territories as an independent State or as a Belgian Colony remain under the sovereignty of His Majesty the King of the Belgians and His Majesty's successors '].

## IX.

### Convention between Belgium and Germany, August 11, 1910

*Du Lac Tanganika au Lac Kivu.* La frontière abandonnant la ligne médiane du lac Tanganika s'infléchit pour suivre le thalweg de la branche principale occidentale du delta de la Russisi jusqu'à la pointe nord de ce delta.

Elle emprunte ensuite le thalweg de cette rivière jusqu'au point où elle sort du lac Kivu.

Aux endroits où la rivière se divise en plusieurs branches les autorités locales détermineront, aussitôt que possible, la branche principale dont le thalweg formera la frontière.

*A travers le Lac Kivu.* La frontière suit la ligne indiquée sur la carte I ci-jointe.[1] Cette ligne, partant de la Russisi, aboutit au nord en un point de la rive situé à égale distance de Goma (poste) et Kissegnies (boma).

Elle laisse à l'ouest notamment les îles Iwinza, Nyamaronga, Kwidjwi et Kitanga, qui appartiendront à la Belgique et à l'est les îles Kikaya, Gombo, Kumenie et Waú (Wahu), qui appartiendront à l'Allemange.

*Au Nord du Lac Kivu.* La frontière suit d'abord dans la direction du nord, autant que possible, le méridien du point situé à mi-chemin entre la station belge de Goma et le boma de la station allemande de Kissegnies jusqu'à une distance de 500 mètres au sud du chemin, marqué en rouge sur la carte II ci-jointe,[2] allant de Goma par Bussoro–Iwuwiro–Niakawanda–Buhamba au col entre le Rukeri et le Hehu. Pour le tracé de ce méridien il y a lieu de tenir compte des établissements indigènes que cette ligne rencontrerait, de telle façon qu'ils restent, autant que possible, en territoire allemand.

A partir de ce point la frontière se détourne dans la direction du nord-est et court à une distance de 500 mètres à l'est du chemin indiqué ci-dessus jusqu'à la hauteur du parallèle de Niakawanda marqué en noir sur la carte II.

[1] Not reproduced. [2] Not reproduced.

Là où le terrain permet d'adopter, pour la frontière, des points de repère naturels, la frontière pourra s'écarter jusqu'à 1,000 mètres à l'est du tronçon de chemin précité.

Ce n'est que dans le cas où l'écartement aurait pour effet de séparer des établissements indigènes du territoire allemand que l'éloignement de 500 mètres dudit chemin ne pourra en principe être dépassé.

Au nord de Niakawanda le chemin n'est indiqué sur la carte II ci-annexée que d'une façon approximative.

Il est entendu que si le chemin s'écarte plus vers l'est que ne le montre la carte, la frontière ne pourra dépasser à l'est la plus grande dépression de terrain entre les versants du Niragongo et du Karissimbi indiquée approximativement par une ligne verte sur la carte II ci-annexée.

Au nord du parallèle de la colline de Bihira, la frontière doit être tracée de manière à ce que, se détournant vers l'est et utilisant dans la mesure du possible les accidents du terrain, elle atteigne, en passant à mi-chemin environ, entre le Bihira et le Buhamba, la pointe nord du Hehu.

La section de frontière décrite ci-dessus à partir de la rive septentrionale du Kivu jusqu'au parallèle passant par le sommet septentrional du Hehu sera fixée et délimitée sur le terrain par une commission mixte d'après les principes établis plus haut.

A partir du sommet nord du Hehu, la frontière se dirige en ligne droite sur le point culminant du Karissimbi (Barthelemy-Spitze). De la pointe du Karissimbi, la frontière se dirige en ligne droite vers le sommet du Vissoké (Kishasha). De là, elle atteint le sommet principal du Sabinio en suivant la crête de la chaîne de petits cratères qui s'étend entre ces deux volcans.

Le sommet du Sabinio marque le point de contact des territoires allemand, belge et anglais. Au delà de ce point commence vers l'est la frontière anglo-allemande et vers le nord la frontière anglo-belge.

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## (3) MAPS

There are two general maps of the Belgian Congo, one Belgian, one English, each in one sheet, on the scale of 1 : 4,000,000. The latest edition of the Belgian map was published by the Institut Cartographique Militaire in 1913; the War Office map (G.S.G.S. 2895) was published in 1918. The Belgian 'Carte de l'État Independant du Congo', on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000, is in twelve sheets, and was printed by J. Perthes at Gotha in 1909.

The latest map of the Nile–Congo watershed is by Major C. Christy; it is constructed from compass traverses, and was published by the Royal Geographical Society in 1917.

The Belgian Congo is also covered by four sheets (French Congo, Congo Forest, Loanda, Upper Congo) of the War Office Map of Africa (G.S.G.S. 2871), on the scale of 1 : 2,000,000, revised 1920.

There is a 'Carte du District du Katanga', in two sheets, on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000, by H. Droogmans, published at Brussels in 1910, and a 'Carte du Bas Congo', in fifteen sheets, on the scale of 1 : 100,000, by H. Droogmans, was published at Brussels in 1910.

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