CAMEROON

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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 former German colony of Cameroon\(^1\) stretches inland from the north-eastern corner of the Gulf of Guinea, and lies between 1° 15' south and 13° 10' north latitude and 8° 25' and 18° 35' east longitude. The area, which previous to 1911 was some 190,000 square miles, was extended by the Franco-German agreement of that year to about 292,000 square miles. The colony marches on the north-west with Nigeria, on the east and south with French Equatorial Africa, while on the west coast Spanish Guinea forms an enclave.

The boundary between Cameroon and Nigeria, from the sea at the mouth of the Akwayafe (Ifiana) river to the Benue river at about 12° 55' east longitude, was determined by the Agreement of London, March 11, 1913.\(^2\) It circles round east of Yola at a distance of some 30 miles, and then strikes about north-by-east to Lake Chad, which it reaches near its southern extremity.\(^3\) The trace is only in part determined by natural features, and does not appear to be altogether

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\(^1\) ‘Cameroon’ has been adopted in this handbook as an equivalent to ‘Kamerun,’ the former German official designation of the colony. ‘Cameroons,’ which is frequently used, is an English corruption of the Portuguese camarões (prawns), the name given by its discoverers to the estuary of the Cameroon River, owing to the number of prawns or shrimps found there.

\(^2\) See Cd. 7056. Previously the Rio del Rey had been the boundary, and the Bakasi peninsula British.

\(^3\) See a paper read by Captain Nugent, before the Royal Geographical Society in March 1914.
satisfactory, since it cuts in places across native tribal and political divisions.

The boundary of Cameroon towards French territory is determined by the Convention of November 4, 1911, and the Declaration of September 28, 1912. The trace was laid down by the Boundary Commission of 1912–13, but it had apparently not been ratified before the outbreak of the late war. The boundary starts from a point on Monda Bay and runs in a generally eastern direction to Wesso along a very irregular line. The remainder of the trace chiefly follows the courses of important rivers, its most pronounced features being the southern extension, which gave the Sanga (Ssanga) basin to Germany with a frontage of a few kilometres on the north bank of the Congo, and the eastern extension to the Ubangi between the tributaries Lobaye and Ngabo. At the northern extremity the boundary follows the Shari (Chari) river to Lake Chad, a small part of which is also included in the colony.

The boundaries of Spanish Guinea, in the southwestern corner of the colony, are fixed by the Convention of June 27, 1900, as the parallels of 1° and 2° 10' north latitude on the south and north respectively (except near the coast, where they follow river courses), and on the east the meridian of 9° east of Paris (approximately 11° 20' east of Greenwich). At the southeastern angle of this enclave space was allowed to Germany for the construction of a railway and a road.

(2) Surface, Coast, and River System

Surface

The surface of Cameroon falls naturally into five main divisions. These are: (1) the Cameroon plateau, the largest and most important, covering the greater
part of the centre and south of the colony; (2) the coastal region, on the western edge of this plateau, between it and the sea; (3) the lowlands of the Sanga basin in the south-east; (4) the hill country of middle and north Adamawa skirting the central plateau on its northern side; (5) the Lake Chad basin together with a portion of the Logone basin in the extreme north.

The *Cameroon plateau* rises in the north, between 6° and 8° north latitude, in a mountainous arc, stretching across the middle of the colony from about 10° to 15° or 16° east longitude. These highlands rise more or less abruptly from the middle Adamawa region (1,000–2,000 ft. above the sea) to heights varying from 4,000 to 10,000 ft., the greatest heights being in the west. This northern wall, which is much broken up, falls towards the south to a series of plateaux, 3,000–5,000 ft. above sea-level and also much broken. South of these is a broad and remarkably uniform plateau some 2,000 ft. in height. In some parts this plateau is quite flat, in others it is cut into ridges and hollows, while in the south it rises again on both sides of the River Ja (Dseha) to a mountainous country, about 3,300 ft. above the sea, whence there is again a drop to the Ogowe and the Congo in French territory. The Cameroon plateau falls somewhat more evenly to the coastal region in the west. In the north the Manenguba highlands form a transition between its elevated edge and the lowlands of the coast. South of these highlands the edge of the plateau descends in two steps from heights of 3,000–6,000 ft. to the coastal plains.

The *coastal region* is divided into two unequal parts by the intrusive mass of the volcanic Cameroon Mountains (over 13,000 ft. high). To the north-west an alluvial strip, 25–30 miles wide, low, swampy, and with deep indentations, rises in the interior to a region
of hills and valleys, which is in turn divided from the edge of the Cameroon plateau on the north-east by the Ossidinge depression. To the south is a similar alluvial region, narrowing from north to south past Kampo and through Spanish Guinea to Ukoko. It is traversed by considerable rivers, and has two large indentations, that of the Cameroon River and that of Rio Muni in the extreme south.

The Sanga lowlands are part of the Congo basin, towards which the Cameroon plateau slopes gradually to the east and descends by terraces to the south. The actual lowlands may be considered to begin on the south-east about the neighbourhood of Wesso, whence the monotonous alluvial plain, with an average height above the sea of 700–1,000 ft., stretches from the foot of the Kunabembe mountains, the last terrace of the Cameroon plateau, to the River Congo.

The Adamawa hill country is for the most part a fairly flat region (some 1,500–2,000 ft. above the sea), divided into two parts by the broad and low Benue depression. Out of it, however, rise high mountain blocks, comparable in height with the Cameroon plateau. South of the Benue there are several such massifs, notably along the western frontier of the colony; north of the Benue are the Mandara mountains, about 4,000 ft. above the sea. On the eastern side the district passes fairly uniformly into the low alluvial plains of the Logone and Lake Chad.

The Lake Chad basin consists for the most part of a great plain with a scarcely noticeable fall to the north. Along the rivers which mark the boundary run ridges which rise above the rest of the plain, and which sometimes attain a fair width. In one or two places hills and ridges emerge; for the rest, the level is broken only by flat sandy hillocks. This region becomes a shallow lake during the rainy season.
Coast

The coast, whose length is about 220 miles, is mostly low and bordered by mangrove swamps; the deposits brought down by the rivers have formed numerous bars, which tend to form lagoons. In some places, however, e.g. between Kribi and Kampo and especially round the Cameroon Mountains, the coast is steep and rocky. The chief indentations are the Rio Muni and Monda Bay in the south and the estuaries north-west and south-east of the Cameroon Mountains in the north. In the five-fingered estuary of the Cameroon River is Duala, the best natural harbour on all this part of the West African coast. There are a number of small but well-protected bays at the foot of the Cameroon Mountains, of which Ambas Bay, though exposed to west winds, is the best. In the south Kribi is the most important port, and roads run from it into the interior. Other ports worth mentioning are Rio del Rey and Kampo. At most places, however, where a landing is feasible it must be made in boats. (For details of the ports, see pp. 45–8.)

River System

Hydrographically the five divisions of Cameroon fall into four systems: the coast-river system with the rivers Sanaga, Nyong, Kampo, and San Benito (in Spanish Guinea), and including the rivers draining south to the Ogowe; the Lake Chad system, which consists of the Shari and its tributary, the Logone, with the affluent of the latter; the Benue system, which drains to the Niger; and the Congo system, which includes the Ubanghi, touched by the Cameroon at Singa, and the Sanga, with its tributary the Ja (Dscha).
The head-waters of rivers belonging to all these four systems drain from the so-called Yade (Jade) massif, in the north-eastern part of the elevated edge of the plateau. Between the coast rivers and the Congo system the watershed is in places so flat that in the rainy season water flows from the same source to both. In the north the Tuburi swamp, when swollen with rain, feeds both the Benue and the Logone. In all four areas there are rivers of considerable size, capable, after more or less regulation, of being used for transport for stretches and periods of various lengths according to the vessels employed. Many of them, particularly those which rise on the Cameroon plateau or on its edges, contain rapids or falls which might prove useful for power. In the rainy coastal region the rivers have water all the year round, and their volume is relatively constant. On the plateau, where there is a long dry season, many of the smaller rivers dry up entirely or leave only pools. In northern Adamawa even the larger rivers fail in their upper courses at times during the dry season.

(3) Climate

The controlling factor of the climate of Cameroon is the movement of the heat belt. In January the sun is in the south; and the air therefore blows from the Sahara in the north as a dry, cool, dust-laden wind, while the temperature decreases from south to north. By July the sun has moved north over the Sahara; and the wind therefore blows from the south (being generally south-westerly, though in south Cameroon there are frequent south-easterly and easterly winds), while the temperature is highest in the north and lowest in the south.

The different features of the five main regions exercise a great influence on the temperature.
(1) On the coast the temperature is high, though, owing to the proximity of sea and forest, not relatively excessive. The yearly variation is small, the daily variation greater and increasing towards the interior. At Duala and Debunja (Debundscha) the warmest month is February, with a temperature of about 79°–80° F. (26.5° C.); the coolest, August, with under 75° F. (23.5° C.). The Cameroon Mountains form an exception to the general conditions in this region. At Buea the warmest month, March, has about 69° F. (20.5° C.); the coolest, August, about 64.5° F. (18° C.).

(2) On the central plateau the temperature is lower than on the coast, and the daily variation twice as great. The yearly variation is small. At Yaunde (Jaunde) February, the warmest month, has 73.5° F. (23° C.), and July, the coolest, 70° F. (21° C.); while Bali has 66° F. (19° C.) in April, the warmest month, and 62.5° F. (17° C.) in August, the coolest.

(3) In the Sanga lowlands March is probably the hottest month with about 77°–79° F. (25°–26° C.), and August or September the coolest with about 75° F. (24° C.).

(4) In the Lake Chad basin and generally in the Adamawa lowlands the temperature is much higher, and the daily and yearly variations are both very great. A double maximum and minimum are clearly marked. The temperature is at its lowest in January, reaches its highest in April, falls to a second minimum in August, and rises to a second maximum in October. January has temperatures of 75° F. (24° C.) and 71.5° F. (22° C.) at Fort Lamy and Kukawa, just beyond the frontier to east and west respectively; April has over 91° F. (33° C.). A temperature of about 120° F. is common in the hot season at midday. As one proceeds south the difference between the hottest and coldest months decreases.
(5) In the mountains of Adamawa no observations are available. Fairly even temperatures may be expected. The rainfall, as elsewhere in the tropics, varies very much from year to year. Most of the rain is brought by south-westerly sea winds, but a certain amount comes from the Lake Chad and Congo basins. In general there is most rain on the coast, and the quantity decreases progressively towards the interior. Thus at Duala there are about 155 inches a year, at Kribi 125 inches; on the plateau Yaunde has about 62 inches, Bali about 104; Garua, on the Benue, has 29, Kusseri 18, Kukawa only 13. In the Sangal lowlands about 60–70 inches may be expected. The western side of the Cameroon Mountains forms an exceptional area, and is one of the rainiest regions in the world, with 400–430 inches a year. There is a great difference between the distribution of rains in the south and the north of the colony. In the south there are two dry seasons, of which the first (about December to February) is most clearly marked, and two rainy seasons, one culminating in April, the other in September or October; in the extreme north there is a single dry season of about 8 months, and a rainy season culminating about July or August.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Hygienic conditions are, on the whole, unfavourable. Malaria is the most serious scourge. It is prevalent in the coast region, the forest of south Cameroon, the basin of Lake Chad, and the Benue valley, all of them places where there is an abundance of stagnant water; it is also found in the lower parts of the hill country of middle and northern Adamawa, and even in the grassland of the plateau. Above a height of 4,000 ft. malaria ceases, but in these high regions dysentery and pulmonary and respiratory diseases cause serious ravages.
Europeans can avoid these complaints with ordinary care.

Skin diseases are widespread. Leprosy is especially common in the mountain regions of Adamawa, and is also spread over the forest region, at any rate in the western angle of the colony. Small-pox epidemics have at times depopulated whole districts. In the Laka country (on the east side of the colony between about 7° and 9° north latitude) about 90 per cent. of the male population are said to suffer from filariasis. Finally, the dreaded sleeping-sickness is apparently on the increase. It is common along the Nyong, the upper Sanaga, the Dume (Bumba) and its tributaries, in the Sanga basin and the Ubangi angle, and in the forest region of the coast. It is likely to spread, since Glossina has been observed in districts where as yet there is no sleeping-sickness, that is, where the fly has not yet been infected.

(5) Race and Language

The Cameroon area is a region where great movements of peoples have occurred. The distribution of races and tribes is therefore a very complicated problem, which, in the present state of the evidence—evidence drawn almost entirely from philological considerations and native traditions—is far from solution.

The bulk of the population consists of Sudan and Bantu negroes. The line between these corresponds fairly closely to the line between northern savannah and southern forest country, though the boundary is not very strongly marked. Intermixtures of Sudan and Bantu tribes occur, and one or two Sudan tribes, for example the Ba-ngandus near Molundu, are even found well south of this line. Nevertheless in essentials the division is clearly recognizable.

In Cameroon the Bantus, whose languages are much
more closely related to each other than are those of the Sudan negroes, fall into an older and a younger group. The first consists of the Bakoko and Bakundu groups in the south-west and the Maka group in the south-east; the second, which intervenes between the two sections of the first, consists of the Fang group. The Bangalla language is widely spoken in the south-east.

The relation of the Sudan tribes to each other is very obscure, and their languages differ widely. At present the Sudan negroes may be classified as follows: (a) the group, speaking similar languages, stretching across the colony, south of Lake Chad (Margis, Vandalas or Mandaras, Gumergus, Kotokos, Musgus); (b) south of these, the Fallis and some related tribes, who seem to show language affinities with tribes of the western Sudan; (c) the rest of the Sudan negro tribes, consisting partly of large tribes living in the open plains and highlands, partly of small groups who have been driven into the inaccessible parts of the mountains. Of these the relationships are not yet determined.

The so-called Pygmies share the forest region with the Bantus. These beings, called Bagiellis, Babingas, Bumanjoks, and Bomassas in various places, may represent the remains of an earlier population. Their numbers are insignificant and probably decreasing. Nothing is known of their language.

After the Bantu and Sudan tribes the most important peoples are the Fulbes and the Hausas.

Of the Fulbes (Fulas) two types may be distinguished: the Bororos or nomad Fulbes, who have maintained themselves fairly pure from negro admixture, and the settled Fulbes, who have a strong negro tincture. Originally the Fulbes were, it is now supposed, mainly of Hamitic stock. Their language, which is widely spoken in the area where they form the ruling class (i.e. on both sides of the north-western frontier, as far south
as Tibati and as far north as Madagali), is believed to represent a Hamitic type, though now it is very much coloured by negro admixture. In numbers the Fulbes are not very strong, but they control a number of well-organized states, and their slave-raiding excursions have struck terror into the negro populations over the whole centre of the Cameroon territory.

The Hausas, also, are not numerically very strong. Their settlements are thickest in the Fulbe states, between Koncha in the south and Marua in the north, but they are found across the whole centre of the colony as far east and south as Nola on the Sanga. They form the middle class in the Fulbe states, and are known as skilful and adventurous traders. Their language, which is important as a trade language over all this area, is now classified as Hamitic, in spite of the fact that it contains elements which are apparently Semitic and that the vocabulary is largely Sudanese.

The Shuas, living south of Lake Chad, speak Arabic, though it is not certain that they are racially Arabs.

The Kanuris live west and south-west of the lake and seem to be a mixture of some Asiatic stock with Sudan negroes.

English is said to be spoken to a considerable extent in the western angle of the colony, and the Germans are credited with having made efforts to root it out. On the western frontier the tribes seem on the whole well disposed to the present British administration.

(6) Population

The total population of Cameroon was estimated by the Germans in 1915 at over 2,649,000. ¹ This figure may well be an under-estimate; but if the figures be accepted, they represent a density of over 9 persons to

¹ Colonial Supplement to the German Year Book for 1915.
the square mile. Taking the German administrative divisions as a basis, we find the population thinnest in the south-east and centre, densest in the north and west of the colony. In the Bari, Jang (Dschang), and Yabassi (Jabassi) districts respectively the density is as high as 112, 80, and 48 persons per square mile, while the Banyo district, the least densely inhabited, shows only 1.4 persons per square mile. In the north the average is about 18 persons per square mile. In general it is possible to say that the forest region of the south, except for the coast, and the eastern side of the south Adamawa grass country are least densely populated, and that in the Lake Chad basin and northern Adamawa, in the Benue basin, and on the banks of the Logone and the highlands and hill-slopes of the western angle of the colony the population is densest.

The typical form of settlement in the Bantu or forest area is the isolated small village, built along a street, shut at both ends by defensible buildings; in the savannah (Sudan negro area) is found the village of scattered huts (called Hauendorf by the Germans), often of considerable size, sometimes surrounded by a wall, or in other cases by an enceinte containing several acres of ground, which renders the villagers independent in case of siege. These large villages are distinct from the towns, not uncommon in the Mohammedan area, which often possess 10,000–20,000 inhabitants, and are fortified or open as considerations of security prescribe. The latter control communications, serve as outposts against hostile tribes, or watch a conquered territory.

Mention must be made of the nomad Bororos and Shuas in the north of the colony, who wander with their herds and have no fixed habitation.

In 1913 there were 1,871 whites in the colony, of whom 1,643 were Germans.
II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

1471–2. First exploration of the Cameroon River (Rio dos Camarões) by Portuguese.
1845. Settlement of English Baptist missionaries.
1851. Barth discovers the upper Benue.
1858. Baptist mission at Ambas Bay (Victoria).
1870. Exploration of Bornu and Lake Chad by Nachtigal.
1872–5. Geological exploration by Buchholz and others.
1873. Grenfell’s explorations in Cameroon.
1880–3. Flegel’s journeys up the Niger and Benue.
1883. German merchants acquire rights from chiefs.
1884 (July 12). German Protectorate declared by Nachtigal.
1885 (April 29–June 16). First Anglo-German arrangement.
1885 (December 24). First Franco-German agreement.
1885. Flegel’s expedition up the Benue into Adamawa ends with his death. Von Soden becomes Governor.
1886–92. Zintgraff opens up routes from Duala to Adamawa.
1887. Great Britain cedes Ambas Bay to Germany.
1888. Expedition of Kundt, Tappenbeck, and Weissenbaum to Yaunde.
1889. Yaunde Station founded.
1889–91. Morgen explores the upper Sanaga.
1890. Anglo-German Treaty.
1891. Von Zimmerer becomes Governor. Expeditions given up.
1892. Failure of von Gravenreuth’s and Ramsay’s expeditions to Buea and the north-west coast.
1893. Anglo-German Boundary Convention.
1894. Franco-German Boundary Convention.
1898. Von Carnap's expedition from Yaunde to the Sanga and Congo.
1899. Vuta invaded, and chief killed by von Kamptz.
1899. Tibati stormed. The Emir imprisoned.
1899. The Süd-Kamerun and Nordwest-Kamerun Companies obtain exclusive concessions.
1900. French expedition against Rabbeh ends with deaths of Rabbeh and Captain Laing.
1900. English Yola expedition.
1901. Ngoundere and Garua stormed.
1901. Dominik and von Bülow defeat Sultan of Yola, and break the Fula power.
1902. Dikoa (Rabbeh's capital) becomes a German post.
1905. Expedition against Vuta and taking of Ngutta by Dominik.
1905. Railway construction begins.
1907. Seitz appointed Governor.
1908. Franco-German Boundary Convention.
1910. Glein appointed Governor.
1911–12. French cession of territory to German Cameroon and settlement of the boundary.
1912. Ebermeier appointed Governor.
1914. Outbreak of war.
1916. Occupation of Cameroon by the Allies.

(1) Discovery and Early History

We have no distinct account of the first discovery of the Cameroon River, but it may be presumed to have been visited about the same time as the Island of Fernando Po; an event which probably took place about 1471, although by some placed as late as 1486. The name Río dos Camarões, or Prawn River, was
certainly given by one of the early Portuguese explorers, for it appears in Canerio’s map of 1502 and, in the Spanish form, Rio de los Camarones, in Diego Ribero’s map of 1529 (the second Borgian map). Although the Portuguese explored the coast, they did not make any settlement between Benin and the mouth of the Congo; and this territory, except for visits of merchants and missionaries, did not come into the possession of any European Power before its occupation by Germany.

An English Baptist mission had been established in Cameroon since 1845; and in 1858 another body of members of the same mission, who had been working at Fernando Po, left that island and settled at Victoria on Ambas Bay under the Cameroon Mountains. Although this acquisition was not formally recognized by the British Government, there is little doubt that Victoria was a British possession in all but name. Ambas Bay had been visited by British ships in 1841, and had been the subject of an Admiralty report; but its full value as a harbour was not known prior to the arrival of the Baptist missionaries.

(2) **First German Annexation**

In 1883 some of the German merchants on the coast, hearing that Bismarck had changed his views on the subject of colonization, and that they might expect support from their Government, began to acquire rights to property from the chiefs. In 1884 Dr. Nachtigal, the well-known traveller, was sent out as Imperial Commissioner to West Africa with the ostensible object of making arrangements to promote German trade, but, in reality, with full powers to annex whatever land he could find available. He hoisted the German flag, and proclaimed a protectorate in Togoland on July 5,
and in the Cameron River on July 12, 1884. The English Consul, Hewett, was on his way thither for a similar purpose, in order to accept an application for British protection made by certain chiefs a year and a half before. He arrived too late, and had to be content with lodging a protest. However, an agreement was arrived at next year, by which all British claims were given up in return for some purely nominal concessions by Germany. Some of the tribes, disappointed at not being taken over by Great Britain, refused to acknowledge German sovereignty. In October 1884 their villages were bombarded and they were reduced to submission with the assistance of a German squadron under Admiral Knorr. In the exchange of notes, the British Foreign Secretary declared Ambas Bay, with the settlement of Victoria upon it, to be British territory; and in the exchange of notes in 1885 the words used were: ‘a reservation being specially made as to the settlement of Victoria, Ambas Bay, which will continue to be a British possession.’ Lord Granville, however, at the same time expressed his willingness to cede Ambas Bay if terms could be arranged with the missionaries. This was done. The missionaries accepted a sum in payment, and handed over their work to German Protestant missionaries; but it is doubtful how far they were free agents. Ambas Bay was transferred to Germany on March 28, 1887.

(3) Boundaries

The German protectorate was recognized by the British Government in the British and German exchange of Notes, April 29–May 7, 1885, and by the French in the Franco-German Agreement of December

24, 1885. The boundary between British Nigeria and Cameroon was laid down in the Treaty of July 1, 1890, followed by a series of agreements of which the last was that of March 11, 1913. As regards the frontier with the French Congo, the Agreement of December 24, 1885, was superseded by the Conventions of March 15, 1894, and April 18, 1908, and finally by the Agreement of November 4, 1911, in which a large cession of territory (107,000 square miles) was made by France to Germany, and a small area (6,500 square miles) by Germany to France, as an equivalent for the recognition by Germany of French rights in Morocco. By the terms of this agreement Spanish Guinea became an enclave in Cameroon territory.

(4) **Formation of German Government**

Cameroon was formed into a regular colonial government, and von Soden was appointed first Governor in July 1885. He occupied this post from 1885 to 1891, and with him went as Finance Minister von Puttkamer, who afterwards became Governor. The new Government began at once to open up the territory by expeditions into the interior. The coast tribes found themselves thereby threatened with the loss of the profits which they had hitherto derived from the transit trade between the coast and the inland districts, and were opposed to all such expeditions. The Duala and Akwa chiefs on the shores of the Cameroon River were further alienated by the appropriation of their villages without compensation for the formation of the German port of Duala. The strong military tribes of the interior, which had had no voice in asking the Germans to enter their country, were also inclined to resist the exploring parties. Thus all the elements of trouble were present; and the overbearing
and often cruel behaviour of the German officials tended to emphasize difficulties which might have been surmounted by tact and consideration for native customs.

(5) **Exploration of the Interior**

Before the German occupation the territory included in the Cameroon Protectorate had already been partly explored. The Baptist mission established on the coast had done excellent work, with which the name of the Rev. George Grenfell is identified. Grenfell is best known, however, for the discovery of the Ubangi, a tributary of the Congo to which German territory did not extend till 1911.

The interior in the neighbourhood of Lake Chad was first visited, in 1851, by Barth, who was travelling under the auspices of the British Government. Rohlfis (1865–7) and Nachtigal (1869–74), in the course of their travels, visited part of the old Kingdom of Bornu and the territory north of the Mandara Mountains. The English explorer, Baikie, ascended the Benue River almost to Yola so early as 1854. Flegel, a German explorer, made in 1880–3 two journeys up the Benue River, during the first of which he reached Garua; on the second occasion he visited the plateau of Ngaoundere in Adamawa. In 1885 he was sent on another expedition up the Niger and the Benue, with the object of pushing German claims, not only in Adamawa, but also in the great Fula kingdom of Sokoto. In this he was not successful, as Joseph Thomson forestalled him in making a treaty with the Fula Sultan. His expedition, which had the further object of promoting German influence in Adamawa, was ended by his death.

A more successful expedition was that of Kundt, Tappenbeck, and Weissenbaum, which penetrated from
Batanga, at the mouth of the Nyong river, through the dense forest belt to the high plateau beyond it. The explorers reached Yaunde in 1888; and a fortified post was established there in 1889. This expedition opened the way to the navigable stream of the Nyong above the rapids which impede it. Another series of expeditions towards the north was conducted by Zintgraff between 1886 and 1892. Zintgraff began by founding a post at Barombi, north of the Cameroon Mountains (now called Johann-Albrechts-Höhe), and advanced towards Adamawa, reaching Yola by a circuitous route. His expeditions ended in disaster, for he foolishly mixed himself up with the internal wars between the tribes, taking the side of the Bali against the more numerous and powerful Bafut and Bandeng. He was involved in the defeat of the former, and lost a great part of his small force, with the result that the further exploration of Adamawa had to be abandoned. When the Government was taken over by von Zimmerer (1891), it was soon decided that these costly and unprofitable expeditions must be given up, and the advanced posts withdrawn. Zintgraff in disgust returned to Germany, and did not come back till 1896, after von Zimmerer’s term of office had expired. He then went again, with Max Esser, to the Bali country, but shortly afterwards died.

Between 1889 and 1891 various expeditions were carried out by Kurt Morgen to the head-waters of the Sanaga in completion of that under Tappenbeck and Kundt, and also to Adamawa. In the course of these expeditions, Morgen overcame the resistance of the coast tribes, but was forced by the opposition which he encountered at Ngaundere to turn to the north-west, and finally reached Ibi on the Benue in British territory. In 1892 von Gravenreuth attacked the Bakwiris of the Cameroon Mountains. He intended to take
Buea and afterwards to reach Lake Chad, but was ambushed and killed on the march. His successor, Ramsay, was obliged to retire owing to a mutiny among his black troops; the station founded at Balinga was lost, and the officers in command were killed.

(6) **French Expeditions**

The French, meanwhile, were endeavouring to extend from Baghirmi westwards round the south of Lake Chad to the upper waters of the Benue; and an expedition under Mizon attempted to form a French sphere of influence on that river with Yola as its centre, extending as far as Kunde, and also from Gaza to Bania. At the same time, Maistre, acting from the Ubanghi and upper Shari, pushed towards Garua by way of Lai and Lame. The English and German boundary from Yola to Lake Chad having already been defined, the two nations made a joint resistance to these French claims; and a German vessel was allowed to ascend the Benue to Yola, carrying the expedition of von Uchtritz and Passarge. This expedition occupied Garua, Baibanjedda, and Ngaundere, and established German power in the upper Benue region. The agreement of March 1894 settled the boundary with France, who obtained access to the upper Benue by Lai and Lame. This territory she ultimately ceded in 1911.

All these expeditions, and the deaths of so many explorers and officers, produced a bad effect in Germany. Von Zimmerer, who was unpopular with the mercantile element, was recalled, and von Puttkamer appointed in his place. Before this date, the Finance Minister, Kleist, had taken over charge of the Government as von Zimmerer's deputy, and under him matters rapidly grew worse.
(7) MUTINY OF NATIVE TROOPS

The mutiny among the troops in the Cameroon Mountains expedition has already been referred to. The force (called a police force) kept up in the colony had been recruited from Liberia, Togo, and Dahomey, through the German merchants in those parts. These 'police' were to all intents and purposes slaves sold by their chiefs. The conduct of Kleist—the Deputy-Governor of the colony—in encouraging the flogging of the soldiers' wives and other outrages led to a violent mutiny among these troops, in which they seem to have been supported by some of the coast tribes. Many officers and others were killed; and the outbreak was only suppressed with the help of marines from a cruiser. To replace this police force, a body of Sudanese was raised in Egypt; and an expedition was sent out to punish the Miang tribe. One of the results was the removal of the police force from the control of the local Government. It was placed under the Marine Department, i.e. directly under the Emperor, and formed into a 'protective force' after the East African model. This was followed by a great extension of the system of military outposts, and by a series of punitive expeditions carried out with much severity. The arrangement led to great friction, and was modified by a new regulation in 1896.

(8) VON PUTTKAMER'S ADMINISTRATION

Von Puttkamer began his administration with a useful measure—the introduction of Courts of Arbitration for the decision of disputes among natives, after the pattern of those in use in British Nigeria. His

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1 The subsequent arraignment of Kleist is described in *Treatment of Natives in the German Colonies*, No. 114 of this series, p. 34.
further conduct, however, was by no means of a creditable nature.\footnote{See No. 114 of this series, pp. 34–5.} Under his administration, military expeditions again began to multiply, being in some cases brought on by the excesses and exactions of the agents of the Süd-Kamerun and the Nordwest-Kamerun Companies, which obtained concessions for the exploitation of the resources of the country. In 1898–9 an expedition under von Carnap made its way from Yaunde to Kunde and back across the Sanga. Von Carnap returned by way of the Congo, while the force returned to the coast direct. In 1899 von Kamptz led an expedition into the Vuta country north of the Sanaga; the capital, Yoko, was stormed, and the chief killed. Von Kamptz then advanced on Tibati. The Emir of that place fled, but was captured, and died in imprisonment at Duala.

Meanwhile, the French had defeated and killed the Darfur adventurer, Rabbah, who had established his rule south of Lake Chad (1900); and at the same time the English occupied Yola. The Germans immediately followed suit by attacking the strong Fula kingdom of Adamawa. Ngaundere was taken by storm in 1901; and Klausbrach, who was in command, followed the fugitive Sultan to Garua, where he was defeated and killed. Dominik and von Bülow defeated the Sultan of Yola at Murnua, and entirely overthrew the power of the Fulas. Nevertheless, there continued to be trouble in the northern districts for some time. German officials were often attacked; Nolte was killed at Banyo in 1902, and Count Fugger at Garua.

In the south, Plehn’s force on the Sanga reached Ngoko in 1899. After his death, Stein went on, between 1900 and 1903, through the south-eastern forest region. In 1905 Dominik made a second invasion of the Vuta country, and completely subdued
it through the capture of Ngutta. A series of expeditions was undertaken against the primitive tribes of the southern forest region, the Nyongs, Nyems, Ndsims, and Makas, by Scheunemann and Stein, which extended over the years 1903–7.

The agents of the Süd-Kamerun Gesellschaft, who penetrated the forests in search of rubber, were no doubt cruel and oppressive in their actions; and reprisals were inevitable. Many Germans were killed, and others had to flee for their lives. No mercy seems to have been shown to the hostile tribes; and gross outrages accompanied the suppression of the outbreaks. In these outrages Captain Dominik took a leading part.¹

Bound up with these expeditions was the system of obtaining forced labour for the plantations, which, as in East Africa, led to the depopulation of the country. Another evil was the evident complicity of the Governor, von Puttkamer, and other officials, such as the Chief Judge, von Brauchitsch, in the deeds of the companies, in which they were financially interested, so that no justice could be expected from them. There was also a systematic attempt to degrade native chiefs, so as to cause them to lose all their influence. Risings naturally followed, which provoked repressive expeditions. In 1901 and 1903 these were very numerous.

(9) REMOVAL OF CAPITAL FROM DUALA TO BUEA

The removal of the seat of Government from Duala to the healthy uplands of Buea in 1901 seems to have led to further troubles on the coast, perhaps because it was thought that the Governor was becoming inaccessible to complaints. A number of chiefs sent a complaint against the administration to the Reichstag and the

¹ See No. 114 of this series, p. 37.
Chancellor in 1905. This complaint was, as Zimmermann puts it, "sent for inquiry to the very gang which was the object of the accusation." The accused persons in their turn brought charges against the petitioners; and it was on these charges that von Puttkamer took action. The petitioners were arrested and brought before the Judge, von Brauchitsch, himself one of the persons accused, and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment with hard labour. The matter at last found its way into the Reichstag, where it was brought up by Bebel. It was found that, although some frivolous complaints and some caused by ignorance (as to sanitary measures, &c.) were included, there were real grievances of a very serious character. Von Puttkamer was ultimately directed to hold a 'disciplinary inquiry' on himself. He was reprimanded and fined a thousand marks, but his dismissal from the post of Governor was due rather to an insult to the Emperor's dignity than to his numerous other misdeeds. The Governors after von Puttkamer were T. Seitz (1907–10), O. Glein (1910–12), and K. Ebermeier, who was in power when the late war broke out in 1914.

(10) Measures taken on Declaration of War

In August 1914 the Germans were in great fear of a native rising, and took violent measures in a kind of panic. The principal chief of the Dualas, known as Rudolf Bell, who had been educated in Germany, and several other chiefs, were promptly executed; and there were wholesale massacres among the Dualas, generally, it would seem, without cause. The Hausa town at Jang was also burnt, and its inhabitants driven away. By February 1916 the Cameroon Colony was completely in the hands of the British.

and French expeditionary forces. The German force from Yaunde escaped into the Spanish territory of Rio Muni, where it was interned. After the operations of war were concluded, a working arrangement for administration was made between the British and French Governments, according to which the country adjoining Nigeria was to be administered by the Governor of that colony. This country comprised the districts of Rio del Rey, Ossidinge, Johann-Albrechts-Höhe, Victoria (north of the Bimbia Creek), Jang (north-west half, including the town of Jang), Bamenda, Banyo (north-west part, including Gashaka and Koncha), Garua (south-west part), and the portion of the Bornu Sultanate (District of Kusseri) up to Lake Chad. The whole of the remainder of the Cameroon Protectorate was to be administered by the Government of the French Congo. This includes the port of Duala and the coast south of it.
III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

Among the aboriginal populations of Cameroon there is a sharp distinction between the races of the north and those of the south (including the sea-coast). The latter, except for the parts influenced by Christian missions, are still almost entirely subject to the primitive beliefs included under the general head of ‘fetishism’. Amongst the former, especially in the ancient kingdoms of Adamawa and Bornu, Islam occupies a predominant position. The powerful Fula rule extended over a considerable portion of this region, and the more primitive communities were unable to resist the influence of the Mohammedan religion brought in by them, although many large groups of Sudan negroes still adhere to their old belief, especially in the Mandara Mountains and neighbourhood. Of these the Musgus are the most important. The Mohammedan influence tends to increase, and has special attractions for the chiefs and leading men. Among the population generally, Mohammedanism consists mainly in a few outward observances, while the old fetishist beliefs and practices persist under the surface, as is the case in other parts of Africa. The extension of French power in Wadai has tended to cut off the old intercourse with the Mohammedan tribes of the north. The English missions on the coast, especially the Baptist mission at Ambas Bay, which has now moved to the Congo, formerly had an excellent
influence on the Duala and other tribes. This influence may, if revived, be a great aid to progress and civilization under more favourable conditions.

(2) **Political**

Under the Germans, the Government was in the hands of an Imperial Governor, who was assisted by a Chancellor or Finance Minister, and a local council drawn from the mercantile community. There was also a Court presided over by a Judge.

The whole country was divided into administrative districts. Those nearest the coast were organized civil governments, while those in the interior were mainly military. The civil districts were named after their principal towns, as follows: Rio del Rey, Ossidinge, Johann-Albrechts-Höhe, Victoria, Buea, Duala, Yabassi (Jabassi), Edea, Yaunde, Kribi. The military districts, also named after their principal towns, were: Ebolova, Lomie, Dume Station, Jang (Dschang), Bamenda, Banyo. There were also two Residencies: one, the Province of Adamawa (capital, Garua); and the other the Lake Chad Province (capital, Kusseri). The districts formed from the extensive areas surrendered by the French in 1911 are not included in these lists.

The more organized districts were managed under a fairly regular system of civil administration, but those of the interior, whether civil or military, were independent of rules; and in these, as Hassert says, it was considered sufficient ‘to keep the negroes to road-making and porterage, to work at the stations, and to other tasks of kultur’. In several districts the natives were liable to pay what Hassert calls a ‘moderate’ poll-tax or hut-tax. The residents of the Lake Chad country and of Adamawa were not

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supposed to interfere with the internal management of the native tribes, but to confine themselves to keeping the peace between them and maintaining German rule. How far this restriction was observed in actual practice it is not easy to say.

(3) Educational

Very little attention seems to have been paid to education in this territory. There were four Government schools, at Duala, Victoria, Yaunde, and Garua, respectively, and also several missionary schools.
IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

In Cameroon communications in the European sense are comparatively recent, and consequently of small extent compared with the area of the country. They consist of a few hundred kilometres of railway, a few hundred kilometres of motor road, and several long stretches of rivers. There are also native paths and elephant-tracks. Broad well-beaten paths that have been for years in use can be used in the dry season for rough country transport.

Owing to the difficulties and expense involved in making railways and roads, the German administration latterly turned its attention to improving the waterways, of which the natives make every possible use, carrying their light canoes over or round the many short obstructions and stretches of rapids.

(a) Roads, Paths, &c.

Cameroon contains, according to the latest report, about 400 kilometres of carriage-roads, metalled and well kept. These are all in the coast districts, where Germans have settled. They connect the following points:—(i) Victoria–Bibundi; (ii) Victoria–Bombe; (iii) Kampo–Kribi–Longyi: this road runs along the coast, and was to be continued inland in order to connect at Edea with the road from there to Yaunde; (iv) Kribi–Bipindi–Loaldorf–Yaunde: in 1913 this road was 18 ft. wide and unmetalled; it was there-
fore unsuitable for motor transport in the rainy season; but according to a German report it has now been metalled as far as Yaunde; (v) Kribi–Ebolova: this road is reported to have been completed, and over a great part of the route concrete bridges have replaced the older wooden ones. All these roads are in use by motors throughout a great part of the year, and a transport company, the Süd-Kameruner Last-Automobil-Gesellschaft, had organized a regular motor service.

In the north and west of the colony, where there is dense population with a highly developed native organization, there is a very good system of tracks and paths. The country there is less broken and less mountainous than in the interior, and lends itself more easily to communications. From Garua there is a regular route north-east, leading via Lere, Binder, and Marua to the Lake Chad region. A post route runs from Kusseri on the eastern frontier to Dikoa on the western, thence through Bornu to Garua, and thence to Ngaundere in the centre of the colony, from which point pathways radiate in all directions. Another main post route runs from Garua along the north-western side of the colony through Koncha, Banyo, Fumban, and Yabassi, each of which is a distributing centre. The greater part of these routes is path and not road. The best portions are those leading out from Garua.

The region towards the French frontier appears to be the least well served. The official report in 1914 points out that the only connexion with Bumo station on the Logone river is by the post track from Garua, which leaves the Binder road at Lere and passes through Fianga and Pogo—twenty-one days' march, including rests.

In the high mountain region of the interior, the first
care of the Germans was to link up new districts, as soon as they came under administrative control, with better-known localities, by improving the existing tracks and cutting roads for caravan routes for trade or Government supplies. Such a route is that from Edea to Babimbi (occupied in 1913), which was intended eventually to feed the Midland Railway line. Another is that running to the north of Somo through the rich province of Yabassi.

The whole of the southern region is covered with tropical forest, and the principal routes of communication are by water. Paths and roads require constant and expensive upkeep if they are not to be quickly overgrown. When the Germans, in 1912, suddenly cancelled their plans for a southern railway, they began planning a road system instead. The starting-points were to be Yaunde and Ebolowa, which were already connected by metalled roads with the port of Kribi. From Ebolowa roads were to run east to Nola, south to Oyem, and south-east to Molundu; on some sections work had already begun. The River Dume was to be connected by a short section with the River Nyong at Abong-Mbang, in order to provide a through route from Duala to the Congo river (see below, pp. 33, 35).

Enough has been said to make it clear that there are few roads in the European sense in Cameróon, although the Germans took great credit for what they had already completed, and had laid ambitious plans for further construction. Apart from the ordinary differences between tropical African conditions and those prevailing in European countries, there are in Cameroun two further special difficulties. These are the broken surface of the central regions, and the vast area of periodical swamp in the whole of the south and east and in the vicinity of Lake Chad and the Logone river.
(b) Rivers

In the greater part of the colony the river systems are the chief means of communication. One of the principal advantages that the Kolonial-Wirtschaftliches Komitee claimed, when it advocated improvements in the waterways of Cameroon in preference to the construction of railways, was the low initial cost. A railway must be practically complete before it can be utilized, whilst river improvements need only be carried out to meet the growth in traffic.

1. Coast district rivers.—The mouths of the rivers Kampo and Nyong, the Cameroon River, and the Rio del Rey have considerable importance for coastal trade, but none as through routes. In the interior of the coastal district the Cross River flows through some of the most fertile territory, and a lively inland traffic may be expected to develop along its course. As the lower part of this river flows through Nigeria, an agreement was made between the German and British Governments in March 1913, allowing German vessels access to the British section.

The rivers flowing to the coast fall abruptly over the edge of the Cameroon plateau, so that their upper courses cannot be reached from the sea. They are navigable below the plateau, in stretches of between 40 and 70 kilometres, throughout the year. Very little work is required to make a regular unimpeded traffic possible. German engineers were of opinion that a low-water depth of one metre would suffice for a good many years. These rivers include the Ndiam, the Meme, the Mungo, the Wuri, on which Duala lies, the Dibamba, Kwakwa Creek, the Sanaga, the Nyong, the Lokunje, and the Kampo. The navigability of the Sanaga does not seem to have been examined.
The greater part of the course of the Nyong lies in the southern inland district and is referred to below.

According to the German official report for 1912–13, the principal waterways on the German side of Muni Bay had been proved to be navigable for canoes and in parts for launches. These were the Noya and Tamboni rivers with their tributaries, on one of which, the Nguola water, clearing work was being done.

2. Rivers of the Southern Inland Region and Congo System.—The rivers of the southern inland region and the Congo basin, viz. the Nyong (in the upper part of its course), Dume, Kadei, Ja (Dschah), and Sanga, were carefully studied by an expedition sent out in 1913 by the Kolonial-Wirtschaftliches Komitee.

The Nyong was reported to be navigable throughout the year for stern-wheelers from Mbalmajo, the terminus of the Midland Railway, to Ajoshöhe, a distance of 225 kilometres (150 kilometres as the crow flies). Beyond Ajoshöhe the level of the water requires raising by dams at certain points, an operation which needs much care in order to prevent further flooding of the banks at high water. This would open to navigation another 103 kilometres as far as Abong-Mbang (80 kilometres as the crow flies).

For trade purposes, the chief waterway in south Cameroon is the upper Nyong. The Dume and Nyong are only separated by a narrow and easily passable watershed, and the question of connecting them has constantly been discussed. Many of the tributaries of the Nyong are navigable throughout the year for flat-bottomed launches drawing 20–30 centimetres, and the German Governor himself travelled through the district in a Government canoe propelled by a Cudell motor.

Farther south the Ivindo is navigable from Alati down to Kanyama, in French Gabun. Of its tribu-
taries, the Jua (Dschua), which is a boundary river, is navigable from Majingo on the French side of the frontier to its confluence near Mvahdi; the Karagua from Ntam down to its confluence at Mwine; and the Nuna for the greater part of its course. This system of inland waterways amounts in all to about 600 kilometres, and lies almost wholly in Cameroon territory. It is largely used by small vessels, flat-bottomed motor-boats, and canoes, and is the principal means of local communication.

The long strip of territory in the south-east of the colony through which the Sanga flows is bounded in the greater part of its length by the Green Likwala, which joins the Sanga shortly before that river empties itself into the Congo, and the Likwala-Mossaka, a tributary of the Congo. Each of these rivers is reported to have about 200 kilometres of navigable water. The value of this southern water connexion from a commercial point of view is discounted by the fact that sea-going ships can only go up the Congo as far as Matadi. Owing to the long section of rapids above that point, all incoming goods must be transferred to the Matadi–Léopoldville Railway and re-transferred to the Congo river steamer at Stanley Pool, and vice versa on the outgoing journey.

The navigability of the Sanga river system as it stood in 1912 can be described briefly as follows. At the lowest water-level steamers drawing 2 metres ascend to Wesso, and those drawing from 80 centimetres to 1 metre go, with occasional difficulties, as far as Nola. At the season of high water, steamers drawing from 1 to 2 metres can ascend to Nola without difficulty. From Salo (Ssalo) to Nola navigation is open to small craft for six months in the year, but to large vessels for two months only. This main route, which covers about 1,000 kilometres from Bonga, near the junction
of the Sanga with the Congo, is supplemented by three tributary waterways:

(a) The Mambere, which is the upper portion of the Sanga, is navigable from Nola to Bania and from Likaya to Carnot. From Nola to Bania navigation is possible for $2\frac{1}{2}$ months at most, and then only for small motor launches or flat-bottomed vessels. Between Bania and Likaya the river makes its way through a mass of rocky cliffs, and has cut in many places a narrow gorge, only a few yards across. Rapids entirely prevent navigation for $3\frac{1}{2}$ kilometres, and the overland path by which canoes are taken to avoid them is 7 kilometres long. The section from Likaya to Carnot is navigable throughout the year by small steam pinnaces. At a distance of one day's journey above Carnot great rapids close all farther navigation.

(b) The Kadei, from Nola to its confluence with the Dume, is not navigable at all for steamers; but above the confluence a few short sections are open to boat traffic. In 1911-12 a survey of the Dume and its tributary the Mara showed that the Dume could be made navigable only with immense labour and cost; to make the river accessible and serviceable it was recommended that the road connecting it with the Nyong at Abong-Mbang should be completed. The section of the Dume from Nyassi to its confluence with the Kadei is already navigable to a limited extent by small vessels for nine months in the year; but the current is strong, and there are many sharp bends.

(c) In 1913 the Ja (Dscha) was examined and found to be perfectly navigable from Wesso to Molundu, with a regular flow and great depth even at low water. The only serious obstacle to navigation, the Wilhelmina Falls, could easily be overcome. A French service of small steamers, the Messageries Fluviales du Congo, was maintained from Wesso to Ngoila
(beyond Molundu), and was under contract with the German Government. Higher up, on the section between Kul and Kam, traffic is possible throughout the year for motor-boats and big canoes. The Bumba, which joins the Ja at Molundu, cannot be used for continuous navigation.

It is possible that a through route from Duala to the Congo may be developed in the future by connecting the Nyong by railway with either the Dume or the Ja; but in either case double trans-shipment and the use of flat-bottomed boats can hardly be avoided.

3. The Benue Basin.—The Benue and its tributaries, the Mao-Kabi and the Faro, have their sources in Cameroon; the Benue crosses the frontier just above Yola and joins the Niger at Lokoja in Nigeria. During the high-water season, steamers of 800 tons can ascend as far as Yola; but above that point shallows interfere with all but very small steamers, and in the low-water season Garua can only be reached from Yola by canoes. Under the German administration freight destined for Garua was carried by Cameroon Government steamers as far as Lokoja; above that point the small steamers or steel canoes of the Niger Company were employed.

An article of the Berlin Act of 1885 provided for the free navigation of the Niger, and for a short time a German firm ran a small river service. In later years the German Government mail was chiefly brought to Garua by a boat chartered from the Niger Company. The charter prices were probably not unreasonable, as the river was open for only a few months, and the cost of the whole year's upkeep had therefore to be recovered on the few trips made during this season. The Germans, however, considered that they could provide a less costly service themselves, and in 1914 started the Niger-Benue Transport Company.
The establishment of a water-route across Cameroon from Nigeria to French territory has frequently been discussed. The proposed route would connect the rivers Benue and Logone via Lere and Fianga. The intermediate section (400 kilometres) would be covered by the Mao-Kabi river and the chain of water-holes known as the Tuburi lakes. The problem first attracted the attention of the French Government. Between 1902 and 1911 there were five expeditions in the Mao-Kabi region. The last of these, that of Mercier (1911), found that the Mao-Kabi was navigable in the high-water season (July to September) for 30-ton boats between Garua and Lere, but during the rest of the year only as far as the Bipare rapids. Traffic is restricted in the dry season to steel canoes, and at the lowest state of the water to native boats. From Lere to the Logone traffic is only possible for transport canoes during three months of the year. The French administration aimed at making this a practicable water-route, and now that part of it is again in French hands the project may be revived, although it has been to some extent forestalled by the Lere-Binder-Jagua road.

4. The Lake Chad Region.—Of the rivers flowing to the Chad basin the most notable in German territory is the Logone. German reports upon the river up to 1913 were few and conflicting; but it seems clear that it is navigable over a large part of its course and for a great part of the year, and its direction ensures it great value as a trade highway. The political objections, that it formed the German-French frontier for part of its course and that its outlet in Lake Chad was French, no longer have force; its economic value should be investigated more closely. There was a German suggestion to link it to the Nyong river by a railway, and so through the Midland Railway to
bring Lake Chad into connexion with the sea, but no survey seems to have been carried out to find a practicable route.

The Shari river is navigable for a considerable distance for small boats, and to a certain extent probably for steamers.

Great attention has been paid to the question of waterways by the French, and more recently by the German, Government. The latter had begun to realize that, in view of the special physical conditions existing in Cameroon and the primitive stage of economic development in the greater part of the colony, it would only be through extending the use of waterways that trade intercourse could be increased.

(c) Railways

The railway development of Cameroon at the time of the outbreak of war was on a lower scale than that of any of the other German African colonies. This will be seen from the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area in square km.</th>
<th>Population in 1913</th>
<th>Km. of railway completed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Togoland</td>
<td>87,200</td>
<td>1,003,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>756,000</td>
<td>2,541,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German South-West Africa</td>
<td>835,100</td>
<td>250,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German East Africa</td>
<td>995,000</td>
<td>7,641,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further railway construction would not be easy from the engineering point of view on account of the mountain barriers and the enormous forest and swamp areas throughout the centre and south.

In 1914 there were three railways in the colony. The oldest was the narrow-gauge light railway of the Victoria Plantations Company, connecting the plantations with the harbour at Victoria. It ran from
Victoria through Soppo to Meanja, passing close to Buea, the administrative capital, and had a branch to Molive. Including the track in the plantations themselves, it was 52 kilometres long in 1913 and 74 in 1914. The gauge is reported to be either 60 or 75 centimetres. This railway is now in the English zone.

The other two were the Northern Railway from Bonoberi, opposite Duala, to Nkongsamba (the so-called Manenguba line), and the Midland Railway from Duala through Edea to the Nyong. Both of these lines are now in the French zone. Their total length was as follows at the outbreak of war:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of line in operation, July 1914</th>
<th>Total length of railway</th>
<th>Gauge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern Railway Km.</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midland Railway Km.</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Northern Railway runs from Bonoberi northwards through the forest to Lum (108 kilometres) and Nkongsamba (160 kilometres). This line is owned by the Kamerun Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft, which was founded in June 1906 as a German colonial company to take up a concession granted to the Imperial Chancellor to construct a railway through the Manenguba Mountains. The line, however, stopped at the foot of the rise to the plateau after piercing the thick forest belt. Even up to that point it was very expensive to construct. There are several excellent iron bridges, the longest of which are at Bepele and Kake. The railway was to have been continued at least as far as Bamum, which is a populous district, but up to June 1914 this extension was still only being planned, though the contracting company (the Deutsche Kolonial-

1 Including 109 kilometres still under construction at the outbreak of war.
Eisenbahn-Bau- und Betriebs-Gesellschaft) had completed its survey of the extension by April 1913, and had reported most favourably upon it. The country which would be covered by this part of the line is fertile, and reported to possess a good climate. The existing line is a single track. The journey between the termini occupied 9 hours 30 minutes, and one train ran daily each way. The rolling stock on December 31, 1913, amounted to 6 locomotives, 11 passenger coaches, and 74 goods wagons. The staff included 23 white officials and 608 natives. The administrative offices were at Bonoberi.

Besides the railway, the Kamerun Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft owned a land concession of 27,500 hectares, partly let to tobacco companies, partly (3,000 hectares) planted with oil-palms, and partly exploited for its timber and fine woods, which the railway company cut and sent to Germany. The chief products carried on the railway were palm oil, palm kernels, and timber. The line served numerous plantations. The railway, which in 1913 had reached its third year of working, showed very good figures for goods traffic and receipts; the profit of 2.71 per cent. on the capital cost was satisfactory for a tropical colonial railway in the third year of working. Of the goods carried, 14,895 tons went inland, and 25,823 tons, or 63.42 per cent., went to the coast. The percentage of the working expenses to the gross receipts was only 54.39 per cent. for 1913, as against 65.36 per cent. for 1912.

The Midland Railway, which was designed to be the trunk line for the Cameroon railway system, leaves Duala in a south-easterly direction, and crosses the Sanaga at Edea. The line is planned for construction as far as Mbalmajo on the Nyong. It runs for the whole of its length through tropical forest. At the
time the war began, it was under construction in sections by the Deutsche Kolonial-Eisenbahn-Bau- und Betriebs-Gesellschaft. As each section was finished, the Government made a contract for a fresh one, and meanwhile leased to the same company the operating of the completed sections. The estimates for 1914 give the total cost of constructing 300 kilometres of line as nearly 50,000,000 marks, or £12,800 per mile of line. Only the less expensive sections have so far been built.

According to the annual report of the Deutsche Kolonial-Eisenbahn-Bau- und Betriebs-Gesellschaft, published in the Deutsches Kolonialblatt in May 1915, the state of construction up to November 1914 was as follows. The line was finished as far as Biyoka (150 kilometres) and had been open to traffic since November 1913. A further section was under construction during 1914 from Biyoka to the Nyong, and part of this section, from kilometre 150 to kilometre 174, was completed and opened for traffic at the beginning of July. The large amount of embanking and bridge work necessary on the next portion of the section, kilometre 174 to kilometre 195, made it necessary to add a narrow-gauge auxiliary construction line, which was working at the end of June 1914. Work was continued up to November 1914, despite the military operations. Very little engineering work except the bridges over the Dibamba at Yapoma (Japoma) and over the Sanaga (north and south arms) at Edea has so far been necessary. There are no steep gradients, but several wide curves. The locomotives used by the Germans were dismantled by them before their retreat, and after the occupation two new ones were sent from other colonies to replace them.

Proposed Railway Extensions.—In July 1914 a comprehensive programme of railway extension, covering
a period of ten years, and involving the construction of over 1,000 kilometres of line, was presented to the Reichstag by the Kolonial-Wirtschaftliches Komitee.

The most important feature of this programme was the plan for a trunk line across the Protectorate from Duala, roughly following the 4th degree of north latitude. Duala, which is an excellent port, is the natural outlet for the French territories of Ubanghi-Shari and Chad. In 1914 the points of entry and outlet for trade in these regions were at Bangui, on the Ubanghi, and at a point below the rapids of Singa in the district of the Lobaje. Goods were there transferred to the Ubanghi river for a 1,400 kilometre journey to Brazzaville, at which point they were again transferred to Kinshasa on the Belgian side for transit by rail to the port of Matadi (about 400 kilometres). From Matadi to Bangui up-stream took 15 days (2 days by rail and 13 by boat), with a delay, as a rule, of two days in Brazzaville. Down-stream the journey took at least 12 days. Dr. Zimmermann in his Was ist uns Zentral-Afrika? proposed that the Germans should tap this trade from Cameroon.

A study of the map shows that a line drawn from Duala through Yaunde and Dume Station and continued almost due east reaches the Ubanghi at Singa. Being of much shorter length, this would divert the trade of the French Ubanghi-Shari territories from the more cumbrous route of the Congo valley. In the long negotiations which ended in the Franco-German Agreement of 1911, German diplomats attached great importance to the acquisition of Singa. Their reason for doing so is now clear.

The new line was to be a continuation of the Midland Railway through the oil-palm and rubber districts of Yaunde to the grasslands round Bertua. At the same time marine engineering work on the Nyong was being
pushed forward, so that this river could be utilized as a means of transport for railway material as soon as the Midland line reached it. A field railway was to connect the river with Bertua. From Bertua the line was to be carried eastwards down the valley of the Kadei to Nola on the Sanga. The final extension from Nola to Singa on the Ubangi, already referred to, was set down for later construction, it being first necessary to clear the district of sleeping-sickness. The whole line was to be constructed on a scale sufficient to meet a future heavy traffic—a significant hint that it would serve strategical purposes in any future operations against the Congo.

An alternative route to the Congo was also proposed, namely, a southern extension of the Midland Railway through the Ebolowa district, and thence probably via Akoasim to Molundu on the navigable Ja. Such a line would also pass through important oil-palm and rubber districts; but, owing perhaps to the greater engineering difficulties that would be encountered, this scheme did not receive the same measure of support as the former.

The funds for these railway developments were to be provided by means of an Imperial loan, and so at a much lower rate of interest than if provided by a Protectorate loan.

A second important feature of the programme was the construction of a main line from south to north, leaving the extended Midland line at Bertua and running through Kunde, Rei-Buba, and Marua—districts thought valuable for cotton-growing—to Mora. From Mora the line was to branch to Dikoa on the western frontier, and to Kusseri on the eastern frontier, whence traffic could pass down the Logone and Shari rivers to Lake Chad.

Three further branches westwards off this main
line were included in the Government scheme. These were to Tibati through Deng Deng, to Ngoundere, and to Garua, the last named being for traffic passing down the Benue through Nigeria to the sea. On the east, at a much later date, connexion was to be established via the Wina valley with the heads of navigation on the west and east Logone, meeting the frontier of French Equatorial Africa at Gore on the latter river.

As regards the Northern Railway, further construction was to be limited to its extension through Bare to the prospective cotton-bearing district of Bamum as far as Fumban. The earlier ambitious plans for a continuation north were entirely discarded in view of the expense of construction.

In 1913 the idea of a southern railway from the coast inland was definitely abandoned by the Government for reasons which they declined to publish in their parliamentary report. The Kribi coast merchants were much disappointed, as they had been encouraged to expect that a railway would be built either from Kampo or Kribi.

*(d) Posts and Telegraphs*

According to the German official report the number of post offices in Cameroon in the year 1912–13 was 37. Only 10 principal places in the Protectorate had offices conducting a full postal business. Others were limited to the sale of postage stamps, the handling of ordinary and registered letters, and the delivery of ordinary parcels. In 1913 eighteen of the post offices were also telegraph offices, and there were three additional telegraph offices which had no postal business. The postal service, as in the other German colonies, was an Imperial service directly under the control of the Reichs-Postamt in Berlin. The staff included
a postmaster and inspector, assisted by 21 other officials. The native staff numbered 83.

‘Flag-post’, so called on account of the badges of the runners, was introduced for pressing Government messages, and covered the greater part of the Protectorate.

*European Mails.*—Before the war, mails were carried by vessels belonging to the German West African combine twice a month each way, and by the joint service of the African Steamship Company and the British and African Steam Navigation Company once every four weeks. The coast was served by the Government flotilla. The postal connexion with Fernando Po was through Victoria on the mainland and Santa Isabel on the island. Mails were delivered at any of the coast points as opportunity offered, and were taken to the nearest post office inland by runners. On some sections of the coast there was postal connexion by means of canoes and pinnaces, both between coast points and between these and river post offices inland. There was a service of runners inland four times every month. Two points, Garua and Kusseri, obtained their letters *via* Nigeria, while the post office at Molundu on the Ja river was supplied through Matadi in the Belgian Congo.

The telephone system was confined to the few chief towns.

(2) **External**

(a) **Ports**

*Duara* harbour possesses great natural advantages. The only obstacle which used to prevent big steamers from anchoring before the town was the so-called inner bar, a clay bank lying across the river some three miles below the town, leaving only 5½ metres depth at high tide. In 1914 this bank was being
dredged so as to leave a channel of sufficient depth to accommodate all ships. There is also an outer bar of soft, loose mud; but this is no obstacle to the ships which generally use the port, and could probably be run over by larger ones. The landing quays at Duala are close alongside the Midland Railway station.

The Cameroons Government decided in 1914 thoroughly to reconstruct Duala town. Nearly 4,000,000 marks were to be spent upon the work, of which 2,250,000 appeared in the estimates for 1914. A compact and orderly town was to be constructed on European lines, canalized, and provided with a water-supply. The natives were to be removed to new settlements arranged for them elsewhere. This goes to show that the Government expected the chief development of traffic to be in Duala and not in Bonoberi, the terminus of the Northern Railway, which is only of local importance.

The town of Duala lies on an open plain 20 metres above the water-level, the two divisions Bell and Akwa being separated by a broad nullah (formerly a mangrove swamp), on the level floor of which the Midland Railway station has been planned. The quay forms the bank of the Wuri river, which closes the mouth of this nullah, and extension is possible along the bank in either direction. As so far planned, there was to be room for three or four ocean steamers to lie alongside and discharge their cargo at the same time. Goods are transferred by crane to the quay, from which a network of lines leads past the customs sheds either to the station direct or to the factories along the river-side. For the harbour improvements in 1914 a sum of 8,790,000 marks was set aside in the budget.

Bonoberi, the terminus of the Northern Railway, lies on the opposite side of the river on the promontory that forms the corner of the next higher reach. There was apparently no intention to develop it.
Victoria, 'the pearl of Cameroon', lies at the end of Ambas Bay, one of the most beautiful sites in the world. It is the terminus of the Plantation Light Railway, for which it serves as a port of export; a landing bridge is available for handling cargo. One of the senior Nigerian marine officers states that as a naval station Ambas Bay has great possibilities, although it is somewhat exposed to west winds. There is deep water close inshore; but owing to the nature of its back-country Victoria is badly situated for a commercial port, and in order to make a naval station of it heavy expenditure would be necessary.

Rio del Rey lies at the end of a marshy gulf. Its unhealthy conditions caused it to be deserted by factory owners in 1902.

Bibundu, at the foot of the Cameroon Mountains, has a deep but exposed anchorage.

Kribi, though quite a small place, was at one time the largest port of export for forest products from south Cameroon; in more recent years, owing to the exploitation of the forest areas extending inland and farther east, it has had to share the export of this produce with Molundu. It was strongly advocated as a terminus of a southern railway, but was rejected by the German Government as not likely to make a good port.

There are two notable inland ports: Garua, on the Benue, the port of entry from Nigeria, and Molundu, on the Ja, the port of entry from the Belgian Congo. The value of these ports lies in the fact that they are situated near the boundary lines of Cameroon; should these be shifted, the ports would lose much of their importance.

In 1910 Garua was the Government centre of German Adamawa. The total number of white residents was 17. There was a Government school, a hospital, and a
dispensary, all free for the natives. The garrison consisted of 100 native soldiers. Garua is only open as a port for six weeks in the year. It is reported that steamers can lie alongside the river bank at a stone quay.

*Molundu* is a station built on a slightly undulating plain, on which the trees have been cut down and replaced by banana and cassava plantations, which provide work for the numerous convicts brought from all parts of the colony. It is served by the shipping companies of the Congo river system. The German interest was limited, in 1912, to the Süd-Kamerun Gesellschaft and the firm of Walther Karl. The Süd-Kamerun Gesellschaft had two small steamers of 30 and 50 tons respectively. These took from 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ weeks to reach Molundu from Kinshasa, and 1–$1\frac{1}{2}$ weeks for the return, which was timed to connect with the Belgian mail steamers. The firm of Walther Karl, which had been taken over by Woermann & Co., had only one 25-ton steamer. At the outbreak of war in 1914 the services in operation on the Sanga river were in the hands of the Compagnie Belgo-Allemande, which was a development of the Walther Karl and Woermann companies, and the Neu-Kamerun Schiffsfahrts-Gesellschaft, which was formed under a friendly arrangement between the Süd-Kamerun Gesellschaft and a French company, the Messageries Fluviales du Congo.

*Nature and Volume of Trade.*—According to the German Government statistics for 1912, shipping in Cameroon had been steadily increasing for some years past, both in number of ships and tonnage. The following table illustrates this, and shows further that about 75 per cent. of the shipping (if Government vessels are included) was under the German flag:
Victoria and Duala are the most important ports in respect of entrances and clearances, the next in importance being Kampo, Kribi, and Rio del Rey.

(b) Shipping Lines

The oversea shipping of Cameroon had been a practical monopoly of the Woermann firm, whose activity in the West African shipping world dates back more than thirty years. In 1907 the Woermann Linie formed a combine with the two other German companies interested in the West African service, the Hamburg-Bremer Afrika Linie and the Hamburg-Amerika Linie, in order to compete with the British combination of the African Steamship Company and the British and African Steam Navigation Company, formed by Elder, Dempster & Co. The British combine maintained a weekly service from Liverpool to Rio del Rey, Victoria, Duala, Kribi, Batanga, and Elobee (Spanish). The German combine had a fortnightly mail service—the Kamerun Haupt-Linie—from Hamburg to Victoria, Duala, Kribi, Plantation, and Longyi, and a monthly service—the Kamerun Linie II—from Hamburg, calling at the Cameroon ports and those of Fernando Po, Spanish Guinea, and French Gabun.

The Government flotilla which served the coast of the Protectorate, acting as feeder for the Woermann Mail Line, consisted of two sea-going steamers and four river boats. The service must be counted as one of the failures of German administration. The ships were ill-designed and uncomfortable, while their service was irregular and caused bitter complaints from the
white settlers. The Governor in 1910 tried to sell the vessels, offering them to the German South-West Africa Government, for which they would have been even less suitable, but as he was himself transferred there the sale fell through. A fortnightly mail service to the coast ports, including Rio Muni, was maintained.

(c) Cable and Wireless Communication

Until the end of 1912 cable communication with the Protectorate was via Bonny, in southern Nigeria. In January 1913, however, the Deutsche Südamerikanische Telegraphen-Gesellschaft completed a new cable from Monrovia to Duala.

According to the report of the Reichs-Postamt in March 1915, a wireless station on the Telefunken system was opened at Duala on March 5, 1913. This station was in connexion in the same year with the Telefunken Company's station at Santa Isabel in Fernando Po, with the station in Togoland, and with sea-going ships. It was controlled by the German Government, but was open to the general public for correspondence at 35 centimes a word. The normal range was 600 nautical miles.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour Supply and Conditions

Cameroon is not a white man's country, and its development must therefore depend on the capacity of the native population and the possibility of their being stimulated to undertake and carry on plantation, agriculture, stock-breeding, and the like, under European superintendence. In this respect the outlook is not unpromising.
There is great agricultural activity throughout Cameroon. In the forest area the natives seem to cultivate more than they themselves require only when there is some special demand or some special opportunity for gain. In the savannah country, on the other hand, they show themselves in some localities active and intelligent agriculturists.

Before the war the Germans were finding considerable difficulty in securing the amount of labour needed for public works and for the cultivation of the plantations in the coastal regions; as labour was attracted to railway construction, the plantations especially felt the shortage. This condition of affairs persisted under the Allied administration. The Germans attempted to meet the difficulty by the institution of a kind of forced labour. They levied a tax of six shillings on every male, and if this was not paid the defaulter was obliged to do sixteen days’ labour for the State, his services being utilized for such public works as might be going on. Should there not be public work available, the defaulter could be leased to private firms or planters, who supplied the labourer with his daily rations only. British observers considered this system unsatisfactory both in its accompaniments and its results; and the Germans were meditating the importation of Chinese labour. There is at present, generally speaking, no economic inducement to the Central African native to work as a wage labourer on a white man's estate; and it is probable that a system of plantations owned and administered by white men is inappropriate. But it has been found in the neighbouring colony of Nigeria that the natives are not at all averse to developing the agricultural resources of the country on their own behalf under European guidance, especially as their economic needs begin to increase.
(2) Agriculture

(a) Methods of Cultivation

Throughout the whole colony the natives cultivate the soil. In the south agriculture is their chief means of subsistence, apart from hunting and fishing and the collection of rubber; in the grass country towards the north there is a good deal of stock-raising as well. The hoe is the native implement; the plough, formerly common among the highly civilized Kanuris of Bornu, has disappeared. This is chiefly due to the prevalence of the tsetse fly, which makes the employment of cattle impossible. In the bush and forest districts the ground is prepared by burning off the bush and scrub, whose ashes are used as manure, large trees being allowed to stand; after some five years the land is abandoned and another plot prepared. Owing to the absence of mineral plant-food in most of the soil, intermittent fallow is necessary. The natives prefer for agriculture land which is submerged during the rainy season. The agricultural work, as opposed to the preliminary work of clearing the land, is done by women. A certain amount of artificial irrigation is practised in the dry season.

In general the production of wealth in Cameroon is still in the hands of the natives, apart from the very small, though fertile and valuable, area of plantations near Buea and Victoria. In the case of cotton and rice, which grow on a large scale only in the remote north, it is unlikely that European plantation will under present conditions supersede native production. In the case of rubber and palm oil, on the other hand, the plantation product may in time oust the wild; rubber especially was being collected by wasteful methods, and in certain districts the supply was being exhausted.

The following table\(^1\) shows the area of plantation

\(^1\) From the *Bulletin of the Imperial Institute*, 1915.
land from 1909 to 1912, and the proportion devoted to various crops:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total area of plantation</td>
<td>205,765</td>
<td>208,245</td>
<td>237,833</td>
<td>248,891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area actually planted</td>
<td>28,265</td>
<td>31,978</td>
<td>37,810</td>
<td>54,490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area under cocoa</td>
<td>18,945</td>
<td>21,023</td>
<td>23,958</td>
<td>26,635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area under Funtumia</td>
<td>6,668</td>
<td>7,515</td>
<td>10,475</td>
<td>10,550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area under Hevea</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>988</td>
<td>5,473</td>
<td>7,010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil-palms</td>
<td>[124,800]</td>
<td>[109,400]</td>
<td>2,388</td>
<td>4,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bananas</td>
<td>[240,000]</td>
<td>[400,000]</td>
<td>1,788</td>
<td>4,493</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These plantations are all situated on the west, south, and east slopes of the Cameroon Mountains. They have very good European quarters, and are traversed by broad ways, mostly with light trolley lines along them.

(b) **Products of Commercial Value**

As regards agriculture in the narrower sense, native cultivation, though general, has not been very extensive, the demands of the natives being in most districts easily satisfied. Food crops are, however, raised more extensively for special demands, such as arise near railways, administrative stations, the larger towns, and the chief places on the caravan routes and rivers; in these neighbourhoods the native raises rice, maize, plantains, bananas, yams, cassava, sweet-potatoes, and ground-nuts, as well as sorghum (*dura* or *dari*) in the northern districts, and some kola and sesame in isolated places. In several districts a certain amount of tobacco is planted; there is also some little fruit-raising, notably in the villages of the Ambam. In the highlands of Oshang, and in other places such as Ebolova and Yaunde, new crops such as the English potato, black bush-beans, and turnips have been

1 The figures in brackets denote the number of trees; the acreage for 1909 and 1910 is not available.
introduced, and the climate seems suited to these crops.

The main products of commercial importance are rubber, palm oil and palm kernels, and cocoa.

Before the late war rubber was the most important export from the colony—the value of the quantity exported in 1912 being 11,472,223 marks (about half the total value of the exports), of which only 170,552 marks represented plantation rubber. The greater part is collected by the natives from wild trees and vines, which grow in enormous quantities all over the forest region of the west and south and also in the savannas of south Adamawa and elsewhere. The chief varieties are the Landolphia vine and the tree Funtumia elastica (Kickxia). Almost the entire population of Lomie, Molundu, Dume, and Geng-Deng is engaged in the collection of rubber; there were, in 1910-11, over a thousand coloured middlemen buying rubber from the natives and selling to the dealers, of whom there were about 50, owning some 230 purchasing stations. There are at present indications that the supplies of the west districts are becoming exhausted; but the Ngaundere plateau and the Sarri Hills contain supplies of rubber hitherto untapped.

The future of wild rubber, however, is very uncertain. It is usually dirty and not of uniform quality, and is disliked by merchants, especially for the latter reason. Further, in 1913, after the heavy fall in prices, the cost of production of wild Kickxia rubber was considerably in excess of the price obtainable in Hamburg. Rubber, which in December 1912 was worth 7 marks a kg., sank in 1913 to 3·40 marks a kg. and even lower. Every attempt was made to reduce the cost of production by establishing direct relations with the producers and avoiding the native middlemen; also by the reduction of the cost of transport and by improving the
quality of the rubber. But it appeared impossible to reduce the cost below 4.40 marks a kg. On the other hand, it must be borne in mind that the industry was re-established in the Belgian Congo by drastic reduction of the cost of production to 3.50 francs a kg. in 1913, and by the improvement of the quality. There, however, the problem of transport is somewhat simpler.

It is therefore impossible to predict the future of wild rubber; but it must be borne in mind that competent German authorities had decided that it could not be regarded for much longer as an asset of the colony. It will, however, always have a market until the world's demand can be satisfied by plantation rubber.

Plantation rubber, as has been seen, is still in its infancy. Owing to a fear that cocoa might not be successful, planters were induced to undertake the cultivation of rubber on a considerable scale. Results have not been particularly encouraging. A beginning was made with Funtumia elastica, but this tree is now being discarded, as it is deep-rooted and therefore unsuitable to the volcanic soil of the Cameroon Mountains. In its place Hevea brasiliensis (Pará rubber) was before the war being planted everywhere, as it is better suited to the soil and to cultivation side by side with cocoa, though it is said to suffer from an unspecified root disease. The cost of production was about 3 marks a kg. (in 1912) as against 5 to 6 marks in the case of Funtumia. There seems no reason why these plantations should not in due course be remunerative, though the opinion has been expressed that the cost of production of plantation rubber will always be higher in Africa than in the East Indies, and that it will be necessary to combine it with other forms of cultivation in order to distribute the cost.

Palm oil and palm kernels.—The oil-palm (Elaeis guineensis) grows abundantly on the edge of the
Cameroon plateau and also in the south-east of the colony. Some plantations have also been made. The export of palm oil and palm kernels is increasing in importance and value throughout West Africa. Kernel oil is used in the manufacture of soap, vegetable lard, and margarine. In the process of extracting the oil, palm-kernel cake is produced—an excellent cattle food, much in demand in Germany. Palm oil, which is prepared from the pericarp surrounding the kernel, is used for the manufacture of soap and for other industrial purposes, but is not at present suitable as an ingredient for food-stuffs, though it is possible that it could be made so by a slight alteration in the process of manufacture. The oil and kernels are collected by the natives, though the Germans had begun to instal machinery for treating the nuts in order to avoid the waste and adulteration inseparable from the native methods of treatment.

Before the war, no less than three-quarters of the total production of palm kernels in West Africa, of which the greater part came from British possessions, went to Germany to be milled. Latterly attempts have been made to divert the trade to Great Britain, and crushing machinery has been installed at Hull and Liverpool. The demand for vegetable oils and fats is almost inexhaustible; but the success of the industry in England is dependent on the popularization of the palm-kernel cake as a feeding stuff for cattle. There seems little doubt, however, that this can be achieved.

Cocoa in Cameroon should have a prosperous future. The quality of the cocoa is equal, if not superior, to that of the best produced on the Gold Coast. Under German administration the acreage under cocoa increased from 18,945 in 1909 to 26,635 in 1912; and, since the conquest of the country by the Allies, the acreage under cocoa has again been
largely increased, and the demand for Cameroon cocoa has been good. Under the Germans a large majority of the plantations were owned by Europeans; and of a total shipment of 4,479 tons in 1912 only 701 tons were grown by natives. It is believed, however, that the native planters were discouraged by the Germans, for native-grown cocoa on the Gold Coast has made rapid progress. The native plantations are mainly to be found in the low-lying country of the Mungo, Wuri, and Sanaga rivers, the districts of Duala, Yabassi, and Edea near these rivers, and in parts of the slope of the Cameroon Mountains, though in the last-mentioned area the taking up of land for European plantations has prevented an extension of native cultivation.

Cotton has long been cultivated by the natives to some extent, but as a result of the importation of European cotton yarns the industry has fallen more or less into desuetude. The Germans took up the question in 1911 and sent experts to report on the suitability of various districts for cotton-growing, viz. Bamenda, Banyo, Adamawa, and parts of the country round Lake Chad and Tikar. The reports were on the whole very favourable, and two experimental stations were established, one in the Bamenda country and the other in the Adamawa country. The results of experiments made during the first year were various; but it has been established that it is possible to grow cotton of good quality successfully. If, however, an industry is ever to be developed on any considerable scale, serious problems of transport and labour will have to be overcome. It must be borne in mind that in the neighbouring colony of Nigeria, where a cotton industry is gradually being developed some distance inland, facilities for transport by water, rail, and roads are comparatively good.

The export of kola nuts has largely increased owing
to their employment in the chemical industry. *Njabi nuts* and *shea nuts* are also exported in comparatively small quantities.

*Tobacco*, the export of which was valued at over 24,000 marks in 1911, fell almost to zero in 1912. Cultivation proved to be expensive and difficult on account of the dampness of the climate. The Germans, however, persistently encouraged the cultivation of tobacco in their colonies by guaranteed prices, and, notwithstanding previous failures, there were 383 acres under tobacco in 1912. The largest plantation, near Duala, was entirely destroyed when the Germans evacuated that town.

Successful experiments on a small scale have been made in the cultivation of *tea, spices, and certain fibre plants*.

The only *animal products* of importance are ivory, ostrich feathers, honey, and wax. Elephants are still numerous in the forest region east of Ngaundere and in the Lake Chad country, though they are gradually dying out. In some places the Germans began to preserve them. The recent fighting seems to have caused great movements of the herds, which may have disappeared completely from their original haunts. The total exports of ivory appear to be diminishing, though the process is irregular.

Ostriches are farmed, and the feathers are exported in small quantities by the Arabs in Bornu. All the Malem tribes keep bees; and honey and wax are plentiful in north Adamawa, Banyo, the Dume district, and other parts.

Of *domestic animals*, cattle are kept all over the north and centre of the colony; but south of the Sanaga the tsetse fly makes general stock-farming impossible. The whole of the north and the grasslands of the Adamawa district afford excellent grazing. Some
tribes, however, are reluctant to keep so valuable a possession as cattle, because they are then exposed to raids. Cattle-breeding in the strict sense is only found among the natives in Adamawa, Banyo, and the Lake Chad region. From these districts there was at one time an active export of cattle to the neighbouring British and French possessions, but this has diminished of late years owing to a large export duty. The best cattle are owned by the Bororos, or nomad Fulbes (Fulas), who are particularly expert herdsmen. The Shuas also have large herds, and, though themselves dirty, keep their cattle clean.

The Germans had begun to show an interest in cattle-breeding, and had started several experimental stations, the chief being at Buéa, Jang, and Yaunde.

Horses are found in the north (especially among the Shuas) and west centre, but they cannot be kept in the forest or even in the south savannah region. Sheep and goats are kept everywhere. Pigs, which are supposed to have been introduced by Europeans, are kept by the tribes of the west near the coast. Fowls and dogs are universal.

(c) Forestry

The tropical forest area of the south is rich in mahogany, ebony, teak, and woods useful for building. The cutting is done chiefly by the natives. The development of timber-cutting for export is hampered by the absence of waterways in the interior and the lack of labour. The trees stand isolated and are troublesome to float. Something has been done by the introduction of transportable saws, which reduce the trunks to planks on the spot. The export of mahogany is considerable, and the advance of the exportation of this and ebony is likely to be maintained. The value of the export of mahogany and ebony in 1912 was 69,600
and 184,189 marks respectively, as against 380,000 and 138,324 marks in 1911.

There are many trees of local importance. Among these may be mentioned the kola trees in the forest area, the bamboo palm (*Raphia vinifera*) in the marshy regions, gum-producing acacias in the extreme north, fibre-producing plants (*Ceiba pentandra*) in the forest area, "gabai" and others in the Lake Chad basin.

Afforestation was attempted at Johann-Albrechts-Höhe, and a number of forest reserves have been made in the Yabassi, Edea, and Jang districts. A forestry school was established at Jang.

(d) Land Tenure

Under the German administration, land could be obtained from the Government on lease, or bought outright from the natives, subject to the securing of a certain minimum to each native family.

(3) Fisheries

Fishing is pursued by the natives in all parts of the colony, but on an important scale only by the tribes of the north, who inhabit the shores and islands of Lake Chad and the Shari and Logone rivers. Here the dense population live mainly upon fish.

Fishing is also practised along the coast, especially at Batanga. Attempts were made by the Germans to develop the industry. At present the natives only fish to satisfy their own needs.

(4) Minerals

No mineral deposits of any considerable value have been discovered, but the resources of the Protectorate in this respect have as yet been very superficially investigated.

A thin stratum of coal (with 48 per cent. of ash) has
been found in the Cross River bed a little above Ossidinge.

Galena occurs in the cretaceous sandstone of the Ossidinge district, but no argentiferous lead or zinc ores comparable with those in Nigeria have been discovered.

Traces of gold, in unimportant quantities, have been reported between Ossidinge and Tinto. The country immediately north of the Cameroon River is reported to contain gold and silver veins of no great importance. Gold is also stated to occur in the neighbourhood of the Edea station. In the years before the war, two English companies, one of them working with German capital, prospected for gold and tin on the Sabri massif and near Gashaka, in the Banyo district. Alluvial gold and deposits of tin were found, but did not justify exploitation.

Graphite is found in the hills of Baibokum.

Magnetic and red iron ores have been found in several places near the Sanaga and in the vicinity of Yabassi, but not at present in quantities to repay working. They are also found in Laka and among the Mandara mountains. Iron ores formed by the decomposition of basalt occur on the hill slopes between Bali and Bamenda. These ores are reported to be present in considerable quantities, and, if suitable transport facilities were available, they might repay working.

Mica of good quality has been found in the Ossidinge district and also farther north in the Kentu district.

Petroleum has been found in the estuary of the Cameroon River, near Duala, but numerous borings failed to produce satisfactory results. There is bituminous shale near Ossidinge.

There are numerous salt springs in the Ossidinge district. The natives obtain salt from these by condensation, and trade with it in the interior. Skilled
native labour is available, and a high proportion of sodium chloride in the samples of brine taken (5 to 8 per cent.) suggests the possibility of salt beds beneath the surface. There are other salt springs near Galim and perhaps in the Ebolova district.

Tourmaline is found in the region north of Duala and in the Jang district.

Prosecting for wolframite has hitherto been unsuccessful.

With regard to building materials, clays and loams suitable for brick-making are abundant in Cameroon. Limestones, however, are scarce, and those so far discovered are not of suitable quality either for cement-making or for fluxing purposes in smelting iron ore.

To sum up, the country shows promising indications of the existence of a number of economic minerals, but no definite results have as yet been obtained.

(5) Manufactures

No manufactured goods were exported overseas, except in so far as the preparation of the agricultural products to which reference has been made can be regarded as manufacture.

Native industries are not of much importance, but in all parts of the country pottery-making (almost exclusively by women) and work in leather and metal are practised, and considerable skill is shown. In various parts of the country mats and coloured stuffs are woven from palm-fibre. Cotton is grown and woven in the mountainous district of south-western Adamawa, the stuffs being coloured with indigo and red and yellow dyes. Iron is extracted and forged in various parts; it is also worked up into agricultural implements, ornaments, and household objects. Brass-foundling is not unknown.
(6) Power

No mechanical power, on any considerable scale, has been established in the colony. A great deal of hydro-electric power would be available from the rivers, more especially in the higher districts.

(C) Commerce

(1) Domestic

(a) Principal Branches of Trade

In the early days of the occupation of Cameroon, German influence scarcely extended beyond the coast area, and trade was carried on at the various coast towns on the so-called ‘trust system’, i.e. natives were provided with goods, and entered into an agreement to bring in exchange specified amounts of the various commodities of the country. This system was obviously merely provisional. In due course trading stations (Faktoreien) began to be established up-country. The Nordwest-Kamerun Gesellschaft, which was entrusted with the development of a vague area north of the Sanaga, established a large number of stations, using the Cross River for transport. Progress was slow, as the Cross River is largely in British territory, and the British, by subsidizing transport, were able to offer better prices to the natives. Nevertheless, trading stations were gradually being established in the high country to the north-east; Bamum and Banyo were becoming especially important centres.

In the Cameroon estuary the system of trading stations did not reach beyond the navigable points of the rivers, i.e. Mundame and Yabassi. The southern forest country, however, was energetically developed by the Süd-Kamerun Gesellschaft. Hausa trade had already penetrated this part of the country, and there
was considerable trading connexion with Kribi. The company established its head-quarters at Molundu, even farther south than the Hausa influence had reached; but it had an uphill task, and was forced in 1914 to reduce its sphere of working to a district between the rivers Njue, Bumba, Bange, Ja, and Mbede—a country rich in rubber. This district was made over to the company freehold, except for certain Government rights as regards roads, river stations, &c. Expenses were, however, considerable, and dividends were small and infrequent. Native middlemen were also serious rivals to the company, especially during the rubber boom. Kribi was the chief centre of export. Attempts were made to send goods by the Congo route, but this was usually found to be considerably more expensive.

Central and north Adamawa formed another trading district. The caravan routes radiated mainly from the Benue. Trading stations were found as far north as Lake Chad.

Trading conditions varied a good deal in different parts of the colony. In the south there were European merchants operating from the chief stations on the coast through up-country stations managed by white men, who again were in touch with small bush stations, mostly native, whence the travelling buyers of rubber and ivory went out. Except, however, in the south, the Hausas, who are natural traders, played the chief part in the trade of the interior; they were able to carry goods more cheaply than white agents, and consequently up-country stations under white men were considerably fewer.

(b) Towns, Markets, Fairs, &c.

Trade relations in the southern forest country were naturally primitive; there were few settlements of any size and each was independent,
Markets were, however, established in neutral ground, and there was a certain amount of exchange of foodstuffs, products of domestic industry, cattle, and salt. Certain tribes, in fact, devoted themselves to the business of exchange. In the savannah country to the north, which was commercially under Hausa influence, trade was much brisker. In the larger towns, such as Bamum, there was a daily market, and a connexion was maintained with the Mohammedan peoples to the north; communications, however, remained primitive. Farther north, conditions were still more developed; this part of the country, under Hausa and Kanuri influence, was connected with the great caravan routes which reach across Africa from Senegal to the Red Sea. Merchandise from distant countries came into the markets, which were held in all the larger towns.

As regards trade at the towns on the frontier and in the interior, Molundu, the centre for the trade on the Congo, was the most active—in 1912 its imports were valued at 594,800 marks, and its exports at 835,000. Next in importance came Garua, the centre for trade through Nigeria on the Benue, with an import and export trade of 598,000 and 494,000 marks respectively. Trade with Nigeria through Nsanakang on the Cross River amounted in the same year only to 291,900 marks in all.

(c) British Interests

Most of the important West African firms were established in Cameroon, and the transit trade of Douala is said to have owed a good deal to British development. The chief British firms were as follows: John Holt & Co., Herschell & Co., Wood & Co., Hatton & Cookson, Ambas Bay Trading Co., Ltd., all of Liverpool; Nyong Rubber Plantations, of London; King & Co., of Bristol, and the Niger Co.
(2) Foreign
(a) Exports and Imports

The total value of exports and imports for each year from 1902 to 1912 was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Exports (In thousands of marks)</th>
<th>Imports (In thousands of marks)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>6,264</td>
<td>13,275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>7,139</td>
<td>9,425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>8,020</td>
<td>9,378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>9,315</td>
<td>13,467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>9,945</td>
<td>13,305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>15,866</td>
<td>17,296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>12,163</td>
<td>16,788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>15,448</td>
<td>17,722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>19,924</td>
<td>25,580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>21,251</td>
<td>29,317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>23,336</td>
<td>34,241</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It will be seen from the above that since 1909 the imports have doubled and the exports have increased by over 50 per cent. This increase was spread over all the chief articles of export. Cotton in 1912 had increased by 25 per cent. over the total for 1911; but the most remarkable increase was in timber, the value in 1912 being nearly 696,000 marks as against 388,000 marks in 1911. The export of kola nuts rose from 19,063 marks in 1911 to 166,962 marks in 1912. Ivory showed a slight drop. Detailed figures for previous years are not available.

The following table shows the value of the chief exports in 1912:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bananas</td>
<td>17,591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocoa</td>
<td>4,242,271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivory</td>
<td>536,193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kola nuts</td>
<td>166,962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm kernels</td>
<td>4,406,151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm oil</td>
<td>1,622,387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber (plantation)</td>
<td>170,552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber (wild)</td>
<td>11,301,671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timber</td>
<td>695,851</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About 50 per cent. of the export trade went through Kribi, 35 per cent. through Duala, and 15 per cent. through Victoria.

Of the total exports for 1912, value 23,336,212 marks, goods to the value of 19,840,972 marks went to Germany. Nearly all the remainder went to England, the value being 3,072,091 marks. The chief articles exported to England were cocoa, ivory, palm kernels, palm oil, rubber, and timber.

The following table shows the value of the chief imports in 1912:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biscuits</td>
<td>291,223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butter, eggs, &amp;c.</td>
<td>461,917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish (dried and preserved)</td>
<td>2,321,398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meal</td>
<td>150,575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat</td>
<td>853,349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>53,274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>1,737,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>544,452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>140,084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetables and fruit</td>
<td>252,970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wine and spirits</td>
<td>941,836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes</td>
<td>1,184,247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs, &amp;c.</td>
<td>925,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>92,561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leather goods (including boots and shoes)</td>
<td>531,193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles (including clothing)</td>
<td>9,584,727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>334,332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>402,852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron and manufactured metal goods</td>
<td>3,989,937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery</td>
<td>235,825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper, &amp;c.</td>
<td>271,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Railway lines and sleepers</td>
<td>422,648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boats, &amp;c.</td>
<td>279,306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conveyances</td>
<td>184,762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal</td>
<td>271,139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>161,106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total imports for 1912, value 34,241,582 marks, goods to the value of 27,216,176 marks came from Germany. Of the remainder the greater part, value
5,522,829 marks, came from England. The chief articles sent from England were rice, biscuits, tobacco, spirits, preserved meat and fish, salt, manufactured iron goods, and textiles.

(b) Customs and Tariffs

Import duties were as follows:

- Spirits, liqueurs, wine, and perfumes containing alcohol: from 1 to 3 marks per litre.
- Fire-arms: 2.50 marks each.
- Gunpowder: 50 pfennigs per kg.
- Salt: 60 marks per ton.
- Rice: 20 marks per ton.
- Tobacco, unmanufactured: 1.50 marks per kg.
- Cigars: 10 marks per thousand.
- Cigarettes: 1 mark per thousand.

All other goods not expressly mentioned as exempt from duty paid 10 per cent. ad valorem, with the exception of textiles and iron of all kinds, which paid respectively 15 per cent. and 20 per cent.

There were a number of goods exempt from import duty, e.g. Government stores, live animals, cattle-food, plants, and means of transport of every description.

Export duties were as follows:

- Ivory and rubber: 10 per cent. ad valorem.
- Earth-nuts, coffee, red copal, white copal, palm oil, palm nuts, and sesame: 5 per cent. ad valorem.

(D) FINANCE

(1) Public Finance

The budget of 1913 balanced at 13,345,000 marks. Details were as follows:
Receipts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taxes</td>
<td>2,962,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customs, &amp;c.</td>
<td>4,524,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dues of various kinds</td>
<td>1,364,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receipts from the Midland Railway</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributions from the natives for Hospitals</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on Invested Loans</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributions from Togoland</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperial Contribution towards Military Establish-</td>
<td>2,804,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings from previous years</td>
<td>1,640,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13,345,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expenditure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary Expenditure for the year</td>
<td>10,853,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjustment Fund</td>
<td>38,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserve Fund</td>
<td>2,454,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13,345,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides ordinary receipts, the sum of 1,817,000 marks from the Colonial Loan appears under the heading of Extraordinary Receipts, and a similar, though usually considerably larger, item appears every year since 1908. There is also under Extraordinary Receipts in 1913 an item of 183,000 marks of savings from previous years.

The total amount of public debt up to 1914 appears to have been 49,209,000 marks.

(2) Currency

The currency in use in the colony was German. Trade in the interior was carried on largely by means of barter, except in the north where conditions were somewhat more advanced, and cowrie shells, brass and gold tokens, and Maria Theresa dollars were in use.

(3) Banking

There was a branch of the German West African Bank in Duala. According to the last figures available
before the war, the total turnover was about 65,000,000 marks; Government deposits were about 13,000,000 marks; deposits by natives amounted to 85,000 marks. An agricultural bank had been established early in 1913.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

Cameroon is to a large extent an unknown and undeveloped country, and it is too early to be able to estimate its value with any certainty. Hitherto its wealth has consisted almost wholly in the export of wild rubber and palm products. The future of wild rubber is, as has been seen, more than doubtful owing to its poor quality, the fall in the price of rubber, and the increasing supplies of plantation rubber. Palm products, on the other hand, have, so far as can be seen, an assured future before them; there is little doubt that vegetable oils and fats will become much more important in the future, and the number of oil-palms in the colony is very considerable. At present the greater part of the palm products is obtained from wild trees, but it is likely that in the future the plantation system will prevail. The industry is not an arduous one and the natives take to it readily.

For the rest, the development of the resources of the country is still in an experimental stage. It is known that cotton, cocoa, tobacco, plantation rubber, maize, and other less important tropical products can be grown successfully, but whether and where they can best be cultivated on a large scale is a question that it is not yet possible to answer. It must be remembered, too, that until railways are constructed, it is scarcely possible to develop the country beyond the coast districts. There is little doubt that some of the best land, and certainly the best labour, is to be found
in the north towards Lake Chad. It would, however, be useless without railway communications to attempt to grow cotton or tobacco, to which this neighbourhood is said to be especially suited.

There is some probability that cattle ranching on a large scale could be established in the high grassland of the Adamawa district; but the forest district is infested by the tsetse fly, and railway transport would be needed to convey the cattle rapidly to the coast.

No mineral resources of any exploitable value are at present known, but the country has scarcely been prospected at all and the possibility of the discovery of some such valuable deposits as the tin and coal in Nigeria cannot be ignored.
APPENDIX

I

ANGLO-GERMAN AGREEMENT OF NOVEMBER 15, 1893

The Undersigned,

1. Mr. Martin Gosselin, Her Britannic Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires;

2. Baron von Marschall, Actual Privy Councillor, Imperial German Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs;

After discussion of points connected with the question of the delimitation of the boundary between the territories under the influence of their respective Governments in the region extending into the interior from the Gulf of Guinea, which question has already been partially determined by the Anglo-German Agreements of April 29/May 7, 1885, July 27/August 2, 1886, July 1, 1890, and April 14, 1893, have come to the following Agreement on behalf of their respective Governments:

ARTICLE 1

The above-quoted Agreement of 1886 having stipulated that the point where the boundary shall reach the River Benue shall be fixed to (sic) such a point to the east of and close to Yola as may be found on examination to be practically suited for the demarcation of a boundary, that point shall be fixed as follows:—

The boundary, drawn from the point on the right bank of the Old Calabar or Cross River, about 9° 8' of longitude east of Greenwich, marked 'Rapids' in the English Admiralty Chart referred to in the above-quoted Agreement of 1885, shall follow a straight line directed towards the centre of the present town of Yola.

From that centre, a measuring line shall be drawn to a point on the left bank of the River Benue five kilometres below the centre of the main mouth of River Faro; from the latter point the circumference of a circle, the centre of which is that of
the present town of Yola, and the radius of which is the aforesaid measuring line, shall be described, south of the Benue, continuing till it shall meet the straight line drawn from the Old Calabar or Cross River. The boundary, deflecting from that straight line at this point of intersection, shall follow the circumference of the circle till it shall arrive at the point where the circumference reaches the Benue. This point on the Benue shall henceforth be accepted as the point to the east of, and close to, Yola, mentioned in the Agreement of 1886.

**Article 2**

The boundary determined in the preceding Article shall be continued northward as follows:—

A line shall be drawn from the point on the left bank of the River Benue fixed in that Article, which, crossing the river, shall go direct to the point where the 13th degree of longitude east of Greenwich is intersected by the 10th degree of north latitude. From that point it shall go direct to a point on the southern shore of Lake Chad, situated 35 minutes east of the meridian of the centre of the town of Kuka, this being the distance between the meridian of Kuka and the 14th meridian east of Greenwich measured on the map [by Kiepert] published in the German Kolonialatlas of 1892.

In the event of future surveys showing that a point so fixed assigns to the British sphere a less proportion of the southern shore of Lake Chad than is shown in the aforesaid map, a new terminal point making good such deficiency, and as far as possible in accordance with that at present indicated, shall be fixed as soon as possible by mutual agreement. Until such agreement is arrived at, the point on the southern shore of Lake Chad situated 35 minutes east of the meridian of the centre of the town of Kuka shall be the terminal point.

**Article 3**

Any part of the line of demarcation traced in this Agreement, and in the preceding Agreements above quoted, shall be subject to rectification by agreement between the two Powers.

**Article 4**

The territories to the west of the boundary-line traced in the present Agreement, and in the preceding above-quoted Agree-
ments, shall fall within the British sphere of influence; those to the east of the line shall fall within the German sphere of interest.

It is, however, agreed that the influence of Germany in respect to her relations with Great Britain shall not extend eastwards beyond the basin of the River Shari, and that Darfur, Kordofan, and Bahr-el-Ghazal, as defined in the map published in October 1891 by Justus Perthes, shall be excluded from her influence, even if affluents of the Shari shall be found to lie within them.

Article 5

The two Powers take, as regards the extended spheres of influence traced in the present Agreement, a similar engagement, as regards their respective spheres, to that taken in the preceding above-quoted Agreements.

They agree that neither will interfere with the sphere of influence of the other, and that one Power will not, in the sphere of the other, make acquisitions, conclude Treaties, accept sovereign rights or Protectorates, or hinder or dispute the influence of the other.

Article 6

Great Britain recognizes her obligation to apply, as regards the portion of the waters of the Niger and its affluents under her sovereignty or protection, the provision relating to freedom of navigation enumerated in Articles 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, and 33 of the Act of Berlin of February 26, 1885. Germany on her side recognizes her obligation, under the 32nd Article, to be bound by those provisions as regards the portion of the waters under her control.

Berlin, November 15, 1893.

Martin Gosselin,
Frl. von Marschall.
II

FRANCO-GERMAN CONVENTION OF NOVEMBER 4, 1911

1. Convention entre l’Allemagne et la France relative à leurs possessions dans l’Afrique Équatoriale

ARTICLE 1

La France cède à l’Allemagne les territoires dont la limite est fixée comme il suit: La frontière partira du côté de l’Atlantique d’un point à fixer sur la rive orientale de la baie de Monda, vers l’embouchure de la Massolié. Se dirigeant vers le nord-est la frontière obliquera vers l’angle sud-est de la Guinée espagnole. Elle coupera la rivière Ivondo à son confluent avec la Djoua, suivra cette rivière jusqu’à Madjingo (qui restera français) et de ce point se dirigera vers l’est, pour aboutir au confluent de la Ngoko et de la Sangha au nord d’Ouesso.

La frontière partira ensuite de la rivière Sangha à un point situé au sud du centre d’Ouesso (qui reste français) à une distance de 6 kilomètres au moins et de 12 kilomètres au plus de cette localité, suivant la disposition géographique des lieux. Elle obliquera vers le sud-ouest, pour rejoindre la vallée de la Kandéko, jusqu’à son confluent avec la Bokiba. Elle descendra celle-ci et la Likouala jusqu’à la rive droite du fleuve Congo. Elle suivra le fleuve Congo jusqu’à l’embouchure de la Sangha, et de façon à occuper sur la rive du Congo une étendue de 6 à 12 kilomètres, qui sera fixée suivant les conditions géographiques. Elle remontera la Sangha jusqu’à la Likouala-aux-herbes qu’elle suivra ensuite jusqu’à Botungo. Elle continuera ensuite du sud au nord, selon une direction à peu près droite, jusqu’à Béa Ngoko. Elle s’infléchira ensuite dans la direction du confluent de la Bodingué et de la Lobaye et descendra le cours de la Lobaye jusqu’à l’Oubanghi au nord de Mongóumba.

Sur la rive droite de l’Oubanghi et suivant la disposition géographique des lieux, le territoire allemand sera déterminé de façon à s’étendre sur un espace de 6 kilomètres au moins et de 12 kilomètres au plus ; la frontière remontera ensuite oblique-

1 From B. and F. S. P. (1911), pp. 956 et seq. To the German translation, printed in Appendix to Karl Ritter's Neu-Kamerun (Jena, 1912), is appended a note as follows: 'The French text is alone decisive for the interpretation [of the Treaty].'
ment vers le nord-ouest, d'une façon à gagner la rivière Pama en point à déterminer à l'ouest de son confluent avec le Mbi, re-
montera la vallée de la Pama, puis rejoindra le Logone oriental, à peu près à l'endroit où cette rivière rencontre le huitième parallèle à la hauteur de Goré. Elle suivra ensuite le cours du Logone vers le nord jusqu'à son confluent avec le Chari.

**Article 2**

L'Allemagne cède à la France les territoires situés au nord de la limite actuelle des possessions françaises dans les territoires du Tchad et compris entre le Chari à l'est et le Logone à l'ouest.

**Article 4**

La commission technique et les agents chargés de l'abornem-
ment dont il est parlé dans l'article précédent, pourront tenir compte d'un commun accord de la configuration du terrain et des circonstances locales, telles que par exemple la facilité de la surveillance de la frontière ou la communauté de race de la population. Ils devront autant que possible faire suivre à la frontière les limites naturelles indiquées par les cours d'eau, et dans le cas où la frontière couperait la direction des rivières, lui faire suivre la ligne du partage des eaux.

Les procès-verbaux de la commission technique et ceux des agents d'abornement ne seront définitifs qu'après ratification des deux Gouvernements.

**Article 5**

Les présents échanges de territoires sont faits dans les con-
ditions où ces territoires se comportent au moment de la conclu-
sion du présent accord, c'est-à-dire à charge pour les deux Gouvernements de respecter les concessions publiques et particulières qui ont pu être consenties par chacun d'eux. Les deux Gouvernements se communiqueront le texte des actes par lesquels ces concessions ont été accordées.

Le Gouvernement allemand est substitué au Gouvernement de la République Française dans tous les avantages, droits et obligations résultant des actes dont il est parlé ci-dessus au regard des sociétés concessionnaires qui passeront sous la souveraineté, l'autorité et la juridiction de l'État allemand. Une convention spéciale réglera l'application des dispositions ci-dessus.
Il en sera de même pour l’État français au regard des concessions qui seraient situées dans les territoires qui passeront sous sa souveraineté, son autorité et sa juridiction.

**Article 6**

Le Gouvernement allemand n’apportera aucun obstacle à l’exploitation, à l’entretien et aux travaux de réparation et de réfection de la ligne télégraphique française existant actuellement le long de l’Oubanghi et qui restera française sur son parcours au travers du territoire allemand. Les autorités allemandes pourront transmettre leurs communications par cette ligne dans des conditions qui seront réglées ultérieurement.

**Article 7**

Si le Gouvernement français désire continuer au travers du territoire allemand un chemin de fer entre le Gabon et le Moyen Congo et entre cette dernière colonie et l’Oubanghi Charï, le Gouvernement allemand n’y mettra pas obstacle. Les études ainsi que les travaux se poursuivront suivant les arrangements qui seront faits, le moment venu, entre les deux Gouvernements, le Gouvernement allemand se réservant de faire connaître s’il voudrait prendre une part dans l’exécution de ces travaux sur son territoire.

Si le Gouvernement allemand désire continuer sur le territoire français un chemin de fer établi au Cameroun, le Gouvernement français n’y mettra pas obstacle. Les études ainsi que les travaux se poursuivront suivant les arrangements qui seront faits, le moment venu, entre les deux Gouvernements, le Gouvernement français se réservant de faire connaître s’il voudrait prendre une part dans l’exécution de ces travaux sur son territoire.

**Article 8**

Le Gouvernement Impérial cédera à bail au Gouvernement français, dans des conditions à déterminer dans un acte spécial, et en bordure sur la Bénoué, le Mayo Kébi et en deça dans la direction du Logone, des terrains à choisir en vue de l’établissement de postes de ravitaillage et de magasins destinés à constituer une route d’étapes.
APPENDIX

Chacun de ces terrains dont la longueur sur le fleuve aux hauteurs eaux devra être au plus de 500 mètres, aura une superficie qui ne pourra pas dépasser 50 hectares. L'emplacement de ces terrains sera fixé suivant la disposition des lieux.

Si dans l'avenir le Gouvernement français voulait établir entre le Bénoué et le Logone au-dessus ou au-dessous du Mayo Kébi une route ou une voie ferrée, le Gouvernement Impérial n'y ferait pas obstacle. Le Gouvernement allemand et le Gouvernement français s'entendront sur les conditions dans lesquelles ce travail pourrait être accompli.

ARTICLE 9

L'Allemagne et la France, désirant affirmer leur bons rapports dans leurs possessions de l'Afrique Centrale, s'engagent à n'élever aucun ouvrage fortifié le long des cours d'eau qui doivent servir à la navigation commune. Cette prescription ne s'appliquera pas aux ouvrages de simple sûreté destinés à abriter les postes contre les incursions des indigènes.

ARTICLE 10

Les Gouvernements allemand et français s'entendront pour les travaux à exécuter en vue de faciliter la circulation des bateaux et embarcations sur les cours d'eau dont la navigation leur sera commune.

ARTICLE 11

En cas d'arrêt de la navigation sur le Congo ou l'Oubanghi la liberté de passage sera assurée à l'Allemagne et à la France sur les territoires appartenant à l'autre nation aux points où ceux-ci toucheront ces fleuves.

ARTICLE 12

Les deux Gouvernements d'Allemagne et de France renouvellement les déclarations contenues dans l'acte de Berlin du 26 février 1885 et assurant la liberté commerciale et la liberté de navigation sur le Congo et les affluents de ce fleuve ainsi que sur ceux du Niger. En conséquence les marchandises allemandes transitant au travers du territoire français situé à l'ouest de l'Oubanghi et les marchandises françaises transitant à travers les territoires cédés à l'Allemagne ou suivant les routes indiquées à l'Article 8, seront affranchies de tout droit.
Un accord conclu entre les deux Gouvernements déterminera les conditions de ce transit et les points de pénétration.

**Article 13**

Le Gouvernement allemand n’apportera aucune entrave au passage des troupes françaises, de leur armes ou munitions, ainsi que de leur matériel de ravitaillement par le Congo, l’Oubanghi, la Bénoué, le Mayo Kébi, ainsi que par le chemin de fer à construire éventuellement dans le nord du Cameroun.

Le Gouvernement français n’apportera aucune entrave au passage des troupes allemandes, de leurs armes et munitions, ainsi que de leur matériel de ravitaillement par le Congo, l’Oubanghi, la Bénoué, le Mayo Kébi, et le chemin de fer à construire éventuellement du côté à Brazzaville.

Dans l’un et l’autre cas, les troupes, si elles sont purement indigènes, devront toujours être accompagnées par un gradé européen, et le Gouvernement sur le territoire duquel les troupes passeront, prendra toutes les mesures nécessaires pour éviter qu’aucune difficulté soit opposée à leur passage et pourra au besoin déléguer un agent pour les accompagner. Les autorités locales régleront les conditions dans lesquelles les passages de troupes se feront.

**Article 14**

L’égalité de traitement pour le transport des personnes ou des marchandises sera assurée aux ressortissants des deux nations sur les chemins de fer de leurs possessions du Congo et du Cameroun.

**Article 15**

Le Gouvernement allemand et le Gouvernement français cesseront, à partir du jour de la cession réciproque des territoires concédés à l’Allemagne par la France et à la France par l’Allemagne, d’exercer aucune sorte de protection et d’autorité sur les indigènes des territoires respectivement cédés par eux.

**Article 16**

Dans le cas où le statut territorial du bassin conventionnel du Congo tel qu’il est défini par l’acte de Berlin du 26 février 1885, viendrait à être modifié du fait de l’une ou de l’autre des
parties contractantes, celles-ci devraient en conférer entre elles, comme aussi avec les autres Puissances signataires dudit acte de Berlin.

**Article 17**

La présente convention sera ratifiée et les ratifications seront échangées, à Paris, aussitôt que faire se pourra.

Fait à Berlin, le 4 novembre 1911 en double exemplaire.

**Kiderlen**

**Jules Cambon.**

2. *M. de Kiderlen-Waechter, Secrétaire d'État des Affaires Étrangères de l'Empire d'Allemagne, à M. Jules Cambon, Ambassadeur de la République française à Berlin.*

*Berlin, le 4 novembre 1911.*

Pour bien préciser l'esprit dans lequel sera appliquée la Convention que nous venons de signer relativement aux échanges territoriaux dans l'Afrique équatoriale, il est entendu entre les deux Gouvernements que les différends qui viendraient à s'élever entre les parties contractantes, au sujet de l'interprétation et de l'application des dispositions de cette Convention, seront soumis à un tribunal arbitral constitué dans les termes de la Convention de La Haye du 18 octobre, 1907. Un compromis devra être dressé et il sera procédé suivant les règles de la même Convention en tant qu'il n'y serait pas dérogé par un accord exprès au moment du litige.

Cependant, si des malentendus s'élevaient entre les membres de la Commission technique chargée de fixer la délimitation de la frontière, ces agents seraient départagés par un arbitre désigné d'un commun accord entre les deux Gouvernements et appartenant à une tierce Puissance.

Le Gouvernement allemand sera toujours heureux de voir des associations d'intérêt se produire entre les ressortissants des deux pays pour les affaires qu'ils entreprendraient dans les possessions françaises et allemandes qui font l'objet de la Convention de ce jour.

Il est entendu que l'application de ladite Convention sera faite suivant les règles prévues pour celle de la Convention franco-allemande du 18 avril, 1908, sur la frontière Congo-Cameroun par les protocoles qui y sont annexés.

**Kiderlen.**
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MAPS

The general German map of Cameroon is in 31 complete and 3 incomplete sheets, on the scale of 1:300,000. It is a compilation from route traverses and sketches, and was published by D. Reimer in Berlin between 1910 and 1913.

The territories ceded by France to Germany in 1911 are covered by a French map, on the scale of 1:1,000,000, prepared by the Service Géographique de l'Afrique Equatoriale Française and published by Challamel in Paris between 1910 and 1913; this map is also a compilation. The orographical map of Cameroon by Max Moisel, published in one sheet at Berlin in Mitteilungen aus den deutschen Schutzgebieten, 1913, is on the scale of 1:2,000,000, and gives additional information for these territories.

The War Office map of Cameroon (G.S.G.S. 2793) was published in 1915, and is also on the scale of 1:2,000,000.

The colony is also covered by the General War Office map of West Africa (G.S.G.S. 2434) on the scale of 1:6,336,000 (1903; additions and corrections, 1914, 1919). The western and southern parts of Cameroon are covered by sheets 74, 82, and 83 of the War Office map of Africa, on the scale of 1:1,000,000 (G.S.G.S. 1539).
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