TOGOLAND

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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, etc., 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

Togoland extends northwards from the Gulf of Guinea for a distance of over 300 miles, as far as the plains of southern Gurma. Its width averages some 130 miles, and it occupies an area of 33,700 square miles, marching on the west with the Gold Coast, on the north with the province of Upper Senegal and Niger in French West Africa, and on the east with Dahomey. The main sea-routes all pass well to the west or south; but before the war there was direct connexion with Hamburg, and the steamers of a number of French and English lines also called at Togoland ports.

The boundaries are defined in the following documents (see also p. 18):

(i) Between the British Gold Coast Colony and Togoland (a) in the Agreement of July 1, 1890, Art. IV, modified by the Convention of Sept. 26/Dec. 2, 1901, Art. X; (b) in the Convention of Nov. 14, 1899, Art. V, modified by the Convention of Sept. 26/Dec. 2, 1901, especially Art. VII; (c) in the Notes exchanged June 25, 1904, and slightly modified in 1907, as the result of the labours of the Boundary Commission;

(ii) Between the French colonies and Togoland by the Convention of July 23, 1897, and the Declaration of September 28, 1912.

The western frontier is marked to a great extent by natural features, but it is otherwise with the northern and eastern frontiers, where the boundaries are artificial
lines, except in the southernmost section of the eastern frontier. In the delimitation of the boundaries little notice has been taken of ethnic or linguistic divisions.

From marks set up on the coast about two miles west of Lome, the boundary runs due north to 6° 10' north latitude. This parallel it follows westward as far as the Aka River, which it ascends as far as 6° 20' north latitude, and then follows that parallel as far as the River Shavoe (Shawo, Dchawe, Dschawoë, Jevoë). It ascends the right bank of this up to the level of the confluence of the River Dea (Dayi, Deine, Daji) with the Volta (about 6° 41' N.), to which point it then proceeds in a direct line. It then ascends the left bank of the Volta to the confluence of the Daka or Kulukpene, the course of which it follows to the junction of the Kulusulo River (about 9° 18' N.). From this point the boundary runs in a generally northerly direction till it strikes a point (11° 10' N., 0° 9' W.) on the frontier of French West Africa (Sudan).

From this point the northern boundary runs slightly south of east to the parallel of 11° north latitude, which it meets at longitude 0° 35' east, and follows as far as longitude 0° 56' east. The village of Punyo, lying on the 11th parallel, at the precise point where the boundary strikes it, is assigned to French territory.

The eastern boundary then follows an irregularly demarcated line towards the south and east till it strikes the meridian of 1° 40' east longitude about latitude 9° 8' north, and follows it as far south as 7° north. This parallel it follows west to the Monu River, the course of which it descends to the Wo lagoon. The boundary then follows the middle of the lagoon westward for 10 or 12 miles to a point a mile east of Sebe, where it finally crosses to the coast, which it reaches 2½ miles east of Anecho.
(2) Surface, Coast, and River Systems

Surface

Togoland is traversed from south-west to north-east by a range of mountains which both begins and ends beyond the frontiers. This range divides the country into two approximately equal triangles—the north-western region consists of the lowlands, drained by the rivers Oti and Daka and bounded on the north by the Gambaga hills, together with a narrow strip of country belonging geographically to the western Sudan; the south-eastern region is made up of a low-lying coastal district in the south and an interior plateau, geographically a westerly continuation of the Dahomey plateau, in the north. The whole area thus falls into four main divisions: (i) the coastal region, (ii) the main south-eastern plateau, (iii) the central mountain range, (iv) the north-west lowlands, together with the Gambaga hills and a strip of the Gurma plateau.

The coastal region consists of four parts. First, a practically unbroken bank of sand, a few feet above sea-level and a few hundred yards broad. Secondly, a zone occupied by lagoons, marshes, and rivers ramifying into numerous channels. Behind the lagoon zone an undulating plateau rises to the north to a height of about 230–330 ft., and is cut by a number of rivers, e.g. the Haho, Shio, and Aka. Farther north this plateau sinks again to a depression, lying 100–150 ft. above sea-level.

The south-eastern plateau succeeds the depression just described. In places it rises abruptly to 200–300 ft., and towards the interior reaches a height of 1,300–1,600 ft. North of 7° north latitude it is characterized by the emergence of isolated hills, ranging from 150 to 650 ft.

The central mountain range is known in various
regions as the Agome, Akposso, Kebu, and Adele Mountains; with it are connected the Buem Mountains to the west and the Kurango and Kabure groups to the north-east.

The central chain has no great elevations, and there is no extensive plateau land. The mountains, however, fall very sharply to the plains on both sides, and form a real barrier to traffic. The chain falls into two distinct sections, each with a special character of its own. The south-western part of the range from the frontier as far as the Mo may be designated the Togo range; the north-eastern part may be called the Kara-gap region.

The Togo range consists of a central ridge with outlying lateral chains on the east and west, which merge into the main range at its north-eastern end. The lateral ranges rise abruptly from the plains to considerable heights in Mt. Agu (3,370 ft.), the highest mountain in the colony, and Mt. Adaklu (2,000 ft.). Between them and the main range there are somewhat extensive plains. In the northern part this central range broadens out into plateaux divided by ravines; and at its eastern edge it finally breaks up into isolated mountains, gradually declining towards the south-east and merging into the south-eastern plateau. In the main system the highest points are Mt. Dabo (3,180 ft.), Mt. Adeja (2,630 ft.), and the Buem Mountains (2,450 ft.).

The Kara-gap region consists of a series of broad plains, lying between isolated masses averaging about 2,500 ft. above the sea. There is a steep descent to the Kara ravine, beyond which again there is hill country.

The north-western lowlands are a series of broad undulating plains, rising from 500 ft. in the south to 800 ft. in the north, and traversed from north to south by
the Oti, between which and the Volta the watershed is formed by a gently inclined ridge, rising from about 650 ft. in the south to 820 ft. in the north. At the north end the lowlands are defined by the Gambarga hills, a wooded sandstone range, nearly 2,000 ft. high, running east and west. On the farther side this range falls steeply to the granite plateau of Gurma.

Coast

Togoland is unfortunate in its coast, which is moreover very short in proportion to the area of the country (32 miles to 33,700 square miles). The seaboard consists of a continuous bank of sand, backed by a region of swamps and lagoons except at the western end, where Lome is situated. Lome may thus be considered the natural port of Togoland, though there is neither there nor elsewhere any harbour or any facility for the construction of one.

River Systems

The central chain divides the rivers of Togoland into two groups, namely (i) the Volta system on the west, including the rivers Kara and Keran (Kumagu), which rise, indeed, on the eastern side of the chain, but have forced their way through the Kara-gap region; and (ii) the rivers of the south-east, draining into coastal lagoons.

(i) The Volta System.—This is the most important system in the colony, as the Volta with its tributary the Daka (Kulukpene, Lakä) forms a considerable part of the western frontier, and the Oti, which is a left-bank tributary of the Volta, drains the northern part of the colony and the western slopes of the central mountain range.

From the confluence of the Daka to Kete-Krachi
the Volta has a fairly rocky bed. Its breadth varies very much, being 450–500 yds. at Kete-Krachi, and 270 yds., with a depth of 3–6 ft., lower down near Kpandu. Even below Kete-Krachi rapids are fairly common, but do not prevent small vessels ascending to that place. The Daka is remarkable for the number and sharpness of its bends, and it rises extremely high during floods.

The Volta in its lower course receives three considerable tributaries on the left bank, the Asukoko, the Dea, and the Shavoe.

But the most important river of this system, so far as Togoland is concerned, is the Oti, which rises in the French Sudan, traverses the eastern part of the Salaga lowlands, and ultimately joins the Volta below Kete-Krachi. It flows between banks varying from 20 to over 300 ft. in height, has a wide flood-area, is full of rocks and shoals, and follows a course even more winding than that of the Daka. Its right-bank tributaries are insignificant, but on the left bank the Kumagu, Kara, Mo, and Bassa are considerable obstacles to land travel, especially the Kara, which is impassable during floods.

(ii) The South-Eastern Rivers.—Of these the chief are the Shio, Haho, and Monu. The first two in their lower middle courses have numerous channels and almost form deltas. The Monu, which is the most important of this group, and in its lower reaches marks the frontier, rises among the Chajujo mountains in the Kara-gap region. At Kpeji it is 90 yds. wide, while below this it is enlarged by tributaries to a considerable size. It rises very high during floods.

During the rainy season the rivers of Togoland are very much swollen and often prohibit communication, while during the dry season they often disappear partially or entirely, except in the mountain regions.
(3) Climate

The climate of Togoland is of a monsoon type, conditioned by the Sahara on the north and the Atlantic on the south, although local conditions modify it to a considerable extent.

Temperature.—Although Togoland lies north of the Equator, its temperature is lower in the south than in the north, except in so far as the temperature is affected by the altitude. The highest mean temperature is recorded in February and March, when it averages 82° F. (28° C.) at Kpeme on the coast, 79° F. (26° C.) at Bismarckburg in the central chain, and over 82° F. (28° C.) at Sansane-Mangu in the north. In March and April there are violent storms, marking the beginning of the rainy season, and the temperature falls. In July and August the minimum mean temperature is reached, and the average at Kpeme falls to 75° F. (24° C.) and at Bismarckburg to 70° F. (21° C.).

Rainfall.—The rainfall is least on the coast and greatest in the mountain region of the south-west, where the yearly average is about 60 in. On the coast the rainy seasons, of which there are two, extend over four or five months, the heavy rains falling between April and July, the lesser rains in September and November, while August is practically rainless. The yearly average is 26 in. (665 mm.) at Kpeme and 37 in. (943 mm.) at Sebe. In the south-west heavy rain falls between March and November, but there is usually a noticeable remission in August. Here the yearly average is 53 in. (1,353 mm.) at Kpandu and 56 in. (1,414 mm.) at Voravora. The secondary rainy season is somewhat uncertain, especially on the coast, and its failure has a markedly bad effect on production.

In the north, where there is only one rainy season,
almost all the rain falls in the period April to October. The average at Sansane-Mangu is 44 in. (1,120 mm.).

Winds.—In summer winds from the south and south-west prevail over all Togoland. On the coast these are frequent during winter also, but farther inland winds between north and east predominate. The Harmattan, a very dry north-east wind bearing red dust, blows between November and March, and there are sudden violent storms, which blow from the quarter between north-east and south-east.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The most unhealthy parts of the colony are the banks of the rivers and coastal lagoons, the least unhealthy the central mountain chain and the Gambaga hills in the north. Togoland is nowhere more than moderately healthy, and is unsuited for permanent occupation by white colonists.

The most serious disease is malaria, which occurs even in the mountains. It is at its worst in the rainy season and during the transition from the rainy season to the dry. The dry months are comparatively free from malaria; but, on the other hand, it is precisely during the dry months that cerebro-spinal meningitis is most frequent. This disease is especially prevalent in the northern parts of Togoland, where it becomes at times epidemic. Another widespread disease is dysentery, of which there are also occasional epidemics. Sleeping-sickness is endemic in certain regions of southern Togoland, but there appears to be no very great yearly death-rate from this cause. Epidemics of smallpox are common; leprosy and venereal diseases are very widespread, and there are innumerable cases of minor affections of the skin. In the central chain, the most healthy part of the colony, various pulmonary complaints, including tuberculosis, and also goitre, are
prevalent. Complaints due to parasites (Guinea worm, filaria, and others) are extremely common, and there are serious or fatal diseases which are only known by their native names (mahalabi, fadu).

Most of these diseases can be avoided by Europeans with the exercise of proper care. In spite of the high degree of humidity of the atmosphere, which is very trying to the white man’s constitution, there is ordinarily a yearly death-rate of no more than 2 to 4 per cent. among the whites, though in specially wet years or during epidemics the figure rises considerably.

The supply of water depends largely on the rains. The smaller rivers dry up entirely or are reduced to a few puddles for a portion of the year. Parts of Togoland, nearly as far south as the coast, are periodically uninhabitable for want of water. The fact that, except in the mountain regions, where the rivers have running water all the year, the supply of water is largely obtained from stagnant pools, perhaps accounts to a considerable extent for the bad hygienic conditions of the colony.

(5) Race and Language

Race

The whole of Togoland falls within the Sudan negro area, though there is a certain Hamitic admixture. Nevertheless the ethnographical map of the colony is extremely complicated.

In the south the most important people are the Ewes, who have spread across the central chain at its southwestern end and reach as far north as Kpandu, Ele, and Glai. As far as latitude 7° 20’ north they have absorbed practically all the older populations, whose speech remains only in a few insignificant ‘islands’. In the eastern part of the southern region, especially
to the east of the Monu, the Dahomey branches of the race, with local dialects, are found.

North of the Ewes is the mixed zone. In the western part of this region are various tribes, speaking Chi dialects, grouped together under the name Nbangye, the principal tribe being known as the Guams.

North again of the central mixed zone are groups of Sudan peoples. Many of the tribes are akin to those of the Mossi kingdom, and speak languages of the same family, which is akin to the Fula (Fulbe). There are also representatives of the Mandingos, the conquerors of the Mossis. These northern peoples are mainly Mohammedan. They form strong tribes, and have a tendency to centralize into warlike kingdoms. In the west, near the Oti River, is the powerful Mohammedan kingdom of Dagomba, with its capital at Yendi. This country is now divided between Togoland and the Gold Coast. The Tim group in the north-east and eastern centre must also be mentioned, while north of Dagomba lies the country occupied by the Chakosis, a settled agricultural race who extend to the borders of Gurma. The Chakosis may be considered as the aboriginal race, while the Fulas (Fulbes), the trading Hausas, the Dahomeyans, and others in the same district are intruders.

Language

In the absence of the necessary anthropological and historical data, the chief principle of ethnological division is at present afforded by language, and even of this the study is very far from being sufficiently developed. Knowledge of Ewe, the language spoken over a great part of southern Togoland, is fairly far advanced; but for the central and northern parts of

1 See Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute, 1913, pp. 388-9; Sir H. H. Johnston, 'Ethnography of Africa.'
the colony the evidence consists of native statements about local history and isolated words and phrases.

Hausa is in general use as a trade language in the north-west and Ewe in the south-eastern half of the colony; intermediate is a zone where Chi is spoken in the west and Tim in the east, and these two languages somewhat overlap the Hausa and Ewe zones. A kind of English is used to a certain extent on the coast.

(6) Population

The chief causes of agglomerations of population in particular spots are opportunities for trade (e.g. Kete-Krachi and Sokode, and more recently Lome and Anecho), comparative fertility of the soil (e.g. the middle Oti), and regularity of the rains (e.g. North Togo plains); also facilities for refuge in the case of weak tribes (e.g. the Siu mountains), and command of communications for strong ones (e.g. Chaujo). The Hausa traders appear chiefly in the north of the colony, but they are also found as far south as the coast. The Fulas, who are keepers of stock, are confined to the north.

_Europeans._—In 1913 the white population numbered 368, of whom 320 were Germans, mostly officials, traders, and missionaries; only 2 per cent. were planters. The white population is almost completely confined to the coast.

_Natives._—The numbers of the native population, arrived at partly by estimate and partly by enumeration, are said to be somewhat over 1,000,000. These figures do not include the coloured non-native population, so that presumably several thousands of Hausas and Fulas (Fulbes) must be added. The average density per square mile is thus about 30; but the population is by no means equally spread in all parts of the area. In 1908–9 there was reckoned to be a little under 20
per cent. of the total population in the coastal region, including the oil-palm zone, that is in 5 per cent. of the superficial area; a little over 20 per cent. in Middle Togo, 55 per cent. of the area; and the remaining 60 per cent. in the north, 40 per cent. of the area. Very little is known of the numbers of the individual tribes.
II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

1469. First Portuguese exploration of the Gold Coast.
1482. Erection of fort at S. Jorge da Mina.
1680. Expedition sent out by Elector of Brandenburg.
1683. Foundation of Grossfriedrichsburg Fort.
1687. Brandenburg Settlement at Arguin.
1718. Sale of Brandenburg possessions to Holland.
1840. German mission founded.
1884 (January). German cruiser visits Little Popo.
1884 (July). German flag hoisted at Lome.
1885 (December). First Franco-German Boundary Agreement.
1886 (July). First Anglo-German Boundary Agreement.
1888. Expedition of K. von François to the Upper Volta.
1888 (March). Further Anglo-German Boundary Agreement.
         Neutral zone established.
1889. Foundation of Bismarckburg.
1890. Foundation of Misahöhe.
1890. (July 1). Western boundary of Togoland laid down in the
         Heligoland Treaty.
1894. Foundation of station at Kete-Krachi.
1894. Agreement with England as to a United Customs District
         east of the Volta.
1895. Gruner’s attempt to reach the Niger.
1897. Convention with France as to eastern boundary.
1899. Boundary laid down in the ‘Samoa’ Treaty (neutral
         sphere partitioned).
1904. Final settlement of Anglo-German boundary.
1905. Horn dismissed from Governorship.
1906. Debate in Reichstag on misgovernment.
1912. Final settlement of Franco-German boundary.
1914. Completion of wireless station at Kamina.
1914. Occupation of Togoland by British and French forces.
(1) Early History

There is little early history relating to Togoland. The name Togo is modern, belonging originally to the lake opening out of the lagoon, and to the town on its shores. In the Ewe language the name meant ‘Behind the Sea’, and was extended by the Germans to the whole country, owing to the fact that Nachtigal’s first treaty in 1884 was made with the Chief of Togo.

(2) The Portuguese Period

The Portuguese in the fifteenth century were busy in settling and trading on the Guinea Coast. They founded S. Jorge da Mina (Elmina) in what is now the Gold Coast. ‘Cape Coast Castle’ was originally in Portuguese Cabo Corso. They also had intimate relations with Benin; but on the actual Togo coast they seem to have made no settlement. Yet traces of their influence and blood are found in names and physical characteristics. The name Popo, in Great and Little Popo, represents the Portuguese povo (‘people’). Porto Seguro must also have been named by the Portuguese, and there is little doubt that the coco-nut palm was introduced on this coast by the Portuguese. But neither they nor any other of the numerous European nations who built forts or trading stations on the Guinea Coast, whether English, French, Dutch, Danes, or Brandenburgers, appear to have settled on the strip of coast between Lome and Great Popo.

(3) The Brandenburg Settlement in the Seventeenth Century

Although the Brandenburg trade settlements on the coast of Guinea do not come within the limits of Togoland, but in those of the Gold Coast Colony, they require some notice as the early though futile attempts
of a State, which has since developed into the Kingdom of Prussia and the German Empire, to extend its influence to Africa. Frederick William, the ‘Great Elector’ of Brandenburg, acting under the advice of a Dutch shipowner named Benjamin Raule, sent out in 1680 an expedition under the Dutch captain Blonck, who made a treaty with three chiefs at Cape Three Points, by which they placed themselves and their dominions under the protection of Brandenburg, permitted the erection of a fort, and promised to trade only with the ships of Brandenburg. In 1682 the Brandenburg African Company was founded to develop this trade. In 1683 possession of the ceded lands was taken by an expedition under von der Gröben, and a fort called Grossfriedrichsburg was built. During its erection von der Gröben was attacked by the Dutch, who regarded these competitors with no complacency; but apparently one discharge of a cannon was enough to repulse them. This new dominion was afterwards extended by an entrenchment and two other forts (Sophie Louise and Tacearary). In 1687 a further settlement was made in West Africa, farther north, on the island of Arguin, south of Cape Blanco (formerly a Portuguese possession, and now in the French sphere), and the neighbouring coast.

The new undertakings did not prosper. The expenditure was greater than the income, and the opposition of the Dutch was successful. The Elector was, it seems, ready to declare war against Holland on this ground; but his death in 1688 put an end to these projects. The Company was neglected, and fell into bankruptcy. The officers employed in Africa were mainly Dutch; and, probably because they saw that no interest was taken by the new King of Prussia, Frederick William I, in this undertaking, they schemed for the sale of the Brandenburg rights to their own
country. The King tried to obtain a higher price than the Dutch were willing to pay, but finally disposed of the African possessions to the Dutch West Indian Company in 1718 for 7,200 ducats and 12 negroes. Arguin was sold to the French in 1721, and thus the early Prussian undertakings in Africa came to an end.

(4) Frederick the Great's Opposition to Colonization

Frederick the Great, who could have embarked on colonial enterprises if he had chosen to do so, was opposed to them in toto, and rejected at once a proposal laid before him in 1762 for a settlement between Benin and Cameroon. He was more concerned with pushing German colonization on the Polish frontier.

(5) German Annexation of Togoland in 1884

As its early name of Slave Coast indicates, the district was a resort of slavers; and in this connexion stations were established throughout the lagoons by traders of various nationalities. With the passing of the slave trade, a new generation of British, French, and German merchants arose, who about 1880 founded business houses at different points on the coast and began to build factories. Misunderstandings between the rival enterprises were frequent; and a state of affairs came into existence which was discreditable to all the nationalities concerned.

At this point a new and dominant factor came into play. The ideas and motives that dominated the movement towards overseas expansion in Germany took definite shape in 1882 in the foundation of the Deutscher Kolonialverein; and Bismarck, secure in the knowledge of a consolidated Germany, was gradually
becoming inclined to listen to the new society and to the claims of the German traders and missionaries in different parts of Africa.

This, then, was the position when the Senates of Hamburg and Bremen, which were directly interested in the West African coast-trade, demanded the dispatch of a German warship for the safeguarding of German commercial interests in Togoland. The *Sophie* accordingly arrived off Little Popo on January 30, 1884, and, proceeding thence along the coast, collected native hostages and obtained from the chiefs a petition asking for German protection against England.

The various parties among the tribes had been enlisting the support of the British and German merchants respectively in a contest among competitors for the chieftainship of Togo. A disturbance which took place gave the Germans their opportunity. One of the rivals visited the *Sophie*, then anchored at Great Popo, and obtained the support of her men and guns. The hostages taken were carried away to Germany, where they were duly inoculated with the idea of German strength and greatness; and they returned with Nachtigal on the *Möwe* on July 5, 1884. A treaty was then made with the Chief of Togo, who was recognized by Germany; a German Protectorate was declared; and the German flag was hoisted on July 5 and 6 at Bagida and Lome. This was the first annexation made in Africa on behalf of the German Empire.

Negotiations with France and England followed, resulting in the next two years in the settlement of boundaries with both States.

(6) **Boundary with Dahomey**

With France provision was made in the protocol of December 24, 1885; and the boundary between Togo...
and Dahomey was defined on February 1, 1887, in accordance with the recommendations of Commissioners. This arrangement carried it as far north as 9° N. latitude; and a convention of July 23, 1897, extended it to 11° N. latitude. Subsequently delimitation was carried out, and was finally confirmed by a declaration of September 28, 1912. French claims on Little Popo (now called Anecho) and Porto Seguero were given up in exchange for the so-called Dembiaiah Colony in French Guinea, called Colinsland, after a German merchant named Colin.

(7) **BOUNDARY WITH GOLD COAST COLONY**

Between Togo and the Gold Coast Colony the coast boundary was fixed by a joint Commission on July 14, 1886; and recommendations for extending it inland, which carried the boundary as far north as the confluence of the Volta and Daka rivers, were sanctioned in March 1888. From this point a neutral zone was established on both sides of the Volta, which was maintained in the Treaty of July 1, 1890 (the Heligoland Treaty). This treaty defined the boundary up to the neutral zone; but by a later convention of November 14, 1899 (the 'Samoa' Treaty), this neutral territory was divided between the Gold Coast Colony and Togoland as far north as 9° north latitude. After some further negotiations, including the Convention of September 26/December 2, 1901, the boundary was demarcated and recognized by an exchange of Notes on June 25, 1904, as far north as the southern boundary of the French Sudan, i.e. about 11° 10' north latitude, which should be taken as a recognition by both British

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1 See Appendix II, p. 50.
2 See Appendix I, p. 50.
3 See Appendix III, p. 51.
4 See Appendix IV, p. 52.
and German Governments of the French boundary (continuing the line laid down for the Gold Coast Colony and the French Sudan by the Anglo-French exchange of Notes of March 18/April 25, 1904).

(8) Expeditions to explore and conquer the interior

The German Government immediately set to work to organize expeditions into the interior, with a view to securing rights and obtaining treaties from the native chiefs. These expeditions followed each other in quick succession from 1887 to 1890. All were military in character, and prepared to crush opposition. The most important of them was under K. von François, who followed the Volta River to the town of Salaga, thence to Yendi, the capital of Dagomba, and on towards the Sultanates of Mossi and Gambaga. He returned to the coast by Bismarckburg, which had in the meantime been founded by Wolff in the hill country of Adele. He had started on a second journey, when he was recalled to take command of the newly-raised force in South-West Africa. Von François' expedition was followed by the agreement with England as to the neutralization of the Dagomba country.

The expedition under Wolff began with the founding of Bismarckburg as a starting-point for the subjugation of the eastern districts. Wolff also visited Salaga, and, returning to the east, explored Chaujo as far as the northern limits of Dahomey, where he died. His successor, Kling, endeavoured to reach the Niger through Borgu, in the north of Dahomey, but could not overcome the opposition he met with, and was driven back to the coast.

Bismarckburg was soon found to be unsuitable for the site of an important centre; and, a route towards
Kete-Krachi, from Lome over a low pass, having been discovered by Herold and secured by the post of Misahöhe, the inland centre was moved to Kete-Krachi, which soon grew into an important trading post. Disputes with the British colony as to customs duties in the Volta region led to the proclamation (in 1894) of a united customs district of all territories of both Powers which lay to the east of the Volta. This arrangement lasted for ten years, but was repudiated by Germany in 1904; and protective duties were set up in the interest of the trade of Lome and the Lome–Palime Railway.

(9) ATTEMPTS TO EXTEND TO THE NIGER

The movements of the French towards the interior in their Dahomey expedition of 1892–3, together with the British Ashanti expedition in 1895–6, were accompanied by further German attempts to extend the Togoland territory to the north; and a serious endeavour was made to reach the Niger bend. This expedition in 1894 was secretly organized (‘in aller Stille’, says Zimmermann), but was delayed at the outset by the unfitness of the leader first chosen. Gruner was then appointed, and nearly reached the Niger by forced marches in February 1895, making treaties with several chiefs; but the French had been beforehand with them, and Gruner had to return to Togoland. On his march northwards in 1897 he forced his way through the neutral territory of Dagomba, by Salaga and Yendi, to Sansane-Mangu, where he founded a German station.

(10) FRONTIERS LAID DOWN IN THE TREATY OF 1899

This breach of the neutrality of Dagomba led to the termination of the agreement with England. The negotiations which followed ended with the convention
known as the ‘Samoa’ Treaty (November 14, 1899). The neutral block was divided between the Gold Coast Colony and Togoland, the former keeping the west side of the Daka River, and the latter the east side. By this arrangement Salaga and Gambaga, north of it, which the Germans claimed, fell inside the English sphere, as well as the territory of the Mamprussi and the town of Morozugu; while Yendi, with the most important part of Dagomba, the territory of the Chakosis, and Konkomba, were recognized as within the German boundary.

The Germans were very anxious to enlarge their coast-line by the acquisition of what they called ‘the Volta triangle’, i.e. the country from the actual Togoland boundary up to the lower Volta and its mouth, with the port of Kwitta. Their West African merchants were eager to obtain this object by the surrender of Samoa; but the German Government would not agree to give up its hold on the Pacific, and the exchange was not made.

The fact was that the port of Kwitta gave greater facilities than any on the German coast, with its surf-beaten line of sand in front of a chain of lagoons. On the French side, too, trade was drawn away by the construction of a pier at Kotonu, the terminus of the Dahomey system of railways. To counteract this tendency, a pier was built at Lome, which was connected by a coast-line with Little Popo (Anecho), in order that the trade of the latter might not be altogether ruined. The railway from Lome to Palime was begun in 1904, and a road was constructed over the Misahöhe Pass to Kete-Krachi. The treaty for a customs union on the Gold Coast border was, as already mentioned, repudiated in this same year and a new tariff imposed.
(11) OCCUPATION OF YENDI AND CHAUJO

After the fighting of the Gruner expedition (in 1896–97) and of the expedition led by von Massow, Yendi, the capital of Dagomba, was taken; and another invasion of the same territory took place, in the course of which Basilo and Sansane-Mangu were taken; Kabure was also taken by the army on its return march.

In effecting the submission of the more independent tribes of the eastern border, great use was made of the Chaujo (Tschaudjo) tribe, an invading race of mounted warriors who had taken possession of this hill country. Dr. Kersting had made an alliance with the chief of this tribe, and through it subdued the other indigenous races. In these hills Kersting founded the sanatorium of Alejo Kadara, about 2,500 ft. above the sea, amid very pleasant surroundings.

(12) EVENTS OF 1914

Togoland was occupied by a joint British and French force in August 1914. For purposes of administration it was temporarily divided into two portions, of which the western part, up to the Haho River and Misahöhe, which included Lome and the Volta basin, with the Kete-Krachi district and the part of the Mangu-Yendi district forming the Dagomba kingdom west of the Oti, was under British administration; while the eastern region including the Monu basin, and also the more northern territories bordering on the French Sudan and Dahomey, were placed under that of France. The occupation of the town of Yendi, in Dagomba, on August 22, 1914, was joyfully greeted by the chiefs and people of Dagomba; and the old King expressed the wish 'to be reunited with the Dagomba country situated in the northern territories' (of the Gold Coast
Colony) 'under the British flag and the protection of His Majesty King George V'. The arrangements made in consequence of the Treaty of Versailles, by which Germany ceded Togoland, fall outside the scope of this series.

1 Report on the occupation of Yendi, enclosure in No. 16 of October 10, 1914, from the Governor, Gold Coast Colony, to the Secretary of State. (Correspondence relating to the military operations in Togoland. Cd. 7872. April 1915.)
III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

The great mass of the population is heathen, and is almost entirely under the influence of fetishism. This applies more strictly to the southern and central districts. The influence and power of the fetish priests are very great. Dipongo and Dikpelen, in Adele, near Bismarckburg, are the most important centres of this influence. Mohammedanism is widespread in the north, and an active propaganda is carried on by the Hausa traders. But here too fetishism is followed by the mass of the people, who are Moslems on the surface only. There is little genuine following of Islam except among the ruling families.

In the south the Christian missions have acquired a good deal of influence. One German mission has existed in Togo since 1840. An English Wesleyan mission has also been long established; and there is a Roman Catholic (German) mission with several stations.

(2) POLITICAL

After its first annexation Togoland was administered by Imperial Commissioners down to 1891, the post being held first by Falkenthal, and afterwards by von Zimmerer (who left to take up the Governorship of Cameroon). Von Puttkamer, afterwards notorious in Cameroon, became Commissioner in December 1891, and held the higher dignity of Landeshauptmann from 1893 till 1895. Togoland was then raised to a Governor-
ship, the Governor being assisted by a secretary, an inspector of customs, and an unofficial council of seven members.

The post of Governor was held by A. Köhler (at first Landeshauptmann and Governor from 1898), 1895–1902 (died suddenly); W. Horn, 1902–5 (dismissed for misconduct); Count J. von Zech, 1905–10; E. Brechner, 1911–12; Duke Adolf Friedrich zu Mecklenburg, 1912. The misdeeds of Horn and Schmidt (local Governor of Atakpame) are described in Treatment of Natives in the German Colonies, No. 114 of this series. It was by men of this type that fear and hatred of the German Government were maintained, with the resultant steady emigration to the Gold Coast, to which the last Governor, the Duke of Mecklenburg, who visited the Gold Coast, bore witness.

The country was divided into administrative districts in 1903, as follows: the southern districts of Lome, Misahöhe-Kpandu, and Togo; the central districts of Atakpame, Sokode-Bassari, and Kete-Krachi; and the northern districts of Sansane-Mangu and Yendi.

(3) Educational

A number of schools were maintained by Government and missions. The strictly Government schools were only two in number, with 312 students; a technical school for the art of dyeing and an agricultural school at Nuatya were also maintained. The missions, supported by the Government, kept up 368 schools, with 14,653 students. They were practical in their nature, mainly devoted to training pupils as artisans. The Government schools were chiefly engaged in training pupils as clerks and interpreters. Every effort was made to inspire German feelings among the population; everywhere the children were taught to wave German
flags and sing the German National Anthem. Formerly the mission schools taught English mainly, as it was the most useful language on the Guinea Coast, but German took its place throughout. The Mohammedan propaganda in the north is sometimes accompanied by schools in which the doctrines of Islam are taught.
IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) Roads, Caravan Routes, Paths, and Tracks

Lome and Anecho are connected with the chief inland towns by good roads, some of which are metalled in places, drained, bridged, and carefully constructed. Good roads also link up the inland towns, especially in the southern part of the country. In 1913 there were in all 755 miles of road suitable for motor traffic. The chief motor roads are: (1) Lome–Atakpame–Sokode, over 200 miles; (2) Lome–Misahöhe–Kete-Krachi–Sansane–Mangu. There are many native paths.

Except in the south, the internal trade of Togoland is carried on entirely by caravans. Some of these are local, but others are large caravans on their way across Togoland to and from the kola-nut markets of Ashanti, which do minor business within Togoland to cover the expenses of their journey.

(b) Rivers and Lagoons

The rivers of Togoland had not been thoroughly investigated up to the end of 1913. Small vessels can ascend the section of the Volta which touches German territory as far as Kete-Krachi. The stream itself is in British territory, and the Gold Coast Government had in 1915 seven ferries across it.

The Oti, the chief tributary of the Volta in Togoland, was thought by the Germans to be capable of develop-
ment as an inland waterway. Canoes can ascend as far as Sansane-Mangu.

The Daka can be navigated by small vessels in its lower course.

The Monu is navigable for about 150 kilometres (93 miles).

The Haho is entirely in German territory and ends in the Togo Lagoon. It is navigable at the mouth for light canoes.

There is inland water communication for canoes and small motor craft along the lagoons all the way from Anecho to Great Popo in Dahomey.

(c) Railways

The railways of Togoland do not at present form part of any trans-continental system; but although there does not seem to be any definite proposal so far, it is natural to suppose that its lines may eventually be connected with the French trans-Sahara system. It is not as yet in railway communication with any of the neighbouring territories.

Railways of metre gauge have been constructed (1) along the coast from Anecho to Lome (27 miles); (2) from Lome to Palime, at the foot of the ascent to Misahöhe (74 miles); (3) from Lome to Atakpame (102 miles).

These railways were built by, and leased to, the Deutsche Kolonial-Eisenbahn-Bau- und Betriebs-Gesellschaft, Berlin. The company's lease was about to fall in at the end of 1914; and, had the Germans remained, the Government intended to assume control of the railways.

The following tables\(^1\) show the main features of the recent working of the three railways, and also of the

\(^1\) From the *Statistisches Jahrbuch*, 1915.
pier service at Lome port, which is in connexion with them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lome-Anecho</th>
<th>Lome-Palime</th>
<th>Lome-Atakpame</th>
<th>Lome Pier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gross Receipts, £</td>
<td>5,639</td>
<td>23,470</td>
<td>18,010</td>
<td>16,780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Expenses, £</td>
<td>3,860</td>
<td>8,586</td>
<td>12,180</td>
<td>11,660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Expenses to Receipts</td>
<td>68·5</td>
<td>36·6</td>
<td>67·6</td>
<td>69·4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passengers carried</td>
<td>70,139</td>
<td>75,082</td>
<td>43,740</td>
<td>3,677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tons of goods carried</td>
<td>8,153</td>
<td>14,733</td>
<td>10,197</td>
<td>36,123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lome-Anecho</th>
<th>Lome-Palime</th>
<th>Lome-Atakpame</th>
<th>Lome Pier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gross Receipts, £</td>
<td>5,135</td>
<td>19,053</td>
<td>18,745</td>
<td>14,690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Expenses, £</td>
<td>3,904</td>
<td>8,270</td>
<td>11,451</td>
<td>8,950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Expenses to Receipts</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>43·4</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>60·9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passengers carried</td>
<td>69,977</td>
<td>68,004</td>
<td>40,768</td>
<td>2,957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tons of goods carried</td>
<td>6,906</td>
<td>13,261</td>
<td>12,720</td>
<td>32,497</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The volume of traffic in 1913 suffered from the falling prices of the produce market.

The line along the coast from Lome to Anecho, which is much used by the natives, is conspicuous on account of its low capital cost (£2,060 per mile), and its large passenger traffic. On the other hand, its working expenses are heavy, and its receipts from goods traffic are surprisingly low. This is due to the fact that through goods are carried free over the line, and the freights are charged on entry and departure, according to the tariff of the pier at Lome. The inland line from Lome to Palime shows a particularly low ratio of expenses to receipts, viz. 43·4 per cent. It should be noted that 1911 was the first working year for the greater part of the Lome-Atakpame line.

The total rolling stock of the Togoland lines in 1913-14 was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Vehicle</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locomotives</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passenger coaches</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post and parcels wagons</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covered goods wagons</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open trucks</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(d) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones

The postal service in Togoland, as in the other German colonies, was directly administered as an Imperial service by the Imperial Post Office in Berlin. At the end of 1913 there were twenty-three post offices, of which five had telephone exchanges. In 1912 the number of letters handled was half a million, and the telephone service dealt with over 50,000 messages.

At the end of 1913 the colony had 684 miles of telegraphic line. Togoland is in telegraphic connexion both with the Gold Coast and with Dahomey.

(2) External

(a) Ports

Togoland has no harbours, but at Lome there are good landing facilities. Vessels can lie within a mile of the pier. For the greater part of the year there is a strong easterly current, and during the winter there is a very heavy surf, the kalema, breaking on the beach even when there is no wind. Cargo is transferred in surf-boats of from four to six tons, from which it is taken by cranes into trucks on the pier. Statistics of this traffic are given with those of the railways above.

The percentage of German shipping entering Lome increased steadily, as the following table ¹ shows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>German</th>
<th>Other Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>399,084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>365,697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>380,810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>414,731</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is another open anchorage at Anecho, farther east.

¹ From Die deutsche Flagge, 1912.
(b) Shipping Lines

Lome was a port of call for the Woermann, Hamburg-Amerika and Hamburg-Bremer-Afrika lines, which worked in combination.

The British share of the traffic went to the British and African Steam Navigation Co. and the African Steamship Co., both belonging to Elder, Dempster & Co.

The French share of the traffic went to Fraissinet & Co. and Faure & Co.

(c) Telegraphic and Wireless Communication

Togoland was the first of the German colonies to be connected by cable with the Fatherland. This took place on January 2, 1913, when the German South American Cable Company brought their cable from Monrovia ashore at Lome. Togoland is also connected by cable with Duala in Cameroon.

Before the late war the Germans had two wireless stations in Togoland, a large one inland at Kamina, and a local one at Togblekof near Lome. Togoland was in wireless communication with Germany and with the other German colonies in Africa.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour

Nothing can be said about labour supply in the north of Togoland, for the Germans had not penetrated effectively beyond the mountains. In the southern districts they relied partly upon hired and partly upon forced labour. Natives who could not pay the head-tax were required instead to give twelve days’ labour a year on public works. Up to 1910 this practice was common; but since that date the natives have tended increasingly to pay the tax in money, and the supply of labour has diminished proportionately.
(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) Products of Commercial Value

Not more than 38 per cent. of Togoland is under cultivation, and the soil for the most part is poor. There are fertile areas in the river valleys and below certain hills composed of hornblende gneiss, such as Mount Agu. The greater part of the country is covered with bush, in which are found some useful wild products.

The principal vegetable products of economic importance are as follows:

Beans of various kinds are cultivated, especially in the north. These are mainly for local consumption, though there is a small export across the land frontiers.

Cassava (manioc) is obtained from the root of Manihot utilissima, which is widely grown by the natives, especially in the south and centre of the colony. The quantity exported in 1911 was 1,091,537 kg., value £4,452. Nearly all of this went to neighbouring territories, none to Europe.

Cocoa is grown in the Misahöhe district, and its cultivation is becoming increasingly popular. The quantity exported rose from 334,904 kg. in 1913 to 457,000 kg. in 1915.

Coco-nut palm cultivation was encouraged by the German Government. Near the coast a very large number of trees have been planted, and from Lome to Anecho there are many small plantations owned by natives. The fruit is eaten locally, and the natives use the wood and leaves for building and a variety of domestic purposes. The export of copra has been rapidly increasing, and rose from 130,792 kg. in 1913 to 351,000 kg. in 1916. About 8,000 Togoland nuts are required to produce one ton of copra.
Cotton is widely cultivated, especially in the centre of the colony along the Oti and in the south round Atakpame, Nuatya, and other centres. There are, however, only three European plantations on which cotton is grown. In 1913 there were twelve ginneries driven by machine power. Expert opinion considers that cotton could not be successfully grown in the north, and that even in the centre its cultivation is not very profitable. In fact, considering the efforts made by the Germans to develop cotton-growing, the production is disappointing. However, the quantities exported increased fairly consistently from 1906 to 1912, when they reached a total of 550,696 kg., value £25,000; and, though in 1913 the amount was smaller (503,368 kg.), the cotton was of better quality, and therefore the value was higher (£29,000). Almost the whole export was to Germany.

Dukhn (spiked millet), one of the most important crops of tropical Africa, is grown widely by the natives in the north.

Dura (tall millet) is grown throughout the north, along the Monu, and round Misahöhe, and is one of the principal foods of the natives.

Fruits are abundant, and Sir Harry Johnston suggests that the export of dried bananas might be profitable.

Ground-nuts are the staple product of the north, but are also grown in many other parts. The quantity exported in 1911 was 130,747 kg., value £1,176. Almost the whole export was across the land frontiers. In view of the commercial value of the ground-nut as a source of edible oil, its cultivation might with advantage be further developed.

The kapok tree is cultivated and also occurs in a wild state near the coast. Kapok received special attention from the German Government, especially in the north. The Sokode district seems to suit it particularly well.
The natives collected the kapok, and either paid their taxes with it or sold it to the local commissioner. The whole export before the war went to Germany, and was rising steadily. In 1913 the quantity exported was 9,627 kg., value £472.

Maize is grown everywhere except in parts of the valley of the Oti. Much is consumed in Togoland, and up to 1914 the rest went mainly to neighbouring territories. In 1916, however, large quantities were shipped from the British zone to Europe, upwards of 5,000,000 kg., value £24,000, going to the United Kingdom.

Oil-palms flourish near the coast, and are also found, though less plentifully, in the centre of the colony. About 3,000 square kilometres are devoted to their cultivation. Their oil and kernels form the most important articles of export.

Piassava fibre is obtained from the palm Raphia vinifera, which occurs widely in Togoland. There was no export to Europe before the war; but Togoland should be able to produce enough to make any country possessing it independent of foreign supplies. A fibrous by-product is obtained, which would be a good substitute for coir.

Rubber grows wild in Togoland, and has also been cultivated in European plantations. Up to the end of 1913 rubber occupied about one-third of the total area of plantations. The variety most cultivated was Ceará rubber (Manihot glaziovii), which provided about 75 per cent. of the total produced.

The wild rubber is found in central Togoland, and also in an area near Misahöhe. It comes from the vine Landolphia owariensis, which gives a rubber known commercially as Adele balls, and also from Ficus vogelii and various lianas, which furnish sayi, an inferior rubber known in the market as Togo lumps. Coloured traders buy the rubber from the natives and
sell it to European firms. Expert opinion considered that the production of wild rubber had reached its maximum at the end of 1913, the supplies of the more valuable sorts having been exhausted through the wasteful methods of the native collectors. The German Government, however, was anxious to encourage the planting of Ceará rubber in forest areas, and was distributing seed for this purpose. The amount of rubber exported annually has fluctuated considerably. In 1912 it amounted to 165,000 kg., value £48,700, while in the following year the quantity dropped to 90,000 kg., value £18,000. Since the occupation of Togoland by the Allies, the export has decreased considerably, and in 1916 only amounted to 41,600 kg.

The *shea* tree is widespread, and bears enormous numbers of nuts. Shea butter is used locally for cooking, and has an export value as an ingredient in soap and candle-making and the manufacture of margarine. The chief obstacle to the development of an industry is the difficulty of refining the fat; but the Edible Nuts Committee think that, if this could be overcome, the trade in shea nuts and butter might become important. The cultivation of the tree in plantations would increase the amount and improve the quality of its products. Before the war all the shea butter exported went to other parts of Africa; but shea nuts were sent to Germany and England in small quantities.

*Sisal hemp* has been grown successfully on one or two plantations.

*Sugar* takes a fairly important place in the domestic trade of Togoland, and there are small plantations of sugar-cane, owned by natives, in the Shio valley. No attempt to develop the industry has been made.

*Animals.*—There are no very reliable figures as to *cattle* in the Protectorate. Count von Zech (Governor,
1905–10) gives the following estimates for the districts in which there is any cattle industry:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>No. of Head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sokode–Bassari</td>
<td>22,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mangu–Yendi</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the coast</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atakpame</td>
<td>2,700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The tsetse fly is the chief enemy of the cattle-breeder. It is common in the south, where it makes cattle-raising on a large scale impracticable. It becomes less frequent towards the centre, and is rare in the north. There, however, cattle suffer from other diseases, especially lung-sickness.

Except in the north, horses do not do well in Togoland. They cannot live in or near the tsetse-fly belt, and such animals as there are seem to be small and somewhat scraggy in appearance.

Mule-breeding has been attempted at Sokode with fair success. Mules stand the climate better than horses, can do more work, do not require so much attention, and are generally more useful.

Pigs are kept by the pagan tribes of the south and centre, where Mohammedan influence has not asserted itself.

Sheep are kept in large numbers by the natives. Attempts have recently been made to improve the breed, especially by crossing them with imported animals from the Canary Islands. The offspring of this crossing appeared to be doing fairly well in 1913.

There are many goats and domestic fowls.

The export of cattle and small stock tended to increase rapidly in the last few years before the war. In 1912 there were exported to other parts of Africa 7,682 head of cattle and 14,002 of small stock. With the return of peace and the improvement of transport,
this trade should be capable of considerable expansion. The export of hides and skins, on the other hand, is very small.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

Apart from Government plantations, the only three European planting companies in Togoland before the war were the Pflanzungsgesellschaft Kpeme, the Agu Pflanzungsgesellschaft, and the Togo Pflanzungs-Aktiengesellschaft. The first-named was on the coast, the two others on Mount Agu, in the Misahöhe district. In 1911 their total property was 10,860 hectares, of which only 991 hectares were cultivated.

Togoland is far better adapted for native than for European cultivation. The native’s working expenses are reduced to a minimum, and his whole family, including the women, is employed in the fields. The people display fair intelligence and energy in agricultural pursuits, though their methods are wasteful. The native farmers uproot or burn trees and bushes, use the cleared land for temporary plantations, and, when in the course of a few years the soil becomes exhausted, move to another area and repeat the process. The presence of the tsetse fly in many parts renders impossible the use of animals for agricultural purposes. There are, however, certain districts which are free from this insect, and here the plough could be introduced, and the extent of land under cultivation could be more than doubled. The natives are beginning to realize that the land could be made to yield much richer harvests.

The Germans established an agricultural college at Nuatyia for native students. Some, when they had completed their own studies, remained as teachers, while others were sent into the villages to give lectures and practical instruction in farming. Others again
were started in settlements of their own, with subsidies from the Government. These settlements, however, proved unsuccessful, and their example had little influence on the natives in general. Nearly all the settlers were sent home, and in 1913 the college was converted into an experimental station for tropical research.

(c) Forestry

The subject of forestry was carefully studied by the German authorities. Virgin forest in Togoland is now confined to the river-banks and mountainous districts, and it was estimated by the Director of Forestry that it covers only about 1\(\frac{1}{4}\) per cent. of the total area of the colony. The rest has disappeared owing to the wasteful native clearing, and has been replaced by bush, mainly consisting of stunted trees, which covers about half the surface of Togoland. Unless strict measures are adopted, the remaining forests will be destroyed in a similar way.

From 1907 onwards the Government devoted much money and energy to afforestation. The results have been good almost everywhere, except along the coast, where the soil is sand with an admixture of iron. Teak has done particularly well, and has been planted at all the stations. At Atakpame, more than 25,000 teak seedlings have been planted since 1901, with satisfactory results. Mahogany also gives promise of being a valuable product. The variety *Khaya klaini* is indigenous near Misahöhe and in the Kunja Mountains. It has also been planted; but the variety preferred for cultivation is *Khaya senegalensis*. Experiments on a considerable scale were also being made with Rhodesian mahogany. Sasswood, whose timber is immune from termites and very valuable for bridges and piles, has been grown on six plantations.
Iroko wood (*Chlorophora excelsa*) is indigenous and has also been cultivated; it is used for building and for railway sleepers. There are three small ebony plantations.

Apart from timber, the forests contain several products which have been described in the section on vegetable products of commercial value (p. 32).

(d) Land Tenure

The land ordinance of February 2, 1911, definitely annexed as State property all lands without an owner. Ownerless (*herrnlos*) land was defined under the ordinance as including any land to which no person, family, group of families, community, or tribal association could show a title (*Eigentumsrecht*). Demarcation was at once commenced, a non-native being entrusted by the Governor with the protection of the rights of the natives. A native, to establish his title, was expected to prove continuous possession for ten years. The district commissioners decided on questions of ownership, and were expected to safeguard the interests of third parties. Their decisions were to be confirmed by the Governor. Two years were allowed in which to lodge appeals. The probable increase of population was a factor to be taken into account. Either a sufficient area was to be allotted to the native farmers, or, if the land had already come into the possession of the Government, a portion was to be returned for their use or as their property.

Land can be obtained in Togo by non-natives for building-sites, planting, and other purposes. It belongs, as a rule, not to individual natives but to the whole tribe, and although they are willing in most cases to give concessions or let upon long lease, they do not like selling land outright. Sale is disapproved, though not entirely prohibited, by native law.
(3) **FISHERIES**

There is considerable trade in dried fish between the coast and the inland districts. It seems probable that the sea-fishing industry could be developed, though the coast-line is very small. River fishing is carried on along the whole of the Volta and Oti, along the Shio, and at a number of points on the Monu and its tributaries.

(4) **MINERALS**

The economic minerals of note in Togoland are iron ore, gold, chromite, bauxite, and limestone.

The most important mineral asset of Togoland is a large deposit of iron ore at Banyeli on Jole Mountain in the Bassari country. The ore is massive haematite. A sample gave the following results on analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mineral</th>
<th>Weight (Per cent.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ferric oxide</td>
<td>89.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silica</td>
<td>9.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumina</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manganese oxide</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phosphoric oxide</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulphuric anhydride</td>
<td>trace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss on ignition</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis shows that this ore is of good quality. It is roughly estimated that not less than 20,000,000 tons¹ are available, containing at least 50 per cent. of metallic iron. The deposit, however, is far removed from existing transport facilities. Exportation of the ore to Europe is, therefore, out of the question; but it might be possible to smelt it economically in the Protectorate. A limestone of good quality for use in

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¹ This is Professor Koert’s estimate in the *Report on Iron Resources of the World*, Stockholm, 1910. There is strong reason to believe that the figure should be much higher.
smelting occurs at Tokpli (see p. 42). A German expert in 1906 was of opinion that railway communication with the coast was essential, if the mines were to be profitably worked. As there are no shafts to be sunk, the cost of recovery would be very low. Moreover, there would be but little waste matter in the main ore-beds, and labour would be very cheap. As the natives have worked the ore themselves from time immemorial, they should easily be made into good miners; and the district round Bassari is fairly thickly populated. Zimmermann estimated its population in 1911 at 50,000.

In 1911 the German Government again examined the beds at Banyeli, with a view to estimating their mineral value and the possibility of utilizing the neighbouring streams to supply a big power-station for recovering the ore electrically on the spot. No definite results were obtained, and the inquiry was to have been repeated.

Banyeli supplies the greater part of the back-country with the crude iron (Roheisen), which is worked up by the natives themselves into pots and pans, tools, and weapons. The production of iron ore in 1911 by native methods was stated to be 400 tons, value £3,600.

Gold occurs in very small amounts in the eastern part of the Protectorate in quartz veins traversing the gneisses, and in the recent alluvium resulting from the disintegration of these veins. It also occurs in the alluvial deposits of the head-waters of the Monu. Auriferous quartz veins with galena, pyrites, and chalcopyrite occur in the Atakpame and Sokode districts. In all cases hitherto investigated, however, the amount is very small, and gives no promise of profitable mining. Nevertheless, it is well to remember that precious metals have been found and mines are
working in the Gold Coast, where the geological characteristics are similar.

Lead ore (galena) has been found near Atakpame.

Aluminium appears widely as bauxite on the slopes of the Agu Mountains, south-east of Misahöhe.

Chromite appears at Amuchu, but it contains only a small quantity of nickel.

Fossiliferous limestone, possibly of the Eocene age, is found at Tokpli on the Monu, about thirty miles from the coast. This limestone gave the following results on analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Per cent.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Calcium carbonate</td>
<td>95.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnesium carbonate</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silica</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferric oxide</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumina</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This analysis shows that the limestone is of good quality, and suitable for the manufacture of mortar and Portland cement. The occurrence of limestone is important, since it is very scarce in other West African colonies. The Government ovens at Tokpli were four months at work in 1911–12. The output was 260 cubic metres of limestone, at 45 marks per cubic metre, so that the total value was 11,700 marks. Eight prisoners and two paid labourers under a European limestone burner were employed. Wood fuel was used.

Sandstone occurs over a considerable part of the colony, and is used for building purposes.

No precious stones are reported, except tourmaline, which was found by a German geologist when exploring the little-known Monu River district. This is a semi-precious gem which possesses special optical properties. In value tourmalines range from a few shillings to £3 per carat.
(5) MANUFACTURES

The most popular native handicraft in Togoland is pottery. The women are all experts in the use of the potter's wheel. No other native industry has been so little influenced by intercourse with Europeans.

The making of straw-plait, for roofing, fencing, pouches, satchels, hats, and baskets, is a small local industry. The gaily-patterned mats of Chaujo form an article of commerce. Rope-work is principally confined to the Agotime district; wood-carving on spoons, combs, vessels, and furniture, is practised in the Volta region; ivory-carving is carried on in the south at Kpandu, Gbele, Gbi, and Nuatya; and great drums and fetish idols are produced in Ahenkro.

The natives are skilful smiths. They also make leather from the skins of wild and domestic animals, but this is a crude material; the good leather employed in the manufacture of saddles, bridles, shoes, satchels, and hats is obtained from the Hausa countries, or is made by the Hausas in Togoland.

Cotton-spinning is done by women, weaving by men, chiefly by Mohammedans in the north. Dyeing is carried on all over Togoland; red dye is produced from cam-wood, black from charcoal, while blue is obtained from native indigo.

The further development of industry in Togoland, whether native or European, requires the introduction or the education of a class of semi-skilled native labour. An attempt towards this end is being made in the school for artisans set up by the Catholic missionaries from Steyl. In 1907 this school had already fifty scholars. This form of industrial mission could undoubtedly be further encouraged with advantage.
ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

The main articles of domestic trade are palm oil, salt, dried fish, and other food-stuffs. In the north and centre these are distributed by caravan, but in the south the railways have opened a way for small native traders from the coast, who are now to be found at all the principal stopping-places on the lines. Syrians are now also trading in the interior. Four trade languages, Chi, Ewe, Tim, and Hausa, are in use, each within a fairly well-defined area.

There are regular cotton markets at Ho, Sagada, Nuatya, and Atakpame in the south, and at Kete-Krachi, Kpeji, Sokode, and Bassari in the centre.

In 1912 there were seven privileged companies in Togoland, each operating as a 'Kolonialgesellschaft'. These were the three plantation companies already mentioned (p. 37), the Deutsche West-Afrikanische Bank (1904), the Kolonialwirtschaftliches Komitee, and two general trading companies, the Deutsche West-Afrikanische Handelsgesellschaft (1904) and the Deutsche Togo-Gesellschaft (1906).

According to the German directories, there were before the war only twenty-three firms doing business in Togoland, including the Catholic Mission and the bookshop of the North German Mission. There are now (1917) seven English importing houses in Lome.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) Exports

The value of the total exports from 1909 to 1913 was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>368,602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>361,106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>465,677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>497,945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>455,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It must be remembered that many of the articles exported were in transit between the Gold Coast and Nigeria. In 1912 the amounts exported over the several frontiers were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frontier</th>
<th>Amount (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seaboard</td>
<td>427,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>46,613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>23,702</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The principal articles exported are palm products, rubber, cotton, live-stock, maize, and cocoa. Of these palm products are the most important. Even in 1913, when an exceptional drought had markedly decreased the output, they represented over 33 per cent. of the total value of exports, while in the previous year they amounted to over 48 per cent. Maize used at one time to be the chief export, but had several bad years before 1911. Since the occupation of Togoland by the Allies, the maize export has rapidly increased, and in 1916 reached a value of £29,000.

The following table\(^1\) shows in round figures the value of the principal articles of export from 1911 to 1913:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1911</th>
<th>1912</th>
<th>1913</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cocoa</td>
<td>8,700</td>
<td>12,100</td>
<td>16,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton</td>
<td>27,700</td>
<td>25,700</td>
<td>29,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live-stock</td>
<td>20,900</td>
<td>30,700</td>
<td>16,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>8,700</td>
<td>11,500</td>
<td>14,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm kernels</td>
<td>178,900</td>
<td>168,900</td>
<td>127,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm oil</td>
<td>84,400</td>
<td>70,600</td>
<td>25,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber</td>
<td>41,600</td>
<td>48,700</td>
<td>18,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The bulk of the exports went to Germany, which in 1912 received goods to the value of £290,400 out of the total of £497,945, or nearly 60 per cent. France took £40,500, adjacent African states £162,600, and the United Kingdom £4,100 worth of goods.

\(^1\) From the British Consular Report, 1912–13.
The following table shows the way in which in 1912 the principal articles of export were divided among the various countries of destination:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>United Kingdom</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Neighbouring African states</th>
<th>Cameroon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cocoa</td>
<td>£12,100</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton</td>
<td>£22,600</td>
<td>£3,100</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>30,500</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live-stock</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,300</td>
<td>9,800</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>1,300</td>
<td>9,800</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm kernels</td>
<td>168,400</td>
<td>30,500</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm oil</td>
<td>29,600</td>
<td>£39,600</td>
<td>1,400</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber</td>
<td>48,700</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,400</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Imports

The total value of the imports, including goods in transit between Nigeria and the Gold Coast, was as follows from 1909 to 1913:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>£561,764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>£573,306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>£481,001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>£571,391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>£530,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The values imported over each frontier in 1912 were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frontier</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seaboard frontier</td>
<td>£449,310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western frontier</td>
<td>£110,534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern frontier</td>
<td>£11,547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>£571,391</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The articles imported into Togoland are similar to those required in all West African states. In 1912 cotton yarns and textiles were the most valuable; next came iron goods, fish, spirits, and building materials, including cement, lime, and timber.

The following table\(^1\) shows the value of the principal imports in 1912 and 1913:

\(^1\) From the British Consular Report, 1912–13 (No. 5417, Annual Series).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1912</th>
<th>1913</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building materials</td>
<td>16,102</td>
<td>28,312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton yarns and textiles</td>
<td>143,598</td>
<td>117,176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish</td>
<td>39,357</td>
<td>30,713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron goods</td>
<td>47,140</td>
<td>54,478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaf tobacco</td>
<td>14,371</td>
<td>14,048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>11,974</td>
<td>7,221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirits</td>
<td>35,410</td>
<td>31,477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>307,952</td>
<td>283,425</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The largest share in the import trade went to Germany, which in 1912 contributed £240,974, or 42 per cent., of which far the largest items were cotton and iron goods. The United Kingdom contributed only £95,513, or 16 per cent., mostly cotton goods, with a small quantity of iron goods. Neighbouring African states contributed £129,270, a large proportion of which consisted of fish; the United States £23,443, almost wholly tobacco; and France £20,783, of which about half was salt.

Imports from the Gold Coast both by sea and land increased after the outbreak of the late war.

(c) Customs and Tariffs

The customs tariff of Togoland as revised in 1910 was still in force in 1914. An order restricting imports was issued in 1911, and amendments to the tariff were made in 1912, 1913, and 1914. Specific import duties were imposed on eight articles, while all other articles not specifically exempted paid an ad valorem duty of 10 per cent. The exemptions were of the usual kind, including Government stores, coal and coke, mining and agricultural machinery, medical and scientific instruments, printed books, and West African agricultural products. Of the articles specifically charged, spirits paid a duty varying upwards and downwards from 80 pf. per litre, according to alcoholic strength, tobacco paid 50 pf. on every 5 kg., salt paid 2 pf. per kg.,
sugar 5 pf. per kg. Dried, salted, and smoked fish of African origin, a large element in the imports, paid 5 pf. per kg. Lamp-oils were charged 5½ pf. per litre. Firearms paid 3 marks each, powder 1 mark per kg.

(D) FINANCE

(1) Public Finance

Togoland was the only German colony in Africa that did not receive financial aid from the Fatherland. The total revenue of the Protectorate between 1904 and 1914 was almost 28 million marks, while the total ordinary expenditure during the same period was almost 38 million marks. In 1904 and 1905 there was a huge excess of expenditure over revenue, but the balance was readjusted in subsequent years. The extraordinary expenditure from 1908–14 inclusive was 11 million marks (£500,000). Most of this was incurred in 1909 and 1910. The expenditure of the latter year was regarded as a Protectorate and not an Imperial loan.

The following table, taken from the Statistisches Jahrbuch, shows the revenue and ordinary expenditure for each year from 1909 to 1913:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Revenue Marks</th>
<th>Expenditure Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>2,650,000</td>
<td>2,720,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>3,240,000</td>
<td>2,540,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>3,620,000</td>
<td>3,310,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>3,510,000</td>
<td>3,310,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>3,380,000</td>
<td>4,060,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most important source of revenue was the customs duties, which in 1913 furnished 44 per cent. of the total. Taxes contributed 17 per cent. only. The most important of these, representing 82 per cent. of the sum derived from taxation, was a head-tax of 6 marks. There were also charges for traders' licences of various sorts. The profits from the railways and
from Lome pier represented only 14 per cent. of the total revenue.

The principal heads of revenue\(^1\) in 1913 were, in round numbers, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head of Revenue</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customs</td>
<td>1,788,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxes</td>
<td>702,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Services</td>
<td>305,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Railways and pier</td>
<td>589,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,384,000</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings from former years</td>
<td>673,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,057,000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

About half of the ordinary expenditure was generally devoted to civil administration. The figures for 1913 were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head of Expenditure</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil administration</td>
<td>1,880,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>1,712,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-recurring expenditure</td>
<td>463,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) Currency

In place of the Imperial gold standard the silver mark was introduced on February 1, 1905.

Imperial silver coins were legal tender to any amount, copper coins only up to five marks. Foreign coinage was subject to strict regulations as regards circulation, exchange value, and public use. The English shilling piece was very largely used in Togo, chiefly because it had a slightly higher silver value than the mark.

(3) Banking

Under German rule a virtual monopoly of banking business was enjoyed by the Deutsche West-Afrikanische Bank. This business has passed to the Bank of British West Africa. The total volume of business of the Deutsche West-Afrikanische Bank in 1912–13 was 31 million marks.

\(^1\) From the *Almanach de Gotha*. 
APPENDIX

I

PROVISION OF ANGLO-GERMAN TREATY OF JULY 1, 1890, RELATING TO TOGOLAND

Article IV. Sec. 1.—The boundary between the German Protectorate of Togo and the British Gold Coast Colony commences on the coast at the marks set up after the negotiations between the Commissioners of the two countries of the 14th and 28th of July, 1886, and proceeds direct northwards to the 6° 10' parallel of north latitude; thence it runs along that parallel westwards till it reaches the left bank of the River Aka, ascends the mid-channel of that river to the 6° 20' parallel of north latitude, runs along that parallel westwards to the right bank of the River Dchawe or Shavoe, follows that bank of the river till it reaches the parallel corresponding with the point of confluence of the River Deine with the Volta; it runs along that parallel westward till it reaches the Volta; from that point it ascends the left bank of the Volta till it arrives at the neutral zone established by the Agreement of 1888, which commences at the confluence of the River Dakka with the Volta.

Each Power engages to withdraw immediately after the conclusion of this Agreement all its officials and employés from territory which is assigned to the other Power by the above delimitation.

II

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY OF JULY 23, 1897, RELATING TO TOGOLAND

Art. I.—La frontière partira de l’intersection de la côte avec le méridien de l’île Bayol, se confondra avec ce méridien jusqu’à la rive sud de la lagune qu’elle suivra jusqu’à une distance de 100 mètres environ au delà de la pointe est de l’île Bayol, remontera ensuite directement au nord jusqu’à mi-
distance de la rive sud et de la rive nord de la lagune ; puis suivra les sinuosités de la lagune à égale distance des deux rives jusqu'au thalweg du Mono, qu'elle suivra jusqu'au 7° dégré de latitude nord.

De l'intersection du thalweg du Mono avec le 7° dégré de latitude nord, la frontière rejoindra par ce parallèle le méridien de l'Ile Bayol, qui servira de limite jusqu'à son intersection avec le parallèle passant à égale distance de Bassila et de Penesoulo. De ce point, elle gagnera la Rivière Kara suivant une ligne équidistante des chemins de Bassila à Bafilo par Kirikri et de Penesoulo à Séméré par Aledjo, et ensuite des chemins de Sudu à Séméré et d'Aledjo à Séméré, de manière à passer à égale distance de Daboni et d'Aledjo ainsi que de Sudu et d'Aledjo. Elle descendra ensuite le thalweg de la Rivière Kara sur une longueur de 5 kilom. et de ce point remontera en ligne droite vers le nord jusqu'au 10° dégré de latitude nord, Séméré devant dans tous les cas rester à la France.

De là, la frontière se dirigera directement sur un point situé à égale distance entre Djé et Gandou, laissant Djé à la France et Gandou à l'Allemagne et gagnera le 11° dégré de latitude nord en suivant une ligne parallèle à la route de Sansanné-Mango à Pama et distante de celle-ci de 30 kilom. Elle se prolongera ensuite vers l'ouest sur le 11° dégré de latitude nord jusqu'à la Volta blanche de manière à laisser en tout cas Pougno à la France et Koun-Djari à l'Allemagne, puis elle rejoindra par le thalweg de cette rivière le 10° dégré de latitude nord qu'elle suivra jusqu'à son intersection avec le méridien 3° 52' ouest de Paris (1° 32' ouest de Greenwich).

III

EXTRACTS FROM ANGLO-GERMAN CONVENTION OF NOVEMBER 14, 1899, RELATING TO TOGOLAND

Article I.—

Great Britain recognizes as falling to Germany the territories in the eastern part of the Neutral Zone established by the Arrangement of 1888 in West Africa. The limits of the portion of the Neutral Zone falling to Germany are defined in Article V of the present Convention.
Article II.—

The western portion of the Neutral Zone in West Africa, as defined in Article V of the present Convention, shall also fall to the share of Great Britain.

Article V.—In the Neutral Zone the frontier between the German and English territories shall be formed by the River Daka as far as the point of its intersection with the 9th degree of north latitude; thence the frontier shall continue to the north, leaving Morozugu to Great Britain, and shall be fixed on the spot by a mixed Commission of the two Powers, in such manner that Gambaga and all the territories of Mamprusi shall fall to Great Britain, and that Yendi and all the territories of Chakosi shall fall to Germany.

Article VI.—Germany is prepared to take into consideration, as much and as far as possible, the wishes which the Government of Great Britain may express with regard to the development of the reciprocal tariffs in the territories of Togo and the Gold Coast.

IV


From the 9th degree of north latitude the boundary follows the thalweg of the Daka (Kulukpene) upwards to its junction with the Kulusulo; from thence the thalweg of the Kulusulo upwards [to a distance of 1 kilom. beyond its intersection with the road from Sambu to Sung; then a line running west, at a distance of 1 kilom. from that road], to its intersection with a meridian which passes half-way between the most easterly and the most westerly point of intersection of the 9th degree of north latitude with the Daka (Kulukpene); then this meridian to the north of its intersection with the Daka (Kulukpene); then again the thalweg of the latter upwards to its intersection with the road from Bulugu to Nayoro (Naijoro); then a straight line drawn from the last-named point of intersection to the point where the road from Jebega (Djebega) to Makumboro crosses a certain stream; then the thalweg of this stream downwards to a distance of 1 kilom. beyond its
intersection with the road from Sokelo to Somayili (Somajili); then a line drawn 1 kilom. to the west of the Sokelo–Somayili (Somajili)–Naiyoboli (Naijoboti)–Yahapa (Fahapa)–Tintaraga–Gimbendi (Gjimbende) road to the point where it intersects the southern boundary of Mamprussi, with the proviso that the villages of Karvason and Narabare fall to Germany, and that the boundary-line in the neighbourhood of these two villages shall in each case be deflected towards the west in the arc of a circle of 1 kilom. radius, drawn from the house of the Chief of each village as centre.

From the last-named point of intersection the boundary runs east along the southern boundary of Mamprussi to a point about half-way between the villages of Tintaraga and Gimbendi (Gjimbende), which point forms the junction of the territories of Dagomba, Chakosi (Tschakossi), and Mamprussi.

At this point a pillar has been erected by the Anglo-German Boundary Commission, and from it the boundary proceeds in straight lines in a northerly direction, as marked in the following manner by the posts erected by that Commission...
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Note.—A favourable account of Togoland from a flying visit by an Australian lady some years ago is given in Mrs. Mary Gaunt’s Alone in West Africa. London, 1911.

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MAPS

Togoland is covered by the War Office map (G.S.G.S. 2306),
on the scale of 1:1,500,000 (1909, with additions to 1918);
also by the War Office map (G.S.G.S. 2434), ‘West Africa,’ on
the scale of 1:6,336,000 (1903, additions 1914, boundaries
corrected 1919); and by sheets 61 and 73 of the Million Map
of Africa (old numbering), G.S.G.S. 1539.

There is an orographical map of Togoland on the scale of
1:2,000,000 in *Kamerun mit Togo,* by Max Moisel and D. Reimer,
published in Berlin in 1913. Two sheets (2 a and 2 b) of the
*Grosser Deutscher Kolonialatlas* cover Togoland on the scale
of 1:500,000; the map is by P. Sprigade and D. Reimer, and
was published in Berlin in 1908. There is also a *Karte von
Togo,* on the scale of 1:200,000, in ten sheets by P. Sprigade,
and published by D. Reimer in Berlin between 1902 and 1907.

The work of the Togo–Dahomey Boundary Commission of
1908–9 is described in the *Bulletin du Comité de l’Afrique
Française* for 1912, pages 413 to 415, and the only maps
showing the boundary as surveyed, which have so far been
published, accompany this description, and are on the scales
of 1:1,000,000, 1:500,000, and 1:250,000.
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