

blifila i kompetencją bibliotekarza. Klasyfikuje wydane woluminy, określa wielkość produkcji wydawniczej, wskazuje na trudności związane z publikacją ksiąg. Zresztą, te same elementy świata książki z okresu staropolskiego możemy zobaczyć także w czasach współczesnych, którym poświęcone zostały kolejne rozdziały, skupione siłą rzeczy na Wydawnictwie Diecezjalnym i Drukarni w Sandomierzu. Jesteśmy bowiem świadkami trudnych początków funkcjonowania tego zakładu; jego rozwoju pod czujnym okiem rektora Wyższego Seminarium Duchownego w Sandomierzu, ks. Adama Szymańskiego; prób upaństwowienia w okresie stalinowskim czy aspektów jego działalności w latach gomułkowskich i gierkowskich. Czasy najnowsze, sięgające jednak korzeniami lat osiemdziesiątych, to zupełnie nowe perspektywy rozwoju, ale i wyzwania, przed którymi stoi sandomierska poligrafia diecezjalna świętująca swoje stulecie. Tekst ks. Piotra Tylca ubogacony został biogramami ludzi zasłużonych dla zakładu. To dzięki nim mógł on funkcjonować nawet w trudnych czasach, by dzisiaj służyć Kościołowi nie tylko w wymiarze lokalnym, ale ogólnokrajowym, a nawet światowym. Przez zastosowanie metody statystycznej, autor w ujęciu tabelarycznym przedstawił szereg aspektów funkcjonowania drukarni. Na skutek zastosowania tego zabiegu mógł pełniej wykorzystać zgromadzony materiał źródłowy. Natomiast niewątpliwa akrybia naukowa jest widoczna w tych partiach opracowania, gdzie tekstów źródłowych było mniej, przez co autor, niekiedy ze strzępów informacji, potrafił wydobyć ważne dane. Wygenerowało to w dużej mierze jednolity tok narracji historycznej, co z pewnością znamionuje kunszt pisarski autora. Mając bowiem świadomość, że recenzowana publikacja będzie nie tylko historią drukarni sandomierskiej, ale też niejako matrycą do kolejnych publikacji traktujących o tego typu informacjach, autor skorzystał nie tylko ze zbiorów bibliotecznych, ale skrzętnie wykorzystał zasoby 13 archiwów państwowych i kościelnych, wspomnienia osób zatrudnionych w opisywanym przedsiębiorstwie oraz bogaty zestaw literatury. Dzięki temu książka ks. Piotra Tylca, traktująca o Wydawnictwie Diecezjalnym i Drukarni w Sandomierzu 1919-2019, jest pierwszym naukowym opracowaniem przedstawiającym dzieje tej zasłużonej dla diecezji instytucji.

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*The Colonization and Decolonization of Africa: The History and Legacy of European Imperialism across the African Continent.* By Charles River Editors. Michigan: Charles River Editors, 2019, pp. 108.

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#### INTRODUCTION

The conventional history of Africa was, until in recent times, written for Africans by the white men, who had vigorously made their way through the continent in an excessively proud and constantly changing stage in Europe's history that was seeming to be boundless with energy and ideas. A conference was held in Berlin in 1884 to deal with Africa's colonization in such a manner as to

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avoid provocation of war. Hence, a tone for some sort of orchestration of competing interests in Africa was set.

#### ABOUT THE AUTHOR(S)

Charles River Editors provides superior editing and original writing services across the digital publishing industry, with the expertise to create digital content for publishers across a vast range of subject matter. In addition to providing original digital content for third party publishers, they also republish civilization's greatest literary works, bringing them to new generations of readers via e-books.

#### ABOUT THE BOOK

*The Colonization and Decolonization of Africa: The History and Legacy of European Imperialism across the African Continent* was written, edited and published by Charles River Editors in the year 2019. It is a historical book that spans from the slave trade, through the colonization scramble for Africa, down to its decolonization and the end of European imperialism, telling the events that followed overtime between both continents.

#### CONTEXT

The Berlin Conference sought to regulate the subdivision of Africa between the principal European powers in a manner that would not cause major war between them. Here and there, territories were being annexed and occupied, and in general, a rather unhealthy mood of competition was incubating over the question of Africa.

In 1874 Welsh American explorer Henry Morton Stanley traveled over towards the continental divide, where his objective was to map the lakes of the Great Rift Valley. In 1877, he emerged at the mouth of the Congo River, completing an expedition of 1,000 days to map the Central Lakes Complex. Stanley made his name as an explorer through his successful search for Dr. David Livingstone. His journey down the Congo River had alerted him to the fact that there lay a region ripe for commercial exploitation of unimaginable wealth of gold and ivory. With a flair for self-aggrandizement, Stanley began immediately to lecture and publish. His mission was simply to urge any and all who would listen to seize the opportunity to claim the Congo and win for themselves not only the prodigious economic prize on offer, but also a great moral opportunity to stamp out the last embers of the East African Slave Trade.

Once the fanfare of Stanley's celebrity had died down somewhat and realizing that he was unlikely to succeed where he most hoped, he settled for the second class option and accepted an invitation to visit King Leopold II at the Royal Palace Laeken. Leopold made him an offer: if Stanley would return to the Congo and begin establishing on Leopold's behalf. The matter was debated, and although deeply troubled by the potential consequences, recognition was eventually afforded to Leopold's claim to the Congo. And so, the Congo Free State came into being.

The power play in Africa could be defined as the Scramble for Africa: The Portuguese pictured a unified belt, stretching from their West African territory of Angola to their east African colony of Mozambique and encompassing a swathe of territory including most of modern-day Malawi, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. At the same time, the Germans held substantive sway over two major territories in Africa, German East and German South West Africa, corresponding broadly with modern-day Namibia and Tanzania. The British, however, were concentrated and very firmly established in the southern sub-continent, holding two major colonies: the Cape and Natal, but the British were also extremely influential on the gold fields of the Transvaal. At some point,

during 1888, the British Government had finally arrived at a decision regarding the nature and extent of British interest in Africa. The French were no less active at eastern and southern Africa, but their sphere of influence tended to be focused on West Africa. Only two territories in Africa were not colonized in the formal sense of the world, and these were Ethiopia (which was occupied briefly by the Italians during World War II) and Liberia.

Throughout much of East Africa, Arabs and Arabized Africans existed, as they had done for centuries, as the main force of trade a trade headquartered and controlled from the island of Zanzibar. The nominal domains of the Sultan of Zanzibar covered almost the entirety of this region and were utilized by agents of the Sultan and other Islamic elements of Swahili/Arabic origin in the trade of slavery and ivory. With the findings of the Berlin Conference published and with a growing interest on the part of the various European powers now difficult to ignore, the Arabs and Swahili began to arm themselves and stood ready to defend their historic trade interests. One of such was a war that broke out on the north of Lake Nyasa between the African Lakes Company and a powerful local cartel of Swahili/Arab slave traders, led by a particularly powerful and ruthless warlord by the name of Mlozi. The East African trade was ancient and bound up in the traditions of Islam and Sharia Law. Its markets were concentrated in the Arabian Peninsula and the Persian Gulf, and it lay in the hands of familial branches of the Sultanate of Oman and the Sultanate of Zanzibar.

The development of plantation colonies, particularly of Central and South America, the Caribbean, and the southern states of the United States, required labor, and Africa offered an unlimited resources. The kings and chiefs of the West African Coast proved amenable to this arrangement. Therefore, European penetration was limited to the coastal regions and the healthier climes to the extreme south: a combination of malaria and native resistance kept Europeans at bay.

Across the game board of Africa, insofar as the game of certifying the annexation rule and presenting treaty by whatever local leadership in the Africa region to be annexed, the Europeans gained control of vast regions of territory. However, this process was complicated by the existence of powerful, centralized monarchies who were not intimidated by threats or seduced by guns or alcohol, nor concerned about soliciting European support to crush some inconvenient neighbors one of such was the case of Mashonaland. People lay under the rule of a most storied military race, the amaNdebele, a blood and ideological relative of the Zulu race, under the control of a powerful monarch by the name of Lobengula. The chief Kraal of Lobengula was KuBulawayo, the site of the modern-day Zimbabwean city of Bulawayo, its literal translation being "the place of slaughter." Lobengula's court however, was under siege by an army of foreign treaty gatherers and concession seekers.

Treaty and concession seekers like Rhodes had decided he would proceed by way of a chartered company. Chartered companies were no new idea. The British East India Company had forged the passage for eventual British rule in India, and of course, the Hudson Bay Company had established the territorial precedent that would in due course become British Canada. More locally, the Royal Niger Company had established the basis of the future Nigeria, and the Royal East Africa Company did likewise for Kenya and Uganda, all under the same basic rules. Those rules were defined by a royal charter, issued by an imperial government and defining the rights and responsibilities of the grantee. A royal charter approved a wide prerogative for the company to occupy, annex, settle, govern and exploit territories, usually as a precursor to formal, imperial rule.

Rhode was in London, lobbying the British parliament to grant his royal charter. Harry Johnston, in exchange, agreed to act on Rhode's behalf to secure the necessary treaties to British South Africa Company control of all territories within the Zambezi River, including the mineral-rich Katanga, then under the control of Leopold's Congo.

Johnston embarked for Mozambique, heading to Nyasaland; The Portuguese in a maneuver had dispatched an armed force up the Zambezi River and in the direction of Lake Nyasa, intending to

plant the Portuguese flag on what they maintained was Portuguese soil there were a few confrontations even with the Arabs. Nyasaland, a long sliver of territory bordering Lake Nyasa, was now reasonably well established as a British territory. In typical style, with his sketchpad and notebook in hand, Johnston made a record of the botany, the landscapes, and languages, as well as the peculiarities of race and appearance, culture, religion, fetish, and morality, which in due course contributed to his astonishingly detailed description of Nyasaland, entitled 'British Central Africa', and later his 'A Comparative Study of Bantu and Semi-Bantu Languages'. Harry also secured the northern boundaries of Northern Rhodesia. He was ready to sail up Lake Tanganyika in the London Missionary Society sail boat to gather treaties in the Rwanda region in the interest of Rhode's Cape to Cairo Vision, but he was brought back by news that the Portuguese had resumed their aggressive approaches and were situated in force at the southern end of Lake Nyasa. Harry hurried south, taking the opportunity to declare the territory a British Protectorate on September 25, 1889, after which any further Portuguese movement in the direction of British Nyasaland would amount to a declaration of war. However, two months later, Colonel de Serpa Pinto of Portugal did indeed make that move, ordering an armed advance into Nyasaland. Sensing his opportunity, British Prime Minister Lord Salisbury responded quickly, and against a patriotic drum-roll from the British public he issued the Portuguese an ultimatum; reinforced by the deployment of the Channel Fleet to the mouth of the Tagus with sealed orders and the dispatch of a Royal Navy Squadron from Zanzibar to Mozambique. In face of such a virile response, Portugal had no choice but to climb down.

The final denouement with the slavers came with a last and conclusive action against the stockade of the Swahili/Arab slave trader Mlozi, which resulted to his eventual surrender, his prompt trial, and hanging. Thus, with that salutary action, the last incidence of organized slavery in any British territory in Africa was brought to an end.

Pierre Savorgnan de Brazza's explorations in central Africa tended to be focused in regions of modern day Gabon and Congo Brazzaville, on the north bank of the Great Congo River: once the practical ramifications of Leopold's scheming became clear, it was he who urged most forcefully a French intervention along the north bank to block the potential for Leopold extending his influence. This resulted in the establishment of the colony of French Congo, to which in 1883 he was appointed governor, but was removed in 1897 because of his leniency in an age of exploitation. It was his planting of the French flag in the equatorial region that led to the founding of the French territorial bloc later named French Equatorial Africa. This comprised four territories, today recognizable as Congo Brazzaville, Gabon, Central African Republic, and Chad. The French sub-Sahara Africa also included the French West Africa, comprising the territories of Senegal, Guinea, Cote d'Ivoire, French Sudan (later Mali), Mauritania, Niger, Upper Volta (later Burkina Faso), and Benin. The two vast federated blocks were each governed from Paris through two Governors General one based in Dakar and another in Brazzaville, with deputies or Lieutenants Governor,, located in each territorial capital.

In the West African region, however, the Germans acquired only two territories: German Kamerun, now Cameroon, and German Togoland, now comprising of Togo and parts of eastern Ghana. The British were a major player in West Africa, as elsewhere, with principal British West African territories being Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone, and the Gambia.

The Spanish waded into the whole business of African partition with a handful of colonial acquisitions on the mainland, namely Spanish North Africa, a partial annexation of Morocco, a legacy of which is the modern territorial enclave of Ceuta. Further south, the Spanish claimed Spanish West Africa, which was nominally attached to Morocco and which transitioned them from Spanish Sahara to what is now Western Sahara. In the Gulf of Guinea, the Spanish held Spanish Guinea, now Equatorial Guinea, along with its associated islands.

Even the Russians entered the race by annexing the Bay of Sagallou in modern day Djibouti in 1889. The only African territory that the Italians acquired during the era of European imperial-

ism was Eritrea, and it was only nominally held. It was only later, under Benito Mussolini, that Italian possession expanded in the Horn of Africa to include Ethiopia and Somalia.

Centuries before any other European power showed any interest in Africa, the Portuguese were active in trade and exploration. The two major Portuguese speaking regions of Africa today are Mozambique and Angola, both founded during this period and both with some of the oldest European settlements anywhere south of the Sahara. The Portuguese also held several smaller territories based on historic claims that could not be disputed, but as it transpired, all that remained were the islands of Cape Verde, Sao Tome and Principe, Portuguese Guinea (now Guinea Bissau), and a handful of minor and short-lived enclaves.

At about the turn of 19<sup>th</sup> century, a movement gathered momentum in the United States to repatriate free-born and freed blacks to Africa, in part to protect them from discrimination in the form of political disenfranchisement and the denial of civil, religious, and social privileges, and in part to remove them from the southern states. By 1867, the American Colonization Society and various state chapters had assisted in the migration of more than 13,000 blacks to Liberia.

Britain was reeling under German attacks, and pleas by Churchill for the United States to enter the war were met by a series of conditions that served to define the terms of the New World Order. One such was the Atlantic Charter, a cornerstone of the United States' view of a challenging world. The Atlantic Charter defined Allied post-war objectives, among which were the principles of self-determination, sovereignty, and independence. The British had no choice but to comply with this. The British no longer led the world, and the United States was in favor of Indian independence.

During the World War II, Africans were recruited in significant numbers for local and overseas services, and the effect of this on the general psyche was huge. Many Africans who served overseas served in Southeast Asia against the Japanese. These men were garrisoned in India or Ceylon. Throughout this period, therefore, they were exposed to Indian troops and to the wider India population, and the excitement of pending independence in India at that time was tangible. When eventually they were demobilized and sent home, a generation of black servicemen was to discover to its disappointment that a generation of nominally educated blacks were now encouraging its sons and daughters to climb even higher, and they were to walk into the arms of a small elite of young and highly educated blacks. This inevitably laid the foundation of a discontented and politically alert generation.

The Algerian Crisis erupted in 1958, and it was this signature event that brought the issue of decolonization in Africa to the very forefront of the French political debate. The French Algerian Crisis was a complex and multi-faceted emergency that played out on the French doorstep and affected a territory that the French felt a strong fraternal bond with.

Like Houphouet-Boigny/Senghor elite, Barthelémy Boganda was among men to be watched among the crop of emerging African Francophone Boganda boarded an aircraft in March 29, 1959, from the town of Berberati to Bangui, but he never arrived. His aircraft exploded in mid-air, killing him and everyone else on board. Sabotage was widely suspected, but never proven, although the Paris Weekly Express published a report that traces of explosives were found in the wreckage. Whatever the case, the potential for a stable and progressive African nation died with him. Power was wrestled by an ambitious young school teacher by the name of David Dacko, who established the type of paranoid, kleptocratic police-state that was becoming an all too familiar feature of post-colonial Africa. On New Year Eve of 1965, however, President David Dacko's regime fell to a coup, and Colonel Jean Bedel Bokossa assumed power after the usual purges, reshuffles, and covert killings. With time, as an increasingly unstable and violent presidency passed, he began to incubate a certain grandiosity. In 1972, he established himself as president for life, adopting the military rank of Marshal as a reward for supreme service to the state. On December 4, 1976, at a congress of the country's single party, it was announced by the president

that henceforth the Central African Republic would be known as the Central African Empire and that his coronation as emperor would take place in a year from that date, the date, incidentally, upon which Napoleon had himself been crowned (Bokassa had long nurtured an admiration for Napoleon Bonaparte). With neither consultation nor dialogue, the constitution of the republic was altered to accommodate this change of status. In the end the gathering lunacy of his regime forced the French to act and in a military operation codenamed Barracuda, Bokassa was toppled and David Dacko returned to power.

To conclude the brief examination of French decolonization, a word is necessary on the various military cooperation agreements that formed the basis of ongoing French cooperation in Africa. The frame work of French military involvement in Africa consists of generally two kinds of military agreements entered into with the emerging nations of Francophone Africa: defense agreements that made available to African states the opportunity to call upon France for direct military support, and military cooperation agreements, under the terms of which France undertook to provide African states with technical advisers, to absorb African students into French military schools, and to transfer military materials to equip and supply the various *Armee Nationales*. On the whole, these agreements were carefully crafted to retain both French influence and its freedom of action.

On June 30, 1960, at the Palais de la Nation in the Congolese capital of Leopoldville, a ceremonial handover of power took place. Present were the Belgian King Baudouin, the last European Sovereign of Congo, and the new Prime Minister elect, Patrice Lumumba. The official handover speech was read by King Baudouin, as he hailed the new era as a vindication of the Belgian civilizing mission in Congo, begun in an earlier century by the king's infamous great uncle, King Leopold II. From the black members of the crowd, a murmur of dismay was heard, and in an unscheduled response, Lumumba delivered a short speech bitterly denouncing colonization in all of its forms.

The Gold Coast independence was the starting pistol for the independence movement in the rest of British Africa. British West African territories left the fold soon afterward with only Nigeria plunging almost immediately into a vicious separatist war that came to be known as the Biafra War and which was fought between 1967 and 1970.

On December 31, 1963, after 10 years of existence, the controversial Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was dissolved. On July 6, 1964, Nyasaland was granted independence from the British crown, making the birth of the nation-state of Malawi. Three months later, Northern Rhodesia followed suit, entering the world stage as the Republic of Zambia, led by the affable and charismatic Kenneth Kaunda. Portuguese resistance in Africa collapsed overnight, and negotiations with all liberation movements commenced. Mozambique was granted independence on June 25, 1975, and Angola was given independence on November 11 of the same year. Both nations plunged almost immediately into civil war as the Portuguese largely evacuated. On April 18, 1980, popular elections were held, the Union Jack was lowered and the flag of Zimbabwe was raised in its place. Prime Minister Elect Robert Mugabe took the oath of office, and Zimbabwe was born.

#### THESIS OF THE BOOK

The Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 galvanized a phenomenon that came to be known as the scramble for Africa. The conference established three noteworthy rules for European seizure of Africa. The author(s) identified them to be firstly no recognition of annexation would be granted without evidence of a practical occupation, secondly that a practical occupation would be deemed unlawful without a formal appeal for protection made on behalf of a territory by its leader, a plea that must be committed to paper in the form of a legal treaty and ascribed with the seal, mark, or

signature of the king. The third rule required that in the event of a European war, the territories, protectorates, and colonies acquired under the term of the Conference's General Act would remain neutral.

The author(s) affirmed that to penetrate the African interior its leadership was wooed with guns, trinkets and alcohol. And further opined that the ease with which this was achieved was due to the fact that, at that point, traditional African leadership was disunited, and the people had just staggered back from centuries of concussion inflicted by the slave trade.

As indicated by Charles River Editors, Henry Morton Stanley was hailed as the greatest explorer of the age. One of the success of his expedition was identifying the Congo River to be ripe for gold and ivory exploitation, which had made so many people fortunes already.

The author(s) opined that Belgium was a small European nation, existing between major and, at time, belligerent powers, and as such, it quickly went about its business with determination not to rock the European boat. Also stating that Congo Free State, being a private fiefdom of Leopold II of Belgium, was arguably one of the most cynical and exploitative colonial regimes across the European spectrum.

The entire slave trade had been outlawed under international treaty in 1873, but it continued to thrive throughout east and central Africa as an illegal trade, eventually overlapping the continental divide and spilling into the expenses of the Congo Basin. Charles River Editors opined it was this, incidentally, that formed the basis of Leopold's philanthropic sham in establishing the Congo Free State.

The Portuguese, however, although a great maritime nation and voracious traders, proved ultimately to be weak colonial power, and as the 19<sup>th</sup> century dawned and as other European powers began to show an interest in the continent, the Portuguese were slow to stake their claims over regions that they had roamed for centuries and long regarded as their own by virtue of prior claim. The author(s) further claimed Portugal, notwithstanding its long legacy in Africa, was regarded as the poor man of Europe and not taken particularly seriously. If Portugal had been able to robustly defend these historic claims, then arguably she would have laid claim to the lion's share of West Africa.

The Spanish, however, were never major players, and somewhat like the Portuguese. The author(s) disclosed that they were over-shadowed by the French and the British and to a degree by the Germans.

It is tempting to wonder why Charles Helm lied to grant a wide prerogative to the concession holder to enter and undertake mining and commercial activities in all Lobengula's territories (which was an open invitation for colonization), bearing in mind that he was among Lobengula's most trusted confidantes, and by all accounts, the two were authentic friends. Charles River Editors suggested the answer lies in Helm's paramount loyalty to God and the British Empire besides the amaNdebele implanted a reign of terror on all surrounding people, and within the kingdom, the orthodoxy of life and loyalty to the crown was achieved by the regime of profound brutality. So, if Helm could be instrumental in destroying the regime and replacing it with a system of British rule, British law, and British protection, the land would be a better place for it; and if the sacrifice to achieve this was merely the outrage of a cruel and anachronistic monarch, then that was small price to pay.

According to the author(s), the only European nation to acquire a territorial assemblage in Africa comparable to the British were the French, and although the French played no part in southern Africa, unless the French Indian Ocean islands can be regarded as southern Africa, they were a major player in West Africa and North Africa.

Egypt existed under nominal and varying degrees of British protection from 1822 until 1956. The author(s) argued that this was not a chapter of African history but European history. As explained by the author, the British maintained the fiction that their engagement was informal

and diplomatic, but even though direct British rule was always questionable, the British held a firm grasp over the territory through two world wars, and arguably, if it had fallen to the Axis powers on either occasion, the outcomes might have been very different.

Charles River Editors opined that the end of World War II was notable first for the end that it heralded of the great empires of Europe, but secondly, it created the conditions for a global cold war. World War I had brought down the German, Austro-Hungarian, Russian, Ottoman empires, and World War II effectively marked the beginning of the end of the British and French empires. The way the author(s) viewed it, British and French decolonization would not be immediate, of course, but notice had been served, and it was now simply a matter of time.

The author(s) recalled that the bulk of post-war British and European emigration was directed to Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, and indeed the immediate post-war period saw a massive spike in colonial populations all over the world. Many of these, however, were also attracted to the African colonies (South Africa, Rhodesia, Nyasaland, and of course, Kenya) and much of that attraction lay in the generous land grants made available to those willing to take up agriculture.

Charles River Editors suggested that the importance of foreign, ideological support for the African liberation movement can perhaps best be illustrated by events in Kenya. There were typically two types of British colonies: those which hosted large and settled European populations and those which did not. Perhaps, an example of those that did not might be Nigeria and/or Sierra Leone which were/was annexed usually for strategic or commercial reasons only. Those that did, an example Kenya, attracted large settler populations, and usually transitioned from protectorates to colonies. The author(s) opined that in the case of Nigeria, oil companies utilized expatriate staff, but there were never settlers in the true sense and were usually only in the country on limited contracts.

According to the author(s), the killing of Boganda through aircraft explosion was widely held that a conspiracy of local French business men and the French secret service had orchestrated an assassination.

The author(s) recalled that Bokassa acquired a string of valuable properties in Europe, among which were four chateaux in France, a 50-room Paris mansion, houses in Nice and Toulouse, and a villa in Berne. At home, he ordered an enormous "ancestral home" to be constructed outside the hamlet of Berengo, 50 miles from Bangui.

The author(s) reiterated that between 1960 and 1961, 12 African states signed defense agreements on various levels with France – the Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Gabon, Senegal, Madagascar, Cote d'Ivoire, Dahomey (Benin), Niger, Mauritania, Togo, and Cameroon. Certain bilateral agreements were reached with Mali, but it was not until 1977 that a watered-down military cooperation agreement was signed between the two countries. Upper Volta (Burkina Faso) demanded the dismantling upon independence of French bases and refused any agreements, conceding only to flight, staging, and transit permissions. Only Guinea among the ex-colonial territories of the region signed no military assistance or cooperation agreements at all.

#### ANALYSIS OF THE BOOK

The European exploration and activities in Africa was beneficial to Europe, starting with slave trade then colonial occupation. Charles River Editors quoted King Leopold II of Belgium, "I do not want to miss a good chance of getting us a slice of this magnificent African cake." After an explorer by the name Henry Morton Stanley emerged from the mouth of the Congo River, proclaiming to the world that here (in the Congo) lay the next great El Dorado, and Leopold realized it was his opportunity. The author(s) wrote, "The Congo River, for all its mythical isolation, was in fact easily navigable for most of its length, and it offered therefore the opportunity to any stout-hearted nation to exploit an almost unimaginable wealth of gold and ivory; the staples



of African trade that had made so many fortunes already.” Also, in 1884, Prince Ottovon Bismark, the German Chancellor brought the plenipotentiaries of all major powers of Europe together to deal with Africa’s colonization in order to avoid provocation of war.

“The Berlin Conference of 1884-85, a dry and rather formal affair, was nonetheless one of the most important and far-reaching gatherings of international power to take place at any time during the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and one that would deeply impact the course of European and African history up to present day.” (Charles River Edition, 2019, p. 7).

Charles River Editors analyzed the general European mood to be conservative as to why they declined Stanley’s importuning as he toured through the capital of Europe. Britain in particular, under the leadership of Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, there was a notable disinterest in assuming any additional fiscal responsibility in Africa; but in one very minor European capital, however, Stanley’s exhortations were being taken very seriously. King Leopold II, titular monarch of Belgium, was taking very careful note, and through emissaries and intermediaries, he was subtly pursuing Stanley.

Early European interest in Africa seldom progressed beyond the prosecution of the Slave Trade. This *modus vivendi* of trade endured in comfortable equilibrium until the dawn of the Age of Enlightenment. According to Charles River Editors, “Then came question of humanity, of individual rights, and of the common brotherhood of man. From this arose the abolition movement, slow to start, but having gained momentum by the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the institution of slavery had become so deeply discredited that its abolition was only a matter of time.” (2019, p. 15).

As narrated by the author(s), in 1833, the British parliament passed a bill outlawing the trade in slaves throughout the British Empire, followed eight years later by an absolute ban. The British now claimed moral leadership of the civilized world, and soon the principal British interest in Africa shifted from the prosecution of the slave trade to the its abolition.

Crediting the British moral leadership of the civilized world, it was the opinion of Rhodes and many others like him that the fairest fate for any subject peoples would be to fall subject not to the German Empire, nor the French, and not the Portuguese, but to Pax Britannica. Rhodes defined the British view of imperialism as “philanthropic plus five percent,” implying by this that the principal objective of imperialism was to improve the world.

Charles River Editors (2019) “The presence of British personnel, in the form of missionaries and traders, placed a responsibility on the shoulders of the British government to establish some sort of an official presence in any particular region, and this it did first by the appointment of British consuls. This was the case for Nyasaland [...] they uniformly echoed one another in calling on the British government to establish a more robust presence in the region, first and foremost to stamp out the slave trade.”

“The French, of course, were extremely influential in North Africa too, and notwithstanding Napoleon’s foray into Egypt, which was not an episode of the Scramble for Africa, the French laid claim to most of the Southern Mediterranean, principally Algeria, which was treated as a province of France, as well as protectorates over the territories of Tunisia and French Morocco. Algeria would prove to a bitter thorn in the French side as the Age of Imperialism matured, and so entrenched did the French become there that a war of peculiar ferocity was fought between 1954 and 1962 to defend French sovereignty against a liberation movement. It was this war that set in motion French decolonization and which brought down the French Fourth Republic.” (Charles River Editors, 2019, p. 41).

The KAU (Kenya African Union), in 1944, was a fully formed political party, and its first president was Jomo Kenyatta, who stands out as the seminal nationalist voice of the Kenyan nationalism and of the age. Charles River Editors quoted his famous remark, “When the missionaries arrived, the Africans had the land and the missionaries had the bible. They taught how to pray with our eyes closed. When we opened them, they had the land and we had the bible.”

A poet, politician, and cultural theorist, Senghor typified the ideal of the black African elite that the French saw as the first generation of indigenous leaders in a post-imperial world. Senghor was the first African to be elected as a member of the French Academy, was an alumni of the Sorbonne University and the University of Paris, and according to the author(s), Senghor was arguably one of the most important African intellectuals of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. And quoting Senghor, “The Europe that must be created does not stop in Marseilles or Sicily, it is in reality two continents which are complimentary, that is Europe and Africa, in reality it is a political, economic and cultural Eurafrikan community which must be formed.”

“It was a common failure of most colonial governments, across the European spectrum, to create glass ceilings above which indigenous people could not rise. A black African soldier could aspire to no rank higher than a senior NCO, a black policeman would rise no higher than a constable, and a black civil servant could never hope to enter the execution.” (Charles River Editors, 2019, p. 21).

Charles River Editors (2019) “Thus even as they were handing Congo its independence, the Belgians had no choice but to retain white officers in command of the Congolese Force Publique. There simply was no other alternative, but a month after independence, the Force Publique mutinied against its white officers. This triggered the Congo Crisis of 1960, the first full blown African security crisis.

#### CONCLUSION

The book examines the turbulent history of imperialism across Africa and the consequences it has had, along with pictures of important people, places and events. The book also seems to reveal the author(s) disagreement to colonization, what some think has brought civilization to Africa. The content of the book truly depicts its title. Touching the events that have occurred all over Africa, the author(s) have unearthed the tussle for Africa in a truly historic pattern.

#### RECOMMENDATION

Reading the book, you will learn about the scramble for Africa like never before. This book is recommended to all students of history, especially African and European students, and all who wishes to know what life was like in Africa before and after its colonization by the Europeans (Even telling the contributions of the African people during the World War).

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