

WARFARE IN THE AGE OF EMPIRES

Science played a major part in warfare through the 1800s, and inventions and developments in peacetime products became adapted to military use. By mid-century Henry Bessemer had developed a process to cheaply make stronger steel, and this translated into heavier artillery and stronger armor plate for ships. Also developed later in the century were different types of alloy steel, with varying degrees of hardness and malleability, which could be applied to a variety of products (and weapons). Experiments with electricity brought the invention of the telegraph, which revolutionized communications and made military response time correspondingly rapid. Orders transmitted in seconds by wire instead of hours or days hand-carried by messengers changed armies' abilities to act and react, and coupled with the invention and expansion of the railroad, travel by armies was reduced from days to hours. Advances in chemistry made for better gunpowder and more powerful explosives. As was often the case, however, military tactics lagged behind weapon improvements.

Since the widespread adoption of firearms armies had gone into battle in line formation, presenting as many soldiers as possible to an enemy in order to maximize firepower over the short range of the musket. The invention of the rifled musket increased range and accuracy, but its slow loading time made it a specialty weapon rather than available for standard use. That changed with the development of the percussion cap to replace the flintlock and the bullet to replace the ball. In 1814 Joshua Shaw of Philadelphia, building on earlier work done by Scotsman Alexander Forsyth, developed the copper percussion cap, whereby the force of the hammer (as opposed to the flint) crushed the fulminate of mercury to create a spark which set off the gunpowder in the barrel. This kept the soldier from having to prime the pan which the flint struck with gunpowder, saving loading time and making the process more weatherproof. In 1832 British Captain John Norton came up with the cylindrical-conoidal bullet. Instead of the spherical ball which had to be forced down the barrel of a rifled musket, this bullet had a hollow base that caught the expanding gas created by the gunpowder ignition and forced the edge of the soft lead bullet to expand and seal against the bore, catching the spiral rifling and imparting spin. Since the bullet was pointed on the other end, it was more aerodynamic and created less wind resistance. Increased compression meant increased velocity which meant increased range, while the spinning cone-shaped bullet was more accurate. It was no longer "Don't fire 'til you see the whites of their eyes" but now an enemy soldier could be hit at a range of several hundred yards. The new rifles were first used in serious numbers during the Crimean War (1854–56) and by the time of the American War Between the States it was the standard weapon.

Unfortunately, soldiers were still committed to battle in long lines, thus making themselves targets for a much longer period before closing with the enemy. The result was hundreds of thousands of dead, either instantly from the bullet or from the terrible wounds inflicted by the soft lead of the bullet. As the war progressed this hard lesson was learned, and defensive positions began to enjoy a resurgence; by war's end in the siege of Petersburg both sides were dug into trenches that gave a preview of France in World War I.

Another new gunpowder weapon made its appearance thanks to the percussion cap, the repeating pistol. No longer a single shot flintlock weapon, Samuel Colt of Massachusetts developed the rotating cylinder which held multiple bullets fired by a percussion cap on each cylinder. First used by the Texas Rangers, they proved their worth in fighting against the Comanche and Apache tribes of the southern Great Plains and was in common use (especially by cavalry) by the American Civil War. The concept of a cylinder-based repeating pistol was the basis of a similar weapon for long-range rifle barrels, the Gatling gun. Rotating rifle barrels produced rapid fire over long ranges. It became less feasible with the next major development, breech-loading instead of muzzle-loading weapons.

The invention of brass cartridges, which held both powder and bullet in a single unit, and the placement of the percussion cap in the base of the cartridge, brought about the development of breech-loaders. The cartridge could be placed in the rear of the barrel and the hammer with a firing pin would strike the percussion cap and fire the bullet. This made reloading much faster and easier and the user did not have to be standing to reload, thus making himself less of a target. First used in the Civil War, it became widespread internationally very quickly. By 1870 both the French and Germans had their variations on the weapon for use in the Franco-Prussian War. By the end of the century all modern armies had adopted the bolt-action rifle developed by the German manufacturer Mauser. The cartridges were placed in a light metal case with a spring in the bottom inserted into a hole in the bottom of the rifle. The spring would push the cartridge up into a receiver, where a metal cylinder (the bolt) opened and closed by the rifleman would push the cartridge into the barrel for firing. Opening the bolt would grab the spent cartridge and fling it away and closing the bolt would load the next cartridge. Loading and firing became very rapid indeed.

1859 saw the appearance of the next generation of artillery, which adopted rifling. First used by the French in 1859, the increased range and accuracy quickly brought about a shift in design and manufacturing across Europe. The Germans were quick to build their own and the Krupp Iron Works manufactured them in such numbers and quality that they quickly outclassed the French by the time of their 1870 conflict. Artillery as well became breech-loaded, also increasing rate of fire. In the mid-1880s came the development of smokeless gunpowder, which not only hid the location of the soldier with the rifle but also was somewhat slower burning, which allowed artillery barrels to be lengthened (creating greater accuracy) and less bulky (creating lighter and more mobile artillery).

The second half of the century saw the invention of the machine gun. The multi-barreled weapon invented by Richard Gatling of the United States not only used the new cartridges but also a magazine, a container holding lots of cartridges which were fed into the barrel and then ejected once fired. It was extremely large and fired by a gunner turning a hand-crank. It was used sparingly in the wars against the Plains Indians and also in the 1898 Spanish-American War, but by then it was outclassed by the machine gun. The rapid rate of fire through a single barrel was developed by Hiram Maxim. His gun was fed by a canvas belt with pockets holding 250 cartridges. When the first bullet was fired, the force of the recoil would throw back the bolt, eject the spent cartridge, advance the canvas belt, and push the next bullet into the barrel. This concept was followed in 1895 by John Browning, who took advantage of the expanding gasses within the barrel as it was fired which were siphoned into a mechanism that would open the breech, eject the cartridge, and feed the next one. The first major use of machine guns was in 1905 when the Japanese used them with great effectiveness against the Russians in Manchuria.

While all of this weaponry was making warfare more deadly in Europe, it certainly had even greater effect on populations around the world which were the targets of European colonization. Superior firepower on the part of the British had been instrumental in their victory over China in the Opium Wars which led to the establishment of Hong Kong in the early 1840s. Africa was the primary target of European expansionism, however, in the latter 1800s, and the use of native weaponry against gunpowder weapons proved repeatedly futile. Rarely the firepower could be overcome by sheer weight of numbers, as in the Zulu victory over the British at Isadhlwana in South Africa. Adoption of the new weaponry could have some success, as with the Plains Indians in the American West, but ultimately the colonial powers had just too many guns for the indigenous peoples of Asia, Africa, the Americas, or the Pacific to avoid subjugation.

AFGHANISTAN, BRITISH INVASIONS OF

The British army and the forces of the British East India Company were regularly successful in India, but they found the inhabitants of Afghanistan more difficult to defeat. Even when the British and Indian forces won clear victories in the field, the political victories were nebulous. The British interfered in Afghan affairs twice in the nineteenth century, and lived to regret both experiences.

The First Afghan War

The mountainous country of Afghanistan had little that the British wanted or needed, but they continually worried that another country would gain influence there and be in a position to attack India. The amir of Afghanistan in the 1830s was Dost Muhammed, who was quite surprised when the British took his courtesy seriously. In a diplomatic letter to Lord Auckland, governor-general of India, he ended by saying, "Consider me and my country as yours." This formal phrase meant nothing more than "I am very truly yours" at the end of a Western letter. Still, it seemed an invitation too good to resist. When a British spy in Afghanistan stumbled into a Russian-led Persian army invading the country, he undisguised himself and offered his services (successfully) to the Afghan army. Rather than bring about closer ties, it led to a British expedition into Afghanistan. If Dost Muhammed could not successfully repel outside incursions, then Britain needed to assist him whether he liked it or not. In fact, it seemed a good idea to bring along a replacement amir more amenable to British intentions: Shah Shuja, who happened to be very unpopular with the Afghan population.

In retrospect, it seems ludicrous that the British would believe the Afghans would welcome another power deposing their leader with a despised lackey for the doubtful purpose of saving them from the Russians or the Persians (neither of whom had proven their ability to invade successfully), and imposing on them this new leader whose troops practiced the Sikh religion, hated in Afghanistan. The British Army of the Indus, formed in late 1838, entered Afghanistan early

the next year. The British officers traveled in style through the forbidding country, harassed constantly by small Afghan bands, but met with no resistance they could not overcome. The capture of the fort at Ghazni in July was a major obstacle, but the British marched into the capital city of Kabul in August. Shah Shuja was installed as amir before a sullen populace.

The British attacked pockets of resistance in the area for the next few months. The exiled Dost Muhammed threw himself on the mercy of the khan of Bokhara; for his trouble, he ended up in jail. He was imprisoned with other foreigners as well, including a few British and Russian citizens, so the British decided they needed to deal with the khan and capture Dost Muhammed before the Russians did. Both Russian and British envoys were dismissed, imprisoned, or executed, but the khan received no retribution; when he allowed Dost Muhammed to escape, the political justification for invasion was gone. Besides, trouble in Afghanistan diverted British attention.

The British envoy in Kabul, Sir William Macnaghten, decided to stop tribute payments to hostile tribes who had traditionally controlled the passes into India. Those tribes immediately began to close off British lines of communication, an act which coincided with an uprising in Kabul in 1841. The British and Indian forces quickly found themselves besieged in Kabul, Ghazni, and Kandahar. The Afghans were better armed than the British, and were better marksmen as well; their sniping into the fort at Kabul was deadly. An attempt at negotiation ended in Macnaghten's murder. In early January 1843, the British decided, unwisely, to abandon Kabul for the long march back to India. Some 14,500 men, women, and children (4,500 of them British and Indian) left the city and headed toward the British fort at Jelalabad 60 miles east of Kabul. A week later, a lone horseman staggered into Jelalabad—the sole British survivor of an Afghan attack. A few Indian soldiers and captured wives and children were recovered later.

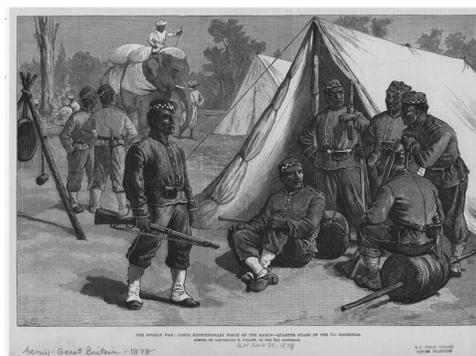
Jelalabad was surrounded before the defenders could obey orders to withdraw to India. Building and rebuilding walls around the city, they held the Afghans at bay. In April, an attack from the fort drove the Afghans away, and the defend-

ers captured the hastily abandoned enemy camp. A British-Indian force stormed the Khyber Pass, a feat never before accomplished by any army in history, and relieved Jelalabad on 16 April. By September, the defenders of Jelalabad were in Kabul. They freed British prisoners, burned down the Great Bazaar, then marched home. Honor was satisfied, but the original intent of the British government was not accomplished. The First Afghan War was a bitter pill for the British.

The Second Afghan War

The second time the British tried to establish residence in Kabul was in 1879, long enough after the first debacle for the British to have forgotten its lessons. They demanded that the Afghans allow a British diplomatic mission into their capital, as the Afghans had just welcomed one from Russia. The amir was Sher Ali, one of the seven sons of Dost Muhammed, who retook power when the British left in 1842. Sher Ali had as little desire to allow the British into his country as his father had, because he feared that any political concession to Britain was the first step toward annexation. Knowing their demand would fall on deaf ears, the British had an invasion force ready to go: 45,000 men divided into three columns. The major fighting took place in the valley of the Kurram River, which crosses the border 65 miles southeast of Kabul. The smallest column, 6,500 men under General Roberts, fought brilliantly against superior forces in narrow defiles. Wise maneuvering and brave fighting took the British to Kabul. Sher Ali fled for Russia and died on the way, leaving his son Yakub Khan in power. Yakub Khan negotiated the Treaty of Gandemuk in May 1879, in which the British gained everything they wanted: an envoy in Kabul, territorial cessions, freedom of trade for British/Indian merchants, a telegraph line from Kabul to India, and total control over Afghanistan's foreign policy.

It was, as often happens, too good to be true. A British force remained in Kabul, but it was merely a personal guard of some 100 men for the envoy, Major Pierre Louis Napoleon Cavagnari; most of the British forces went home to India. The unpopularity of the treaty and of Yakub Khan for signing it fed local animosity. A mutiny



“Kabul expeditionary force on the march: Quarter Guard of the 3rd Goorkhas. Sketch by Lieutenant C. Pulley, of the 3rd Goorkhas. Nov 30, 1878.” An image depicting the fight for Kabul during the Second Afghan War.

in the Afghan army resulting from a demand for back pay led to an attack on the British residency, where the soldiers were sure money could be found. After an all-day battle, the Afghans wiped out the British force in Kabul, losing only 600 men. Roberts, a national hero for his exploits earlier in the war, was ordered to avenge the slaughter, marking the beginning of the second half of the war, sometimes regarded as the Third Afghan War. As Roberts's force moved northwestward up the Karrum Valley, Yakub Khan went there to plead his innocence in Cavagnari's death and hopefully slow down the British advance. Roberts had little time for him, and continued marching his force of 6,600 men toward Kabul. Twelve miles short of the city, the British met their first serious resistance. A sharp engagement on 6 October 1879 at the bridge at Charasia resulted in a British victory and control of Kabul. Roberts followed his orders to find and publicly execute Cavagnari's killers; with this completed and the British installed in Kabul, it seemed a quick end to rebellion.

Roberts bivouacked his men in a well-fortified camp, but did not occupy the major Afghan fortress overlooking Kabul. In the countryside, religious leaders stirred up the tribesmen against the British, and once again lines of communication were harassed or cut. By the end of 1879, several Afghan forces began moving on Kabul, and Roberts's force was besieged on 14 December. He was well supplied and his troops well disciplined,

so they held the much larger Afghan army at bay. The siege was short. Failing to overcome British defenses during a major assault on the night of 22 December, the Afghan troops left the city. Still, Roberts was not safe. A British-Indian force under Sir Donald Stewart marched northward from the fort at Kandahar, some 300 miles southwest, to relieve Roberts. Stewart's army of 14,000 secured the British hold on the city when they arrived in May 1880, but word soon arrived that Kandahar was under siege and a British force at Maiwand in southern Afghanistan had been badly beaten. Stewart, the ranking officer in Kabul, sent Roberts to relieve Kandahar. This march was followed closely by the British public and further secured Roberts's reputation. He left Kabul on 9 August with 10,000 men. As he approached Kandahar on 25 August, he received word from the garrison that the besieging forces had left to attack his column. Kandahar was relieved on 31 August, and Roberts's men dealt a severe defeat to the Afghan army the next day. Now seemed like a good time to go home.

The British left Afghanistan, the terms of the treaty now forgotten. They had no representative in Kabul, and did not direct Afghanistan's foreign affairs. The Second Afghan War, like the first, was of no value to the British Empire. Britain continued to fear Russian incursions into the country as late as World War I, but without reason. The Afghans proved too tough a nut for the British to crack; victory on the battlefield did not translate into political victory, and the Afghans remained fiercely independent. In the 1970s, they educated the Russians with the same lessons they had taught the British in 1842 and 1880.

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AFRICA, FRENCH OCCUPATIONS IN

After losing its claims in India in the late 1700s, France turned toward Africa and the Far East for colonies. French success in Africa was mixed; along the Mediterranean coast, France gained territory almost by accident, while deeper in the

interior, the expansion was gradual and driven mainly by the men on the spot.

Equatorial Africa

France had held trading posts on the far western African coast at Senegal since the late 1700s, and from there the French looked inland. Through the first half of the nineteenth century, European outposts on the west coast had been involved mainly in suppressing the slave trade, but the growing commercial relations with local tribes created European rivalry by the 1860s. In order to gain the dominant share of nuts, palm oil, and other local products, France and Britain began making treaties with as many local chieftains as possible. Between 1854 and 1864, the French carried out a war against the Tukulors, and that fighting took them toward the Niger River. They spent the next 25 years solidifying their hold on the upper Niger area, then fought three wars against the Mandingo of the Ivory Coast, finally claiming that area by 1898. Meanwhile, forces from the French possessions along the Congo River joined with troops invading from Algeria to capture Chad. France was now predominant in the Sahara, and aimed toward a possible transcontinental link reaching from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean, where France had a colony at Somaliland. French troops reached Fashoda on the upper Nile in 1898, but faced a much larger British force recently arrived from Egypt. After a tense period, the French government ordered a withdrawal, and the British kept alive their own dream of a transcontinental Cape-to-Cairo land link.

Madagascar

During the initial rush in the 1600s for Far East markets, France established a temporary settlement at Fort Dauphin on Madagascar, off Africa's eastern coast. It failed to maintain itself, and for a time France settled for posts on the smaller islands of He de France (Mauritius) and Bourbon. By the 1800s, France had secured treaty rights for protection of French nationals on Madagascar, but the dominant Hova government leaned more toward British than French interests. In

1883, French warships bombarded the towns of Majunga and Tamatave and landed troops, forcing the acceptance of a French protectorate. The locals resisted the French presence, sometimes under the direction of British officers. The resistance provoked another bombardment of Tamatave in 1894, followed by an invasion the following year. French General Jacques Duchesne landed 15,000 men on the island and began a methodical invasion against violent resistance. By 1896 the island was declared a French colony. A military government deposed the queen and continued to fight the revolts, finally suppressing the locals by 1905.

French colonization was undertaken more for European prestige than for profit or raw materials. Almost none of the colonies made money, and most cost unreasonable amounts to acquire. After the suppression of piracy on the Mediterranean coast, France had no real interests there, and the acquisition of the Saharan colonies gained land but little else. By World War II, French possessions across the upper part of the continent included Mauritania, Senegal, Dahomey, the Ivory Coast, Guinea, French Guinea, French Sudan, Upper Volta, and Niger. Chad, Gabon, and the Middle Congo made up France's equatorial colonies, and the mandates acquired after the Versailles Treaty gave it Togoland and Cameroon. For much of the nineteenth century, France exercised the traditional mercantilist view of colonies—that they should exist for the benefit of the mother country. Exclusive import and export rights were maintained not only to profit the French, but also to keep out other European countries. The population of the colonies remained subject to French rule, with little chance of gaining French citizenship and legal rights. Only Algeria came to be regarded as a department in the French governmental system. Local French administrators attempted to apply French political philosophies, but found the native populations so hostile to their presence that the governors resorted to whatever measures were necessary to maintain order. Only after World War II did France begin to let its colonies go. In 1960, almost all French colonies in Africa became sovereign states, though most maintained some ties

with France. Only French Somaliland remained an overseas territory.

North Africa

France first acquired land in Algeria in the north and moved east and west from there. Gaining Algeria was expensive, and further expansion was not politically popular at home, but Tunisia almost begged to be taken over. The ruler of Tunisia, the bey of Tunis, borrowed heavily from France and other European powers to finance an independence movement to break away from the Ottoman Empire. Once accomplished, Tunisia needed more money for modernization. Ultimately, it was too heavily in debt to meet the payments, and in 1869 a multinational European commission entered the country to administer its finances. France was the largest creditor, but had no desire to annex the country. When Italy showed an active interest in taking over, however, French forces crossed the border in 1881 and obliged the bey to sign an agreement making his country a French protectorate. During the expedition, there was a local uprising against the French and the bey, and French forces occupied the entire country. Though the bey remained in nominal control after the revolt, for the most part Tunisia was a French possession.

With such strong control over a stretch of the Mediterranean coast, it is not surprising that the French became interested in Morocco to the west. Italy also showed an interest, but an agreement in 1900 ceded French interests in Morocco in return for Italian interests in Tripoli (Libya). Both were off-limits according to international agreements protecting the property of the Ottoman Empire, but in the rush for African colonies at the turn of the twentieth century, those pacts carried little weight. Owing to their ever-friendlier relationship from 1904, Britain granted France permission to act; when Moroccan bandits raided across the Algerian border, the French responded. France demanded control of the Moroccan police forces to maintain order in the deteriorating political environment; the Moroccan government was under pressure not only from Europe but from popular uprisings in the hinterland. When Germany objected to French ac-

tions and began to show interest in the country as well, international hostilities loomed. Only the Algeciras Conference of 1906–1907 kept the peace; France and Spain were given equal rights in Morocco, with an Open Door economic policy for the rest of Europe. The ongoing popular unrest brought French naval bombardment of Casablanca in 1907, followed by occupation of the city; Fez was occupied in 1911 for similar reasons. The Treaty of Fez in 1912 made Morocco a French protectorate, and resident General Louis Lyautey began forging a closer relationship between the two nations.

See also: Algeria, French Occupation of; Indochina, French Occupation of.

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AFRICA, GERMAN OCCUPATIONS IN

Germany first began considering colonization in Africa in the Frankfurt National Assembly of 1848. Acquiring territory in Africa seemed a good way to handle surplus populations displaced by changes in German agriculture, as well as provide a focus for national pride in an active foreign policy. Not until the 1880s, however, did any serious colonization begin. By then, Chancellor Otto von Bismarck had led the new German nation into world affairs, and German economic interests viewed Africa as a good source of raw materials. Besides, foreign control of the coastlines by other powers could prove costly to German trade.

Bismarck had long been leery of the idea of colonies, believing them too expensive to administer and defend, but he finally saw them as a tool of international diplomacy. In 1885 he hosted an international conference in Berlin, where ground rules were laid for African land claims by European powers. At the time, few other European diplomats considered Germany a player in the colonization game. The first colony Germany claimed was Cameroon in 1884. German trading posts had been in the area for some years, and it appeared the British might claim the land first,

but Dr. Gustav Nachtigal signed treaties with the two main kings in Cameroon and declared it a German protectorate.

Cameroon was not an economically successful venture, and its acquisition often came under attack by anticolonial factions in Germany. German plantations were successful, but not lucrative enough to pay for the colony's administration. In the 1890s and early 1900s, the colony was newsworthy in Germany for the scandals perpetrated by its governor, Jesco von Puttkamer. He was accused and convicted of financial misadventures and gross mistreatment of natives, both common and royal. He was fined only slightly, however, and recalled from his post.

About the same time the Germans took over Cameroon, they signed agreements with the chiefs in Little Popo, or Togoland. The most successful of the German colonial ventures, Togoland became a model colony, consistently showing a trade surplus and paying for its administration. Local profit meant a looser rein from Berlin, so Togoland also became the scene of scandal and abuse of the native population. Though profitable, Togoland did not hold enough raw materials or profits to be more than a minor success.

The largest of the German colonies was Southwest Africa, stretching from the Portuguese colony of Angola southward 900 miles to the Orange River, beyond which lay the British Cape Colony. The Portuguese originally discovered this territory, but their missionaries had little success there, and it was transferred to the control of the Rhenish Missionary Society of Germany. Bismarck stated that the "missionary and trader must precede the soldier," and within 10 years German clerics had established missions in a number of tribal capitals. The political and military presence was not far behind; German forces intervened in tribal warfare between the Herero and Nama tribes. The Herero signed a protection treaty with the German imperial commissioner in 1885; when the Nama waged guerrilla warfare instead, the Germans led punitive expeditions against them until their surrender in 1894.

There was little source of income in Southwest Africa. The Nama and Herero were cattle herders who did not care to trade their herds to

the Germans until 1897, when a plague of rinderpest virtually wiped out their cattle, and they had to sell their lands and possessions to buy vaccinations or new cattle. The German colonists gained the best land available, and the already poor natives were in even direr straits. Many came to the missions for aid and conversion, and German governor Theodor von Leutwein was sure that his administration was maintaining peace and a prosperity of sorts. The German settlers robbed the natives and made them as subservient as possible, which provoked a Herero rebellion in January 1904. Some 200,000 Africans lived in the colony, compared to a German population of about 4,700. The Herero killed every German male who could bear arms, but spared women, children, and non-Germans. They slaughtered inhabitants of isolated farms, but were unable to assault the better-fortified towns.

In February, although Leutwein seemed back in control, Berlin replaced him with General Lothar von Trotha, who had orders to put down the rebellion by any means necessary. The small number of German soldiers in the country could not keep the rebellion down, but with reinforcements from Germany, Trotha attacked the Herero and drove them into the desert, placing guards at every waterhole. With the Herero defeated, Trotha next had to deal with a Nama revolt in October 1904. Guerrilla warfare raged for a year, and both sides suffered badly. Trotha was eventually ordered home in disgrace, but the Nama capitulated in October 1905.

The colony of German East Africa was claimed in the 1880s as well, though German and British traders had long dealt with the sultan of Zanzibar for goods from the interior. In 1885, Carl Peters, the head of the Company for German Colonization, snuck into the region and made with local chiefs a number of suspect treaties, all of which Bismarck supported. In 1888, the sultan of Zanzibar granted Peters's company the administration of the southern coast of East Africa in return for a percentage of the profits. The high-handed German administration insulted Muslim sensibilities and tightened tax collection. German troops and warships enforced their will and challenged the authority of the sultan in his own territory, provoking a revolt among the locals

that lasted through the spring of 1889. The British had long supported the sultan, but in this instance they sided with Germany to "suppress the slave trade" by blockading the coast and allowing the Germans to send in troops. Germany established itself as the dominant European power, but could only hold on to the colony until World War I.

Germany had entered Africa in search of prestige and raw materials, but gained only the former. Though Togoland proved somewhat profitable, none of the other colonies financially justified German efforts. Sending major military support was too costly, so when World War I occurred, the Germans did nothing to save their colonies or take advantage of the raw materials they might have provided. The League of Nations mandated all the German colonies in Africa, mostly to Great Britain. The Germans left behind little but a memory of European abuses.

See also: East Africa, British Invasion of.

References: Pakenham, Thomas, *The Scramble for Africa* (New York: Random House, 1991); Smith, Woodruff, *The German Colonial Empire* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1978); Townsend, Mary Evelyn, *Origins of Modern German Colonialism* (New York: Howard Fertig, 1974).

ALGERIA, FRENCH OCCUPATION OF

Long a part of the Ottoman Empire, the regency of Algiers was one of the bases of the notorious Barbary pirates, who harassed or extorted bribes from international shipping passing through the western Mediterranean. Because the country's Ottoman occupiers never numbered more than 15,000, the French had little trouble removing the Turkish janissaries during their 1830 invasion. An insult by the local Ottoman ruler to the French consul after a dispute over debt payment provoked the attack. The French discovered that Ottoman rule was limited merely to coastal and urban areas, while the outlying countryside held only the occasional Turkish garrison cooperating with a few Arab tribes. The Berber population in the rugged terrain was beyond the direct authority of the Turks. The Turks recognized their inability to establish control in the mountains, so did not try.

At first, the French copied Ottoman practices, but they became too ambitious. Presenting themselves as liberators from Ottoman rule, the French moved into the countryside and found only resistance. The only local groups who would cooperate with them were the urban Jews, long a despised segment of the local population. By allying themselves with the Jews, the Christian French did not endear themselves to the Muslim majority of the country. From the first, the Algerians resented and resisted the French occupation, and organized themselves behind the leadership of Abd al-Kadir, who wanted not only to free his country from outside dominance but also to establish a united Muslim state. Abd al-Kadir took the title of amir and led a jihad, or holy war, against the French. Under his direction, the frontier population organized a Muslim administration that maintained a tax system, a standing army of 10,000, strategically placed forts, and Muslim schools and courts. Initially, the French were willing to recognize Abd al-Kadir as ruler of the interior, but conflict was inevitable. By 1846, more than 100,000 French troops were in the country, and the Arabs could not defeat such superior numbers. In 1847, Abd al-Kadir surrendered and went into exile.

For the first 20 years of their occupation, the French had administered Algeria (so named in 1839) via the Ministry of War, which appointed governors-general to rule. They were later assisted by the establishment of an Arab Bureau, which proved to be more condescending to the locals than helpful to the military. The French solidified their hold on the country by encouraging immigration, and by the time Abd al-Kadir was defeated, the new citizens numbered some 109,000 from all parts of the western Mediterranean. The majority were laborers and craftspeople, but some wealthy French bought large estates. Most of the immigrants had fled France after the revolution in 1848, escaped political upheaval in Alsace and Lorraine after the Franco-Prussian War, or moved to new vineyards when a blight destroyed much of the French wine industry in 1880. The new population tended to settle along the coast, but were protected from the hostile country folk by large numbers of French soldiers.

Uprisings by native tribes were put down through the remainder of the nineteenth century, and French control over the entire country was established in 1900. The most significant resistance to the French government occurred in 1870, when the French military suppressed a revolt in the mountain area of the Kabyles and confiscated most of the land. That same year, the European population rebelled against the rule of Napoleon III, who quieted them by granting local autonomy and reducing the power of the military. Algeria had been declared legally a part of France in 1848, but a French-style government was not installed until 1871.

The country was soon divided into three major areas: the coastal zone, mainly populated by Europeans; the countryside, mostly populated by Muslim Berbers; and the Sahara, which harbored numerous nomadic tribes and was the province of the army. The Europeans dominated the government and the courts. The native Berber population interacted with the French by working for them, occasionally going to French schools, and often moving to France to work. By 1831, the centenary of the invasion, the French occupation appeared to be a rousing success. French writers trumpeted the civilizing influence of the French presence and the economic progress the country had enjoyed.

Underneath the façade, however, was a growing discontent among the Muslim population. Education in French schools had taught them about the ideals of the French Revolution—liberty, equality, fraternity. The Berbers enjoyed none of these rights. The first hint of resistance came in 1912 when native organizations called for equality under the law in return for conscription into the French military. After World War I, during which Algerian soldiers fought and died in the trenches of France, the calls for equality grew louder. In 1920, two native movements began, one calling for equality and assimilation into European Algerian society, and the other demanding independence and a severing of ties with France.

Through the 1930s and 1940s, more organizations sprang up to demand either equal rights or liberation. During World War II, the Algerians again demanded equal rights in return for

military service, but the Vichy government suppressed the protest groups, and the Free French under Charles de Gaulle granted only minor concessions. By mid-century, the native population had plenty to complain about. More than one-third of the eight million Muslims in the country were landless, another million were underemployed, 90 percent of the Berber population was illiterate, and a quarter of them spoke only Berber. The French military in Algeria was made up of foreign soldiers, with few Algerians. The European population owned 90 percent of the industry and 40 percent of the best land. After the Europeans rigged the elections of 1948, 1951, and 1953 to maintain their power in the government, violence seemed the only alternative for native resistance groups. Egyptian president Nasser offered military officers to help organize a revolt.

Violent protests broke out under the leadership of the Front de Liberation Nationale, or FLN. The FLN started a campaign of terrorism in November 1954, aimed not at removing its enemies, but at removing the moderates who encouraged assimilation of the two societies. The FLN hoped this would provoke a massive response by the French military that would create hostility on the part of the population. Instead, the government in France installed a new, more liberal governor-general who appointed large numbers of Muslims to positions in the government and civil service, and forbade reprisals by the local gendarmes. The FLN responded by initiating a program of genocide toward the European population, a strategy that provoked the violent government response originally intended. Both the FLN and the government forces engaged in slaughter, with thousands of innocents caught in the middle. In January 1957, the government gave the military carte blanche to deal with the FLN in any manner they desired, legal or not. The murder and torture that resulted provoked a critical response in France, which called for negotiation with the FLN to lead toward Algerian independence.

The French army generals, both in Algeria and France, were loath to lose to the terrorists. When it seemed that the government was going to give in to public opinion, the generals threatened a coup, which brought Charles de Gaulle out of retirement and into the government. The

Fifth Republic was established and de Gaulle was elected president in late 1958. Thus, the generals got what they asked for, but not what they bargained for. Because President de Gaulle had long ago realized the futility of continuing colonial rule anywhere, he was determined to remove France from Algeria. Publicly, he continued to support the generals and their policies, but privately he worked to secure his own power base so he could accomplish his goals.

The referendum that created the Fifth Republic also allowed colonies to decide for themselves whether to stay with France or go their own way. De Gaulle began removing the same generals who had brought him to power. He opened negotiations with the FLN in mid-1960, and the Algerians voted for independence in January 1961. The military in Algeria was furious, and rogue generals created the Organization de L'Armee Secrete (OAS) to fight their government's decision. So intent were they on maintaining French power in Algeria that they tried twice to assassinate de Gaulle. They also initiated the same type of terror campaign the FLN had started, and again the innocents suffered. The government approved any measures to destroy the OAS, and once again torture and imprisonment were rife. The vote for independence meant that the European population was in danger from Algerian Muslims, who attacked Jewish businesses and synagogues. In 1962 the Europeans left in large numbers, first destroying many of the things they had created: hospitals, schools, libraries, a university. Some 1.3 million inhabitants left for France, leaving anyone who had cooperated with them at the mercy of the new regime. Thousands of locals who could not afford to leave were murdered by the government created by the FLN.

The departure of the French after 130 years in Algeria left the country in dire straits. The first president of the new government later commented that the only accomplishments during the first 20 years of local rule were negative: Agriculture was destroyed, industry was nonexistent, the government was corrupt, and the leaders were uncooperative with each other. The terrorism brought to the country by the FLN was exported when Algeria became a training base

for terrorists of all kinds. The crime and disorder in which the country was born presaged similar conditions in other African countries that gained independence from the 1960s onward.

See also: France, German Invasion of; France, Nazi Invasion of.

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ASHANTI, BRITISH CONQUEST OF

The people who became the Ashanti migrated into the area of modern Ghana in the seventeenth century, moving into an area bounded by two strong powers, the Denkyra to the north and the Akwamu to the east. For a time they paid tribute to the Denkyra but began to organize against them. The Kumasi tribe led a confederation (Asante) of tribes, and Osei Tuto (r. 1680?–1717) became the first leader (Asantehene) of the confederation. He had spent time in both the Denkyra and Akwamu courts and had learned military and political lessons from them. Osei led a “war of liberation” against the Denkyra at the turn of the eighteenth century and many Denkyra tributaries changed sides. Being closer to the coast, the Ashanti had better access to European trade and weapons, so gradually the Ashanti defeated the Denkyra and almost all the neighboring tribes, establishing themselves as the major power in the region by the 1740s. A later Asantehene, Osei Kwadwo (r. 1764–1777), established a bureaucracy, police, and standing army. Kwadwo realized that only a standing army would have the time to develop the discipline necessary to be effective with muskets.

The location of the Ashanti homeland was both a help and a hindrance to their economic relations with the Europeans. The Ashanti controlled the northern trade centers to the markets deep in the interior, but they did not control land all the way to the coast, where the Portuguese (later followed by the Dutch, Danes, and British) had built forts and trading posts. Between the Ashanti and the coast lay the lands of the Fante, a population not known for its bravery but very

well known for its fear of the Ashanti. The Fante had supported the Ashanti rivals during their ongoing conflicts, but with the Ashanti now dominating the region, the Fante began regularly calling for aid from whatever European power was at hand. By the 1820s, the primary European power in the region was Great Britain.

After 1807 Great Britain was strongly involved in suppressing the slave trade, one of the primary Ashanti businesses. Thus, conflict between the two became inevitable. After a number of attacks on the Fante in the early part of the century, the British finally committed troops to combat in early 1824 to avenge the death of a Fante soldier in British service. The result was disastrous. Sir Charles MacCarthy led a 500-man force made up primarily of West Indian troops and local recruits against at least 10,000 Ashanti, and on 22 January, MacCarthy died as his troops were defeated. An Ashanti attack on the main British settlement at Cape Coast Castle in 1826, however, was beaten back. That success, though, did not encourage the London government to reinforce the region. Instead, the British decided the cost-benefit ratio was too unfavorable and sent word to abandon the area and destroy the forts. The local merchants managed to convince the government to turn the forts over to them in September 1828.

With a £4,000 annual subsidy from the government, the merchants hired George Maclean, a man with military experience, to be the local administrator. With his local knowledge he was able to deal peaceably with the Ashanti and secure a treaty with them in 1831 which guaranteed Fante security. He remained in that position until his death in 1847, although the Colonial Office in London had reasserted control in 1843. Starting in 1844, with a new agreement signed with the Ashanti, the British began to slowly expand their influence in the region: They bought out the Danish and Portuguese forts in 1850 and the Portuguese forts and lands in 1871. At about this same time the Ashanti began once again to view the British as a threat, for there now existed no more coastal ports for their slave trading.

The Ashanti had continued their raiding into Fante territory in spite of the treaties, and