Cross-Currents: An International Peer-Reviewed Journal on Humanities & Social Sciences
Abbreviated Key Title: Cross Current Int Peer Reviewed J Human Soc Sci
ISSN: 2394-451X (Print) & Open Access
DOI: 10.36344/ccijhss.2024.v10i04.002

Volume-10 | Issue-4 | Jun-2024 |

Review Article

The Identification of 134 Typologies of the French and 18 British Exploitative- Looting Pre-Colonial and Colonial Hegemonic Diplomatic Agents (ITFBELPCHDA within 334 Years in Senegal - Goree Island - Cutting Across the Gambian Sphere of Influences 1626-1960

Njuafac Kenedy Fonju (Ph.D, FSASS)[1*]
[1]Associate Professor, History of International Relations, University of Dschang/Faculty of Letters and Social Sciences/ Department of History and Archeology

***Corresponding author:** Njuafac Kenedy Fonju

| Received: 04.04.2024 | **Accepted:** 08.05.2024 | **Published:** 08.06.2024 |

Abstract: The present paper is very important in the history of Senegal and African history in general due to several pre-colonial and colonial challenges which the Senegalese went through spanning from 1626 to 1960 at independence from the French colonial hegemony. It identified some 134 French diplomatic agents within 334 years and 18 British agents from 1758 to 1817 due to the profitable slavery and slave trade booming markets cutting across the Atlantic to the New World including other important centre of commercial activities during the period of their exploration, expropriation and exploitation (3Es) ambitions. The areas of the Goree became important transit spots of bundling Africans in the name of slaves with some dumped in the Atlantic Ocean and those survived straight into the American plantains zones under the ownership of the Western European powers with actors coming especially France, Britain, Spain, Portugal, Italy among others. The scrutiny of both specialized sources, documentary and websites sources enable us to use a historical approach thereby bringing out clearly those major European actors who manifested their pre-colonial and colonial ambitions in the name of the countries whose interests overshadowed African development perspectives in spite of several resistance movement organized in search of total liberation in favour of self-determination which was only granted during the second half of the 20th Century. This paper can enable the young generation of Africans to go more deeper into researching what each of the identified Western agents appointed to resident in Senegal did while in office and could facilitate the continuous request for the reparation of pre-colonial and colonial atrocities including looting of African natural resources of that country for their metropolitan development for more than three centuries in the unbearable history of mankind. However, the post-independence challenges of the country owed its seeds from the French presence after which the neo-colonial agenda since the second half of the 20th Century still extended in the 21st Century with the unexpected Senegalese Democracy and the deomcratisation processes taking a new turn in favour of the people's choices of the electoral boxes in spite of attempted ambitions of the outgoing Statesman to once more thwart the transparent procedures of selecting their leader who could offers them the minimum in different domains without obtaining directives of 3Es from the neo-colonial actors.

Keywords: Senegal, Goree, Gambia, Diplomatic Agents, Communes, pre-colonial, colonial, Hegemony, Looting, Senghor, independence.

INTRODUCTION

The African country called Senegal is found in West Africa bordering several nations including Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, Guinea, Mali, and the Gambia. The Gambia occupies a narrow strip of land along the banks of Gambia River which separates the southern region of Senegal also known as Casamance from the northern part of the country. Senegal occupies an area of 76,000 square miles. Some of the natural resources in the country include arable, beautiful scenery, forests, fish, and minerals such as phosphates among others (Benjamin E. S. February 25, 2019). According to some historians French merchants from the Normandy cities of Dieppe and Rouen traded with the Gambia and Senegal coasts, and with the Ivory Coast and the Gold Coast, between 1364 and 1413. Probably, as a result, an ivory-carving

Quick Response Code

Journal homepage:
https://saspublishers.com/

Citation: Njuafac Kenedy Fonju (2024). The Identification of 134 Typologies of the French and 18 British Exploitative- Looting Pre-Colonial and Colonial Hegemonic Diplomatic Agents (ITFBELPCHDA within 334 Years in Senegal - Goree Island - Cutting Across the Gambian Sphere of Influences 1626-1960. *Cross Current Int Peer Reviewed J Human Soc Sci*, *10*(4), 113-127.

industry developed in Dieppe after 1364. These travels, however, were soon forgotten with the advent of the Hundred Years War in France. Various European powers, such as Portugal, the Netherlands, and England then competed for trade in the area of Senegal from the 16th century onward. The island was captured by the Dutch in 1588, where they established defensive forts and developed trade further. In 1659, France established the trading post of Saint-Louis, Senegal. The European powers continued contending for the island of Gorée, until in 1677, France led by Jean II d' Estrées during the Franco-Dutch War (1672–1678) ended up in possession of the island, which it would keep for the next 300 years. In 1758 the French settlement was captured by a British expedition as part of the Seven Years' War, but was later returned to France in 1783, following French victory in the American Revolutionary War. The states of the Wolof and Sereer, neighbouring the two colonial outposts, were particularly involved with the slave trade, having strong military organizations geared to supplying slaves to the Europeans. According to historians such as Professor François G. Richard and Professor Martin A. Klein, the Serer states such as Sine and Saloum were not heavily involved in the slave trade. François G. Richard posits that: The Kingdom of Sine remained a modest participant in the Atlantic system, secondary to the larger Wolof, Halpulaar speakers of the Pulaar language i.e. the Fula and Toucouleur people or Mandinka polities surrounding it on all sides... As practices of enslavement intensified among other ethnic groups during the 18th century, fueling a lucrative commerce in captives and the rise of internal slavery, the Siin may have been demoted to the rank of second player, in so far as the kingdom was never a major supplier of captives (François G. Richard, online 2024).

1. The Roots of Franco-Anglo Implantations in the Senegal-Goree-Gambian Territorial Space

The Four Communes of Senegal in French West Africa, Gorée, Dakar, Rufisque, and Saint-Louis, were the only places during the African Colonial period, where African inhabitants were granted the same rights as French Citizens. Various European powers, such as Portugal, the Netherlands, and England then competed for trade in the area of Senegal from the 16th Century onward. The island was captured by the Dutch in 1588, where they established defensive forts and developed trade further (Mamadou Diouf, (16 December 2002).

Goree Island is on the great western bulge of Africa - the nearest point on the continent to the Americas.The Senegalese people called it Ber. The Portuguese renamed it Ila de Palma.The name was changed to Good Reed by the Dutch and the French called the island Goree - meaning "good harbour". But the name did not match with what went on in this tiny island between the 16th and 19th Centuries when wooden ships sailed from here across the Atlantic, with human beings chained in their holds. On the island, there is a small fort known as Slave House. This was in effect one of the slave warehouses through which Africans passed on their way to the Americas. Millions passed through the island and other similar trading posts to work in the plantations of the New World, including America. The shipping of slaves from Goree lasted from 1536 when the Portuguese launched the slave trade to the time the French halted it 312 years later. The Portuguese, Dutch, French and British all fought and killed each other over the trade from there. The island is just 3km (nearly two miles) off the Senegalese coast, and its tiny size made it easy for merchants to control their captives. The surrounding waters are so deep that any escape attempt would ensure death by drowning. With a 5kg metal ball permanently attached to their feet or necks, a captured African would know what jumping into the deep sea would bring (Goree: Senegal's slave island27 June 2013). Known as Senegambia at the time and located at the westernmost point in West Africa, Goree Island used to serve as a strategic trading post for the transatlantic slave trade – African men, women and children were held and traded here before being loaded onto ships to the Americas. Estimates vary, but all of them place the number of Africans who died while in transit in the millions. The 900 meter-long island used to host around 28 slave houses. Today most have disappeared and turned into private houses," Coly told CNN during a tour of the house. "This one was chosen by the Senegalese state to keep the memory and remind all the people about the fragility of the liberties. People come from different countries… It's a place of memory and reconciliation." On the ground floor of the house are the men's quarters where male slaves were housed in a row of cementing cells. According to Coly, about 15-20 male slaves were packed in these 2.6 meter by 2.6 meter rooms; seated with their backs against the wall, chained around the neck and arms, they would usually have to wait in the room for about three months. The conditions were so appalling and unsanitary that a major epidemic that ravaged the island in the 18th century started in these rooms, Coly said. After the waiting period, the slaves would then be taken out of the cells for trade. They were then stripped naked and gathered in the courtyard in the middle of the house. The buyers and traders would lean over the balcony overlooking the courtyard and observe the slaves while negotiating prices. "Each ethnic group used to have a quoted price." said Coly, "They were treated exactly as merchandise not as human beings." They were treated exactly as merchandise not as human beings. Eloi Coly, site manager.The selected slaves would then be taken from the courtyard through the corridor to the 'door-of-no-return'. Located at the very back of the house, facing the Atlantic Ocean, the door leads to a wharf made of palm wood, where there would be a ship waiting to take the Africans across the ocean, never to return to their homes. Slaves that had fallen ill or died were also thrown into the ocean from this door, Coly said. According to Coly, all parts of the house were utilized to facilitate the slave trade: small dark rooms underneath the staircases were used as punishment rooms, and the damp little rooms kept young girls and

children separately from men for sale or the pleasure of the traders. When asked how he could face the horrors done to his ancestors every day, Coly's answer came rather calmly: 'It is important to keep the memory of the victims, to consider that what happened is a part of the history of human being, not only history of Africans or blacks or whites.' According to Beibei Yin.

From the late 17th Century until the 1870s gum arabic from the southwestern corner of the Sahara was the most important trade good exported to Europe from Mauritania and Senegal. The dynamics of the gum trading system based in Saint Louis du Senegal and detailed the commercial crisis in which the French colony was mired in the late 1830s and 1840s. Pressure from French capital and from Faidherbe's military forces secured the dominance of the import-export houses, as African river traders and desert gum merchants lost the advantages of their market positions. Throughout the history of the transatlantic slave trade, approximately 5.7 million of the 12.5 million African slaves who embarked on slave ships did so in ports along the region of West Central Africa and St. Helena. Today, these regions are in the countries of Angola, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Gabon, and the Republic of the Congo. The majority of the rest were taken from West Africa, embarking in ports between the present-day countries of Senegal and Gabon, while a smaller number of slaves were captured in the southeast of Africa. Senegambia and off-shore Atlantic islands had the highest number of captives taken from that region in the 16th century, however West Central Africa and St. Helena was the region where most slaves embarked on their journey across the Atlantic in the following centuries. As Portuguese traders were responsible for transporting the largest volume of slaves to the Americas, it is unsurprising that many of the busiest ports in the transatlantic slave trade were in Portuguese-controlled enclaves along the African coast (Aaron O'Neill, 2 February 2024). Generally speaking, the regions used in the source appear to refer to ports that are or were located in the following modern countries in mainland Africa (although there is likely a lot of overlapping data between certain regions, as their borders and names became redefined throughout history); West Central Africa: Angola, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Gabon, Republic of the Congo ; Bight of Benin: Benin, Nigeria, Togo, Bight of Biafra: Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Nigeria Gold Coast: Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana; Senegambia: The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Senegal; Southeast Africa: Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania ; Sierra Leone: Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia and Windward Coast: Liberia, Côte d'Ivoire with the survey period from 501 to 1866 (Aaron O'Neill 2024) when there were already about 81 and 18 pre-colonial and colonial French and British agents respectively of 3 Es as indicated on tables no. 1 and 2 ahead of this work.

The Senegal Liberations Project seeks to analyze a register of slave liberations in Senegal between 1857 and May 1903 held at the National Archives of Senegal. This source consists of twenty record books which contain evidence of 28,930 liberations. While the format of entry changed over time, the colonial government used the following general system: the date, identification number assigned to that specific liberation, name of enslaved person, place of birth, age, place of liberation within the colony of Senegal, and name and position of the colonial administrator who authorized the liberation. While we have not yet determined how the register was compiled in its current form, our research confirms that it is the official governmental record of liberations conducted across different districts. The register is thus a compilation of liberations. We can therefore assume that officials in different regions of the colony transmitted their records of liberations to a central office, most likely in either Native Affairs or Judicial Affairs. This may account for the disproportionate representation of colonial officials in Dakar who are listed as authorizing liberations, at least between 1894 and 1903 (H. Lovejoy 2020). Slaves who received their liberation from colonial officials also received a patente de liberté, or certificate of liberation. None of these patentes, however, are included in the register. Some of those liberated by colonial officials had been seized from slave caravans moving slaves from the interior of West Africa towards Senegal. Others likely escaped from owners and made their way to colonial officials. We need to stress that enslaved people had many different routes to escape their masters and that the register of slave liberations only captures the pool who actively sought officially sanctioned liberation. A handful of enslaved Africans sought their freedom in official villages de libérté (liberty villages) or with missionary stations (Bouche 1968; Jones 2017). We thus have no way of knowing how many simply fled without seeking official liberation. Nonetheless, the register of liberations provides a significant and unique window onto the gradual end of slavery in Senegal during the second half of the 19th and first few years of the 20th Centuries (H. Lovejoy 2020).

The implications of Article 7 continued to worry the colonial authorities and commercial stakeholders. Both groups supported commerce, since it sustained the fledgling colony; neither group wanted barriers to commerce; and both feared that African merchants living outside of outposts would avoid bringing their goods to market to prevent their enslaved people from seeking liberation on French soil. French colonial abolition policy remained unstable and uncertain in part because most of the Frenchmen appointed as governors in the subsequent years rarely survived Senegal's tropical disease environment for more than a year. Things changed with the appointment of Louis Faidherbe in 1854: he was a professional soldier who had served in Algeria from 1843 to 1852 with a brief posting to Guadeloupe in 1848, at precisely the moment of the abolition of plantation slaves. In 1852, Faidherbe was posted to Senegal as part of the company of military

engineers and, in 1854 he was doubly promoted as chef de bataillon and governor of the colony (Boubacar, B. 1998). Faidherbe's posting to Senegal in 1852 coincided with the rise of Louis Napoleon (Napoleon III), the collapse of the Second French Republic, and the emergence of France's Second Empire. Among Napoleon's goals were the reassertion of French political and commercial interests in Europe and the revival of empire as a source of prestige, power, and wealth. French commercial houses, including the Bordeaux-based Maurel et Prom, had significant interests in promoting Senegalese commerce, particularly that of gum Arabic (acacia gum), widely used in the rapidly industrializing French textile industry and harvested mostly along the northern banks of the Senegal River (Mbodj 1993). Senegalese peasants, especially in the Kajoor region south of the Senegal River, were turning to peanuts as a commercial crop at the same time as industrialized France increasingly demanded vegetable oils. These Bordeaux commercial houses promoted Napoleon's imperial inclinations and encouraged the military expansion of the Senegal colony under Faidherbe according to Barrows 1978. The convergence of commercial and imperial interests with Faidherbe's governorship led to the aggressive expansion of colonial conquest, which in turn exacerbated the issue of slavery, the slave trade, and French abolition policy. In 1855, Faidherbe sought legal guidance from the head of the colony's judicial division, Frédéric Carrère, regarding the 'legality' of distinguishing French citizens from those not considered citizens, with regard to slave ownership. By 1890, abolitionist pressure in Europe led to the international meeting in Brussels which reaffirmed European 'commitment' to ending the slave trade and regulating domestic slavery. Metropolitan pressure also pushed the government to stop the slave trade along the Senegal River in particular. In 1892, Governor Clément-Thomas met with African rulers of the surrounding protectorates, when they agreed to abolish the slave trade. They also agreed to recognize existing enslaved people in African territories as 'servants', thus tolerating domestic slavery even as the French initiated more aggressive abolition efforts. Colonial authorities increasingly stopped slave caravans and ships on the Senegal River and liberated the slaves. French antislavery efforts along the river shifted the slave trade overland and further south (Searing, 2002). At least one author argues that by 1895, the slave trade in Senegal was more or less over, although trafficking in women and children persisted for decades (Searing 2002; Lawrance *et al*., 2012).

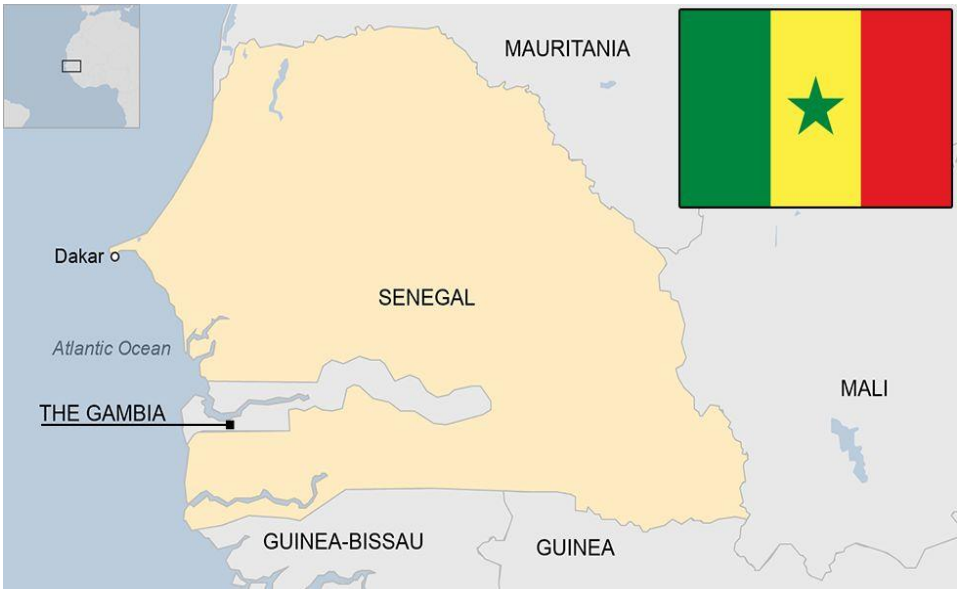
By the 1870s the importance of the gum trade had been eclipsed by the rapid expansion of peanut cultivation. There were wide annual fluctuations in gum exports at all periods. This periodization of growth in Mauritanian gum exports is based primarily upon Curtin, Senegambia, 1, 216–7, but differs with regard to the timing of the first doubling of gum exports. Curtin locates the first doubling in the 1820s, based upon export figures from Saint Louis, compiled in Senegambia, II, 64–5. The period before 1820 is problematical in any case because data are scarce, but the earlier doubling of exports in the 1780s (BETHELL, leslie, 1966). Traite de la gomme. Rivière du Sénégal, March 1783. M. Eyries in the Archives nationales françhises. Section outre-mer. Dépôt de fortifications des colonies (henceforth, ANFSOM D.F.C.) Sénégal 82, which includes an estimate of the annual gum trade at twelve hundred tons, and indirectly by two estimates c. 1803 of annual European gum consumption at one thousand tons in ANFSOM D.F.C. Sénègal 83, no. 105, Des peuples qui habitent les côtes du Sénégal et les bords de ce fleuve. Des royaumes sur la côte de Gorée, Cayor, Baol, Sin, et Salum. 1803. [unsigned] and de Halle, P. Herbin, Statistique générate et particulière de la France et de ses colonies vii (Paris, 1803–1804), the French occupation of Saint Louis (1800–1808), exports from the mouth of the Senegal averaged 894 tons per year (excluding trade from the coastal ports) but dropped off considerably during the British occupation from 1809 to 1816. (ANFSOM D.F.C. Sénégal 83. no. 115, Rapport sur les établissements franços d'Afrique, 8 July 1817. M. Schmaltz.) An estimate of 1000 tons annual production is found in the Public Record Office, London, Colonial Office (henceforth, CO) 267/29. Answers to the Questions proposed to Lieutenant Colonel Maxwell, Lieutenant Governor of Senegal and Gorée, by His Majesty's Commissioners for investigating the Forts and Settlements in Africa, 1 January 1811 (James L. A. Webb JR. 22 January 2009). In his 1968 publication: Islam and Imperialism in Senegal: Sine-Saloum, 1947-1914, Professor Martin A. Klein notes that, although slavery had existed in Wolof and Serer culture, as well that of their neighbors, the institution of slavery did not exist among the Serer Noon, Serer N'Diéghem, and the Jola people, "who had egalitarian social structures and simple political institutions [7]". Klein also notes that: "In times of peace, the Kingdom of Siin more readily supplied grain, cattle and other basic necessities to the French." According to Professor Mamadou Diouf and Profssor Mara Leichtman (2009), the Serer Saafi were also purely egalitarian and rejected all forms of centralised government, the caste system, Islam and slavery. Conflicts erupted with the Muslims to the north, as when Marabout Nasr al Din attacked Mauritania and the Wolof across the border in 1673, but he was defeated through an alliance between local forces and the French.

During the Napoleonic Wars, Great Britain captured Gorée in 1803 and Saint-Louis in 1809, and proclaimed the abolition of the slave trade in 1807, to which the French had to agree upon recovering the two posts. The 19th century thus saw a decline in the slave trade, and the rise of commodity production instead [5]. The trade of acacia gum, used for dyes for high-quality textiles and for medicine production, became paramount [5]. Peanut cultivation also proved to be a valuable resource for the area [9]. In the Franco-Trarzan War of 1825, the French started to assert control of the mouth of

the Senegal river against the rival state of Trarza (Klein Martin A., 1968). In the 1850s the French, under the governor Louis Faidherbe, began to expand their foothold onto the Senegalese mainland at the expense of the native kingdoms. From 1854 Faidherbe started to establish a series of inland forts up the Senegal River. In 1855 he conquered the Kingdom of Waalo defeating Queen Ndaté Yalla Mbodj (the reigning Lingeer of Waalo at the time) and her husband Marosso Tassé Diop (commander of her army) A counter-attack by the Toucouleur in 1857 led to the Siege of Medina Fort in which the Toucouleur failed. In 1859, the Serers of Sine, led by their king - Maad a Sinig Kumba Ndoffene Famak Joof launched an attack against the French and their ally forces, resulting in the Battle of Logandème. Although defeated at Logandème in Fatick, and one of his principalities (Fatick) burned to the ground under the orders of Faidherb, Kumba Ndoffene spent the next few years of his life destroying French infrastructure and their economic base in Senegal, as well as defending his country from another threat - Islamic jihad by the Muslim marabouts of Senegambia. In 1871 he was assassinated by the French.[13] The precolonial monarchies of Sine and Saloum continued up to 1969 without interruption, despite the French conquest of Senegal. Expansion continued under Governor Louis Brière de l'Isle from 1876 to 1881. Through diplomatic and military efforts, Briere reinforced French control on the Senegal river, the "Peanut Basin" and the Guinea Coast in favour of the development of millet, peanut and cotton trade. He also developed railroad projects that would facilitate further expansion as far as French Sudan (modern Mali). From 1880, France endeavoured to build a railway system, centered around the Saint-Louis–Dakar line that involved taking military control of the surrounding areas, leading to the military occupation of mainland Senegal. The construction of the Dakar-Niger Railway also began at the end of the 19th century under the direction of the French officer Gallieni. However, there was much opposition of the railroads being built from the natives. This was especially true with Muslim leader Lat Jor and his following. The first Governor General of Senegal was named in 1895, overseeing most of the territorial conquests of Western Africa, and in 1904, the territories were formally named French West Africa (AOF: "Afrique Occidentale Française"), of which Senegal was a part and Dakar its capital (Klein, Martin A, 1968).

As the 19th Century began, the belief that commercial relationships would play a central role in reestablishing France's presence in Senegal was shared by French officials in the metropole and in the colony. After the Napoleonic Wars ended, France repossessed Senegal from the British, a process completed in 1817. With the legal abolition of the Atlantic slave trade, French officials sought new economic outlets. Indeed, the search for forms of "legitimate commerce" occupied French and British merchants along many parts of the West African coast, and capitalists sought to profit from new, "ethical" forms of production or consumption. Briefly, administrators in Senegal attempted a type of more "formal" agricultural colonization to rebuild the colony's economic importance. Beginning in 1819, the French colonial government signed treaties making the river kingdom of Waalo an "economic protectorate," as Boubacar Barry puts it, under the direct control of the French. From the late 1810s into the 1820s, administrators supported attempts to grow cotton and indigo in Waalo for export. However, land and labor problems and resistance from neighboring groups stalled the agricultural projects, and by 1831 it was clear that the region of Senegambia would not become a replacement for the Caribbean agricultural colonies, as some had hoped. The "economic protectorate" model that was meant to provide territory for French-led agricultural experiments had failed. In fact, the idea that the treaty ceding Waalo held any permanent weight was not widely accepted in the region, where locals viewed the agreement as a lease in exchange for customary payments (Jenna Nigro, Spring 2022). The term "trade colony" defined France's presence in West Africa for much of the 19th Century, especially in the period between the legal abolition of the slave trade and the territorial conquests of the last decades of the century. Bouët-Willaumez hoped for an expansion of direct French rule in the region of Senegambia, but he conceded that at the moment, French influence rested primarily on the expansion of trade. Bouët-Willaumez's conception of Senegal as a "trade colony" was more than a descriptive label. The idea that commerce was a tool, in its own right, of imperial influence played a major role in the conceptualization of the French presence in Senegal in the period before extensive formal conquest, especially from the 1810s through the 1850s (Jenna Nigro, Spring 2022), While French commentators perceived commerce as an external civilizing force in West Africa, a set of already-developed commercial norms governed trade between Europeans and their trade partners in Senegambia, including the Moors north of the river and the Wolof, Toucouleur, Mandinka and Soninke groups to the south and east. One of the central ways that West Africans set the terms of trade in the wider region was through the use of coutumes. This word might be translated as "tribute payments," "customary fees," "gifts," "duties," or "tolls," depending on the context and use of a particular payment. Senegambian political rulers collected these payments in exchange for the right to trade with them, to set up a fortification on their territory, or to pass through. Coutumes, reported French observers in travel accounts, had grown out of early trade between French trade companies and Senegambia merchants, and the system had continued through the periods of British control (John G. *et al*., 1953). In the upper Senegal River region, French administrators created and maintained a monopoly company they argued was necessary to control the demands of trade partners in the region. In the kingdom of Gajaaga (Galam, as the French called it), the Compagnie de Galam was granted a monopoly in the early 1820s as part of a compromise to regulate the river

economy; the company would exist until 1848. In 1831, Governor Pierre-Édouard Brou wrote to his successor, warning that if the company were to be dissolved, too many European merchants would begin trading in that region. The problem for Brou did not lie in the additional competition itself, but in the effect on trading partners in the kingdom of Galam (John G. *et al*., 1953).



Map of Senengal Showing its Strategic Accessibilities to the Ocean and the Five Countries of West Africa
SOURCE: What Are the Major Natural Resources Of Senegal? WorldAtlas, https://www.worldatlas.com ›Economics, Sénégal, Natural Resource Governance Institute, https://resourcegovernance.org › countries › senegal

Les priorités du Sénégal en matière de développement économique incluent l'exploitation de ses richesses en minerais, le dévRepublic of Senegal - Western Africa, Nations Online Project, https://www.nationsonline.org › se...

Natural resources: Fish, peanuts, phosphate, iron ore, gold, titanium. ... Industries: Agricultural and fish processing, phosphate mining, fertilizer production, ... Senegal, National Archives | (.gov), https://clintonwhitehouse3.archives.gov › ...

Natural resources: Fish, peanuts, phosphate, iron ore, gold, titanium. Agriculture (24% of GDP): Product-peanuts, millet, sorghum, manioc, rice, cotton. The geographical location of the Senegal was very strategic to pre-colonial and colonial activities operated in West Africa. The smuggling of Africans in the name of slavery and slave trdae was carried out through the Senegalese waterways across to the Atlantic Ocean to the New World to work in European plantations. The Goree and Senegambia trade routes have a prominent legacies in such trafficking of Africans and since then, the Countries have been important neo-colonial space especially to the French actors.

2. Identification of 134 Principal Agents of 3Es appointed in different Portfolios by the French and British Monarchies / President 1626-1960

List of abbreviations used on tables

GCN : Governors of the Company Normandy
GCCVS: Governors of the Company of Cape-Verde and Senegal
GCFWI: Governors of the Company of French West Indies
AGCS : Acting Governor of the Company of Senegal
DCS : Director of the Company of Senegal
DCA : Director of the Company of Africa
DCG : Directors of the Company of Guinea
ADCRS: Acting Directors of the Company of Royal Senegal
DCRS : Directors of the Company of Royal Senegal
DCR : Directors of the Company of Rouen
DCEI: Directors of the Company of East Indies
ADCEI: Acting Directors of the Company of East Indies
FG : French Governors
FC : French Commandants
PGSCNDWAC: Posts from Gambia south under command of Naval Division of the Western Coasts of Africa
SDCGD: Sub-Division Colony of Gorée and Dependencies
WAPUSDSCGD: West African possessions fall under subdivision of Senegal: Colony of Gorée and Dependencies
ICT-ICGC: Ivory Coast territory moved to the Ivory Coast-Gabon colony
USMRSDM: Upper Senegal Military Region created Sub-Division –Mali

CGSSSFG: Coastal sections of Guinea Separated from Senegal, become River of South, later French Guinea
GECPSSFC: Gabon and Eastern Coastal Possessions Separated from Senegal, become French Congo
FSTSS-M: French Sudan Territory Separated from Senegal.
GSSGGFWA: Governors of Senegal now Subordinate to Governor General of French West Africa
AHCFU: African High Commissioner of the French Union
BSSPRGIG: British Seizure of Senegalese Possessions Ruled From Gorée Island and The Gambia
BG: British Governors
GST: Gambia Superintendent of Trade
AGST: Acting Gambia Superintendent of Trade
BLT.G: British Lieutenant Governors

Table 1: 134 Typologies of Pre-colonial and Colonial French Diplomatic Representation

No			
1	Jacques Fumechon	1626–1631	**GCN**
2	Thomas Lambert	1631–1641	**GCN**
3	Jean Caullier	1641–1648	**GCN**
4	de Soussy	1649–1650	**GCN**
5	Mésineau	1651–1658	**GCN**
6	Raguenet	1658–1661	**GCCVS**
7	de Boulay	1661–28 /05/ 1664	**GCCVS**
8	Jacquet	28/05/ 1664 – 1668	**GCFWI**
9	Sieur de Richemont	1668– 09/04/ 1672	**GCFWI**
10	Sieur de Richemont	1672–1673	**AGCS**
11	Jacques Fumechon	1674–1682	**DCS**
12	Denis Basset	1682–12/09/ 1684	**DCA**
13	Louis Moreau de Chambonneau	12/ 09/ 1684 – 1689	**DCG**
14	Michel Jajolet de la Courbe	1689–1690	**DCG**
15	Louis Moreau de Chambonneau	1690 –01/ 1693	**DCG**
16	Jean Bourguignon	07/ 1693 – 03/ 1696	**DCG**
17	Jean Bourguignon	03/ 1696–0 4/04/ 1697	**ADCRS**
18	André Brue	04/04/ 1697 –01/05/ 1702	**DCRS**
19	Joseph Lemaitre	1702–1706	**DCRS**
20	Michel Jajolet de la Courbe	1706–1709	**DCRS**
21	Guillaume Joseph Mustellier	1710–15/08/1711	**DCR**
22	Pierre de Richebourg	1712– 02/05/1713	**DCR**
23	André Brué	20/04/ 1714 – 15/12/ 1718	**DCR**
24	André Brue	15/12/ 1718 – 05/ 1720	**DCEI**
25	Nicolas Desprès de Saint-Robert	05/ 1720 –04/ 1723	**DCEI**
26	Julien du Bellay	1723–1725	**DCEI**
27	Nicolas Desprès de Saint-Robert	1725	**DCEI**
28	Arnaud Plumet	1725–1726	**DCEI**
29	Jean Levens de la Rouquette	1726–1733	**DCEI**
30	Lejuge	1733– 07/03/ 1733	**DCEI**
31	Sebastian Devaulx	1733–1738	**ADCEI**
32	Pierre Félix Barthélemy David	1738–1746	**DCEI**
33	Jean-Baptiste Estoupan de la Brüe	1746–30/04/ 1758	**DCEI**
34	Armand Louis de Gontaut	11/02/ 1779 –03/ 1779	**FG**
35	Jacques Joseph Eyries	03/ 1779– 07/03/ 1781	**FG**
36	J.B. Bertrand	07/03/ 1781 – 07/1782	**AFG**
37	Anne Gaston Dumontet	07/1782 – 02/ 1784	**FG**
38	Louis Legardeur	02/1784 – 02/1786	**FG**
39	Stanislas Jean Boufflers	02/1786 – 12/ 1787	**FG**
40	François Blanchot de Verly	12/ 1787 – 01/ 1801	**FG**
41	Charbonnes	01/ 1801– 02/07/ 1802	**AFG**
42	Louis Henri Pierre Lasserre	02/07/ 1802 – 27/10/ 1802	**FG**
43	François Blanchot de Verly	27/10/ 1802 – 12/09/1807	**FG**
44	Pierre Levasseur	09/1807–13/07/ 1809	**FG**

45	Julien Schmaltz	25/01/ 1817 –12/ 1817	**FC**
46	Aimé-Benjamin Fleuriau	12/ 1817–13/03/ 1819	
47	Julien Schmaltz	13/03/ 1819 – 14/08/ 1820	**FC**
48	Louis-Jean-Baptiste Le Coupé de Montereau, baron Lecoupe	14/08/ 1820 – 01/03/ 1821	**FC**
49	Jacques-François Roger, baron Roger after 1824	01/03/ 1821 – 18/05/ 1827	**FC**
50	Hyacinthe-Benjamin Gerbidon	18/05/ 1827 – 07/01/ 1828	**FC**
51	Jean Jubelin	07/01/ 1828 – 11/05/ 1829	**FG**
52	Pierre-Édouard Brou	11 /05/ 1829 – 24/05/ 1831	**FG**
53	Thomas Renault de Saint-Germain	24 /05/ 1831 – 18/10/ 1833	**FG**
54	Jean-Baptiste Bertrand Armand Cadéot	18/10/ 1833 – 15 /11/ 1833	**FG**
55	Eustache-Louis-Jean Quernel	13/11/ 1833 – 10/05/ 1834	**FG**
56	Louis Pujol	10/05/1834 – 01/07/ 1836	**FG**
57	Médéric Malavois	01/07/1836 – 12/ 1836	**FG**
58	Louis-Laurent-Auguste Guillet	12/ 1836–13/09/ 1837	**FG**
59	Julien-Armand Soret	13/09/ 1837 – 12/04/ 1839	**FG**
60	Pons-Guillaume-Bazile Charmasson de Puylaval	12/04/ 1839 – 19 /05/ 1841	FG: **PGSCNDWAC**
61	Jean-Baptiste Montagniès de La Roque	19/05/ 1841 – 07/05/ 1842	FG: **PGSCNDWAC**
62	Paul Pageot Des Noutières	07/05/ 1842 –05/02/1843	FG: **SDCGD**
63	Édouard Bouët-Willaumez	05/02/ 1843 – 24/05/ 1844	FG: **SDCGD**
64	Auguste-Lazare Laborel	24/05/1844 – 07/ 1844	FG: **SDCGD**
65	Pierre Thomas	07/ 1844–11/12/ 1845	FG: **SDCGD**
66	François-Marie-Charles Ollivier	11/12/ 1845 – 20/03/ 1846	FG: **SDCGD**
67	Hoube	20/03/ 1846 – 30/08/ 1846	FG: **SDCGD**
68	Ernest Bourdon [fr], count of Gramont	30/08/ 1846 – 24/08/ 1847	FG: **SDCGD**
69	Caille	24/08/1847 – 07/09/ 1847	FG: **SDCGD**
70	Léandre Bertin du Château	07/ 09/ 1847 – 11/ 1847	FG: **SDCGD**
71	Auguste Baudin	24/05/ 1844 – 07/1844	FG: **SDCGD**
72	Aumont	08/1850–11 /10/ 1850	FG: **SDCGD**
73	Auguste Léopold Protet	11/10/ 1850 – 16/12/ 1854	FG: **SDCGD**
74	André César Vérand	05/1853–30/01/ 1854	FG: **SDCGD**
75	Auguste Léopold Protet	31/01/ 1854 – 16/12/ 1854	FG: **SDCGD**
76	Louis Léon César Faidherbe	16/12/1854 – 01/06/ 1861	FG: **WAPUSDSCGD**
77	A. Robin	04/09/ 1858 – 12/02/ 1859	FG:**WAPUSDSCGD**
78	Léopold François Stephan	01/06/ 1861 –01/12/ 1861	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
79	Jean Bernard Jauréguiberry	01/12/ 1861 – 13/05/ 1863	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
80	Émile Pinet-Laprade	13/05/ 1863 – 14/07/ 1863	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
81	Louis Léon César Faidherbe	14/07/ 1863 –01/05/ 1865	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
82	Émile Pinet-Laprade	1/05/1865 – 17 /08/ 1869	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
83	Ferdinand Charles Alexandre Tredos	18/08/1869 – 17/10/ 1869	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
84	François-Xavier Michel Valière	17/10/ 1869 – 18/06/ 1876	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
85	Louis Briere de l'Isle	18/06/ 1876 – 04/ 1880	**FG: ICT-ICGC**
86	Louis Ferdinand de Lanneau	04/1880– 04/08/ 1881	**FG: USMRSDM**
87	Marie Auguste Deville de Perière	4/08/ 1881 – 10/ 1881	**FG: USMRSDM**
88	Henri Philibert Canard	10/ 1881–28/06/1882	**FG: USMRSDM**
89	Aristide Louis Antoine Vallon	28/06/ 1882 – 16/11/ 1882	**FG: CGSSSFG**
90	René Servatius	16/11/ 1882 – 28/06/ 1883	**FG: CGSSSFG**
91	Adolphe Ernest Auguste Le Boucher	28/06/1883 – 25/07/ 1883	**FG: CGSSSFG**
92	Henry Bourdiaux	25/07/ 1883 – 15/04/ 1884	**FG: CGSSSFG**
93	Alphonse Seignac-Lesseps	15/04/1884 – 14/04/ 1886	**FG: CGSSSFG**
94	Jules Genouille	14/04/1886 – 29/04/ 1888	**FG: GECPSSFC**
95	Léon Émile Clément-Thomas	29/04/1888 – 22/09/1890	**FG: GECPSSFC**
96	Henri Félix de Lamothe	22/09/ 1890 – 19/05/ 1895	**FG: FSTSS-M**
97	Louis Mouttet	19/05 1895 – 28/06/ 1895	**FG: FSTSS-M**
98	Jean Baptiste Émile Louis	28/06/1895 – 01/11/ 1900	**GSSGGFWA**
99	Noël Eugène Ballay	01/11/ 1900 – 26/01/ 1902	**GSSGGFWA**
100	Pierre Paul Marie Capest	26/01/1902 – 15/03/ 1902	**GSSGGFWA**
101	Ernest Roume	15/03/1902 – 11/11/ 1902	**GSSGGFWA**

102	Camille Lucien Xavier Guy	11/11/ 1902 – 26/08/ 1907	**GSSGGFWA**
103	Joost van Vollenhoven	26/08/ 1907 – 15/12/ 1907	**GSSGGFWA**
104	Martial Henri Merlin	15/12/ 1907 – 10/06/ 1908	**GSSGGFWA**
105	Jean Jules Émile Peuvergne	10/06/ 1908 – 17/10/ 1908	**GSSGGFWA**
106	Maurice Gourbeil	17/10/ 1908 – 23/02/1909	**GSSGGFWA**
107	Marie Antoine Edmond Gaudard	23/02/1909 –0 2/05/ 1909	**AGSSGGFWA**
108	Jean Jules Émile Peuvergne	02/05/1909 – 05/02/ 1911	**GSSGGFWA**
109	Henri François Charles Core	05/02/ 1911 – 13/05/ 1914	**GSSGGFWA**
110	Raphaël Valentin Marius Antonetti	13/05/ 1914 – 1916	**GSSGGFWA**
111	Fernand Émile Levêque	20/03/ 1917 – 23/09/ 1920	**GSSGGFWA**
112	Théophile Antoine Pascal	23/09/ 1920 – 17/09/1921	**GSSGGFWA**
113	Pierre Jean Henri Didelot	17/09/ 1921 – 04/07/ 1925	**GSSGGFWA**
114	Camille Théodore Raoul Maillet	04/07/ 1925 – 23/05/ 1926	**GSSGGFWA**
115	Joseph Zébédée Olivier Cadier	23/05/1926 – 23/10/ 1926	**GSSGGFWA**
116	Léonce Alphonse Noël Henri Jore	23/10/1926 – 12/03/ 1929	**GSSGGFWA**
117	Maurice Beurnier	12/03/ 1929 –0 4/07/ 1930	**GSSGGFWA**
118	Camille Théodore Raoul Maillet	04/07/1930 – 15/08/ 1931	**GSSGGFWA**
119	Benoît Louis Rebonne	15/08/1931 – 14/10/ 1931	**GSSGGFWA**
120	Maurice Beurnier	14/10/1931 –12/ 1936	**GSSGGFWA**
121	Louis Lefebvre	12/ 1936–25/10 1938	**GSSGGFWA**
122	Jean Paul Parisot	25/10/1938 – 1940	**GSSGGFWA**
123	Georges Pierre Rey	01/01/1941 – 22/12/1942	**GSSGGFWA**
124	Hubert Jules Deschamps	22/12/ 1942 –0 2/12/ 1943	**GSSGGFWA**
125	Charles Jean Dagain	02/12/ 1943 – 06/ 1945	**GSSGGFWA**
126	Pierre Louis Maestracci	06/ 1945 – 04/ 1946	**GSSGGFWA**
127	Oswald Durand	04/ 1946–20 /05/ 1947	**GSSGGFWA**
128	Laurent Marcel Wiltord	20/05/ 1947 – 19/10/ 1950	**GSSGGFWA**
129	Camille Victor Bailly	19/10/ 1950 – 25/04/ 1952	**GSSGGFWA**
130	Lucien Eugène Geay	25/04/ 1952 – 19/02/1954	**GSSGGFWA**
133	Maxime Marie Antoine Jourdain	19/ 02/ 1954 – 31/10/ 1955	**GSSGGFWA**
133	Jean Colombani	31/10/ 1955 – 10/02/ 1957	**GSSGGFWA**
133	Pierre Auguste Michel Marie Lami	10/02/1957 – 25/11/ 1958	**GSSGGFWA**
134	Pierre Auguste Michel Marie Lami	25/11/ 1958 – 20 /06/ 1960	AHCFU

SOURCES: Compiled with information from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia; Lucie Gallistel Colvin. Historical Dictionary of Senegal. Scarecrow Press/ Metuchen. NJ–London (1981); List of colonial governors of Senegal – Wikipedia? Wikipedia? https://en.wikipedia.org › wiki › List_of_colonial_gover...

Category: Colonial Governors of French Sénégal? Wikipedia? https://en.wikipedia.org › wiki › Category:Colonial_G...

The Formation of the Government General of French West ..., Cambridge University Press & Assessment https://www.cambridge.org › core › journals › article › f...

Royal government restored by British. Under Ministry of the Navy, controlling all posts to Gabon until the 1850s. French Governors

Incorporated into French West Africa – 16 June 1895 Command of French West Africa Handed to Governor General Governors of Senegal now subordinate to Governor General of French West Africa

African High Commissioner of the French Union.

3. Identification of 18 Principal Agents of 3Es appointed by the British Kings and Queens 1758-1817.

Table 2: 18 British Lt. Governors and Governors in the Senegalese Possessions of Goree Island and The Gambia

No	NAMES OF AGENTS	DATE IN OFFICE	PORTFOLIOS
1	Richard Alchorne Worge	30/04/1758 – 10 /02/ 1763	**BG**
2	John Barnes	10/02/1763 – 25/05/ 1765	**BG**
3	Charles O'Hara	25/05/ 1765 – 11/1775	**BG**
4	Joseph Debat	25/05/ 1765 – 04/1766	**GST**
5	Matthias MacNamara	11/1775– 80/04/1777	GST
6	John Clarke	08/04/1777 – 18/08/ 1778	GST
7	William Lacy	18/08/ 1778 – 11/02/ 1779	AGST
8	George Fall	04/ 1776–24/01/ 1774	**BLT.G**
9	William Myres	24/01/ 1774 – 08/1775	**BLT.G**

No	NAMES OF AGENTS	DATE IN OFFICE	PORTFOLIOS
10	Matthias MacNamara	08/ 1774 – 11/ 1775	**BLT.G**
11	Thomas Sharpless	11/ 1775 – 12/ 1775	**ABLT.G**
12	Joseph Wall	12/1775– 08/08/ 1776	**BLT.G**
13	George Fall	08/08/ 1776 – 1776	**ABLT.G**
14	William Lacy	1776–18/08/ 1778	**ABLT.G**
15	George Fall	18/08/ 1778 – 11/02/ 1779	**ABLT.G**
16	Charles William Maxwell	13/07/ 1809 – 1811	BG
17	Charles MacCarthy	1811–1814	BG
18	Thomas Brereton	1814–25/01/ 1817	BG

Sources: Compiled with information from: Louis Faidherbe | governor of French Senegal, Encyclopedia Britannica, https://www.britannica.com › ... › Cities & Towns C-G
30 May 2023 — 29, 1889, Paris), *governor* of *French Senegal* in 1854–61 and 1863–65 and a major founder of *France's colonial* empire in Africa., Images for List of French Colonial Governors of Senegal

4. The Embarrassing Massacred of the 1940s (The Thiaroye Camp Bloody Repression) Former West African French Used Soldiers for the Liberation of France in the hands of the Nazist Paving the way forward for the end of Colonial Agents

In December 1944, between 35 and 70 colonial troops from French West Africa were killed at a demobilisation camp in Thiaroye, just outside Dakar in Senegal. These were soldiers who fought for France who were then gunned down in cold blood by the French army. Then, following decades of silence on the matter. Successive governments said nothing, and when they did, as in the case of Nicolas Sarkozy, they took a "Je ne regrette rien" stance. Then, François Hollande appeared to begin to break rank. On a trip to Dakar in October 2012, he called the events of December 1 1944 "an act of bloody repression". He solemnly declared that France would hand over archives relating to the massacre on its 70th anniversary. He reiterated these sentiments at a speech at the military cemetery in Thiaroye in November 2014 – on the eve of that anniversary. However, the impression given was that the announcement of the creation of a museum on the site and the formal handing over of several boxes' worth of archives to Senegal was designed to draw a line under Thiaroye, not open it up to more scrutiny. What's more, the archives transferred to the Senegalese authorities are in fact just a fraction of the material held by the French on Thiaroye. If the archive given to the Senegalese authorities is both partial and impartial, what then are the agreed facts in relation to Thiaroye – and what light has recent research thrown on the key issues? (David Murphy, March 18, 2015). By the time of the massacre, the tirailleurs, captured during the Nazi invasion in 1940, had spent four long years in prisoner of war camps in France. Following the liberation in the autumn of 1944, General de Gaulle decided that they should return home as soon as possible. But disagreements soon surfaced regarding their demobilisation pay and some tirailleurs refused to board ships for Africa until they had received their statutory back pay. (One such dispute took place at a camp in Huyton on Merseyside.) This dispute continued at the demobilisation camp in Thiaroye and, on the morning of December 1 1944, a mix of French troops, local tirailleurs, three armoured cars with mounted machine guns and even a US army tank surrounded the camp. The soldiers opened fire on the rebellious but unarmed tirailleurs and many were killed. The army would later officially recognise a death toll of 35 (some accounts in the days that followed claimed a further 35 deaths, as many of the injured died from their wounds). In early 1945, a further 34 soldiers were tried, convicted and jailed for sentences ranging from one to ten years for what was described as an armed mutiny (The 1944 Thiaroye Massacre in Senegal, a Shameful ...Global Voices, https://globalvoices.org › 2017/06/23 › the-1944-thiar...)

While these facts are accepted by all sides, other elements of the story have remained hotly disputed. For the colonial authorities, this was purely a matter of military discipline, in which a heavily armed mutiny was defeated. For the colonised, Thiaroye was quite simply a massacre of unarmed soldiers and a reassertion of imperial authority on men simply demanding their rights be respected. But thanks in large part to the tireless work of French historian Armelle Mabon, who has pored over all of the archival sources; there is now far greater certainty about some of the most contentious points (David Murphy, March 18, 2015).

At a recent conference in Lorient, academics, writers, cultural groups and activists gathered to discuss the relationship between archives, fiction and the truth behind various colonial massacres. Needless to say, Thiaroye was at the centre of the discussion. The most moving contributions came from the children of Antoine Abibou and Doudou Diallo, two of the men convicted as ringleaders after the massacre. Although both were amnestied in 1947, along with the other surviving prisoners (many had died while in prison), their convictions weren't overturned and Abibou was forbidden from remaining in Africa and effectively exiled to France for the remainder of his life. His son Yves Abibou told the audience that he had spent most of his life trying to flee his father's past. That is, until Mabon tracked him down and told him what she knew about Thiaroye. He doesn't want an apology from the French state. What he wants now is recognition of the truth and justice in the form of a full pardon for his father.

That is what all the men of Thiaroye and their descendants deserve (David Murphy, March 18, 2015). During the conflict, France drafted roughly 200,000 West Africans into battle, Senegalese historians say. They were known as the Sharpshooters, a name born of mockery around their lack of formal training. At least 14,000 died. Others — including M'bap — fell into the hands of German soldiers, who sent Black prisoners to labor camps in northeastern France, saying they wanted to rid their soil of "racial contamination." The Thiaroye massacre (French: Massacre de Thiaroye; pronounced [tja. ʁwa]) was a massacre of French West African veterans of the 1940 Battle of France, by French forces on the morning of 1 December 1944. Thiaroye massacre – Wikipedia (Thiaroye massacre – Wikipedia, Wikipedia, https://en.wikipedia.org › wiki › Thiaroye_massacre).

Massacring soldiers for the colour of their skin or for their demand to be treated with the same dignity as their French comrades: this is what the massacres of Senegalese Tirailleurs at Chasselay (1940) in France and at Thiaroye (1944) in Senegal tell us. Today, the choice of certain intellectuals, historians or artists to revisit this very sensitive history while situating the responsibilities must serve to build spaces for dialogue and mutual understanding for a solid social cohesion – a comment (Amadou Coulibaly). Senegalese riflemen: this is what Louis Faidherbe, colonial administrator of French West Africa (AOF), decided to call the military corps he created in the French colonies of Africa, known as tirailleurs. This regiment, an armed unit, was created in 1857 with the aim of constituting a military corps composed solely of natives but led by a French commander. As a generic term, the expression 'Senegalese riflemen' deserves to be explained in order to remove confusion and to get away from simplistic visions. It is regrettable to see to what extent the lack of knowledge of the history of these soldiers leads certain political figures to make amalgams. According to a 9th November 2018 (publication of the French newspaper L'Obs, online January 2024), hundreds of thousands of tirailleurs took part in the First and Second World Wars. It notes that "one month after the declaration of the war, on 17th September 1914, the colonial army began to send units of African riflemen to metropolitan France. Throughout the First World War, around 200,000 riflemen from French West Africa, known as AOF, fought under the French flag." The result was that 15% of them, which means 30,000 soldiers, were killed. On 1st April 1940, 179,000 Senegalese riflemen were recruited for the Second World War according to official figures, 40,000 of whom were involved in the fighting in mainland France. "Nearly 17,000 soldiers were killed, disappeared or wounded in action during this year." Among the soldiers killed during and after the war, some lost their lives in often terrible and inhuman conditions. This is what the massacres of Chasselay in June 1940 and later that of Thiaroye in December 1944 teach us (Amadou C, online March 2024). Among the 47,000 Tirailleurs who fell on the battlefields during the First and Second World Wars, we also must add those who were massacred after the war. After four years of war on different fronts in Europe, the Senegalese riflemen were repatriated to Senegal in 1944 at the end of the Second World War with a promise from the French army: to pay them their indemnity. Unfortunately, this promise was never kept by the French administration, which at the same time became the executioner of their former war companions. Indeed, while they were claiming their due as they had been promised at the time of their mobilisation, the Senegalese Tirailleurs were attacked by the French army during the morning of the 1st December 1944 on the orders of Commander General Dagnan. This unjust and horrific massacre was denied by the French army, which then spoke of a rebellion by the riflemen. It was very early in the morning, around 5.30 a.m when the men of Commandant Dagnan opened fire on the Tirailleurs. In a first report of this despicable massacre, Commandant Dagnan gives a death toll of 30 men buried in a mass grave in the camp of Thiaroye. In a speech in 2014, the French President at that time, François Hollande, admitted up to 70 victims. This silence of the French authorities for over 70 years on the exact figure of this colonial massacre teaches us enough about the fact that colonialism was never a philanthropic enterprise – as the Martiniquan Aimé Césaire pointed out in his 'Discourse on Colonialism', published in 1950, six years after this massacre. Thus, some estimate that hundreds of victims were killed. Although it is not easy to give an exact figure for the number of people massacred at Thiaroye, it is clear that it is one of the most striking French colonial crimes of the 20th century (Amadou C, online March 2024).

The Strength of a political elite of Senegal especially from Léopold Sédar Senghor in the liberation of the Country towards self-determination during the 1950s was really very important to end colonial representation but shaping new doors for the implantation of neo-colonial mechanisms in the establishment of bilateral relations between the two countries (France –Senegal) in 1960. It is very important to know more about Léopold Sédar Senghor, born on 9 October 1906 at Joal, Senegal and died 20 December 2001 at Verson, France. He was a poet, teacher and first president of Senegal in 1960 well known as a major proponent of the concept of Negritude. Senghor was the son of a prosperous Serer planter and trader. His mother was a Roman Catholic and sent him to a nearby Catholic mission and seminary in order to fulfill his first ambition, which was to become a teacher-priest. At age 20 he realized that the priesthood was not his calling, and he transferred to the lycée (secondary school) in the capital city of Dakar. In 1928 Senghor went to Paris on a partial scholarship and continued his formal studies at the Lycée Louis-le-Grand and at the Sorbonne (Léopold Senghor | president of Senegal | Britannica.com; https://www.britannica.com › Leopold-Senghor).

During these years Senghor discovered the unmistakable imprint of African art on modern painting, sculpture, and music, which confirmed his belief in Africa's potential contribution to modern culture. In 1935 Senghor became the first African *agrégé*, the highest rank of qualified teacher in the French school system, which allowed him to teach at both the lycée and university levels. He first taught French in Tours, but eventually he became a professor of African languages and civilization at the École Nationale de la France d'Outre-Mer. Drafted in 1939 at the beginning of World War II, he was captured in 1940 and spent two years in Nazi concentration camps, where he wrote some of his finest poems. On his release he joined the Resistance in France. After the war Senghor became a member of the French Constituent Assembly. In 1946 he was sent as one of Senegal's two deputies to the National Assembly in Paris. Elected on the Socialist ticket, Senghor founded the Senegalese Democratic Bloc in 1948 and, as that party's candidate, was reelected by a wide margin in the 1951 elections for the French National Assembly. Five years later he became mayor of Thiès, Senegal's railroad centre, and was reelected deputy. The French West African colonies increasingly pressed for independence. When the French parliament passed in 1956 the *loi cadre*, which gave a large measure of self-government to the African territories, Senghor was one of the first to oppose the act, because he felt its emphasis on territorial rather than federal government would result in the proliferation of small, unviable states. To counter the act, Senghor helped establish an alliance between French Equatorial Africa and French West Africa that led to the creation in 1959 of the short-lived Mali Federation, of which Senegal was a member along with French Sudan actual Mali, Dahomey which became Benin, and Upper Volta presently Burkina Faso. In December 1959 Senghor made an eloquent appeal to French President Charles de Gaulle for independence. The Mali Federation lasted only until the following August, when its last two members, Senegal and French Sudan, separated, Senegal became an independent republic, and Senghor was unanimously elected president. As chief executive, Senghor tried to modernize Senegal's agriculture, instill a sense of enlightened citizenship, combat corruption and inefficiency, forge closer ties with his African neighbours, and continue cooperation with the French. He advocated a form of socialism that was based on African realities and was often called "African socialism." Senghor's socialism was democratic and humanistic, and it shunned such slogans as "dictatorship of the proletariat." A vigorous spokesman for the Third World, he protested unfair terms of trade that worked to the disadvantage of African nations. Along with Aimé Césaire of Martinique and Léon G. Damas of French Guiana, Senghor was one of the originators in the 1930s and '40s of the concept of Negritude, which is often defined as the literary and artistic expression of the black African experience. Senghor became Negritude's foremost spokesman. In 1947 he helped establish the journal *Présence Africaine*, which published the works of African writers, and in 1948 he edited an anthology of French-language poetry by black Africans that became a seminal text of the Negritude movement (Léopold Sédar Senghor (1963) – YouTube, https://www.youtube.com › watch).

Senghor was distinguished poet in his own right whose books include *Chants d'ombre* (1945; *Songs of Shadow)*, *Hosties noires* (1948; *Black Offerings)*, *Éthiopiques* (1956), *Nocturnes* (1961), and *Élégies majeures* (1979; *Major Elegies*). His poetry was collected in *Oeuvre poétique* (1990; *Poetical Work*). Senghor was inducted into the French Academy in 1984, becoming the first African member in that body's history. After he left Senegalese politics, he retired to France, where he had been a citizen since 1932. He published a memoir, *Ce que je crois: négritude, francité, et civilisation de l'universel* (1988; "That Which I Believe: Negritude, Frenchness, and Universal Civilization"), as well as more poetry. Senghor's career was replete with paradoxes. Although a Roman Catholic and a Serer, he headed a predominantly Muslim, Wolof nation. An outstanding intellectual, he drew his main support from the peasants. A fervent supporter of African culture, he also appreciated the cultural contributions of the West. A distinguished poet, he was in addition a professional politician of great skill who guided his nation to independence and proved to be an able and effective leader (Amy McKenna). Négritude was lead by the Martinican poet Aimé Césaire, French Guianese poet Léon Damas and the future Senegalese President (who was also a poet) Léopold Sédar Senghor. It was influenced by a range of styles and art movements including surrealism and the Harlem Renaissance. By using the imagery of night, Senghor is asserting that one's African heritage (one's Blackness) is both inescapable and natural (like night-time). Negritude is the active rooting of an Black identity in this inescapable and natural African essence.He was a Minister in France before his country's independence was proclaimed. Elected on September 5, 1960, Mr. Senghor presided over the just-born Republic of Senegal. He is the author of the Senegalese anthem, the Red Lion. He resigned from office before the end of his fifth presidential term, in December 1980 (Etsey Atisu, 2019, Faith in Empire: Religion, Politics, and Colonial Rule ...University of Chicago, https://www.journals.uchicago.edu › doi).

CONCLUSION

Senegal and Mali – August 20 and September 22. The independent republics of Senegal and Mali were born from the ashes of the short-lived Federation of Mali – established on January 17, 1959 – made up of Senegal and what was then French Sudan. The two countries initially intended to form a union but after significant differences between Léopold Sédar Senghor, the Senegalese president of the Federal Assembly, and Modibo Keita, his Sudanese prime minister, the authorities in Dakar withdrew from the federation and

declared independence on August 20. Authorities in Bamako followed suit a month later. Rosemary Anieze, wearing the sash of "Miss Independence," is popular as she parades outside the National Stadium in Lagos, Sept. 28, 1960, after winning the title from 15 other contestants in Nigeria.

A. BOOKS AND ARTICLES

- O'Neill, A. (2024). Number of slaves taken from Africa by region and century 1501-1866.
- Amadou, C. The tragic fate of the Senegalese riflemen: An obscure story to share Amadou Coulibaly, The tragic fate of the Senegalese riflemen: An obscure story to share.
- McKenna, A. The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, Léopold Sédar Senghor.
- Barry, B. (1998). Senegambia and the Atlantic Slave Trade, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Bethell, L. (1966). The Mixed Commissions for the Suppression of the Transatlantic Slave Trade in the Nineteenth Century, *The Journal of African History*, *7*(1), 79-93.
- Bernard, S. (2004). The Rise of Free Trade Imperialism: Classical Political Economy the Empire of Free Trade and Imperialism 1750–1850 , Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Boubacar, B. (2012). The Kingdom of Waalo: Senegal before the Conquest, New York, Diasporic African Press.
- Benjamin, E. S. (February 25 2019). What Are The Major Natural Resources Of Senegal? Senegal, Exploitation of Natural Resources.
- Bronwen, E. (2013). Abolition and Empire in Sierra Leone and Liberia, London, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Newbury, C. W. (22 January 2009). The Formation of the Government General of French West Africa.
- David, M. (March 18, 2015). The time has come for France to own up to the massacre of its own troops in Senegal.
- Everill. (2020). Not Made by Slaves: Ethical Capitalism in the Age of Abolition, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Etsey Atisu 6 iconic speeches of African independence leaders caught on video, July 24, 2019
- François G. Richard, French conquest of Senegal.
- Goree: Senegal's slave island, 27 June, 2013.
- Lovejoy, H. Henry Lov Joshua Goodwin, Erica Ivins, Richard Roberts et Rebecca Wall, (2020), The Registers of Slave Liberation in Colonial Senegal: Preliminary Analysis of the Evidence from 1894 to 1903.
- James, F. S. (1993). West African Slavery and Atlantic Commerce: The Senegal River Valley, 1700–1860 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.163–193
- James, L. A., & Webb, J. R. (22 January, 2009). The Trade in Gum Arabic: Prelude to French Conquest in Senegal, Cambridge University Press.
- Jenna, N. (Spring 2022). Trading for Empire: Commerce and French Colonial Rule in Senegal, c. 1817–1860, Volume 23, Number 1, Journal of Colonialism and Colonial History.
- John, G., & Ronald, R. (1953). "The Imperialism of Free Trade," The Economic History Review, New Series, 6(1), 1-15.
- Kanya-Forstner, A. S. (1969). The Conquest of the Western Sudan: A Study in French Military Imperialism. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lucie Gallistel Colvin. (1981). Historical Dictionary of Senegal. Scarecrow Press/ Metuchen. NJ–London, pp. 81–98.
- Martin, A. K. (1968). Islam and Imperialism in Senegal: Sine-Saloum, 1847-1914, Leland Stanford Junior University, Edinburgh University Press.
- Martin, A. K. (2009). "Slaves, Gum, and Peanuts: Adaptation to the End of the Slave Trade in Senegal, 1817–1848," William and Mary Quarterly 66, pp. 894–913.
- Martin, A. K. (28 July 1998), Slavery and Colonial Rule in French West Africa, Cambridge University Press.
- Mamadou, D. (16 December 2002). The French Colonial Policy of Assimilation and the Civility of the Originaires of the Four Communes (Senegal): A Nineteenth Century Globalization Project.
- Jean-Baptiste, R. (25 May 2023). Multiracial Identities and the Consolidation and Subversion of Racialized French Colonial Rule in French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa, ca. 1900–1930, Multiracial Identities in Colonial French Africa.
- Robin Law, ed., (1995). From Slave Trade to 'Legitimate' Commerce: The Commercial Transition in Nineteenth-Century West Africa, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Stilwell, S. (2014). Slavery and Slaving African History, Cambridge, University Press. Cambridge.
- The Thiaroye Massacre: The colonial crime France doesn't ...YouTube · TRT World, 4 Mar 2021
- 'Thiaroye 44': New documentary explores 1944 massacre of ...
- Thiaroye: a dark chapter in France and Senegal's common ...

B. WEBSITE SOURCES

- What Are The Major Natural Resources Of Senegal? WorldAtlas, https://www.worldatlas.com ›Economics
- Sénégal, Natural Resource Governance Institute, https://resourcegovernance.org › countries › senegal
- Les priorités du Sénégal en matière de développement économique incluent l'exploitation de ses richesses en minerais, le dévRepublic of Senegal - Western Africa, Nations Online Project, https://www.nationsonline.org › se...
- Natural resources: Fish, peanuts, phosphate, iron ore, gold, titanium. ... Industries: Agricultural and

fish processing, phosphate mining, fertilizer production, ...

- Senegal, National Archives | (.gov), https://clintonwhitehouse3.archives.gov › ...
- Natural resources: Fish, peanuts, phosphate, iron ore, gold, titanium. Agriculture (24% of GDP): Product-peanuts, millet, sorghum, manioc, rice, cotton.
- eloppement de sources d'énergie ...
- Senegal, Exploitation of Natural Resources, International Committee of the Red Cross, http://casebook.icrc.org › case-study
- These include forcibly displacing people from their communities, forcing people to work, acquiring questionable assets through pillage, using abusive security ...
- Extraction des ressources naturelles : Les Sénégalais ... Afrobarometer, https://www.afrobarometer.org › articles › extraction-...
- Extraction des ressources naturelles : Les Sénégalais ambivalents entre les avantages et la dégradation de l'environnement. 30 May 2023 Senegal.
- Thiaroye 44: Investigating a colonial-era massacre in ...France 24, https://www.france24.com › ... › Shows › Reporters
- 13 May 2022 — But on December 1, 1944, scores of them were gunned down in unclear circumstances by the very French forces they fought alongside. What really ...
- A little-known massacre in Senegal | Features, Al Jazeera, https://www.aljazeera.com › features › 2013/11/22 › a...
- 22 Nov 2013 — It's been almost 70 years since French commanding officers turned their guns on their own soldiers – black Africans. ... It's been almost 70 years ...
- Thiaroye massacre and its memories (The), EHNE, https://ehne.fr › colonial-and-post-colonial-memories
- 7 Apr 2022 — The tirailleurs were taken to the military camp of Thiaroye, where they were supposed to await their demobilization before returning to their ...
- The 1944 Thiaroye Massacre in Senegal, a Shameful ...Global Voices, https://globalvoices.org › 2017/06/23 › the-1944-thiar...
- 23 Jun 2017 — On December 1, 1944, an unspeakable tragedy took place at the military camp of Thiaroye, a small village in the suburbs of Dakar.
- The time has come for France to own up to the massacre of ... The Conversation, https://theconversation.com › the-time-has-come-for-f...
- 18 Mar 2015 — In December 1944, between 35 and 70 tirailleurs sénégalais – colonial troops from French West Africa – were killed at a demobilisation camp ...
- The tragic fate of the Senegalese riflemen: An obscure ... Stimmen gegen Rassismus und Populismus
- https://stimmengegenrassismus.blog › 2023/01/23 › th...
- 23 Jan 2023 — Massacred at Chasselay for having been black soldiers daring to fight the Army of the Third Reich, the Senegalese Tirailleurs were also the ...
- A family's 76-year quest for truth — and justice, Washington Post, https://www.washingtonpost.com › world › 2020/09/09
- 9 Sept 2020 — During the conflict, France drafted roughly 200,000 West Africans into battle, Senegalese historians say. They were known as the Sharpshooters, ...
- Images for French Colonial massacred in senegal
- Thiaroye massacre – Wikipedia, Wikipedia, https://en.wikipedia.org › wiki › Thiaroye_massacre
- Commerce and French Colonial Rule in Senegal, c. 1817–1860, Johns Hopkins University, https://muse.jhu.edu › article
- by J Nigro · 2022 — French agents in the colony believed that the expansion of commerce would create order in the wider region, materially benefitting the ...
- France and Senegal: The End of the Affair?, JSTOR, https://www.jstor.org › stable
- by T Chafer · 2003 · Cited by 22 — Senegal was France's oldest colony in black Africa, and the two countries have main- tained the close ties developed during the colonial period since political ...
- Commercial Rivalries and French Policy on the Senegal https://www.jstor.org › stable
  by MO McLane · 1986 · Cited by 20 — The French Ministry of the Navy and the Colonies set a new course in Senegal in 1853,1 a ... acting as free agents, had been the main competitors of the.
- Senegal: Historian decries long shadows of colonialism, Anadolu Agencyhttps://www.aa.com.tr ›, africa › senegal-historian-decr...
- 20 Jun 2018 — French colonial remnants still active in Senegal, said prominent historian of West African nation. Munira Abdelmenan Awel | 20.06.2018 - Update ...
- Faith in Empire: Religion, Politics, and Colonial Rule ...University of Chicago
- https://www.journals.uchicago.edu › doi
- As a French colony, Senegal was unique, with limited citizenship rights for residents in its Four Communes, its (often protected) Muslim majority, and as the ...
- West African Servicemen in French Colonial Conflicts, ... eScholarship.org, https://escholarship.org › content
- PDF by SJ Zimmerman · 2011 · Cited by 19 — Tirailleurs sénégalais were colonial soldiers and intermediaries who experienced French colonialism

unlike other colonized peoples. As employees of the colonial ... 169 pages

- Assimilation in 19th Century Senegal, Persée, https://www.persee.fr › doc › cea_0008-0055_1969_nu...
- by H Idowu · 1969 ·. Senegal is one of the few francophone African countries in which modern scholars have shown very great interest On the history of assimilation in the colony ...
- The French Colonial Policy of Assimilation and the Civility ... John Wiley, https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com › doi › abs
- by M Diouf · 1998 ·— Abstract. This article analyses French assimilation policy towards the four communes of the colony of Senegal, placing it in a new conceptual ...
- Wolof and Wolofisation: Statehood, Colonial Rule ...Brill, https://brill.com › display › book
- by A Keese · 2019 ·— Started by the Governor of Senegal, Léon Faïdherbe, in the 1840s and 1850s, the French intensified their military campaigns in the region from ...
- RETHINKING POLITICS IN THE COLONY: THE MÉTIS OF ...
- Cambridge University Press & Assessment, https://www.cambridge.org › core › journals › article › r...
- by H JONES · 2012 ·— In the 1870s, Third Republic France elaborated on earlier short-lived policies by re-establishing local assemblies and a legislative seat for Senegal in Paris.
- Allocution de Monsieur Léopold Sedar Senghor, Président de ..., https://www.wdl.org › item
- Ce discours au peuple du Sénégal par *Léopold* Sédar *Senghor* (1906-2001) a été prononcé au lendemain de son élection comme premier président de la ...
- What did Leopold Senghor accomplish?
- President Leopold Senghor making a speech at ..., https://www.gettyimages.com › detail › news-photo › p...
- President *Leopold* *Senghor* making a *speech* at *Independence* Day observance.. Get premium, high resolution news photos at Getty Images.
- Léopold Sédar Senghor (1963) – YouTube, https://www.youtube.com › watch
- 9 oct. 2015 - Ajouté par Les archives de la RTS
- En 1963, le président sénégalais *Léopold* Sédar *Senghor* fait le point sur le mouvement des non-alignés et sur sa ...
- language and ontology in colonial and postcolonial senegal, https://www.tandfonline.com › doi › abs
- de R Steadman-Jones - 2006 -
- 17 août 2006 - ... is a *speech* delivered in 1966 by the first President of *independent* Senegal, *Léopold* Sédar *Senghor*. In both cases, the structure of the Wolof ...
- de SS el-Malik - 2016 -
- Abstract: *Léopold* Sédar *Senghor's* 1961 *Speech* at Oxford University is a provocative ... sacrificed the idea of decolonial *independence* by arguing instead for a ...
- Léopold Senghor | president of Senegal | Britannica.com, https://www.britannica.com › Leopold-Senghor
- In December 1959 *Senghor* made an eloquent appeal to French President Charles de Gaulle for *independence*. The Mali Federation lasted only until the following August, when its last two members, Senegal and French Sudan, separated, Senegal became an *independent* republic, and *Senghor* was unanimously elected president.