

The History of the Twentieth Century

Episode 100

“These Desert Places of the Earth”

Transcript

[music: Fanfare]

When the Great War began, virtually the entire continent of Africa was ruled by some European power. What that meant in practice, in most places, was that African affairs were directed by a small number of European soldiers, officials, and business people who governed for their benefit and the benefit of their home countries, with little input from the native Africans.

When the Great War broke out in Europe, many Europeans in Africa hoped to avoid getting caught up in it. In their view, Europeans of all nationalities had to support each other to maintain control over the native Africans. But they would not get their wish. The conflict in Europe quickly became so bitter that its spillover into Africa was inevitable.

Welcome to *The History of the Twentieth Century*.

[music: Opening Theme]

Episode 100. These Desert Places of the Earth.

Africa usually gets short shrift in discussions of the Great War. Even though the Great War began to be called a *Weltkrieg* by some Germans as early as September 1914, the fighting in Europe gets most of the attention. Another name that was in use in 1914 was “The Great European War.”

But the fighting was by no means restricted to Europe. We already discussed the conflict in Asia and the Pacific, and today I want to talk about the situation in Africa. As I said at the top of the episode, virtually all of Africa is ruled by Europeans in 1914. The exceptions here are Liberia and Ethiopia, and of these, only Ethiopia can truly claim to be an indigenous African state. Ethiopia, by the way, will remain neutral throughout the Great War, although its ruler will flirt with aligning with the Ottoman Empire; I’ll get to that story later. Liberia will join the Allies in 1917.

The European states maintained military control of their African colonies through colonial armed forces. Typically, the rank and file of these armed forces were natives of the colonial territory commanded by European officers. These colonial armies were not like their European

counterparts. They were not equipped with the most up-to-date tools of modern offensive war, like artillery, motorcars, machine guns, airplanes, or bridging equipment. Even their uniforms were modest, and their rifles were likely to be hand-me-downs: whatever their European colleagues were using twenty years ago.

That's because these armies weren't created to make offensive war on neighboring colonies. They exist to keep the peace in their own colony, including suppressing opposition to European rule.

So that's the practical objection to using these colonial forces as if they were conventional armies and launching invasions of neighboring colonies: these soldiers aren't trained and equipped for that type of fighting. There's also the political objection, one that leapt at once to the mind of any European who had worked in Africa. If black Africans see black soldiers from the colony next door march in, shoot at white Europeans, disarm white Europeans, even evict white Europeans from their country, well, that could give them ideas. And once black African soldiers have had the experience of firing on white Europeans, even killing white Europeans, well, they probably aren't going to forget that experience anytime soon.

Most of the European holdings in Africa were recently acquired, and the European grip on Africa was not secure. It was often reliant on the support of native African soldiers and officials. War in Africa among the Europeans had the potential to undo decades of work establishing control over the continent.

But although Europeans in Africa were reluctant to turn on each other, in the end they did. As the war in Europe shifted from being about drawing borders in the Balkans to a clash of ideologies and cultures, Africa was inevitably drawn into the fighting.

I'd like to take a quick survey of the continent and talk about the impact of the Great War. We'll especially want to focus on the four German colonies in Africa, and I'll get to those later, but first I want to pick up a thread from last week and talk about Islam, the Ottoman Sultan's jihad, and Africa.

I'll start with Morocco, a country that we've already talked about at some length, most recently in episode 65. You'll recall that the French made Morocco into a protectorate, but that was only 1912, just two years ago, and there is still armed resistance to the French in the remote interior of the country. When the Great War began, France had some 80,000 soldiers in Morocco, African and European, to maintain French control. Needless to say, in those dark early days of the war, most of these soldiers were shipped to Europe to defend France.

The rebels in Morocco knew an opportunity when they saw one and began raiding French-controlled positions. A reckless French commander got it into his head that even small numbers of French troops would be enough to beat these ragtag Berbers, and the result on November 13, 1914, was the Battle of El Herri, where a force of 5,000 insurgents overwhelmed a French unit of

a little more than a thousand. Six hundred and twenty-three French and African soldiers were killed, including that reckless French commander. The casualties might have been worse, except that the insurgents stopped to loot the bodies of the fallen soldiers, allowing the survivors to flee. The insurgents lost fewer than 200.

The Battle of El Herri was just eight days after the French declared war on the Ottoman Empire, the former rulers of Morocco. The Ottomans and the Germans both saw the insurgency in Morocco as a useful weapon to bleed the French, and so they used their embassies in neutral Spain to communicate with the Moroccan rebels and provide them with money and weapons. The Spanish government proved willing to look the other way with regard to the communication and the money, but they drew the line at the weapons shipments. The Germans also tried to co-opt former Moroccan sultans Abdul-Aziz and Abdul-Hafid, both of whom had been deposed by the French. The Germans figured one or the other of them might help rally the often fractious Berber rebels, but neither of the former sultans was especially interested in assisting the Germans, and in the end, the French were able to at least hold their own in Morocco, despite the best efforts of the rebels and their Central Power patrons.

In Tunisia and Algeria, there were rising tensions between the native North Africans and Europeans in the early twentieth century, including the formation of Young Algeria and Young Tunisia movements. Technically, these two nations are quite different. Algeria, which in 1914 basically means just the Mediterranean coastal region, is officially a department of France, although Muslim North Africans are effectively second-class citizens who pay higher taxes, don't get to vote, and are even subject to a different legal code than their European neighbors.

Tunisia, on the other hand, has been a French protectorate since 1881. Here, too, native North Africans have fewer legal rights than do European immigrants. In Tunisia, most of the European immigrants are Italians, most of whom are themselves as poor as the native Tunisians, but nevertheless have a leg up because of their favored legal position. The result was a lot of tension between these two communities. In 1911, there was gunfire between French police and native Tunisians protesting over the status of an old Tunisian cemetery. This was the first incidence of violence between French and Tunisians in the 30-year history of the protectorate.

This incident foreshadowed an uptick in violence between Tunisians and the Italian immigrant community. On February 9, 1912, a tram in the city of Tunis struck and killed an eight-year old Tunisian. When the Italian-owned company refused to pay damages to the child's family, native Tunisians began a boycott of the trams and of Italian-owned businesses in Tunis. The French administration cracked down hard on this boycott, including imprisoning and deporting many of the leaders of Young Tunisia. The boycott collapsed, but the incident is remembered as a seminal moment in the development of Tunisian nationalism. It demonstrated the economic clout of native Tunisians and exposed the unjust and heavy-handed side of the so-called protectorate.

And I have to say as an American, I can't help but take note of the parallel with the Montgomery, Alabama bus boycott that would begin 43 years later, an equally seminal moment in the civil rights movement in the United States.

The fact that French troops were fighting North Africans in Morocco, to their west, and Italian troops were fighting North Africans in Libya to their east was also radicalizing for native Tunisians, although there would be no further outbreaks of violence in Tunisia during the Great War.

Speaking of Libya, you'll recall that Italy seized control of Libya from the Ottoman Empire in 1912 (episode 66), but in reality only won control of the coastal cities. The inhabitants of the interior of the country continued to resist Italian rule. Farther south, into the interior of the Sahara, there was a group called the Senussi. Maybe you could call them a tribe, or maybe a Muslim sect would be a better way of thinking about them. It's hard to say because they were a secretive bunch and seldom communicated with outsiders. The Senussi were founded in the early nineteenth century by Muhammad ibn Ali as-Senussi, a religious leader known as the Grand Senussi. He synthesized elements of Sufism and orthodox Islam. Rejected by the religious authorities of Arabia and by the Ottoman Turks, he set up schools and monasteries in inland Libya, and over the years the movement gained adherents and grew.

The Senussi were not what you would call religious extremists, nor were they violent. Their neighbors in North Africa regarded them as harmless eccentrics. That began to change in the early twentieth century, when first the French and then the Italians began to reach south from their Mediterranean coastal enclaves to extend their rule deeper into the Sahara. By the time the Great War began, the Senussi had about 10,000 fighters under arms and even had the means to manufacture their own ammunition.

In contrast with their conflicts with the French and Italians though, the Senussi maintained friendly relations with the British administration in Egypt. But that changed in November 1914, when Britain declared war on the Ottoman Empire, and the Sultan declared jihad. In early 1915, German and Turkish military officers were able to reach the oasis at Siwa through still-neutral Italy.

In my naïve Western mindset, when I hear the word "oasis," the picture that comes to mind is a little pond with maybe two or three palm trees growing around it. Siwa is an oasis, but it is an enormous oasis. It is capable of sustaining thousands of people, and was at this time a Senussi stronghold. If you look on a modern map, you will find it located in Egypt, near the Libyan border. But in 1914, the border between Libya and Egypt was not well defined, and desert nomads traveled among the oases heedless of which European power claimed to be in control of them.

The Turks and Germans were able to persuade Senussi leaders to attack into British Egypt from the west, at the same time the Turks would be attacking the Suez Canal from the east. The Turks

had the Sultan's call for jihad, and the Germans had money and modern weapons, which they were able to smuggle across the Mediterranean to the Senussi via U-boats from Austria, and the Senussi found all this to be pretty persuasive. What was also persuasive was that the British garrisons in Egypt were shrinking, as soldiers were being redeployed to the campaigns in Gallipoli and Mesopotamia.

And then there were those U-boats, which were good not only for smuggling arms but for blockading the towns along the western Egyptian coast. There was no rail line along the coast at the time, and western Egyptian coastal towns such as Sollum and Mersa Matruh communicated with the Nile valley by sea. The U-boats cut them off, and Senussi from Libya were able to capture Sollum in November 1915, forcing the British back to Mersa Matruh. Farther south, the Senussi and the British fought a series of engagements of oasis hopping. With small numbers of soldiers moving across vast regions of desert, this fighting was exactly the opposite of what you see on the Western Front. The British were able to cobble together units and tactics suited to this kind of fighting, employing newfangled equipment like armored cars and reconnaissance airplanes alongside more traditional methods, such as camels. The British actually formed a unit called the Imperial Camel Corps with soldiers from Australia, New Zealand, and Great Britain. The British were able to push the Senussi out of Egypt by early 1917, at which time the two parties signed a peace agreement, but the Senussi would continue fighting the Italians throughout the Great War.

The call for jihad was also answered by the Sultan of Darfur. When the British took control of Sudan, they allowed the Sultan of Darfur to rule more or less independently, provided only that he pay tribute to the British. When the British declared war on the Ottoman Empire and claimed control of Egypt and Sudan outright, the Sultan renounced the agreement with the British and threw in with Turkey. The British, fearing an attack into Sudan from Darfur while they were also dealing with the Turks and the Senussi, put together an Anglo-Egyptian expeditionary force of about 2,000 and sent it in to pacify Darfur. The expedition was a success, and by November 1916, the Sultan was dead and Darfur annexed into British Sudan.

Also in 1915, Africans of different ethnic communities along the upper Volta River banded together and began an uprising against French rule in what were then Senegal, Mali, and Niger, over French conscription of native Africans. These rebels also saw an opportunity to take advantage of French weakness due to the Great War. It was one of the largest uprisings in the history of colonial Africa and lasted until 1917, but the French prevailed in the end. After the war, the French would reorganize the region into its own colony, which they called Upper Volta, and is known today as Burkina Faso.

[music: Drum Jam]

In 1914, Germany had four colonies in Africa. Germany had been a latecomer to the imperialism game. Recall that the German Empire itself was a new state, having just come into being in 1871.

Its wily first chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, was in those early days of the Empire dismissive of the idea of acquiring territories in Africa, which he saw as an expensive distraction from what really mattered: German security in Europe. There's a story of Bismarck lecturing a would-be African adventurer who had wanted to show him his map of Africa: "Here is Russia and here is France, with Germany in the middle. That is *my* map of Africa." In other words, Germany has more pressing concerns, closer to home.

Ten years later, though, enthusiasm for African expansion was growing in Germany, and by 1884, even Bismarck was ready to give in. This was when King Leopold began staking his claim to the Congo, as we discussed all the way back in episode 19. The Congo basin was the last frontier of European exploration in Africa. In an earlier day, Africa was seen by Europeans as a vast continent, unexplored and impenetrable, with Europeans limited to establishing small enclaves along the coast as ports and trade posts. But modern technology was now making it feasible for Europeans to move inland from the coasts into tropical lands, and people in Europe began to realize that Africa was not infinite and that someday soon, every last bit of it was going to be claimed by someone. In Germany, a sense grew that a door was closing. It was now or never, get a piece of the pie or go home hungry.

We sometimes call this period the "Scramble for Africa." In fact, the nation that was doing most of the scrambling at this time was Germany. And that brings us to Gustav Nachtigal. Gustav Nachtigal was born in Saxony in 1834. He was the son of a Lutheran minister, studied medicine, and eventually came to live in Algeria and Tunis. He learned to speak Arabic and got involved in various expeditions into the interior of Africa, where the services of a physician were always welcome. In 1884, the German government under Bismarck appointed Nachtigal Commissioner for West Africa. German merchants had been developing business connections in the region, and Nachtigal was tasked with establishing German claims before the British or the French could move in and muscle the Germans out of their fledgling business operations. Nachtigal was responsible for the German claims to both Togoland and Cameroon.

With the Germans suddenly prowling through Africa and staking claims in regions the British and the French thought they had had to themselves, a sense of alarm grew in these two countries. How much were the Germans going to grab, and are we going to end up fighting a huge land war in Europe with Europe's best army over some obscure claim to bits of coastline in Africa? The British and the French found these questions disturbing.

The government of Portugal was disturbed also. Portugal had extensive claims to stretches of coastline in southern Africa, both along the Atlantic and Indian Ocean coasts. These were the lands that we know today as Mozambique and Angola. These claims dated all the way back to the days when Portuguese explorers first mapped out the route around Africa to get to the lucrative trade in the Far East. By 1884, though, Portugal was too small and too weak to hold these claims against a determined challenge from Britain or France or even Germany. So what

the Portuguese really needed was formal recognition of her African possessions from the major European powers.

So what came out of all this was the Berlin Conference of 1884-5, in which thirteen European nations plus the United States hashed out their claims to Africa. You may recall from episode 20 that this was how Leopold got his claim to the Congo, in return for an agreement that the Congo basin would be a free trade zone for all European powers. Portugal got recognition of her claims, although by the early twentieth century, Britain and Germany were discussing taking control of Portugal's African holdings for themselves, on the grounds that Portugal was incapable of governing them properly. Those discussions broke off when the Great War began.

Germany got recognition of her claims as well, along with the Portuguese and King Leopold. You may wonder why the British and the French were willing to concede this much. Neither Portugal nor Belgium is much of a threat, and Germany lacks the resources to hold onto African territory against determined British or French opposition.

But in fact, by 1884, both France and Britain are overextended themselves. The British have recently taken control of Egypt, with its vital canal, over French and Italian and Ottoman objections. France is claiming its own slice of the Congo basin and has recently taken control of Tunisia, against Italian and Ottoman objections. Both nations felt that it was worth granting Portugal and Germany and King Leopold their own claims, in return for recognition of British and French control of these territories. And turning the Congo into a free-trade zone was a deal sweetener. The British liked that idea because then British businesses could ply the Congo trade without the bother of British soldiers and officials administering the place. Because the whole point of colonialism is to make exotic goods available to your country's businesses.

Hold that thought for a minute, while I add that the British and the French also believed that allowing Germany to take some colonial possessions in Africa would ease German resentment and channel German expansionist tendencies away from her European neighbors. Both of these would be good things. Once the African issues were settled, the British Prime Minister William Gladstone would say that he looked "with satisfaction, sympathy, and joy upon the extension of Germany in these desert places of the Earth."

So that brings us to the four German colonies. I want to examine the history of German control of these territories. We'll do the smaller Togoland and Cameroon today, and reserve the larger and more important German Southwest Africa and German East Africa for future episodes.

[music: Street Music]

Let's begin with a look at Togoland. Togoland was technically a German protectorate, meaning the Germans were running the place in the name of the local rulers. The authority to make this claim was established the usual way. German explorers would get local African rulers to sign treaties granting Germany the right to control their relations with the rest of the world. These

local African rulers could not read the documents they were signing, of course, and their “Xs” were obtained either by deception or at gunpoint. It depended. In this manner, the Germans established control of a small strip of West African coastline in what was then called the Slave Coast. Europeans variously called stretches of the West African coastline the Gold Coast, the Ivory Coast, and the Slave Coast, based on what items of trade visiting European ships could expect to acquire from the native Africans.

From this bit of coastline, the Germans extended their control inland, to the north, which is why Togoland was essentially a long, skinny strip of African land wedged between British and French holdings. The Germans were interested in Togoland for the cotton, coffee, and cocoa beans that could be grown there. As was typical in those days, the Germans seized control of the best arable land, which was made into huge plantations where these crops were grown for export to Germany. These huge plantations were worked by unlanded native Togolese, who of course were unlanded because the Germans had just come in and taken the lands, burned their farms and homes, and driven them off. Now they were put to work for long hours under harsh conditions for minimal pay on land that used to be theirs to grow crops that would be shipped overseas to be enjoyed by someone else.

Togoland was the only German possession in Africa that was “self-supporting” as they say. Sometimes it is said that Togoland was the only German African possession that “turned a profit.” Both of these claims are misleading. What it actually means is that the German government treasury took in more tax revenue from Togoland than Togoland cost the German taxpayers to protect and administer. But it’s misleading to analyze a colony’s finances this way. The main reason why a European country wants a colonial possession is for the sake of the trade monopoly. The German government controls Togoland so that German businesses can extract cotton, coffee, and cocoa beans at a low price, ship them back to Germany, and sell them there at a high price. The German government administers the territory, including building roads and railroads and port facilities and providing security and administration, in order to create a climate where private German interests can make money. The German government is perfectly willing to provide these services at the expense of German taxpayers in order to facilitate German trade.

And by the way, when I say the German government “provides security” for German interests, that includes making sure the natives work the fields and keep their mouths shut. Apologists for colonialism, then and now, use the argument that the fact that these colonies were a net loss for the European governments that administered them proves that colonialism was actually an act of charity: Europeans spending their own money to improve the lives of peoples on other continents. But that argument only works if you ignore all the private wealth generated in these colonies. Private wealth that goes to European elites. Not to the natives, nor even the ordinary Europeans whose tax money is keeping the colony in business.

It’s not just German colonies that work this way, of course. All colonies work this way. The entire colonial project amounts to European elites forcing ordinary Europeans to finance the

subjugation of other lands for the benefit of those same European elites. You might even be tempted to say that colonialism is a huge scam in which ordinary Europeans are taxed and conscripted so that non-Europeans can be subjugated all for the sake of a small number of wealthy Europeans who cloak their greed in the mantle of patriotic nationalism while others pay the bills. But be careful. If you start talking like that, everyone is going to think you are a socialist.

Sorry. Had to get that off my chest. Anyway, my point with regard to Togoland is that when we say this colony is quote-unquote “self-supporting,” what we really mean is that the German government is getting quite a lot of tax money from Togoland—which suggests the business interests there are really raking in the marks—but of course it’s also true that the German government doesn’t need to spend very much to keep Togoland running, since it’s so small. In fact, at the outbreak of the war, there were only a handful of German administrators in Togoland. There were no soldiers, and local policing and security was largely conducted by natives working for the German government.

So Togoland is a sitting duck if British forces from the neighboring Gold Coast or French forces from neighboring Dahomey want to invade. The problem is, there isn’t a lot of military force available in those places either. I mean, why would you even bother? Why not let the war be a European war and let the African colonies just keep chugging along same as always?

There was some sentiment for that, as I suggested at the top of the episode. But the British government in particular had little patience for this viewpoint and was keen to seize Togoland as quickly as possible. The reason was that Togoland had a powerful wireless station. It was the only German colonial possession close enough to Europe that the station there could communicate directly, by radio, with the German government in Berlin. Wireless transmissions from Togoland could be received in any of Germany’s other African colonies, and from there relayed on to German cruisers at sea in the Atlantic or Indian Oceans.

You’ll recall from episode 95 how worried the Royal Navy and the British government were about German ships raiding British commerce. Remember *Kronprinz Wilhelm*? Remember *Emden*? As we’ve seen, just the threat of German raiding was enough to choke off British commerce, and this network of wireless stations allows the German Admiralty to communicate with and coordinate the actions of German raiders over a large portion of the world’s oceans.

And the key chokepoint in the German wireless network—well, you know, it’s early twentieth-century wireless and shortwave hasn’t been invented yet—the chokepoint was Togoland. Shut down the station in Togoland, and the whole network goes dark. So that’s what happened. French- and British-controlled forces began moving into Togoland from the neighboring territories as soon as the war was declared. On August 7, an African corporal in the British Gold Coast Regiment called Alhaji Grunshi became the first British soldier to fire his weapon in combat in the Great War.

Togoland's defenders were outmatched, and the best they could manage was a fighting withdrawal into the interior of the country. On August 25, with enemy forces closing in, the German engineers operating the wireless station destroyed it, and Togoland surrendered to the Allies the following day.

The story of German control over Cameroon is much the same; even Dr. Nachtigal is in both stories. German businesses had trading posts at Duala, on the coast of the Bight of Biafra, which is where the West African coast takes a sharp right turn south. By the Berlin Conference, this collection of trading posts became the German protectorate of Kamerun, and the Germans began moving inland. Bananas were a major crop here.

You'll recall that German Kamerun expanded in size after the 1911 Morocco crisis, when the French agreed to give over some territory from French Equatorial Africa to allow the Germans to save face. This territory was incorporated into a new and expanded Kamerun.

When the Great War broke out, armed forces from neighboring British Nigeria, French Equatorial Africa, and the Belgian Congo moved into Cameroon, just as they had in Togoland. But Cameroon was bigger, and large parts of it were undeveloped and largely unexplored by Europeans. German resistance was stubborn and the Germans were able to recruit native soldiers to oppose the invaders. In September 1914, the British and French landed on the coast and took Duala, the most important town. But German resistance in the interior of the country continued for another year and a half, until February 1916.

By then, though, it was clear that the German resistance was collapsing, and the German commander in Cameroon ordered the surviving German soldiers and German civilians accompanying them to retreat into the neighboring neutral Spanish possession of Río Muni. Some native Cameroonians sympathetic to the Germans also went with them. The sudden influx of thousands of armed Germans and Cameroonians into little Río Muni was quite the shock for the Spanish authorities there, who had fewer than 200 soldiers and police of their own, certainly not enough to intern the new arrivals. Most of the native Africans stayed on in Río Muni; most of the Germans were able to avail themselves of neutral transport by Spanish and Dutch ships and made their way back home to Germany.

We'll have to stop there for today, although we will come back to Africa in future episodes. Thanks for listening, and thanks to Godfree and Markus for their donations, and thank you to Audun for being a patron of the podcast. You can be a patron of the podcast or make a one-time donation by going to the website at historyofthetwentiethcentury.com and clicking on the Patreon button to become a patron or the PayPal button for a one-time gift.

Well. This is the one hundredth episode. You know, two years ago when I began this podcast, I numbered the first episode "zero-zero-one," and I wondered to myself if I was being overly optimistic to put that leading zero there. Ha! Today, that decision is totally vindicated. But I have to admit that I never would have lasted this long without all of you. Everything you do—

listening, downloading, subscribing, emailing me, posting comments, tweeting the podcast, ratings and reviews at the iTunes store and other places, sending gifts, becoming a patron—it all encourages me and helps keep me going. So thank you to everyone who ever did any of those things. This podcast wouldn't exist without you.

But now I have to turn to a scheduling matter. I have tried over the course of this podcast never to skip more than one week at a time, in order to keep the podcast flowing and not make any of you wait too long, but I'm going to have to make an exception this one time and skip the next *two* weeks. The next two Sundays are Christmas Eve and New Year's Eve, so that's complicated enough, but I'm also scheduled to go in for some minor surgery just before Christmas. That makes it a triple whammy, and I'm just not going to be able to cope with unless I can take a longer break.

So that means this will be the last episode for the year 2017. But, as always, I will be reading and writing and working on the podcast in the background as best I can during the break, and I hope you'll join me in three weeks' time, on the first Sunday of 2018, on *The History of the Twentieth Century*, when the podcast returns with an episode pondering the strategic situation Germany finds herself in at the beginning of 1915. With no end to the war in sight, Germany began to look like a giant fortress, under siege. Sieges don't usually end well for the besieged, unless they take the initiative. Strike a blow somewhere, next time, on *The History of the Twentieth Century*.

Oh, and one more thing. In 1976, the French film director Jean-Jacques Annaud released his first film, known in English as *Black and White in Color*. Produced and filmed in Ivory Coast, it's a dark comedy about a small French settlement in the interior of Africa in 1915. When these eccentric French settlers finally learn that the Great War has broken out months earlier, they take it as their patriotic duty to seize control of a nearby German settlement. And of course they fulfill their patriotic duty by enlisting native Africans to do the dirty work for them. Hilarity and tragedy ensue.

Black and White in Color won the 1976 Academy Award for Best Foreign Language Film, making it the first, and as of the release date of this episode the only, Oscar-winning film from Ivory Coast.

[music: Closing Theme]