



British and German Ambitions in East African Ports

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Abstract:

East Africa is considered one of the most important strategic regions in the world, given its command of vital waterways of major commercial and military importance, in addition to its geographical proximity to Britain's colonies in India. Its importance increased during the period of international colonial rivalry, particularly between Britain and Germany, as it became a major arena for conflict between them.

This study examines the period in which the African continent was subject to European control. Britain and Germany were in a strong position to compete for colonies, with Africa being one of the most prominent arenas of this competition. In East Africa, both Britain and Germany were able to impose their influence over several regions and brutally exploit their human and material resources.

Britain emerged as the largest colonial power in Africa compared to other European countries, especially after the Berlin Conference (1884-1885), which enabled it to control vast areas of the continent in the center, north, east, and west. Until 1914, Britain maintained its interests in East Africa by placing the Sultans of Zanzibar under its political and military tutelage and consolidating their control along the coast, from Warshaik in the north to Cape Delgado in the south, near the Portuguese colonies.

Germany, for its part, viewed Tanganyika as a major axis of its influence in East Africa, thanks to its unique geographical location, and sought to strengthen its control and direct administration over it. The German-British rivalry over Tanganyika was part of the global imperialist policy that prevailed in Europe during the nineteenth century. After Germany acquired Tanganyika, it exploited it excessively and divided the lands of East Africa without consulting the indigenous people or taking their interests into account.

Keywords: European Colonialism, British-German Rivalry, East African Ports, Colonial Conflict, European Influence in Africa, British-German Occupation.

Introduction

The African continent has been and still is distinguished by its historical, economic, political and geographical importance, as it overlooks a group of seas and oceans, in addition to being an important source of food and energy alike, in addition to being the richest continent in the world in its reserves of various minerals at the global level. Moreover, it is a linking area between the continents of Asia, Europe and the Australian continent to the south. Therefore, it became the focus of attention of the major European countries, which sought a foothold to obtain these resources, in addition to considering them market outlets for disposing of their various products. If we take into account the competition of the major powers, led by Britain, Germany, Portugal, France and other countries, it has become clear that we are facing a colonial race to control the possessions of that continent. The Berlin Conference, which was held with the blessing of the major colonial powers, Germany and Britain, came to consolidate the process of dividing the African continent between these countries. According to the indicators of foreign trade, which became an arena for international conflict, Britain and Germany had to seek a foothold for themselves in the ports of the eastern African continent to be a point of connection between the interior regions of the countries of the eastern continent and their coasts, which established ports near or on them, and the focus of the conflict between the major countries was (Tanganyika) and some of the coasts in the countries of that region, so it became like the key that opened all the doors closed in the face of foreign trade, and in return those ports had a great impact in improving the industry of the major countries to find in the end markets for their disposal, or to supply the factories with the raw and primary materials that came to them through those ports and coasts. The research topic is divided into an introduction, three chapters, a conclusion, and a list of sources. The first chapter discusses the British orientation toward East African ports until 1914. The second chapter examines German colonialism and penetration into East African ports until 1914. The third chapter highlights the most important factors that facilitated the growth of German trade in East African ports until 1914. The research topic relied on a variety of sources, including Arabic and translated books, as well as letters and dissertations on the topic. Periodicals also played a significant role in enriching an important aspect of the research.

1- The British Orientation toward East African Ports Until 1914

European countries' interest in Africa's East Coast did not begin until late, as the British had been active on the other side of Africa, the West Coast, for more than three hundred years. This was despite the East Coast's military importance in the Indian Ocean and its attraction to British interests, as Britain had close ties with India as a British colony (17). Britain held the greatest influence on the African continent when comparing its territories with those of other European colonial powers. After the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 and the resulting settlements, it was able to extend its influence over vast areas of the African continent in the center, north, east, and west. This control continued until the mid-twentieth century, when the process of granting these countries their national independence began. It is worth noting that successive British governments administered these colonies through indirect rule, such as the policy of assimilation, participation, and the policy of "take and demand."(13)

There are a number of factors that helped Britain move toward the East African coast, including:

1. The success of the American Revolution against British rule in 1783, which prompted the British government to feel the need to move toward the East African coast to recoup its holdings in the Americas.
2. The threats of the French Revolutionary government and Napoleon's wars and ambitions, an example of which was the British-French clash at Abu Qir, near the Egyptian coast, during Napoleon Bonaparte's campaign in Egypt in 1798.

3. The strength of the British naval fleet, which was the undisputed master of the seas (27).

Britain's interest in the East African coast began to grow at the beginning of the nineteenth century, driven by its interests in India and the Indian Ocean trade, and its desire to maintain complete control over all routes leading to the Indian subcontinent, which was an important source of raw materials and a huge market for British goods, surpassing the entire African market in importance. It was natural for the British to focus their attention on the Sultanate of Zanzibar, whose control extended across the East African coast. It was also natural for Britain to use the slave trade as a pretext for intervening in East Africa, under the pretext of working to halt that trade, paving the way for control of the coast and its rich trade, which Livingstone described in detail when he published the results of his voyage in the 1870s. Britain also aimed, through its intervention in the Zanzibar Sultanate, to transform the Indian Ocean into a British lake, deterring competition from the French, who had established Madagascar as their base in the Indian Ocean and thus reasserted their presence in the region after Britain had succeeded in expelling them following the Napoleonic Wars (26). Britain took its first steps toward controlling East Africa by concluding a treaty with Sayyid Said in 1822, prohibiting Arab merchants from selling slaves in lands belonging to Christian states. Although this meant closing the British, French, and Portuguese colonies to Arab merchants, thereby harming the resources of the Sultanate of Muscat, Oman, and Zanzibar, Said was courteous to the British when he told them that despite the heavy losses his country would incur as a result of the treaty, he was willing to sign it even if it entailed even greater losses to please the British government. The treaty granted the British fleet the right to inspect Arab ships in the Indian Ocean beyond a line sixty miles off the East African coast, thus placing Arab shipping under British control. The East India Company's naval vessels were also permitted to inspect Arab ships (26). On the other hand, the British administrative system in the African colonies was based on a set of principles, the most important of which was the necessity of establishing a state of cooperation between local and tribal leaders, in addition to the involvement of these leaders in administrative institutions, provided that the final decision in each colony remained in the hands of the British Governor-General, who had broad powers in the areas of imposing taxes, legislation, permitting the carrying of weapons, and approving the assumption of power by local leaders (13). In addition, the British system of government in East Africa was distinguished by the legal distinction between the colony, the protectorate, and the trusteeship area. As for the crown colony, its residents were considered British subjects and were administratively subject to the British Colonial Office. As for the protectorate, its residents were considered protected persons, i.e., foreigners in the regions of the empire outside their country. From here arose the system of indirect rule for Britain in the administration of its colonies in East Africa (28). It is noteworthy in reality that Britain had often sought, before direct military intervention, to pave the way for colonial control through private parties such as individuals, private companies, missionary societies, or settlements, so that this would then justify its political control under the pretext of defending these interests. There is no doubt that these settlers, merchants, and missionaries were working, each in his own field, to create colonial groups that would have legal, financial, and administrative institutions linked to the mother country. This indicates the multiplicity of different colonial goals in various fields (25).

It is worth noting that the British government until the end of the eighteenth century did not feel the importance of the East African coasts, despite the expansion of the movement of British commercial and military ships in the Indian Ocean as a result of the control of the British East India Company and the superiority of its influence in India following Britain's victory over France in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763) and the Peace of Paris, which ended the state of war between the two countries in 1763. To regulate the colonial ambitions between the two countries, a peace treaty was concluded between Britain and France, known as the Treaty of Aden, on September 6, 1783. Through this treaty, Britain adopted a trade system based on mutual benefit between the two countries, abolishing the duties imposed on trade between them. Meanwhile, the British government emphasized the importance of its sea lanes and lines of communication on the East African coast.

The first calls appeared in the British House of Commons for the occupation of Egypt with the aim of securing British maritime communications. British Prime Minister William Pitt defended the Treaty of Aden before the British House of Commons because it would lead to the realization of Britain's economic and political dream of reaching the East African coast(15). In 1832, the British government expanded and transformed the commercial port of Liverpool, which had been a major port for the slave trade, into an important port for many commercial goods, especially palm oil. Thus, British companies, including the Liverpool Company, no longer exploited the ports East Africa was not merely transporting African labor physically to another part of the world, but instead exploiting African labor and African raw materials within Africa itself. Therefore, we find that this port focused, throughout the nineteenth century, on importing the produce of African farmers to a large extent. It also controlled, with the support of the industrial areas of Manchester and Yorkshire, a large proportion of British and European trade with South and East Africa (11). In order to ensure the greatest possible profits, British commercial institutions and agencies found it necessary to form monopolistic unions among themselves to fix the prices paid to African farmers, in addition to expanding their commercial activity on the coasts of East Africa to include mining and fishing (2). During the reign of Queen Victoria (1837-1901) , British activity in East Africa increased. The British government began its activity with Sultan Said of Oman and concluded a treaty with him in 1839, granting him some privileges, including the appointment of a British political representative at the Sultan's court. After Sultan Said made Zanzibar his capital, the British government appointed Sir Hammerton was Britain's representative to the Sultan, thus enabling the British government to interfere in the internal affairs of Oman (3). Furthermore, the British consulate in Zanzibar was under the guardianship of the Government of India until 1883. This was a recognition of the importance of British Indians' patronage of trade in Zanzibar, as well as the potential importance of East African ports located on the Cape of Good Hope route to India, an important sea route to India. This route, even after the opening of the Suez Canal, was considered by many specialists to be the safest route in times of crisis. On the other hand, the slave trade was the most popular and profitable type of trade at the time, and by virtue of its presence in India, Britain was working to maintain its transportation routes to India. Britain also viewed East African ports as the natural route to it, as its ships found their way to most of these ports. Britain was one of the most prominent European powers that facilitated the slave trade during the eighteenth century. , and their share is considered the largest of this trade (17), until the nineteenth century, and the first on that reached the number of slaves who arrived in America about (6,132,900) Britain's share alone of this activity was about (2,532,300), but that did not prevent the emergence of movements against the slave trade in Britain itself from groups known as "Humanitarians", and from clergymen and others until attempts began to enact laws that consider this trade forbidden, and efforts were made to eliminate it, and was formed in Britain in 1783 (the Anti-Slavery Society), and among those who emerged during this movement to abolish slavery was the member of the British Parliament (William Wilburn), whose efforts were crowned by the approval of the British Parliament to abolish slavery in Britain in 1807, the source of the British decree in 1811 determines certain penalties for everyone who works in this trade, but what concerns us is the decision issued in 1833 decided to prohibit slavery in all parts of the British Empire, This matter, that Britain took the issue of combating the slave trade as a pretext to achieve its colonial goals in the African continent (7). Until 1880, the British were not thinking about the African continent with its enormous size, and in their view, it was only their way to India. If Britain was interested in Egypt at this time, it was not only because of the Suez Canal, but because Egypt constituted an important part of the Ottoman Empire, which was the subject of British interest in the Mediterranean basin. There were also sites that constituted centers on the trade route to India, such as Zanzibar. Therefore, the Bombay government was the one that managed its affairs according to its own interests, and this interest was represented in distancing every European competitor for fear that it would affect the nearest route to India. But in 1882, everything changed. A sudden revolution occurred in African political relations with Britain's occupation of Egypt in 1882, which, because of the Suez Canal, was the shortest route to its

colonies in India. This led to the British clashing with the Sudanese issue and its control over Egyptian Sudan. Britain continued its occupation efforts. To impose its colonial influence on the entire Nile from its source in the Great Lakes of southern Sudan, which constitutes an area rich in water resources, agricultural goods, and available raw materials, until it reached southern Uganda, in addition to its occupation of the areas of the river's mouth in the Mediterranean Sea to the north. In its thinking, Britain wanted to control this strategic region politically, economically, and commercially and make it a source and resource for all its resources, which it needed for the purpose of operating its industrial machine in Europe. The completion of this road to India was of such importance that it required its protection from all dangers regardless of the cost, including the means through which the tribes inside were subjugated, which were very hostile. On the other hand, the history of Uganda or East Africa may not seem at first glance to be related to the great project of the (Cape-Cairo) railway, but rather a moment of reflection that clarifies the importance of the results that arise from owning the lands surrounding the Great Lakes Victoria, Albert, and Edward in the project to be established. ...and also the value of the two aforementioned lakes as an easy means of internal transportation despite the long area (17), especially since the coastline of Lake Victoria is (1200) miles, and there is another feature of British interest, the coastline of Lake Albert is (200) miles in East Africa, as control of the lands surrounding the Great Lakes in Central Africa gives Britain a strategic security dimension in many ways, including control of the main waters of most of the important tributaries of the Nile River, thus enabling future work to preserve the flood waters of that river and the grain like the Nile River, and enabling Britain without difficulty to maneuver and cut it off against the forces that Britain sees in the future as hindering its efforts to seize the lands located on the railway project from the Cape to Cairo. In addition to that, and because of the factor of international competition, after completing the process of controlling those lakes, it will be able to control the most important economic resources on the continent, in addition to strengthening military power economically due to control of a large part of the water that feeds Sudan and Egypt (17). Until 1888, Britain maintained its interests in the ports and regions of East Africa by placing the Sultans of Zanzibar under its political and military supervision and supporting their influence along the East African coast from Warshaik in the north to Cape Delgado near the Portuguese colonies in the south. The Sultans of Zanzibar controlled the trade routes in the region linking the African interior to the East Coast. In return, the Sultans of Zanzibar worked to achieve three main British objectives in the region: first, preventing any country from gaining a foothold on the East African coast; second, establishing their country as an international trading center to facilitate British trade with India; and third, prohibiting the slave trade under the banner of humanitarianism promoted by that country (29). Thus, Britain maintained control over parts of East Africa until the 1960s, when most African countries gained independence from European colonialism.

2- German Colonialism and Penetration into the Ports of East Africa until 1914.

Until the mid-nineteenth century, Germany had no foothold on the African continent. However, this does not mean that the Germans were not active in the field of geographical colonial exploration. German missionary missions, in addition to voyages for adventure or trade, were initially active in West Africa, to the point that it became common to see German ships leaving West African ports laden with gold and slaves. A number of German merchants formed trading companies. In 1861, a group of prominent merchants in the port of Brandenburg established a company called the "African Ports Trading Company." Major German capitalists also formed another trading company in the port of Hamburg (Hamburg).

At the same time, the German desire to acquire colonies began to increase significantly with the formation of the German Empire after 1871 (3). The feeling that gripped the German government was based on the fact that the German Reich government should not be satisfied with being a great power in Europe alone, but that it should also have colonies like other colonial powers such as

Britain and France. This desire was implemented practically when the German Colonization Society was founded in 1882. This society supervised a number of German societies that called for the necessity of Germany's entry into the colonial arena (4). However, its influence on German foreign policy remained limited, in addition to the lack of any assistance provided to it by the German government, as Bismarck's view was based on the necessity of establishing Germany's foothold in Europe, because its entry into the arena of colonial competition might lead to the unification of the positions of Britain and France against it (22). Meanwhile, the German government's conservative policy towards acquiring colonies continued until 1883. One year later, in 1884, it declared its protectorate over what was later known as German Southwest Africa, namely Namibia, Togo, and Cameroon, for a period of four months, from April to July of the same year. Here, Bismarck realized that it was necessary to satisfy the colonial aspirations of the growing German bourgeoisie, and that the time had come for Germany to participate in the colonial race to prevent other European countries from monopolizing the colonial empires. He realized that the colonization of Africa must be carried out without armed conflict between the European countries (14). To keep pace with the European countries' race to acquire colonies, Bismarck realized that he must hold an international conference, so he called on the European countries to hold a conference in Berlin in 1884. These countries were Britain, France, Germany, Portugal, and Belgium. The aim of the conference was to divide the African continent among the European colonial powers (1). In October of the same year, fourteen countries sent their delegates to Berlin to agree on the division of the African continent. They were Austria, the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Spain, Portugal, France, Britain, the United States, Russia, Italy, and the Ottoman Empire (9). At this conference, the areas of influence of the European countries and their colonies in Africa were determined. As far as Germany was concerned, it was able to find a foothold in the countries and coasts of East Africa. Its colonies were represented in Tanganyika, Rwanda, Cameroon, and Tokeland (6). Meanwhile, the German government worked to appoint Gerald Rolfe as its Consul General in Tanganyika. He arrived at his post on January 25, 1885 (22). Thus, Tanganyika became a country subject to Germany in the same year. About a month later, on February 27, the countries participating in the Berlin Conference signed The final decision to place Germany among the European countries that exercise effective control over the African colonies, therefore, the German Emperor William I signed the Imperial Protection Decree, which was based on the treaties of Karl Peters, founder of the German Colonization Society, which he concluded with some African leaders (10), which numbered approximately twelve treaties stipulating the subordination of more than (60,000) square miles to the German company he owned (), at a time when Karl Peters was keen to include a clause in those treaties stipulating that the leaders of those regions enjoy complete independence and are not subordinate to the Sultan of Zanzibar (22). He then returned to Berlin where he reorganized the company and named it the German East Africa Company (10). The decree described these lands as being located to the west of the Zanzibar Empire and outside the sovereignty of other colonial countries, and entrusted them to the German Colonization Company to manage them and be responsible for them before the German government, and stipulated that this company remain German, and All members of its board of directors would be Germans, and it was granted the authority to work in these areas as permitted by these treaties, and it was left free to accept any protection over other areas in this region. On the other hand, this decree was in accordance with the text and spirit of the Berlin Conference Agreement (4). At the same time, the issuance of this decree shocked Sultan Barghash, Sultan of Zanzibar, who relied heavily on his friendship with Britain to preserve his possessions, especially since the area over which the German protectorate was declared was extremely important. This forced Sultan Barghash to send a telegram of protest on April 27, 1885, to the German Emperor, William II, in which he confirmed the subordination of those areas to his authority. Meanwhile, Sultan Barghash issued orders to send military reinforcements to Osagra. Orders were also issued to Mathus, commander of the Zanzibar forces, to lead a campaign at the beginning of May 1885 to subject the area near Kilimanjaro to the sovereignty of the Sultan. At the time that Mathus's campaign was carrying out its work in the area,

there was a German campaign led by Karl Ulke headed towards Kilimanjaro and concluded treaties with the local leaders. After that, during his campaign, which lasted until the end of May, Mathias managed to obtain explicit recognition from those leaders, in which they confirmed that they and their tribes were subjects of the Sultan of Zanzibar and that they pledged loyalty to him (22). Meanwhile, starting in April 1885, the East Africa Company took over the administration and exploitation of the German Protectorate. This association began its work in November 1885. Here, the British Consul General in Tanganyika, Kitcher, began to verify that the Sultan's authority was absent in the coastal ports. Between February 22 and March 8, 1886, the committee toured the central sector of the coast and verified that the Sultan's authority was firmly established in this sector and that the Sultan's governors and governors were administering justice and maintaining order in a manner appropriate to the country's conditions. In this manner, the committee toured all the East African ports except Bagamoyo and Portermouth. It did not visit the interior regions to verify the Sultan's authority there, because the German representative informed Kitcher that he did not wish to go to Kilimanjaro, claiming that the Sultan had enough influence to make everything in order. Saleha, while the committee was writing the report in April 1886, a dispute arose among its members regarding the actual extension of the Sultan's authority along the coast and the extent of its extension into the interior. Bismarck intervened, and the French and British governments sent instructions to their delegates regarding the need to reach social decisions and leave the dispute to the relevant governments. The committee issued the decision, while the German and British Foreign Ministries undertook the task of settling the remaining issue (18). The company, whose board of directors was headed by Dr. Carl Peters, operated in accordance with the provisions of the agreement of October 29, 1886. Although it aspired to achieve financial profits by intensifying the economic exploitation of the region and confiscating the commercial activities controlled by Arab and Swahili traders between the interior regions and the various coastal ports and cities, its efforts during this period were largely focused on expanding the area of influence of the German protectorate and annexing new regions outside its political control. Accordingly, during the period from 1885 to 1887, it was able to build ten administrative centers. And commercial in its area of influence, it became the dominant force in the long-distance trade in the northwestern sector of the interior regions of East Africa and began to penetrate the interior towards the Great Lakes with decisive steps starting from the end of 1887, and its agents tried to replace the caravans of Arab and Swahili traders, which were larger and better organized. These measures, in addition to the imposition of taxes and fees and the confiscation of some commercial activities, led to Arab-Swahili resistance against the company, forcing it to change its policy toward commercial caravan activity and abandon some of the administrative centers it had previously established. At the same time, Great Britain was aware of the strategic importance of the coast overlooking the Indian Ocean. She found herself forced to increase her pressure on Sultan Sayyid Barghash, to force him in June 1887 to sign a new agreement, through which she could obtain a (50)-year concession contract, under which she would manage all his properties located along the coast between the Umba River in the south and the Tana River in the north (16). Britain was not satisfied with the actions taken by the German government, as they clashed with its interests. The two countries agreed to conclude an agreement to settle the dispute between them in 1886 (23). At the beginning of May 1888, Ernst Fohsen, head of the German East India Company, arrived in Zanzibar, accompanied by (60) people, to carry out the task of managing the German concession. The company was not sufficiently aware of the local situation, which rejected the German presence on Zanzibar lands, and revolutions broke out against them, especially in the coastal areas, in September 1888 (4).

3- The most important factors that contributed to the growth of German trade in East African ports until 1914.

The first physical manifestation of the Germans' expansion in East Africa was the construction of roads, railways, and telegraph lines. These transport and communications lines were a prelude to invasion, and they were also necessary in terms of equipment in the occupied territories so that

these could be used as launching points for further attacks. African rulers sometimes opposed Europeans establishing basic transportation infrastructure from coastal areas to inland areas, and they encouraged the removal of telegraph poles and railway tracks. However, there were only a limited number of roads and railways, which were of military importance only(11). The railways that facilitated the invasion were the same ones used to exploit the export of peanuts and cotton through coastal ports. However, the economies of these ports quickly dwindled to become mere entities subordinate to the economies of the colonial powers(11).

On the other hand, the revolution revealed Al-Maji-Maji (1905-1907) on the economic importance of German East Africa, which had become a fundamental and accelerating factor for the spread of the concept of development and infrastructure development. This was the underlying meaning behind the announcement of the establishment of a Ministry for Colonial Administration in early 1907 and an internal front in the Reichstag to defend the German overseas colonies, which called for accelerating the penetration of investment capital and imperialist companies, to transfer the colonial territories to modern civilization. The focus at this stage was on the need to implement economic reforms based on financial investments, especially in the transportation and communications sectors, as they constitute the most important aspect of economic growth, administration and security in general. Attention was paid to transportation routes, perhaps the most prominent of which are:

First: Railways:

For the first fifteen years of colonial rule, the Reichstag members refused to allocate any financial support in the colonial budget for the construction of railways in German East Africa. This idea was raised during the parliamentary economic sessions between 1891, 1899, and 1902. Their argument was that the colony's climate was unhealthy and unsuitable for European settlement, in addition to the failure of some economic projects by the German East Africa Company in the agricultural and commercial sectors. In fact, Germany was significantly behind in railway construction projects in all its colonies, and its economic budget, until 1907, was still limited in terms of equipment and infrastructure. By the end of 1906, Germany had a total of 1,350 km of railway lines in all its colonies, including 97 km in German East Africa, while the length of railway lines in all of them was 1,350 km. The French colonies in the same year were 6,090 km long, and their length in the British colonies was 14,677 km. The economic committees under the Colonial Ministry had re-emerged on this issue, proposing a massive railway program in the German colonies, particularly in German East Africa, the largest colony in area. This program was characterized by modernity and aimed to develop productive activities in the interior regions, which were now producing greater quantities of export crops and mineral resources.

It is worth noting that the proposals of the experts in the colonial administration in East Africa, according to reports from the British Foreign Office, were to establish three main railway lines, starting from the Indian Ocean coast and ending at the western borders of the colony, with branch lines connecting them to the regions and agricultural areas with production and assembly centers and export ports. These lines are as follows:

First: the main lines.

1- The first northern line, called the Uzumbra Railway Line, begins from the city of Tanga on the Indian Ocean coast and ends at Speke Bay on Lake Victoria.

2- The second central line, known as the Tanganyika Railway, begins in Dar es Salaam and reaches the eastern shores of Lake Tanganyika. A branch line connects Tabora to Rwanda in the north.

3- The third southern line begins in the southern coastal region and reaches Lake Nyasa in the interior (18).

Second: Branch Lines.

The branch lines were few, and the Germans did not have enough time to complete them, due to the delay in completing the main lines on the one hand, and the outbreak of World War I on the other. The most important of these was a project to build a branch line from Tabora to the banks of the Kagera River in northwestern Rwanda, passing through the southern shores of Lake Victoria. The goal was to reach and serve the agricultural areas of the white settlers in Bukoba on Lake Victoria Nyanza, in addition to improving health and social services in the densely populated Rwandan plateau. In early 1914, the Reichstag approved the allocation of 50 million marks for this project, but the line was not completed due to the outbreak of World War I. In 1910, the Sege Railway Company opened a 23.7-kilometer branch line on the northern Uzumburra line, 75 centimeters wide, to be used for transporting timber from the Tengeni region. Its use was limited to the company. In addition to several proposals to establish a branch network of railways on the two main lines, to open up and exploit the colony's territories. The railway projects contributed to stimulating the employment sector, training African workers, and encouraging them to leave their huts and villages for the railway workshops(16). The opening of the Usumbura railway did not reduce reliance on land routes. The northern route, linking Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika to the coastal towns of Tanga and Pangani, via Tabora (a major trading center), Mgora, and Kilimanjaro, continued to stimulate transit trade. The most important commodities transported were rubber and ivory from northern Congo, hides from Rwanda and Urundi, and beeswax from Tabora, after being transported across Lake Tanganyika from the trading center of Usumbura. Although a large portion of import and export trade shifted to the northern port of Mwanza on Lake Victoria, after originating from Lake Nyasaland and Waringa in the south via Kilosa-Tabora-Ujiji, or from Usumbura on the northern shore of Lake Tanganyika to Ujiji, the shipping ports at Bagamoyo in the center continued to operate. The reception of overland trade from Ujiji, passing through Kilosa, Mbabane and Kilimande (16), and in 1905 about (7242) loads arrived, while in 1908 this percentage declined to 928 loads. The export rate from the port of Bagamoyo declined significantly, according to customs and military statistics for the period 1905-1908, based on official permits granted to trade caravans. German sources attributed the effect of this to the opening of the Uganda Railway, and most traders during this period shifted to unloading their goods at the port of Mwanza on Lake Victoria, to transport them by the Uganda Railway, to save time and lower railway transport costs. In the Great Lakes region, land routes, along with sea freight, continued to play the main roles in the trade process. The main route, paved by Swahili traders since the early nineteenth century, started from Bukoba on Lake Victoria and extended to Kisenyi on Lake Kivu via Kigali. The second route started from Usempura on the northern shore of Lake Tanganyika and extended to Bukoba in the north. In contrast, trade along the Kilwa-Lake Nyasaland route to the south declined significantly, as most trade shifted to the busy northern ports, where modern transportation was available(16). The completion of railway lines was a demand of the settlers and the German government, as these achievements made it easier for the Germans to collect taxes, especially in remote areas such as Bukoba. Therefore, the construction of these railways enabled German forces to intervene quickly in the event of an emergency. It also facilitated the marketing of cash crops, especially since the German government relied on intermediaries between the local farmers and German monopoly companies on the one hand, and between the villages and ports on the other. It is worth noting that in constructing these railways, Germany sought to follow the same approach as Britain in linking the interior regions of East Africa to the coast and ports of the Indian Ocean. The goal of establishing railways in Tanganyika was also to Directing the region's economies toward exports and becoming subject to European economic arrangements, as well as a source of raw materials rather than a manufacturing zone, Germany began exploiting Tanganyika's agricultural crops and mineral wealth to serve the German economy. The Germans also introduced sisal cultivation in 1893, along with coffee, cotton, and peanuts, to the region, with the encouragement of German missionaries.

Second: Maritime Transport

Maritime transport in East Africa was another infrastructure already in place before the German invasion, although it increased in effectiveness and importance during the colonial period. The Reichstag policy, which had for a time opposed railway and other infrastructure projects, seems to have dealt quite differently with shipping projects. The German government's proposals to establish shipping lines and develop the main port infrastructure in the colonies met with a quick and immediate response from the opposition deputies, who in 1885 approved financial support for the Norddeutsche Lloyd Shipping Company to renew its fleet linking Germany to the East and reaching its colonies in the Pacific Ocean, a challenge to the British policy of hegemony in Africa and throughout the world, especially since German politicians were aware that Britain's possession of commercial naval fleets was the ideological reflection of its hegemony over the world. This hegemony increased after the opening of the Suez Canal and the imposition of its commercial companies' control over the markets of India and East Africa in the name of freedom of trade. In 1890, the German government agreed to establish the first direct shipping line between the ports of northern Germany and East Africa with a capital of (6) million marks and an annual support of (900,000) marks. After this year, the field of maritime shipping was subject to the control of one German company, the German East African Shipping Line Company, which arose from the merger of the Adolf Fuhrmann Company, the Hamburg-North American Line Company, and the Hamburg-Bremer-Africa Shipping Line. Despite the decline in its revenues in the first years of its work, the company expanded after a year in the first years of its work. The company expanded after 1862, and after 1896 the company owned two steamships. With a capacity of no less than (5000) tons each, maritime shipping activity increased in the African ports used by the company, and transit trade in the ports of South and East Africa also increased thanks to the incentive measures provided by the company, such as marine insurance, price reductions, and the shipping invoice system. In 1900, after the company's revenues rose to (10) million marks, the German government renewed the concession contract of the East African Shipping Line Company for another 15 years, provided that the company would make a sea voyage once every two weeks to the ports of East Africa. The goal of the German government was to make African markets a major alternative region for German products, which were exposed to competition in the European and American markets on the one hand, and on the other hand, to make them supply areas for raw materials that served the interests of German industry. In fact, Germany aimed to remove the monopoly powers of British maritime companies in the field of maritime shipping and to liberalize international trade, especially after the Reichstag agreed to establish economic relations with the Cape Colony and establish a direct shipping line with it. These political measures allowed the East African Line Company to increase its fleet from (22) ships in 1908 to (31) in 1914, including two large ocean-going ships, each with a capacity of (9,200) tons. In return, the company's sea freight capacity reached (192,260) tons. In the years 1910-1914, it was able to pay interest to the German government of (8%), after its revenues had reached (19,110,000) marks in December 1911 and its total assets reached (22,000,000) marks. The German authorities were interested in the main infrastructure projects for ports and seaports, and expanded the ports that existed before, such as the ports of Dar es Salaam, Tanga, Saadani and Kilwa on the Indian Ocean, and the internal ports of Bukoba, Mwanza and Shirati on Lake Victoria, Kigoma on Lake Tanganyika, and some ports in Lake Nyasa to the south. All of these were developed primarily to open up the East African colony to German products and to allow for the export of agricultural products and mineral raw materials. Given that German East Africa had a number of navigable rivers and lakes, the colonial authorities were also interested in developing inland shipping lines. In 1907, the Nyanza German Shipping Company (DNS) was established with a capital of half a million marks. The company's fleet consisted of three cargo ships, in addition to a number of boats and sailboats. The company aimed to limit British competition by transporting products, goods, postal services, and people between the Northwestern Provinces and the coastal areas. The colonial administration paid little attention to transport on Lake Tanganyika, Nyasaland,

and navigable rivers such as the Rufiji River until the Tanganyika Railway entered service and reached Kigoma. It was then that a port and dockyard were built in both Kigoma on the eastern shores of Lake Tanganyika and Fort Langen on Lake Nyasa. The German government assigned the task of operating inland shipping lines to the East African Railway Company, which developed the inland shipping sector and supported it with fast boats and cargo ships(16). Germany attempted to create a special relationship between itself and the German East African colony by strengthening trade and economic ties, although the gains achieved at first were more theoretical than real. The process of integrating the colony's trade with the mother country proceeded slowly, due to the strong trade ties between the East African coast and the island of Zanzibar—which had controlled its trade for thousands of years—on the one hand, and the markets of India on the other(16).

Conclusion

East Africa is one of the world's most strategic and vital regions, due to its location. It overlooks waterways of commercial and military importance, as well as its proximity to Britain's colonies in India. Its importance has increased in light of international and regional competition, particularly between the British Crown and the German Reichstag. The study sheds light on a historical era characterized by events that began with the subjugation of various parts of the African continent to European control. The two countries, Britain and Germany, were in a position that allowed them to compete and control many colonies. The African continent was one of the arenas of competition between them, especially in the East African region. Therefore, each of them was able to impose its control over many countries, including Tanganyika, exploiting its human and material resources in the most heinous way. Britain had the greatest influence on the African continent if the regions under its control were compared with the possessions of other European colonial countries. After the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 and the settlements that resulted from it, it was able to extend its influence over vast areas of the dark continent in the center, north, east and west. Until 1914, Britain maintained its interests in the ports and regions of East Africa by placing the Sultans of Zanzibar under its political and military supervision and supporting their influence along the coasts of East Africa. From Warsaw in the north to Cape Delgado, near the Portuguese colonies in the south.

Tanganyika formed a pivotal point for Germany in East Africa, thanks to its unique geographical and strategic location. Therefore, Germany sought to hold on to it, extend its influence over its territory, and control its administration. The German-British rivalry over Tanganyika was a political link in the global imperialism that Europe witnessed during the nineteenth century. With Germany's acquisition of Tanganyika, it grossly exploited the region's possessions. East Africa was also divided without consulting the indigenous people. On the other hand, we note that German colonial policy opened the way for the Tanganyikans to communicate with neighboring regions through the extension of railways, one of the first economic activities of German colonialism aimed at serving the country. The German authorities focused on major infrastructure projects for ports and seaports, expanding existing ports such as Dar es Salaam, Tanga, Saadani, and Kilwa on the Indian Ocean; the inland ports of Bukoba, Mwanza, and Shirati on Lake Victoria; Kigoma on Lake Tanganyika; and several ports on Lake Nyassa to the south. All of these were developed primarily to open up the East African colony to German products and to allow for the export of agricultural products and mineral raw materials. Given that German East Africa boasted several navigable rivers and lakes, the colonial authorities also focused on developing inland shipping routes.

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Second: The Importance of the Research

The importance of the research stems from shedding light on the phenomenon of financial and administrative corruption, which is linked to public funds, given their importance for building state institutions at present and in the future. It is a fundamental economic pillar for the state, through which financial policies can be drawn up and the general budget established to achieve development principles in all areas, achieving progress and development. One of the goals sought by most countries, many societies face this phenomenon, namely administrative and financial corruption. All state institutions have worked to combat financial and administrative corruption, attempting to address it from the root, and confront it to build an economy built on solid foundations that can reach the level of developed countries.

The theoretical importance lies in the differing viewpoints among specialists, whether social scientists or intellectuals, regarding the meaning or definition of corruption, clarifying its effects and forms, and the causes that lead to it.

The practical importance lies in tracking and exposing specific types of corruption crimes that affect administrative and economic institutions, weakening them, and placing them under the control of corrupt individuals. Therefore, efforts must be made to find ways and mechanisms to combat corruption crimes.

Third: Research Objectives

1. The research aims to understand the concept of administrative and financial corruption.
2. The research aims to identify the causes of corruption.
3. The consequences of corruption.
4. Identifying mechanisms to reduce administrative and financial corruption within institutions.

5. The research aims to develop recommendations that will serve as part of the solutions to this dangerous phenomenon that is undermining the country's economy.

Section Two: Defining Concepts and Terminology

First: Corruption

Corruption, linguistically, is the opposite of righteousness. From the root word "fasada," it means "corruption," and it means "corruption." Corruption is the opposite of "reform," and corruption is the opposite of "interest," and it means harm (Faris, 2017: 16).

As for corruption, technically speaking, Vito Tanzi indicates that corruption is the deliberate use of the principle of reservation for the purpose of obtaining personal gain (Al-Shammari and Al-Fatli, 2011: 20). It is any behavior that involves the misuse of one's position to achieve an advantage for oneself or one's group. As a result, corruption leads to harm to the public interest (Al-Sakrana, 2010: 19). Or it is the actions undertaken by leading citizens in a state to obtain personal benefits, such as fraud, money laundering, drug trafficking, black market dealing, and others (Aboud, 2008: 15).

It is defined as a deviation from moderation, whether slightly or greatly, or a departure from righteousness to its opposite (Fares, 2017: 6).

The operational definition of corruption, then, is a behavioral deviation contrary to custom and law, undertaken by an individual or group of individuals to achieve their personal interests at the expense of the public interest.

Second: Administrative Corruption

Administrative corruption is the misuse of public authority for the purpose of obtaining personal gain. Transparency International defines it as the abuse of power for personal purposes (Fares, 2017: 7). It is also defined as the violation of public interests and duties (Al-Shammari and Al-Fatli, 2011: 21).

It is also defined as the ethical deficiencies of individuals that render them unable to fulfill their personal obligations. It also refers to behavioral deviations exhibited by employees toward their organizations, such as employees completely or merely abandoning their duties that serve the public interest (Alimat, 2020: 86).

Administrative corruption is defined procedurally as: an employee exploiting his or her position to engage in acts that disrupt public order, for the purpose of obtaining personal gain.

Third: Financial corruption

Financial corruption is defined as behavior that violates laws and ethics, based on the violation of public interests and duties (Faris, 2017: 8).

It is the illegal behavior characterized by the squandering of public funds, project brokerage, and arms trade (Al-Shammari and Al-Fatli, 2011: 29). It is also known as financial deviation and violation of financial rules and regulations. Examples of financial corruption include bribery, embezzlement, tax evasion, and others (Aboud, 2008: 49). It is a deviant act carried out by an individual or group, exploiting their influence in power to achieve private gain at the expense of social and economic benefit (Taqa, 2002: 154). It is also corruption that deviates from ethical and religious aspects. It is the most widespread type of corruption in Arab countries. Examples include bribery, embezzlement, and others (Alimat, 2020: 86). Financial corruption is defined procedurally as a malicious act that violates laws, customs, and values, carried out by an individual to gain money by exploiting their position or close relationship with decision-makers. Chapter Two: Previous Studies

Introduction

Previous studies provide the researcher with the scientific evidence and rationale for his or her research. Researchers may encounter many difficulties when conducting a theoretical or field study by reviewing the literature and scientific works relevant to the topic of their study. The researcher attempts to obtain previous studies, given their importance in formulating the hypotheses of their study and comparing the conclusions and recommendations of previous studies with the results of their field study. Previous studies also illuminate the path for the researcher in reviewing the methodological plans used in preparing studies and the statistical methods used in analysis and conclusions. This helps them to be guided and follow them when preparing their study.

Administrative and financial corruption is an old topic, and there are many previous studies on the importance of this topic and its impact on society, including Iraqi, Arab, and foreign studies.

Section One: Iraqi Studies

First: Researcher Majid Aliwi Abdul Sada's study, entitled "Manifestations of Administrative Corruption and Mechanisms for Reducing Them: A Field Study of the Culture of Corruption in Diwaniyah" (2012) (Abdul Sada, 2012).

The study aims to identify the manifestations and dimensions of administrative corruption, the factors underlying the culture of corruption in Iraq, and the possible mechanisms and means that contribute to reducing the manifestations of this culture of corruption.

The researcher used three methods in his study: a social survey, a historical approach, and a comparative approach. The research population consisted of (227) individuals registered with the Iraqi Contractors Union, Diwaniyah branch. Among the results the researcher was able to reach through his study, it was found that corruption is widespread in the public sector at a very high rate of (94%). The study also indicated that corruption is the most serious problem facing Iraq, and that corruption rates increased after 2003. The study confirmed that bribery and administrative corruption are among the most important manifestations of corruption. The study also indicated that (68%) of the respondents do not file a complaint if they encounter a case of corruption, believing that there is no benefit from the study.

Second: Researcher Ithar Abboud Kazim's study, entitled "Administrative and Financial Corruption and its Economic and Social Impacts in Selected Countries" (2009) (Kazim, 2009).

The study aims to examine the social and economic impacts of administrative and financial corruption in the sample countries. The researcher used an inductive approach in his study. The research sample was Iraq, Nigeria, and Singapore. The reason for choosing these countries is the great similarity between Iraq and Nigeria in many aspects, such as natural resources and ethnic, religious, and political complexities. Most importantly, however, is the widespread prevalence of financial and administrative corruption in both countries, in contrast to the third country covered by the study, Singapore. The study's conclusions include the prevalence of administrative and financial corruption in both the private and public sectors at varying rates, with the highest prevalence in the private sector. Administrative and financial corruption has a significant impact and cost, and corruption deprives societies of their right to equality in all aspects. The study's recommendations include that the government review the basic conditions of integrity in the public service and eliminate the culture of corruption by not responding to this corruption, even if it is small, with silence. Leadership positions must be professional and administrative, free from partisanship.

Section Two: Arab Studies

First: Researcher Haha Abdelali's study, "Legal Mechanisms for Combating Administrative Corruption in Algeria" (2013) (Abdelali, 2013).

The study aims to outline the legal methods defined by the Algerian legislature to combat corruption, accurately diagnose administrative corruption, evaluate and review the criminal and administrative policies for combating administrative corruption, and identify the obstacles and impediments that stand in the way of the success of the national strategy to combat administrative corruption. The researcher used a descriptive and analytical approach, as well as a historical and comparative approach. The study addressed specialized agencies involved in combating administrative corruption, such as oversight bodies, the Auditor's Council, the Financial Controller, and the General Inspectorate in Algeria. The study's results identified that the most significant form of administrative corruption is failure to comply with general conditions for employment, and that focusing on criminalization is insufficient to prevent corruption. The study also identified deviations in the formalities of concluding a deal, such as announcing the deal under conditions that do not permit competition, as well as the limited role of oversight. The most important recommendations of the study are the adoption of strict laws and legislation to combat administrative corruption, the need for Algerian legislators to intervene and criminalize the abuse of influence, and the necessity of coordination between various legal texts to eliminate corruption.

Second: Researcher Fahd bin Muhammad Al-Ghannam's study entitled "The Effectiveness of Modern Methods in Combating Administrative Corruption from the Perspective of Members of the Shura Council in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia" (2001) (Al-Ghannam, 2001).

The study aims to identify the most common types of administrative corruption and the role of regulatory, supervisory, and judicial methods in combating administrative corruption. It also explores the role of the use of modern devices and technology in combating corruption. The researcher used the descriptive approach in his study.

The study sample was a random sample of (108) selected from the study community by members of the Shura Council, numbering (150). The most important findings of the study are the lack of effective oversight to combat administrative corruption, and the reluctance of some entities to disclose information related to administrative corruption. Prosecuting individuals who smuggle their funds abroad is one of the most effective methods for combating corruption, and the oversight role must be activated. The study's recommendations include urging judicial bodies to issue rulings as quickly as possible, activating the oversight role, urging media institutions to raise awareness in society and activate their role, and activating the role of civil society institutions.

The third section: Foreign Studies

The study by researchers Sheldon S. Steinberg and David T. Ostern entitled "Government, Ethics, and Managers" (1969) (Steinberg and Ostern, 1969).

The study focused on the ethical and unethical behavior of appointed and elected government officials in the United States. It discussed the various types of ethical dilemmas facing public sector managers, presented appropriate methods for analyzing them, and developed an administrative strategy to prevent unethical behavior. The study concluded that there are practices the government should adopt to prevent unethical practices and maintain ethical practices, including:

1. Training, which should be conducted through a well-designed program that makes supervisors more aware of the acceptable standards for ethical behavior.
2. Investigation: The independence of the investigation unit is essential to its integrity and the impartiality of its results.
3. Management audit, which refers to financial and administrative accountability, aims to identify problems and operational errors and uncover discrepancies in records.
4. Management oversight: This system should take into account the employees assigned to it and reflect a detailed understanding of the activities to be monitored.

Among the recommendations of this study are the introduction of clear laws requiring all meetings to be open to the public and any closed meetings not to be binding; the provision of a financial disclosure statement for every government official, disclosing all sources to the official, their spouse, and their children; and the enactment of laws that encourage and protect government employees who report unethical behavior by other government employees.

Chapter Three: Describing the Phenomenon of Corruption

Section One: A Historical Overview of Corruption

Various studies do not indicate a specific date for the emergence of the phenomenon of corruption. It may have originated with the beginning of creation on Earth. Hammurabi, King of Babylon, who expanded the kingdom and authored the oldest legal code known in history as the Code of Hammurabi, referred to bribery in Article 6 of the Criminal Code. We also note in the Nile Valley codifications that Egypt had commandments and references to regulating administration and proper relations within the state. Many religions have addressed the phenomenon of corruption, including Christianity in the texts of the Holy Bible. Islam addressed this phenomenon in accordance with the Islamic teachings contained in the Holy Quran and the Sunnah of the Prophet. This phenomenon has found a historical lesson and has spread to all European countries and the United States of America. Iraq is one of these countries where we find the phenomenon of corruption widespread in the structure of our society and institutions since the successive governments in Iraq. This problem has developed dangerously since the previous era, as many outlets for corruption appeared clearly and widely. After the collapse of the previous regime in 2003 and after the first Iraqi government Financial and administrative corruption spread to all government institutions. This period in Iraq witnessed unstable political, economic, and social conditions, and the spread of corruption, which included the opening of the doors to deviation in values and moral standards to which the people of Iraq were not accustomed. Most members of society attempted to obtain quick gains through various forms of corruption. This contributed to the increase in corruption, in addition to the security chaos that occurred during this period, the weakness of accountability, and the failure to implement laws. Corruption spread widely throughout all aspects of the state, and corruption appeared in the staff and work ethics, with some employees attempting to achieve personal interests and gains contrary to the laws and regulations prevailing in government institutions (Ma'abara, 2011: 80).

Section Two: Types and Causes of Corruption

First: Causes of Corruption

1. Political Corruption: Political corruption includes the corruption of leaders, the judiciary, the executive, the legislature, and political parties. It also refers to violations of the rules regulating the work of political institutions within the government. Samuel Huntington notes that political corruption is a way to measure the degree of deterioration in effective political institutions and the link between political development and corruption (Al-Shammari and Al-Fatli, 2011: 23).

Establishing democracy is an integral part of the anti-corruption strategy, as the desire for re-election curbs the greed of politicians. Protecting civil liberties and freedom of expression, which often accompany democratic elections, allows for transparency and openness in government. In contrast, undemocratic governments are sensitive to corrupt incentives because their leaders tend to form governments with few checks and balances (Rosackerman, 2003: 204).

2- Financial corruption: This includes a set of financial violations and violations of the rules and regulations that contribute to the smooth running of administrative and financial operations in government institutions, as well as violations of the mechanisms associated with financial oversight systems. This includes arms trafficking, organized crime, tax evasion, bribery, and the waste of public funds, etc. (Al-Shammari and Al-Fatli, 2011: 24).

3- Administrative corruption: This refers to forms of corruption and organizational, administrative, and functional deviations, as well as those deviations resulting from employees performing their

duties, which primarily involve irregular work. It results from disruptions in the system of regulations and laws, which exploit opportunities to benefit from loopholes. Types of administrative corruption include mediation, favoritism, forgery, lack of respect for time, employee failure to perform the required work, and mistreatment of clients (Abdul-Sada, 2012: 47).

4- Social and moral corruption: Social corruption is a behavior that attempts to destroy the set of accepted, expected, or recognized traditions and rules in the social structure, meaning that these actions are outside the values of human society. As for moral corruption, it is represented by deviant behaviors related to the employee's behavior and actions, such as performing indecent acts in the work environment, or combining the job with other work without the permission of his management, or exploiting power for the purpose of achieving personal goals at the expense of the public interest (Ali, 2015: 20). Second: Causes of Corruption

1- Political Causes: Corruption by government employees violates the social contract between the people and the government, weakens the legitimacy of the political system, and thus reduces people's confidence in the government. There are many political methods that contribute to the spread of corruption in any society, including: the tyranny of authority and the exploitation of position, which is one of the hallmarks of developing world countries. It is characterized by a single-minded vision and absolute enjoyment of power, often to the point of tyranny. It also includes a weak legal system and the exaggeration of laws and decisions. It also includes partisan conflicts, which encourage non-partisan members to favor each other. It also includes the inability of the government and the strength of pressure groups, the lack of an effective political system, and weak political awareness (Ali, 2015: 32).

2- Social reasons: Social reasons include demographic composition and family loyalty, which influence the increase in mediation. It is increasing in most Arab societies due to customs and traditions that accept it and do not consider it corruption. Rather, assistance is provided through illegal means, and attempts are made to find legitimate justifications for it. The moral aspect related to the phenomenon of corruption, which is considered a standard for society's commitment to traditions and customs, disappears within this framework. The view of work as the primary vital need of man disappears, and society's view shifts towards sincerity, integrity, and honesty. If each individual performs his duties in accordance with the ethics and mechanisms of the job, corruption will decrease to its minimum (Al-Jawfi, 2011: 58). 3- Economic reasons: The rise in poverty, economic hardship, and the high cost of living have driven many people in public positions to seek bribes. As a result of the economic crisis, it is difficult to get state employees to adhere to official rules and the ideals of institutional integrity. These reasons include the existence of commercial relationships and interests with external partners or producers from other countries, widespread poverty, class differences, and varying income levels, as well as the privatization of state funds, including the sale of public sector facilities and their restructuring on incorrect foundations (Ali, 2015: 33).

4- Administrative and organizational reasons: These lie in the complex procedures of bureaucracy, the lack of understanding of legislation, its multiplicity, or its failure to implement it, and the weakness of institutions due to the lack of reliance on competent administrative personnel (Salman: 100). Administrative corruption is closely linked to the internal environment, as it has conditions that encourage and motivate corruption. Numerous studies have examined the impact of administrative factors on the spread of administrative corruption within public institutions and facilities, including the bloated administrative apparatus, poor administrative organization, the tendency toward centralization and lack of delegation in decision-making, the complexity of administrative procedures, the predominance of bureaucratic nature in administration, and the backwardness and corruption of administrative leadership (Abdul-Ali, 2013: 72).

Section Three: Mechanisms for Combating Corruption

To combat any phenomenon, it is necessary to understand its roots, identify its most important factors, and the impact it has on all aspects of life. Therefore, this combat process requires integrated and coordinated efforts and mutual cooperation, whether on the part of individuals, institutions, countries, or organizations (local, regional, or international). Furthermore, it requires an integrated system of effective legislation, controls, and oversight systems. Among the most prominent measures, based on the above, we will discuss the possible mechanisms that contribute to combating and limiting the phenomenon of corruption and mitigating its risks: (Abdul Sada, 2012: 71).

First: The Integrity Commission

The Integrity Commission was established pursuant to the law attached to Coalition Provisional Authority Order No. (55) of 2004. The Integrity Commission works to combat and prevent corruption by relying on transparency in the management of institutions and through: (Dawood: 80)

1. Investigating all corruption cases referred to it by specialized investigators under the supervision of a specialized investigative judge, in accordance with the Code of Criminal Procedure.
2. Supporting a culture in the private and public sectors that contributes to personal integrity and respect for professional ethics.
3. Enhancing Iraqi society's confidence in the government by disclosing the financial assets of officials.
4. Issuing standards of conduct that include codes of ethical conduct to support the proper and correct functioning of public office.
5. Preparing extensive and frequent public programs and workshops to raise public awareness and demand a just and honest government that is accountable.

Second: The Board of Supreme Audit

The Board of Supreme Audit is one of the main pillars working to combat administrative corruption, alongside the Integrity Commission. Pursuant to Law No. 6 of 1990 of the Supreme Council of Supreme Audit, the Board is the highest financial auditing authority in Iraq. It is responsible for overseeing public funds by exposing the misuse and misappropriation of public funds, which leads to combating corruption and maintaining integrity. To ensure the Board's effectiveness and independence, Order No. 77 of 2004 was issued, restructuring it as an independent public institution that contributes to supporting the government's economic effectiveness, credibility, and ability to manage its resources. The Board of Supreme Audit is responsible for overseeing and auditing the activities of the entities subject to its oversight throughout Iraq. The Board seeks to achieve the following objectives: (Dawood: 82)

1. Striving to preserve public funds by combating waste, squandering, and misappropriation, to ensure their efficient use.
2. Striving to develop the efficiency and performance of the institutions under its oversight.
3. Contributing to supporting the economy, its stability, and its growth.
4. Disseminate and improve auditing and accounting programs in accordance with sound rules.
5. Develop the accounting system, spread financial and accounting awareness, and raise the level of accounting and auditing performance in audited entities.
6. Approve the final accounts of all state institutions.

Third: Inspectors General

These offices were established pursuant to Order (57) of 2004 in all ministries. Their tasks include auditing and reviewing to support levels of integrity and accountability, overseeing the performance of duties within ministries, and preventing waste, abuse, fraud, and influence peddling by submitting reports to the minister. The unstable security situation and the proliferation of criminal elements within ministries contribute to weak investigations into corruption. Meanwhile, inspectors general within ministries complain that combating corruption is viewed as a function of those inspectors, not a matter outside of this or that ministry. The absence and support of inspectors from the Iraqi government has contributed to widespread corruption in many ministries. Since inspectors general are not protected in the Green Zone, their recommendations are difficult to trust as revealing the truth about criminal behavior committed by any individual protected by criminal elements. Meanwhile, courts in Iraq are subject to political pressure and sometimes threats. Therefore, they are weak institutions unable to perform their work properly, due to the exposure of their employees. To threaten, which led to silence regarding the opening of major corruption files and bringing the perpetrators to justice, the offices of the Inspectors General were abolished by a decision of the Iraqi Parliament (Mahmoud and Al-Saadi, 2017: 35). Fourth: Parliamentary Oversight

Parliamentary oversight, under conditions of transparency, good accountability, and effective governance, reduces corruption to its lowest levels. In the absence of these conditions, the situation inevitably deteriorates. In many democratic political systems that follow the classical parliamentary method, parliament often plays a restrictive role as a driver of the political, social, and economic life of society. It is not free, but rather subject to parliamentary constraints. Parliament preemptively restricts ministries when it defines the legal framework for government activity through the laws it enacts, in addition to the other mechanisms it implements regarding them, most notably the accountability mechanism for members of the ministry, individually or collectively, to obtain explanations or data on their work as an executive body. This is achieved by directing questions to the prime minister, one of his assistants, or ministers or their assistants on a subject within their jurisdiction, by a member of parliament or all members of parliament collectively. The underlying objective of this parliamentary right is to obtain data on the work of the executive branch. Ministers are responsible for examining and studying the inquiries directed to them and preparing responses for further discussion in parliament. This mechanism has a direct impact on parliamentary oversight of the executive branch's aspirations, thanks to... This leads to drawing attention to errors and drawing attention to the perceptions within the government apparatus, thus exposing cases of corruption or its signs within that apparatus (Daoud, 2003: 225-226).

First: Conclusions

1. One of the most important causes of corruption is corruption by government officials and the abuse of power.
2. The exploitation of social relationships and family loyalty contributes to the spread of nepotism and administrative and financial corruption.
3. The complexity of administrative procedures and the predominance of bureaucracy in administration contribute to the spread of corruption.

Second: Recommendations

1. Enhancing transparency and accountability: Disseminating information related to public spending and government projects.
2. Reforming legal and judicial systems: Developing anti-corruption laws and enhancing the independence of the judiciary to ensure accountability for corrupt individuals.

3. Strengthening financial and administrative oversight: Establishing independent and strong oversight bodies, such as the Audit Bureau.
4. Developing a culture of integrity and ethics: Training employees on ethical and professional values and the importance of confronting and combating corruption, and promoting education and community awareness to encourage the fight against corruption.
5. Using technology: Adopting electronic systems in all government transactions to reduce human interaction that could lead to corruption.
6. Strengthening the role of religion, civil society, and the media: Activating the role of religion and supporting the role of civil society organizations in combating corruption.

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