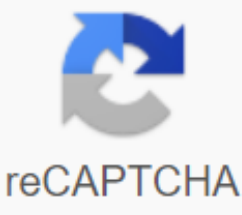




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Congo civil war pdf

1960-1965 war fought in Congo CrisisPart decolonization of Africa and cold warClockwise starting from top left: Refugee camp outside LisabethvillePeacekeepers, usually wounded comrade Amesiyad Baluba civiliansMassed civilians in LodjaBelgian paratroopers during the Dragon Rouge Government forces, fighting the Simba rebels July 5, 1960 - November 25, 1965 (1960-07-05 - 1965-11-25) The locationrepublica Congo (now the Democratic Republic of Congo)Result Congo established as an independent unitary state. Warring Parties 1960-63: Republic of Congo Supported: Soviet Union (1960) ONUC 1960-63: Katanga South Kasai Supported: Belgium 1960-6 2: Free Republic of the Congo Supported: Soviet Union 1964-65: Democratic Republic of Congo Belgium Supported: ONUC (1964) 1964-65: Rebels of Kvilu and Simba, Supported: Soviet Union China CubaThe Commanders and Leaders Joseph Casa-Wubu Patrice Lumumba Cyril Adula Dag Hammarskjold - U Thant Joseph Kasa-Wubu Joseph-Desiree Mozu Mose Tsombe (since 1964) Moises Tombe Albert Kaloongia Gaston Ayskens Theo Lefeb Giseng (POW) Pierre Christophe and losses total killed: 100,000 euros Crisis in the Congo (French: Crisis of the Congolese Period) was a period of political upheaval and conflict in the Republic of The Congo (today democratic Republic of the Congo) between 1960 and 1965. The crisis began almost immediately after Congo became independent from Belgium and ended unofficially, with the entire country under the rule of Joseph-Desiree Mobutu. In a series of civil wars, the Congo crisis was also a cold war proxy conflict in which the Soviet Union and the United States supported warring factions. About 100,000 people are believed to have been killed during the crisis. The nationalist movement in the Belgian Congo demanded an end to colonial rule, which led to the independence of the country on 30 June 1960. Minimal preparation had been made, and many issues, such as federalism, tribalism and ethnic nationalism, remained unresolved. In the first week of July, a riot broke out in the army and riots broke out between black and white civilians. Belgium sent troops to protect the fleeing whites. Katanga and South Kasai separated with the support of Belgium. Amid ongoing unrest and violence, the United Nations sent peacekeepers, but UN Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjold refused to use the troops to assist the central government in Leopoldville in the fight against the separatists. Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba, the charismatic leader of the largest nationalist faction, responded with a call for help from the Soviet Union, which promptly sent military advisers and other support. The participation of the Soviets split the Congolese government and led to a deadlock between Lumumba and the President Mobutu, who commanded the army, broke the deadlock in a coup d'etat, expelled Soviet advisers and effectively established a new government under his control. Lumumba was captured and subsequently executed in 1961. The rival government of the Free Republic of the Congo was founded in the eastern city of Stanleyville by Lumumba supporters, led by Antoine Gizenga. It received Soviet support, but was defeated in early 1962. Meanwhile, the UN has taken a more aggressive stance towards the separatists after Hammarskjold died in a plane crash in late 1961. Supported by UN troops, Leopoldville defeated separatist movements in Katanga and southern Kasai by early 1963. As Katanga and south Kasai returned to government control, a conciliatory compromise constitution was adopted and exiled Catangez leader MoisesHombe was recalled as head of the interim administration during the new elections. Before they were carried out, however, Maoist militants rose in the east of the country, calling themselves Simbas. Simbas took control of a large part of the territory and proclaimed the Communist People's Republic of the Congo in Stanleyville. Government forces gradually recaptured territory, and in November 1964 Belgium and the United States militarily intervened militarily in Stanleyville to return the hostages from Simba's captivity. Simbas were defeated and collapsed soon after. After the elections in March 1965, a new political impasse broke out between Tombe and Casa Wubu, which forced the Government to almost paralysis. In November 1965, Mobutu mounted a second coup d'etat, taking control of the country. Under the rule of Mobutu, the Congo (renamed zair in 1971) was transformed into a dictatorship that would have rubbed through until its deposition in 1997. Background of the Belgian Rule Main article: Belgian Congo Belgian Congo, today the Democratic Republic of the Congo, highlighted on the map of the colonial domination of Africa in the Congo began in the late 19th century. King Leopold II of Belgium, frustrated by Belgium's lack of international power and prestige, tried to persuade the Belgian government to support colonial expansion around the then largely uncharted Congo basin. The Belgian government's ambivalence about this idea led

Leopold to establish a colony at his own expense. With the support of a number of Western countries that viewed Leopold as a useful buffer between rival colonial powers, Leopold gained international recognition for his personal colony, the Free State of the Congo, in 1885. However, at the turn of the century, the violence of Free State officials against indigenous Congolese and the ruthless system of economic extraction led to intense diplomatic pressure on Belgium to take official control of the country, which she did in 1908, creating the Belgian Congo. The Belgian board in was based on the colonial trinity (trinity colonial) of the company's public, missionary and private interests. Privatization of Belgian commercial interests meant that capital sometimes flowed back to the Congo and that individual regions became specialized. In many cases, the interests of the State and private enterprise were closely linked, and the State helped companies to strike and counter other indigenous efforts to improve their situation. The country was divided into nested, hierarchically organized administrative units, and operate evenly in accordance with a set of native policies (indigène policy) - unlike the British and French, who generally favor a system of indirect rule whereby traditional leaders were retained in leadership positions under colonial supervision. There is also a high degree of racial segregation. The large number of white immigrants who moved to Congo after the end of World War II came from across the social spectrum, but were nonetheless always treated as superior to blacks. In the 1940s and 1950s, the Congo experienced an unprecedented level of urbanization, and the colonial administration launched various development programmes aimed at turning the territory into a model colony. One result of this measure was the development of a new middle class of Europeanized African will in cities. By the 1950s, wages in the Congo were twice as high as in any other African colony. Congo's abundant natural resources, including uranium, much of the uranium used by the United States nuclear program during World War II, have led to considerable interest in the region from both the Soviet Union and the United States as the Cold War progressed. The policy and radicalization of the African nationalist movement, developed in the Belgian Congo in the 1950s, is primarily among the will. The movement was divided into a number of parties and groups that were broadly divided along ethnic and geographical lines and opposed to each other. The largest organization, the National Congo Movement (MNC), was a united front organization committed to achieving independence within a reasonable time frame. It was created around a charter signed by, among others, Patrice Lumumba, Cyril Adula and Joseph Ileo, but others accused the party of being too moderate. Lumumba became a leading figure in the MNC, and by the end of 1959 the party had declared that it had 58,000 members. ABACO leader Joseph Casa-Wubu, who later became the first president of an independent Congo, was the main rival of the MNC, the Alliance de Bacongo (ABACO), led by Joseph Casa-Wubu, who advocated a more radical ideology than the MNC based on the call for immediate independence and the promotion of regional identity. ABACO was more nationalist than MNC; it argued that an independent Congo should be governed by Bacongo as heirs to the pre-colonial Kingdom of the Congo. The third major organization was the Katanga Tribal Association (CONAKAT), a local party led by Moses Tombe; it advocates federalism and primarily represents the southern province of Katanga. They were joined by a number of smaller parties that emerged as the nationalist movement emerged, including the radical Solider African (PSA) party and factions representing the interests of minor ethnic groups such as the Bayanzi Alliance (ABAZI). Although it was the largest of the African nationalist parties, it had many different factions that took different positions on a number of issues. It has increasingly polarized between moderate will and more radical mass members. The radical group led by Ileo and Albert Kalonji seceded in July 1959, but was unable to provoke mass defections by other MNC members. The dissident faction became known as MNK-Kalonji (MNK-K), and the majority group was MNK-Lumumba (MNK-L). The split divided the party's support base over those left behind with Lumumba, mainly in the Stanleyville area in the northeast, and those who supported MNK-K, which became the most popular around the southern city of Aisabethville and among the Luba ethnic group. Major riots erupted in Leopoldville, the Congolese capital, on 4 January 1959 after a political demonstration escalated into violence. The military public, the colonial gendarmierie, used force against rioters, with at least 49 people killed and the total number of casualties possibly up to 500. The influence of nationalist parties expanded for the first time outside major cities, and nationalist demonstrations and riots became commonplace over the next year, bringing large numbers of black people from outside the Volat class into the independence movement. Many blacks began to check the boundaries of the colonial system, refusing to pay taxes or abide by minor colonial rules. The bulk of the ABACO leadership was arrested, leaving MNC in a favourable position. These events have led to the white community also becoming more radical. Some whites planned to try a coup if the black majority government adjoins the government. As law and order began to break, white civilians formed militia groups known as the Volunteer Corps (European Volunteer Corps) to police their neighborhoods. These militias often attacked blacks. Independence As a result of the riots in Leopoldville, a report by the Belgian Parliamentary Working Group on the Future of the Congo was published, in which there was a strong demand for internal autonomy. August de Shriver, Minister of Colonies, Colonies, a major round-table conference was held in Brussels in January 1960 and was attended by the leaders of all the major Congolese parties. Lumumba, who was arrested after the Stanleyville riots, was released ahead of the conference and led the MNC-L delegation. The Belgian government had hoped for a period of at least 30 years before independence, but Congolese pressure at the conference led to a date set for 30 June 1960. Issues, including federalism, ethnicity and Belgium's future role in Congolese affairs, remained unresolved after delegates failed to reach an agreement. Patrice Lumumba, the leader of MNC-L and the first prime minister, pictured in Brussels at the 1960 round table, launched a campaign against Lumumba, whom they wanted to marginalize; they accused him of being a communist and, hoping to break up the nationalist movement, supported rival, ethnic parties such as CONAKAT. Many Belgians hoped that an independent Congo would become part of a federation such as the French community or the British Commonwealth of Nations, and that a close economic and political relationship with Belgium would continue. As independence approached, the Belgian Government organized Congolese elections in May 1960. This has led to a relative majority of MNCs. The proclamation of the independent Republic of the Congo and the end of colonial rule took place as planned on 30 June 1960. At a ceremony at the Palais des Nations in Leopoldville, King Baudouin delivered a speech in which he presented the end of colonial rule in the Congo as the culmination of the Belgian civilized mission launched by Leopold II. After the speech of King Lumumba, he delivered an unscheduled speech in which he angrily criticized colonialism and described independence as the crowning glory of the nationalist movement. Although Lumumba's appeal was recognized by figures such as Malcolm X, it almost provoked a diplomatic incident with Belgium; even some Congolese politicians saw it as unnecessarily provocative. However, independence was celebrated throughout the Congo. Politically, the new state had a semi-presidential constitution known as Loi Fondamentale, in which the executive branch was divided between the president and the prime minister in a system known as bicephalism. Casa Wubu was proclaimed President and Prime Minister of the Republic of the Congo by Lumumba. Despite the objections of CONACAT and others, the Constitution was largely centralistic, concentrating power in the central government in Leopoldville, and did not transfer significant powers to the provincial level. The beginning of the crisis Force Publique mutiny, racial violence and Belgian intervention Despite the declaration of independence, neither Belgian nor Congolese did not intend the colonial social order to put an end immediately. Teh Teh The government hopes that whites can maintain their positions indefinitely. The Republic of the Congo continued to depend on colonial institutions such as Force Publique to function day in and day out, and white technical experts identified by the Belgians were kept in the wide absence of properly qualified black Congolese replacements (partly as a result of colonial restrictions on higher education). Many Congolese assumed that independence would lead to tangible and immediate social change, so the retention of whites in leadership positions was widely resented. Independence brings change to politicians and civilians. But nothing will change for you... none of your new masters can change the structure of an army that throughout its history has been the most organized, most victorious in Africa. Politicians lied to you. An excerpt from Emil Janssen's speech to the Military Public on 5 July 1960 by Lieutenant General Emil Janssen, Belgian commander of the Public Force, refused to see The independence of the Congo as a sign of a change in the nature of command. The day after the independence celebration, he gathered the black non-commissioned officers of his Leouldville garrison and told them that everything under his command would remain the same, summarizing the point, writing Before Independence and Independence on the board. The message was hugely unpopular among rank-and-file - many of the men expected rapid promotions and wage increases to accompany independence. On July 5, 1960, several units washed up against their white officers at Camp Hardy near Teesville. The uprising spread to Leopoldville the next day and then to garrisons across the country. Instead of deploying Belgian troops against the rebels, as Janssens wanted, Lumumba fired him and renamed him the National Congolese Force (ANC). The All Blacks were promoted to at least one title. Victor Lundula was promoted directly from Major Sergeant to Major General and Army Chief, replacing Janssen. At the same time, Joseph-Desiree Mobutu, a former major sergeant and close personal assistant to Lumumba, became Lundula's deputy as Army Chief of Staff. The government tried to stop the uprising - Lumumba and Casa-Wubu intervened in person in Leopoldville and Teesville and persuaded the rebels to lay down their arms, but in much of the country the insurgency intensified. White officers and civilians were attacked, white property was looted and white women were raped. The Belgian Government is deeply concerned about the situation, especially when white civilians have begun to enter neighbouring countries as refugees. The international press expressed shock at the apparent sudden collapse of order in the Congo as the worldview of the Congolese before independence, largely thanks to Belgian propaganda, the authorities were linked to peace, stability and strong control. In 1960, Lumumba's position was developed by many Belgians to justify their previous fears about his radicalism. On 9 July, Belgium sent paratroopers without the permission of the Congolese state to Kabalo and elsewhere to protect fleeing white civilians. while Casa-Wubu accepted the Belgian operation, Lumumba condemned it and called on all Congolese to protect our republic from those who threaten it. At Lumumba's request on 11 July, the Belgian Navy evacuated white civilians from the port city of Matadi. Belgian ships then shelled the city; at least 19 civilians were killed. The attacks sparked further attacks on whites across the country, while Belgian forces entered other cities, including Leopoldville, and clashed with Congolese troops. The Belgian government subsequently announced that it would bring Belgian bureaucrats back to the metropolis, triggering the exodus of most of Congo's 10,000 European civil servants and causing the administration to be in turmoil. Most government ministries were unable to function because of the unrest that engulfed the entire country. Katanga and the southern Kasai branch Main articles: The State of Katanga and the southern flag of the Kasai separatist state of Katanga, announced in 1960 on July 11, 1960, Moise Tshombe, leader of CONAKAT, declared the southern province of Congo Katanga independent as the state of Katanga, with Lisaberville as its capital and himself as president. The mineral-rich Katanga region has traditionally had closer economic ties with the Copper Protein of neighbouring Northern Rhodesia (then part of the Central African Federation) than with the rest of Congo, and because of its economic importance it was ruled separately from the rest of the country under the Belgians. In addition, CONAKAT claimed that the Katanga people were different from other Congolese. The secession was partly motivated by the desire of the Katang separatists to preserve more wealth from the province's mining operations and not to share it with the rest of the Congo. Another important factor was that CONAKAT was in the disintegration of law and order in central and north-eastern Congo. Announcing Katanga's breakthrough, Tombe said, We are separating from the chaos. The president of the separatist Katanga, Moises Tombe, a large mining company in Katanga, union Minier du Haut Katanga (UMHK), began supporting CONAKAT in the final days of Belgian rule amid fears that MNC may try to nationalize the company's assets after independence. UMHK was largely owned by Societe Generale de Be brussels, a well-known holding company based in Brussels, had close ties to the Belgian government. The Belgian government, inspired by UMHK, provided military support to the catalan and ordered its civil servants in the region to remain in their posts. Tsombe also recruited mercenaries, mostly whites from southern Africa and Rhodesia, to supplement and command Katanga troops. Despite support from the Belgians, Katanga never received official diplomatic recognition from any country. The Katanga branch highlighted the fundamental weakness of the central government in Leopoldville, which was a major supporter of a unified state. Less than a month after the Katanga branch, on 8 August, part of the Kasai district, located just north of Katanga, also declared its autonomy from the central government as the South Kasai Mountain State (Sud-Kasai), based around the town of Bakwanga. South Kasai was much smaller than Katanga, but was also a mining region. It was heavily populated by the Luba ethnic group, and its President Albert Kalonji stated that the secession was largely caused by the persecution of baluba in the rest of the Congo. The government of southern Kasai was backed by Formini're, another Belgian mining company, which received concessions from the new state in exchange for financial support. Without control of Katanga and southern Kasai, the central Government was deprived of about 40 per cent of its revenues. Foreign Reaction and U.N. Intervention Additional Information: Invasion of South Kasai See also: United Nations Operation Congo Concerns over Belgium's support for separatist states have led to calls within the United Nations (UN) to withdraw all Belgian troops from the country. UN Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld believes that the crisis will give the organization an opportunity to demonstrate its capabilities as a core peacekeeping force, and called for a multinational contingent of peacekeepers to be sent to Congo under UN command. On July 14, the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 143 calling for the complete withdrawal of Belgian troops from Congo and their replacement by UN-led forces. Swedish peacekeeping soldier in Congo. The UN deployed troops from various countries during the ONUK. The arrival of the United Nations operation in Congo (ONUC) was initially welcomed by Lumumba and the central government, who believed the UN would help crush the separatist states. However, the initial mandate of ONUC covered only the maintenance of law and order. Considering the offices as an intra-policy, Hammarskjöld refused to use UN troops to assist the central Congolese government in the fight against them; he argued that it would mean impartiality and violation of Congolese Congolese Lumumba also sought the assistance of the United States Government, Dwight D. Eisenhower, who refused to provide unilateral military support. Frustrated, he turned to the Soviet Union, which agreed to provide weapons, logistical and material support. About 1,000 Soviet military advisers soon landed in Congo. Lumumba's actions distanced him from the rest of the government, especially Kasai Wubu, who feared the consequences of the Soviet intervention. The Americans also feared that the Union with the Soviet Union of Congo could form the basis for a significant expansion of communism in Central Africa. With Soviet support, 2,000 ANC troops launched a major offensive south of Kasai. The attack was extremely successful, but during the offensive the ANC became involved in clashes between the ethnic groups of Baluba and Ben Lulua, and carried out a number of major massacres of civilians in Luba. About 3,000 people were killed. The violence of the offensive led to the exodus of thousands of Baluba residents who fled their homes to escape the fighting. The participation of the Soviet Union alarmed the United States. The American government under Eisenhower, according to Belgian critics, has long believed that Lumumba was a communist and that Congo may be on track to become a strategically positioned Soviet state client state. In August 1960, agents of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) in the region told their agency that Congo is experiencing classic communist ... capture and warned that Congo could follow the same path as Cuba. The political disintegration of the Central Government split and the first coup of Mobutu Additional information: the dissolution of the government of Lumumba Kasai-Wubu with members of the College of Commissioners-Generals, established by Mobutu in September 1960 calling for Soviet support split the government and led to growing pressure from Western countries to remove him from power. In addition, both Tombe and Kalonji appealed to Casa-Wubu, who they considered to be both a moderate and a federalist, calling for an out-of-touch Lumumba centralism and a solution to the issue of secession. Meanwhile, Mobutu took effective control of the army, routing foreign aid and promotion to specific units and officers to ensure their loyalty. On September 5, 1960, Casa-Wubu announced on national radio that he had unilaterally fired Lumumba, using the massacres in southern Kasai as a pretext and with the promise of American support. Andrew Cordier, the U.S. representative to congo, used his position to block the Lumumba faction's communications and prevent MNC-L's coordinated response to the news. However, both houses of parliament supported Lumumba and condemned The actions of Kas-Wubu. Crisis. Ostensibly to break the deadlock, Joseph-Desiree Mobutu launched a bloodless coup and replaced Casa-Wuba and Lumumba with the College of Commissioners of Generals composed of a group of university graduates led by Justin Bomboko. Soviet military advisers were ordered to leave. Presumably, the coup was aimed at forcing politicians to take a cooling off period before they could resume control. In practice, however, Mobutu sided with Kasai-Wubu against Lumumba, who was placed under house arrest under the protection of UN troops in Ghana and the outer ring of ANC soldiers. Casa-Wubu was re-appointed by President Mobutu in February 1961. Since the coup, Mobut has managed to exert considerable power behind the scenes in Congolese politics. Colonel Mobutu (left) pictured with President Casa Wubu in 1961, following the restoration of Casa Wubu, attempted rapprochement between Congolese factions. Tshombe began negotiations for the end of the secession and formation of the Confederate Congo. Although a compromise agreement was reached, it was not reached as the negotiations broke down amid personal animosity between Casa-Wubu and Tombe. An attempt at reconciliation in July 1961 led to the formation of a new government led by Cyril Adula, which brought together deputies from both factions of Lumumbi, but could not reconcile with Katanga. MNC-L members fled to Stanleyville, where, led by Antoine Gizenga, they formed an insurgent government in November 1960 in opposition to the central government in Leopoldville. The Gizengi Government was recognized by some States, including the Soviet Union and China, as the official Government of the Congo and could call for approximately 5,500 troops, compared with 7,000 central government troops. Faced with UN pressure, gizengi's government, however, collapsed in January 1962 after Gisenga's arrest. The killing of Lumumba Pro-Lumumba demonstrators in Maribor, Yugoslavia, in February 1961, Lumumba escaped from house arrest and fled east towards Stanleyville, where he believed he could rally support. Pursued by troops loyal to Mobutu, he was captured in Lodi on December 1, 1960, and flown back to Leopoldville with his hands tied. Despite UN calls for Kas-Wub to be properly tried, the Soviet Union condemned the UN as responsible for the arrest and demanded his release. On December 7, 1960, a meeting of the UN Security Council was called to consider the Soviet Union's demands for the immediate release of Lumumba, its reinstatement of the head of the Congolese government and the disarmament of Mobutu forces. The resolution adopted in support of Lumumba was rejected by an 8-2 vote on 14 December 1960. Still in captivity, Lumumba was tortured and taken to Teesville and Katanga, where he was handed over to forces loyal to Thomb. On January 17, 1961, Lumumba was executed by Katanga troops near Alicetbeville. The news of the execution, published on 13 February, provoked international outrage. The Belgian Embassy in the Yugoslav Republic was attacked by protesters in Belgrade, and violent demonstrations took place in London and New York. Shortly thereafter, seven Lumumbists, including the first president of the Eastern Province, Jean-Pierre Finant, were executed in southern Kasai for crimes against the people of Baluba. Gizengi's soldiers then shot dead 15 political prisoners in retaliation, including Lumumba's dissident Communications Minister Alphonse Songolo. The escalation of the United Nations and the end of the Catang branch since its original resolution of July 1960, the United Nations has issued additional resolutions calling for the complete withdrawal of Belgian and mercenaries from Katanga in a gradually more decisive environment. By 1961, onUC had about 20,000 members. Although their mandate did not allow them to take sides, ONUC had a mandate to arrest foreign mercenaries wherever they encountered them. In September 1961, an attempt to detain a group of Katanga mercenaries during Operation Mortor went wrong and escalated into a fight. ONUC's claim of impartiality was undermined in mid-September when a company of UN Irish troops was captured by a numerically superior Katanga force following a six-day siege in Jadotville. Katanga began to keep the Irish as prisoners of war, which deeply confused the mission of the UN and its supporters. On 18 September 1961, Swedish ONUK troops, advancing on the town of Kamina, flew to Ndola, directly across the border in Northern Rhodesia, to try to broker a ceasefire between UN and Katangese forces. His plane crashed before landing at Ndola airport, killing him and everyone else on board. In stark contrast to Hammarskjöld's attempts to pursue a moderate policy in the Congo, his successor, Wu Thanh, supported a more radical policy of direct involvement in the conflict. Katanga freed captured Irish soldiers in mid-October as part of a cease-fire agreement under which THE ONUC agreed to withdraw its troops - a propaganda coup for Tshombe. U.S. support for the UN mission and the killing of ten Italian UN pilots in Port Nneon in November 1961 reinforced international demands to resolve the situation. In April 1962, UN troops occupied the south of Kasai. On the night of 29 to 30 September 1962, the warlords of the South-Kasai regime launched a coup d'etat in Bakwanga against the Calonjist regime. On 5 October 1962, central government troops returned to Bakwanga to support the rebels and help crush the last calongist loyalists, marking the end of the secession of southern Kasai. Map in the Congo, in 1961, resolution 169, issued in November 1961, called on ONUC to respond to the deteriorating human rights situation and to prevent the outbreak of a full-scale civil war. The resolution completely rejected Katanga's claim to statehood and authorized ONUK troops to use all necessary force to assist the central Government of the Congo in restoring and maintaining law and order. The Catangese carried out new provocations, and in response, ONUK launched Operation Unokat to dismantle Katanga checkpoints and seize strategic positions around Lisaberville. Faced with international pressure, Tsombe signed the Declaration in December 1962, in which he agreed in principle to accept the powers of the central government and the state constitution and to renounce any claim to Katanga's independence. However, after the announcement, negotiations between Tombe and Adula stalled, while Katanga forces continued to pursue UN troops. The diminishing support and growing reluctance of Belgium to support Katanga have demonstrated that the state cannot survive indefinitely. On 11 December 1962, Belgian Foreign Minister Paul-Henri Spaak stated that the Belgian Government would support the United Nations or the central Congolese government if they tried to end the Catalan branch by force. On December 24, 1962, UN and Katang gendarmierie troops clashed near Brisbaneville, and fighting broke out. After attempts to reach a ceasefire failed, U.N. troops launched Operation Grandslam and occupied Aisabethville, forcing Tombeh to leave the country. A cease-fire was agreed shortly thereafter. Indian UN troops, exceeding their orders, then occupied Jadotville, preventing the Katanga loyalists from regrouping. Gradually, the UN captured the rest of Katanga, and on January 17, 1963, Tombe surrendered his last stronghold in Colvési, effectively putting an end to the Katanga branch. Attempting political reconciliation A 1963 postage stamp to commemorate the reconciliation of political factions in Congo after the end of the Katanga branch after the end of the secession of Katanga, political negotiations began to agree on disparate political factions. The talks coincided with the formation of an expat political group, the National Liberal Council (CNL), Lumumbist dissidents and others in neighbouring Congo-Brazzaville. Negotiations culminated in the creation of a new, revised constitution, known as the Lulubabu Constitution, after the city in which it was written to create a compromise balance of power. The new Constitution increased the powers of the President, ending the system of joint consultations between the President and the Prime Minister, and reassured the federalists by increasing the number of provinces from six to 21 while increasing their autonomy. [90] (6) also changed the name of the state from the Republic of the Congo to the Democratic Republic of the Congo. It was ratified in a constitutional referendum in June 1964 and Parliament was dissolved pending new elections. Casa-Wubu appointed the Interim Prime Minister of Thombe, the exiled Katanga leader. Although he was personally capable and supported by Western powers as an anti-communist, Tsombe was condemned by other African leaders such as King Hassan II of Morocco as an imperialist puppet for his role in the Katanga branch. Under the interim government of Tombe, new elections were scheduled for March 30, and an uprising erupted in central and eastern Congo. The main articles of the Simba uprising and the uprising of the political crisis led to the widespread discord of the central government brought by independence. Demands for second independence from kleptocracy and political struggle in the capital grew. The slogan second independence was adopted by Congolese revolutionaries inspired by the Maoists, including Pierre Moulele, who served in the Lumumba government. Political instability in the Congo has contributed to wider discontent with a direct uprising. A map showing the territory controlled by the Simba rebels (red) and quillu (yellow), 1964 Destruction in rural Congo began with the agitation of Lumumbists, led by Moulele, among the peoples of Pende and Mbundu. By the end of 1963, riots had erupted in parts of central and eastern Congo. The quillu uprising erupted on 16 January 1964 in the towns of Idiofa and Gungu in the province of quillu. Further disruptions and uprisings then spread to Kivu in the east and then to Albertville, prompting further uprisings elsewhere in congo and the beginning of a larger Simba uprising. The Rebels began to expand their territory and move rapidly northward, capturing Port Impan, Stanleyville, Paulis and Lizala between July and August. The rebels, who called themselves Simbas (from sourdough as lion), had a populist but vague ideology loosely based on communism, which gave priority to equality and was aimed at increasing overall wealth. Most of the active revolutionaries were young people who hoped that the uprising would provide them with opportunities that the government did not have. Magic was also very important to the rebels, who also widely used witchcraft to defend themselves, as well as demoralize their opponents an ANC. As they moved forward, the rebels carried out numerous massacres in the territory they had seized in order to eliminate the political opposition and terrorize the population. The ONUC was in the process of withdrawing when and had only 5,500 staff, most of whom had been deployed in the eastern part of the country and were stranded as a result of the conflict. Western missionaries retreated to their embassies, which in turn appealed to the UN for help. A small group of peacekeepers was assembled and subsequently sent to the area of Kvilu to retrieve the fleeing missionaries. Rescue operations continued throughout March and April and resulted in the successful recovery of more than 100 missionaries. The rebels founded the state, the People's Republic of Congo (Republic of Congo), with the capital in Stanleyville and Christophe Gbignier as president. The new state was supported by the Soviet Union and China, which supplied it with weapons, as did various African states, notably Tanzania. It was also supported by Cuba, which sent a team of more than 100 advisers, led by Che Guevara, to advise Simbas on tactics and doctrine. The Simba uprising coincided with a widespread escalation of the Cold War amid the incident in the Gulf of Tonkin, and there were suggestions that if the uprising had not been quickly defeated, a full-scale American military intervention could have taken place, as in Vietnam. Suppression and Belgian and American Intervention See also: Operation Dragon Rouge After its early succession, Simba's uprising began to face local resistance as it encroached on areas outside the old MNC-L domain. The People's Republic also suffers from a lack of coherent socio-economic policies, which contributes to the inability to govern its own territory. Since the end of August 1964, the rebels began to lose their positions to the ANC Albertville and Lizala were recaptured in late August and early September. Tsombe, supported by Mobutu, recalled many of his former mercenaries from the Katanga branch to confront Simba. The mercenaries, led by Mad Mike Hoar and mostly white from central and southern Africa, were formed into a unit known as the 5 ANC Commandos. In a press interview, Hoare himself described his men as appalling thugs. The mercenaries also received material support from the CIA. Belgian paratroopers at Stanleyville Airfield shortly after the November 1964 operation surrounded the remaining white population of Stanleyville and its environs. White was taken hostage at the Victoria Hotel in the city for use as a negotiating tool with the ANC. In order to return the hostages, Belgian parachute troops were brought to Congo on American planes for intervention. On 24 November, as part of Operation Dragon Rouge, Belgian paratroopers landed in Stanleyville and quickly took hostages. In total, about 70 hostages and Congolese civilians were killed, but the vast majority of them were evacuated. Belgian troops were only ordered to free the hostages, not to drive Simbas out of the city, but the attack nonetheless broke the back of the eastern uprising, which was never restored. Simba's leadership went into exile in disarray and serious disagreement; Gbenier was shot in the shoulder by his general after being fired. Meanwhile, Belgian paratroopers and civilians returned to their country. After the intervention, Belgium itself was publicly accused of neo-colonialism. As a result of the intervention, Tombe lost the support of Kasai-Wubu and Mobutu and was dismissed as Prime Minister in October 1965. Shortly after Dragon Rouge, the ANC and the mercenaries captured Stanleyville, ending the Simba uprising. Simba's pockets of resistance continued to be held in eastern Congo, especially in southern Kivu, where Laurent-Desiree Kabila led a Maoist cross-border uprising that lasted until the 1980s. The Tshombe Nationale Congolaise Convention (CONACO) won an overwhelming majority of seats, but much of his party soon deserted to form a new Democratic Front Party (FDC), making the overall result unclear as CONACO controlled the Chamber of Deputies while the FDC controlled the Senate. Kasai-Wubu, in an attempt to use the situation to block Tombe, appointed FTC leader Avarista Kimbu as prime minister in November 1965, but the parliament, which is largely for Tombe, refused to ratify the appointment. Instead of seeking a compromise candidate, Casa-Wubu again unilaterally declared Kimba Prime Minister, which was again rejected, creating a political impasse. When the government was almost paralyzed, Mobutu seized power in a bloodless coup, ostensibly to end the impasse, on 25 November 1965. Under the auspices of the exclusion regime (the equivalent of a state of emergency), Mobutu assumed radical, almost absolute power for five years, after which, he said, democracy would be restored. The coup for Mobutu, which promised both economic and political stability, was supported by the United States and other Western governments, and his rule initially gained widespread popularity. He increasingly assumed other powers, abolishing the post of Prime Minister in 1966 and dissolving Parliament in 1967. Consequences and legacy See also: Mobutu and Richard Nixon at the White House In 1973 After he was established as the sole source of political power, Mobutu gradually consolidated his control in the Congo. The number of provinces had been reduced and their autonomy had been reduced, resulting in the establishment of a highly centralized State. Mobutu increasingly placed his supporters in the remaining positions In 1967, to demonstrate his legitimacy, he formed the People's People's Revolution (IDP) party, which until 1990 was the country's only legitimate political party under the new Mobutu Constitution. In 1971, the State was renamed the state, and efforts were made to eliminate all colonial influences. He also nationalized the remaining foreign economic assets in the country, including UMHK, which became He cmesanes. Despite initial successes, by the time he was stripped of power, Mobutu's rule was characterized by widespread nepotism, corruption and economic mismanagement. In the years after the Crisis in The Congo, Mobutu was able to dislocate many opposition figures who could threaten to control it. In 1965, Tombe was sent to a second exile after being accused of treason. Between 1966 and 1967, two riots broke out in Stanleyville involving up to 800 Katanga gendarmes and former Tsombe mercenaries. The riots were eventually suppressed. In 1967, Tombe was sentenced to death in absentia, and in the same year he was abducted during a hijacking and arrested in Algeria. His death in 1969, presumably for natural reasons, led to speculation that the Mobutu Government may have been involved. Mulele was also lured back to the Congo from exile with the promise of amnesty, but he was tortured and killed. The political legacy of federalism, ethnicity in politics and the centralization of the State have not been resolved by the crisis and have contributed in part to a decline in support for the concept of the State among the Congolese people. Mobutu was a strong advocate for centralization, and one of his first acts, in 1965, was to destroy the provinces and abolish most of their independent legislative capacity. The subsequent loss of faith in the central Government was one of the reasons that the Congo had been called a failed State and had contributed to violence by factions promoting ethnic and localized federalism. Local rebels continued in eastern Congo in the 1980s and led behind a legacy of instability along Congo's eastern borders. Laurent-Desiree Kabila, who led the anti-mob during the crisis, succeeded in overthrowing Mobutu in 1997 and becoming President of the restored Democratic Republic of the Congo. His successor was his son Joseph Kabila. After the fall of Mobutu, Antoine Gizenga founded the political party Lumumbistista Unifi (PALU) and was appointed Prime Minister after the 2006 general election. The crisis in the Congo is of great importance in the collective memory of the Congolese people. In particular, the killing of Lumumba is seen in the context of remembrance as a symbolic moment in which the Congo has lost its international dignity and ability to define its which has since been controlled Many Congolese consider the crisis to be unresolved and believe that Congo's self-determination is not yet secured from Western machinations. The latter concept has largely shaped the political aspirations of a large number of Congolese. The history and historical controversy of the Congo Crisis is usually portrayed in historiography as a time of intense disorder and disorder; there is a broad consensus that Congo's independence was a disaster. This interpretation often compares the crisis with the perceived stability of the Congo under Belgian rule before 1960 and under the Mobutu regime after 1965. In Belgium, accusations of Belgium's involvement in Lumumba's murder led to a state investigation and a subsequent official apology in 2001 for moral responsibility, though not directly involved in the murder. Most scholars have concluded that the United States has intervened significantly in the crisis. The multi-volume official history of the American foreign policy service, Foreign Relations of the United States, has been accused by the academic David N. Gibbs of deliberately reducing American involvement. The international significance of the Congolese crisis destabilized Central Africa and helped ignite the Portuguese colonial war, especially the war for independence in neighbouring Angola. Angolan nationalists have long had close ties to the Congo, where many of them lived as exiles. The Angolan nationalist organization Uniano dos Povos de Angola (UNA), which has always always always been always supportive of Angolan Bacongo, supported ABACO politicians who hoped to restore the Kingdom of the Congo by changing the boundaries established during the colonial period. Believing that Congo's independence was the first stage in the process, the UPA launched the Baixa de Cassanje uprising in 1961, fuelling the conflict in Angola that lasted until 1974. The Congolese, later in the country, continued to support the Angolan rebels and even took a direct part in the subsequent civil war in Angola. The crisis has shown in practice the true nature not only of the former colonial powers, but also of the United Nations, the newly independent countries united in the so-called Afro-Asian bloc, as well as Moscow. Sociologist Ludo De Witte Crisis has forced the newly independent African states to rethink their preferences and internal ties. In particular, this has led to the division of African States into factions. The Brazzaville group was joined by moderate-minded states, which called for the unity of the French-speaking African states and the maintenance of ties with France. Radical states joined Casablanca in calling for pan-African The chaotic violence resulting from the crisis and the fate of whites in the country, many of whom had come to Northern and Southern Rhodesia as refugees, had contributed to the widespread view among whites that black nationalist politicians were not ready to govern, and raised fears that the immediate majority rule in Rhodesia could lead to a similar situation. After negotiations with Britain repeatedly collapsed, the predominantly white government of southern Rhodesia declared independence unilaterally in 1965. The Katanga branch will prove politically influential in Africa. During the civil war in Chad between 1965 and 1979, the National Front of Liberals (FROLINAT) openly rejected separatism in its bid to sneer the southerly backed government of Francois Tombaybe after the experience of seceding Katanga, officially declaring that there would be no katanga in Chad. In Nigeria's civil war, between 1967 and 1970, the ethnically igbo region of Biafra split from Nigeria, which he accused of privatizing the interests of northern ethnic groups and discriminating against Igbo. The offices of Biafra and Katanga are often compared in academic writing. Unlike Katanga, Biafra achieved limited official international recognition and withdrew support from Western multinational companies involved in the local oil industry. Biafra was defeated in 1970 and re-integrated into Nigeria. See also the Democratic Republic of Congo portal Africa portal War portal History of the Democratic Republic of the Congo First Congo War (1996-1997) The Second Congo War (1998-2003) Wind of Change (speech) Harold Macmillan, 1960 Year of Africa (1960) Ind'pendance Cha Cha - song 1960 Le Grand Calle in memory of the independence of the Congo Bible Poisonwood (1998) - a novel by Barbara Kingsolver, set during the crisis Notes and references Footnotes in the United Nations operation in Congo took part soldiers from Ghana, Tunisia, Morocco, Ethiopia, Guinea, Sweden, Mali, Sudan, Liberia, Canada, India, Indonesia and the United Arab Republic. The secession of Katanga and southern Kasai was also supported by South Africa, France, Portuguese Angola and the neighbouring Central African Federation. However, none of them has been officially recognized by any state. Not to be confused with a neighbouring state known as the Republic of the Congo, formerly Of French

Congo, with the capital of Brazzaville. The name of the state was changed to the Democratic Republic of the Congo in August 1964. In most languages, bantu ba- (or wa-) is added to the human noun to form the plural. Bacongo thus collectively belongs to members of the Congo ethnic group. A similar mission, Operation Rum Punch, was carried out weeks earlier and led to the successful arrest of the 40 mercenaries without violence. The Irish were forced to surrender when their ammunition and supplies ran out. No one died. The Katangas, although victorious, suffered hundreds of losses. Separatist movements in Katanga have continued since the end of the crisis. In the 1970s, two conflicts known as Shaba I and II, led by the National Front for the Liberation of the Congo (NPC), attempted to use the chaos of Angola's neighbouring civil war to be secession. After 2000, another separatist movement led by military leader Gideon Kyonggu Mutanga and his Kata Katanga militia (Sede Katanga) attempted to defeat government forces and declare regional independence. In 1962, the UPA was renamed the National Front of Libertanyao de Angola, or FNLA. Inquiries : Haskin 2005, page 24-5. Nsongola-Ntalaja 2007, page 101. Dorne 2016, page 32. a b Nugent 2004, page 97. Mwakiagille 2014, page 72. a b c d e f g e EISA 2002a. Pakenham 1992, page 588-89. b c Turner 2007, page 28. Turner 2007, 29. a b Freund 1998, page 198-99. Freund 1998, page 198. Borstelmann 1993, page 92-93. Freund 1998, page 199. Seilig 2008, page 64. - Seilig 2008, page 64-65. a b Seilig 2008, page 76. - Seilig 2008, page 65-66. Seilig 2008, page 66. Seilig 2008, page 74. - Seilig 2008, page 82-83. - Seilig 2008, page 83-85. b Seilig 2008, page 70. - Seilig 2008, page 70-73. 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