GAMBIA

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Editorial Note.

In the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.
It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, ante-bellum conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL
   (1) Position and Frontiers ........................................ 1
   (2) Surface, Coast, and River System
       Surface .................................................................. 2
       Coast ................................................................... 3
       River System .......................................................... 4
   (3) Climate .................................................................. 5
   (4) Sanitary Conditions ................................................ 6
   (5) Race and Language
       Mandingo ................................................................ 7
       Fula ..................................................................... 7
       Jollof .................................................................... 8
       Jolah .................................................................... 8
   (6) Population ............................................................. 8

II. POLITICAL HISTORY
    Chronological Summary .............................................. 11
    Historical Sketch ....................................................... 11

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS
    (1) Religious ............................................................... 13
    (2) Political ............................................................... 13
    (3) Public Education .................................................. 14
    (4) General Observations .............................................. 14

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS
    (A) Means of Communication
        (1) Internal
            (a) Roads .......................................................... 17
            (b) Rivers ......................................................... 17
            (c) Posts and Telephones ..................................... 19

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

(2) External
   (a) Ports ......................................................... 20
   (b) Shipping Lines ............................................. 21
   (c) Telegraphic Communication ............................... 21

(B) INDUSTRY
   (1) Labour
      (a) Supply of Labour; Emigration and Immigra-
          tion ...................................................... 21
      (b) Labour Conditions ..................................... 22
   (2) Agriculture
      (a) Products of Commercial Value ......................... 22
      (b) Methods of Cultivation ................................ 25
      (c) Land Tenure ........................................... 26
   (3) Fisheries .................................................... 26
   (4) Minerals ..................................................... 26
   (5) Manufactures ............................................... 27

(C) COMMERCE
   (1) Domestic
      (a) Principal Branches of Trade ........................... 27
      (b) Foreign Interests ....................................... 28
   (2) Foreign
      (a) Exports .................................................. 28
      (b) Imports .................................................. 29

(D) FINANCE
   (a) Public Finance ............................................. 30
   (b) Currency .................................................... 32
   (c) Banking ...................................................... 32

(E) GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ......................................... 32

APPENDIX
   1. Treaties .................................................... 33
   2. Shipping ..................................................... 34
   3. Principal Exports ........................................... 35
   4. Principal Imports .......................................... 36

AUTHORITIES ..................................................... 37

MAPS ................................................................. 37
I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

Position.—The dependency of Gambia consists of a narrow strip of territory lying along both sides of the lower reaches of the River Gambia and forming an enclave in French West Africa, into which it penetrates from the Atlantic coast. Its extreme limits are the parallels 13° 3' and 13° 50' north, and the meridians 13° 47' and 16° 48' west.

Area.—The dependency is composed of (a) the Colony of Gambia, consisting of St. Mary’s Island, British Kombo, Albreda, MacCarthy Island, and the territory known as the ‘ceded mile’, all of which were acquired by occupation, purchase, or treaty; and (b) the Protectorate, constituted in 1889. The total area, according to the map of the Boundary Commission (1904–5), is about 4,370 square miles, of which the Colony is about 69 square miles (St. Mary’s Island about 4 square miles).

For administrative purposes the dependency is divided into five provinces, viz. North Bank, 860 square miles; MacCarthy Island, 600 square miles; Upper River, 1,080 square miles; South Bank, 520 square miles; and Kombo and Foni, 980 square miles. These totals do not include the area of the river channel, from Bird Island to the mouth, which is about 330 square miles.

Relation to Main Trade Routes.—The port of Bathurst, the only ocean port in Gambia, situated within the estuary about 15 miles from the sea, is some 90 miles
south of the great French military and commercial port of Dakar, and about 400 miles north of the British port of Freetown in Sierra Leone. It lies close to the ocean trade routes from Europe to the West African ports, and not very far from those which cross the South Atlantic Ocean from Europe to South Africa and to South America.

Frontiers.—On the west Gambia is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, and on all other sides by the Senegal colony of French West Africa. The northern boundary starts from the point where the Jinnak Creek flows into the sea and follows the parallel 13° 36' north to about 15° 27' west longitude, whence it consists of a line, drawn 10 kilometres (6.2 miles) from the river, as far as about 13° 52' west. After this the boundary follows the river to a point measured 10 kilometres in a straight line from Yabu Tenda. From this point the eastern boundary is defined by eight exactly fixed points. The southern boundary line runs, like the northern, at a distance of 10 kilometres from the river as far as 15° 47' west longitude. This meridian is then followed, passing one kilometre to the eastward of Sandeng, to 13° 10' north latitude, and the boundary then goes westward along this parallel to the left bank of the San Pedro or Allahi River. The bank is followed to the Atlantic Ocean, which it meets at about 13° 3' north and 16° 43' west.

(2) Surface, Coast, and River System

Surface.—The whole of the Gambia dependency lies in the valley of the Gambia River. It is divided into two regions, the plateau in the east, and the plain in the west. Both these areas contain isolated hills and are traversed by ridges; these last being hardly apparent towards the west; and over both are scattered towns, villages, and farms.

The plateau is about 150 ft. above sea-level in the east, and gradually decreases in altitude until at 15° 45' west longitude it merges into the plain. In the
eastern part the hills and ridges rise from 25 to 50 ft. above its level, and gradually diminish in height as it falls to the west. It is covered with grass and isolated clumps of trees, but in places there are stretches of thick forest. The hills and ridges are thinly covered with stunted trees and bamboos.

The **plain** extends to the west from longitude 15° 45'. It contains some ridges and spurs coming from the plateau, and some isolated hills; all of these have rounded tops and sloping sides, and are less marked than those on the plateau. At the sea-coast, on the south side of the river, there are steep cliffs, none of which are more than 75 ft. in height. The plain is covered with thick high grass, dotted with clumps of trees.

Little detailed information is available concerning the nature and extent of the **soils** of Gambia, a fact which is probably due to the existence of vast areas of unoccupied cultivable land for which there is no demand. It seems that the whole surface of the country originally consisted of a bed of laterite, composed mainly of silex, iron, and alumina, on which in many places a deep layer of alluvial soil is now superimposed. Where the soil is pure laterite it appears to be uncultivable. Considerable areas are covered by swamps and marshes, flooded during the rainy season, and these, together with certain patches of sandy, desert-like land, are also uncultivable.

**Coast.**—The total length of coast-line is only about 40 miles, all of which lies to the south of the mouth of the Gambia River and runs first in a south-westerly direction and then somewhat east of south. The northern part of it consists of high land, rising to 75 ft., with steep cliffs; south of Cape St. Mary it is lower, and north of the San Pedro River it is very low, with a sandy beach. There are no harbours on the coast, and the only estuary is that of the Gambia River, inside which lies Bathurst, the one seaport of the dependency.
**River System.**—The River Gambia, with a total length of about 1,000 miles, enters British territory near Genoto (about 280 miles from the sea), and from this point flows almost at a dead level to the sea. In the upper reaches its banks are from 10 to 50 ft. high, and usually overgrown with small trees and shrubs. West of the Buruko rocks, 4 miles above MacCarthy Island, these high banks are replaced, except at a few isolated spots (Devil Point, Muta Point and others), by low shores, which in many places merge into swamps and marshes, and are clothed with dense forests. At Kunta-ur, which is below Baboon Islands and about 150 miles from Bathurst, small mangroves appear; at Pappa Island, about 130 miles from Bathurst, and below it as far as the mouth of the river, both banks are hidden by dense mangrove swamps, in which the trees reach a height of 50 or 60 ft. There are a few breaks in these swamps, notably at Elephant Island, about 80 miles above Bathurst, and at these points landing can be effected; but elsewhere the banks are of soft mud, and are unsuitable for landings except at certain points where there are ports or villages.

The average maximum rise of the river, which occurs in September, is \( \frac{3}{4} \) ft. at Ballangar, \( 1\frac{1}{2} \) ft. at MacCarthy Island, 18 ft. at Kunting, and 25 ft. at Yabu Tenda. The reason for the great increase in the flood-rise above MacCarthy Island is that the rocky ledge at Buruko acts as a dam and holds up the flood-waters. An authority states that the valley of the Shima-Simong, which joins the Gambia about 280 miles above Bathurst, is practically at flood-level, so that in the rainy season a connexion is made with the valley of the Cassamance River via Gambissara.

The average maximum rise of tide at lowest river level is \( 5\frac{3}{4} \) ft. at Bathurst, \( 4\frac{3}{4} \) ft. at Ballangar and 3 ft. at MacCarthy Island.

The river contains fresh water above Elephant Island (about 95 miles from the sea), and is reported to be tidal as far as Yabu Tenda (314 miles from the sea).
The *Vintang (Bintang) Creek* rises in French territory about 15° 25' west, a few miles south of the British frontier. It flows almost due west for about 41 miles, and enters the River Gambia about 28 miles above Bathurst. Tidal influence is felt throughout its length in British territory, and the banks are covered with mangroves.

The *Suara Kunda Creek (Mini Minimum Bolon)* rises in the Protectorate about 16° 22' west, close to the northern frontier. It makes a wide sweep to the north into French territory and re-enters the dependency about 16° 7' west. Thence it follows a very winding course, in a southerly direction, and enters the River Gambia about 37 miles above Bathurst. The banks are low and are rather thinly wooded with mangroves.

(3) CLIMATE

There is a considerable difference between the climatic conditions near the sea and those prevailing farther up the river; in both cases the records are very meagre, and regular observations appear to have been maintained only at Bathurst and, less completely, at MacCarthy Island.

The climate is better than that of the other West African dependencies. During the four months November to February, when the prevailing winds are from the north and north-west, it is dry and pleasant, with comparatively cool nights. During the three months December to February a dry easterly wind (the *harmattan*) blows generally for a period of about two weeks, or less, at a stretch; at this time the daily variations in shade temperature are said to be from 40° F. (4.4° C.) to 90° F. (32.2° C.). In April and May there is a good sea-breeze at Bathurst, but elsewhere, during the hot months March to May, the climate is very hot and vegetation dies down; but the heat is not unduly trying until about the middle of May, when the atmosphere becomes humid. The rainy season lasts for the five months June
to October, but during June and October the rains are showery and intermittent. Throughout this period the climate is extremely trying and unhealthy for Europeans, who get away from the country if possible.

The average annual rainfall at Bathurst is about 50 in. (1,272 mm.), and in eleven years it varied between 32 in. (812 mm.) and 78 in. (1,981 mm.). In the upper provinces it is said to be from 35 in. (889 mm.) to 40 in. (1,016 mm.). August is the most rainy month throughout the dependency.

The temperature at Bathurst is said to be highest in October, at the close of the rains: here the mean annual maximum shade temperature is 94° F. (34·4° C.), and the mean annual minimum is 63·5° F. (17·5° C.). At MacCarthy Island the corresponding figures are 18° F. (10° C.) higher and 5° F. (2·8° C.) lower respectively. During the five years 1911–15 the highest and lowest daily shade temperatures recorded at Bathurst were 104° F. (40° C.) and 53° F. (11·6° C.) respectively; while at MacCarthy Island during the same period the highest and lowest mean monthly shade temperatures were 115° F. (46·1° C.) and 50° F. (10° C.). To the east of MacCarthy Island both extremes are said to be more marked.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

Intermittent and remittent fevers, dysentery, and rheumatism are the most common diseases. Small-pox is prevalent; but epidemics, which used to be frequent and severe, have diminished greatly of recent years in consequence, it is said, of the extension of vaccination, to which the natives are now accustomed, and the value of which they recognize. Sleeping-sickness exists more or less throughout the dependency, but it does not appear to have been serious, at all events up to 1915–16. Yellow fever is said not to have occurred outside Bathurst for the last ten years, but there was an epidemic at that town in May 1911. Epidemics of whooping-cough and of broncho-pneumonia have been
recorded. Some attempts have been made to reduce the amount of malarial fever by anti-mosquito measures, but these do not seem to have met with marked success.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Gambia has been invaded from time to time by different races, of whom some sections have remained in a more or less unmixed state, while others have intermarried with one another and with the aboriginal inhabitants. The result is that there are now various races speaking different languages, and many tribes with dialects of their own; the tribes number no fewer than twenty-seven in the Kombo and Foni province alone. The most important races are the Mandingo, the Fula, the Jollof, and the Jolah; of these, the first three are mainly Mohammedans, while the last are pagans.

Mandingo.—The Mandingo, an offshoot of the Niger Mandingo and the present representatives of the once-powerful Nelli race, probably migrated to the Gambia valley from the northern slopes of Futa Jallon. They are believed to have migrated across Africa not later than A.D. 1000, and are now a negroid race. Included in the term Mandingo are Soninki and many other tribes, some of which are said to be pure negroes. The Mandingo language belongs to the Sudan family and is spoken over a very large part of West Africa. The Mandingo are said to be a clean, hard-working people, somewhat unfriendly to Europeans; they pay their debts, and are honest traders, and theft is almost unknown amongst them.

Fula.—The Fula (or cow-Fula) of Gambia are a branch of the nomad Fula of the Futa Jallon highlands. They migrated towards the Senegal valley in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and in passing through the Middle Gambia valley colonized a large part of it, especially on the north bank. They are a race of Libyo-negroid origin, which had lost much of
its purity before it left Futa Jallon. Since settling in the Gambia valley they have intermarried with the Mandingo and other indigenous tribes, and thus have produced hybrids such as the Tukulor, Serawuli, and others. Their language is akin to the Hamito-Semitic, according to some authorities, while others describe it as a Bantu language. In Gambia they are semi-nomads, living in villages and cultivating field-crops during the rains, but moving with their flocks to pasture-lands when the crops have been gathered.

Jollof.—The Jollof (Wulof) occupy the north bank of the lower Gambia River, and their country extends through French territory almost to the Senegal river. Their language belongs to the Sudan family, and they are believed to be of East African origin. Intellectually and physically far finer people than the other indigenous races, they are traders as well as agriculturists, and consequently their language is widespread and is known from Senegal to Guinea.

Jolah.—The Jolah, negroes who speak a Bantu language, occupy the territory which lies south of the Gambia River along the shores of the Atlantic and extends about 100 miles inland. They are pagans, strongly hostile to the Mohammedans, and live in communal groups, each village having its own patriarch. These people are descendants of the Felup, and are a primitive unsociable race, keen farmers, hard-working and thrifty; but they are hard drinkers, consuming large quantities of palm spirit.

(6) Population

A census of the population taken in 1901 showed the total number of inhabitants to be 104,000; but, admittedly, these figures are valueless, the people having 'objected strongly to their numbers being taken'. At the census of 1911 the total population was found to be just over 146,000; but it should be noted that in one province the commissioner thought the census figures
were 'a long way short of the actual numbers'. Almost all the inhabitants were Africans, and the proportion of the sexes was almost equal. The only European residents (147 in 1916) are a small number of officials, traders, and missionaries. The French slightly outnumber the British.

The population, which numbers about 34 per square mile, is almost entirely rural, the only place which can properly be called a town being the seaport of Bathurst, the head-quarters of the Government, which had a population of 7,700 at the census of 1911 and appears not to have increased since that date. Other so-called towns, whose populations vary from several thousands to a couple of hundreds, are usually little more than large villages, made up of the dwellings of peasants who live on the land; they appear to be more numerous and of larger size in those parts of the country where the cultivation is most intense.

To a great extent it seems that facility for shipping ground-nuts overseas governs the density of the rural population. Thus pressure on the soil is most intense in parts of the North Bank province where there is easy access to Suarra Kunda Creek; while in the South Bank province, which has only two river ports, much land is unoccupied. No doubt there are other governing factors of the situation, such as fertility of the soil, prevalence of agricultural and pastoral pests, energy of local tribes, and so forth; but concerning these only fragments of information are available. There is no nomadic population properly so called, except the Laibi of Baddibu, who are described as gipsies, and perhaps some other similar tribes.

In some provinces annual figures of changes in the total number of the population are given for certain years, and these are independent of the returns of births and deaths; but complete information on this point is not available, and probably does not exist. The same remarks apply to the returns of births and deaths; few records concerning them are maintained. On the whole
it seems that the population has increased of recent years, as might be expected in view of the commercial prosperity of the country and the absence of serious epidemics; but the want of statistics renders impossible any definite conclusion on this subject.
II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

1618 First British settlement on the Gambia River.
1816 Founding of Bathurst.
1837 Retirement of the French from Gambia.
1888 Gambia constituted a separate colony.
1889 Definition of Franco-British boundaries.
1904 Concession to France.

(1) Historical Sketch

The British connexion with Gambia dates from the earliest times of British enterprise in West Africa, the first British fort on the river having been established in 1618-20. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was a constant succession of wars and treaties between France and England affecting North-West Africa, the general effect of which was to consolidate French power on the Senegal and British power on the Gambia. On the Gambia the British stronghold was Fort James, on an island about 20 miles from the mouth of the river. Two miles lower down was a French station at Albreda. By the Treaty of Versailles in 1783, Great Britain ceded in full right to France the River Senegal and its dependencies; and France guaranteed to Great Britain "the possession of Fort James and of the River Gambia." The English were by the same treaty allowed to engage in the gum trade on the coast of Senegambia from the mouth of the River St. John to the bay and fort of Portendik inclusively. In 1786 the French came back to Albreda, and remained there until 1857. By a Convention of March 7, 1857, in return for the abandonment by the
English of their gum-trade privileges, the French gave up Albreda, and, access to the Gambia for trade purposes being reserved to them by the Convention, left the English in full control of the river.\textsuperscript{1}

The Colony of Gambia, as it stands to-day, has enjoyed a continuous existence since 1816, when merchants formerly resident at Goree and Senegal (which had been given up to France by the Treaty of Paris, 1814) established themselves on St. Mary’s Island and built the town of Bathurst. In 1823 MacCarthy Island was purchased; and in 1826-27 and 1840-55 further small acquisitions of territory were secured. Together these formed the Colony proper. A vague Protectorate was also established over the tribes along both banks of the river, a definite Protectorate being constituted in 1889. The gradual advance of French influence rendered a definition of boundaries necessary; and this was arranged by Article I, together with Annex II, of the Anglo-French Convention of August 10, 1889,\textsuperscript{2} which was carried into effect by commissioners in 1891 (\textit{Procès-verbal} of June 9, 1891), the line being slightly adjusted in 1895-96 and 1898-99. The settlement of the limits of British and French authority was succeeded by measures to render the former effective; and by 1901 the territory of Foreign Kombo had been added to the Colony and the tribes in the Protectorate reduced to order.

By the Convention of London of April 8, 1904, which adjusted various outstanding questions between Great Britain and France in Newfoundland and West and Central Africa, a concession was made to France enabling her to obtain access to the River Gambia at Yabu Tenda or at some point lower down “accessible to merchant ships engaged in maritime navigation.”

\textsuperscript{1} Hertslet, \textit{Map of Africa by Treaty}, II, 716-718.
\textsuperscript{2} Africa, No. 7, 1892 [O. 6701], June 1892, pp. 8, 9, 12, 13.
III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

The great majority of the population are pagans, but there are some 4,000 Christians, mostly in the Colony proper. About 12 per cent. of the population are Mohammedans; and the spread of Mohammedanism has been, on the whole, beneficial to the character of the people.

(2) Political

The extension of British authority was accompanied by important changes in the form of government. The Colony had in 1821 been annexed to Sierra Leone; and, though erected into a separate colony in 1843, it was reunited with Sierra Leone under one Government in 1866, as the outcome of the report of the Committee of the House of Commons in 1865 in favour of the concentration of British interests in West Africa. It became a separate colony again in 1888; and in 1893 steps were taken for the administration of the Protectorate. In 1902, as the result of experience gained in the intervening period, the protectorate form of administration was extended to the Colony proper outside St. Mary’s Island.

The legislative power, for Colony and Protectorate alike, is now exercised by the Governor in Legislative Council, a body consisting usually of three officials and the same number of nominated non-officials. Administration in the Protectorate is largely conducted by native authorities under the supervision of travelling
commissioners; and native Courts, under due supervision, administer justice in cases between natives, according to native law and custom.

(3) Public Education

Education is in the hands of the different denominations—Anglican, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic—the Anglican having one primary school, and the other two denominations three each. The Wesleyans have also a secondary school, and an industrial and technical school which gives instruction in masonry, carpentry, joinery, painting, glazing, and blacksmith's work. This school does excellent work, though but few pupils take advantage of it; it is open to all denominations. There is also a Mohammedan school, managed by a board of leading Mohammedans, with about 100 pupils, at which instruction is given in elementary English and Arabic, and the Koran is taught. The total number of children receiving instruction is only about 1,500, and parents are not ready to take advantage of the opportunities of obtaining instruction for their children. Education receives grants from the Government to defray the cost of the teachers' salaries and the maintenance of the schools.

(4) General Observations

The following are the main features of Gambia as a British dependency. (1) It is the nearest to Great Britain of all her West African dependencies. (2) It is, with the Gold Coast, the oldest in regard to British connection of all the British West African dependencies. (3) The net outcome of past history was to effect a division between French and English, assigning the Senegal River to the French and the Gambia to the English. This division was finally recognised by the Agreement of 1857. (4) The Gambia, for the 280 miles of its course in British territory, is the best of all West African rivers and estuaries for navigable purposes, and of great value as a trade route.
When, in 1869, the then Governor-in-Chief of the West Africa Settlements strongly recommended the cession of Gambia to France, he summed up the reasons as follows:

(a) The expense of the garrison.
(b) The hopelessness of extending civilisation among the peculiar population.
(c) The precarious nature of the revenue, and the probability of the ultimate failure of the staple export, the ground-nut crop.
(d) The fact that the trade was almost exclusively French, and would become more so year by year.
(e) The uselessness of the Colony as a military post, and its lack of commercial importance to Great Britain.
(f) The probability of frequent native troubles, and consequent expense.
(g) The responsibility of maintaining the settlement without any result or prospective advantage.

It will be noticed that nearly all these reasons have now disappeared. Before the war the Colony did not cost anything to the Imperial Exchequer, and was financially flourishing; the Imperial garrison had for many years been withdrawn; there was no more trouble with the natives here than elsewhere; the ground-nut revenue was no more precarious than it had been; lastly, while the French took as large a share of the exports as ever, more than half the imports and more than half the carrying trade were British; and the effect of the war, as stated in the Annual Report for 1916 (p. 7), has been that

"for the first time in the last fifty years the United Kingdom received a larger proportion of the crop [ground-nuts] than was shipped to France."

Gambia is well placed for wireless telegraphy and for a coaling station, being almost on the westernmost point of the African coast. The harbour at Bathurst
is at present unlighted; and, though there is deeper water on the bar than is the case with any other great West African river, it is stated that no ship drawing more than 28 feet can make certain of entering the harbour, even at high water; for there is not more than 33 feet of water on the bar at that time, and there is frequently a considerable swell. Much money would have to be expended to make it available for large ships.
IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) Roads

There are only two main roads. The first, called Cape Road, connects Bathurst with Cape St. Mary, 7½ miles west. It crosses Oyster Creek by Denton Bridge, a steel structure 180 ft. in length, capable of carrying a light railway. There are two other bridges, built of wood and unfit for heavy traffic. The second, a good, unmetalled road, 18 ft. wide, called Government Road, encircles the dependency from Cape St. Mary to Barra Point, on the opposite side of the estuary. Its total length, including branches, is 1,114 miles, and it serves every place of any importance in the interior.

(b) Rivers

The fact that this dependency is frequently spoken of as “the Gambia” at once suggests the primary importance of the river of that name in its fortunes. This stream, deeper and easier of access than any other waterway in West Africa, forms a natural highway to the interior, nearly 400 miles in length. The river is at its lowest level in April, begins to rise early in July, and continues to do so until September; it then remains steady for about fifteen days, after which it begins to fall. Ocean-going vessels drawing 12½ ft. of water can go up as far as MacCarthy Island, 179
miles from Bathurst, in any season. Dredging work has been going on for years among the shoals near Walli Kunda and Kai-ai Island, with a view to making the channel navigable for vessels with a draught of 15 ft. or 16 ft. Beyond MacCarthy Island only small vessels can pass; for, a few miles higher, at the Buruko rocks, a ledge runs right across the river. The navigable channel here in the dry season is only 70 yds. wide, and will not take craft drawing more than 10 ft. of water. At the so-called Barra Kunda Falls, about 320 miles above Bathurst, there are rapids, with only 4 ft. of water in the dry season. In September, however, when the river is at its highest level, vessels drawing 8 ft. of water can go up for 360 miles and more.

Vintang (Bintang) Creek is navigable by vessels drawing 12 ft. of water, but its upper reaches are narrow.

Suara Kunda (Mini Minum) Creek can be ascended by craft with a draught of 16 ft. to a point about half-a-mile beyond the French frontier.

The four chief river ports, named from west to east, are Ballangar, Kunta-ur, MacCarthy, and Basse.

Ballangar, 120 miles above Bathurst, is accessible, even when the river is at its lowest, to vessels drawing 22 ft. of water, and there is a depth of not less than 18 ft. alongside its three wooden piers.

Kunta-ur, 154 miles above Bathurst, is second only to MacCarthy. Five trading firms have agencies there, and there is a considerable European settlement. There are several well-built wooden wharves, with a depth of 16 ft. alongside at low water. In two cases these are connected by tram-lines with the drying-grounds along the bank, where in a good season piles of ground-nuts, from 40 ft. to 60 ft. in height, may be seen awaiting shipment.

MacCarthy port is on the north side of the island of the same name, at Georgetown, which is a settlement of liberated slaves from the West Indies. There are five piers, one of stone and wood, the rest entirely
wooden, with a depth of over 15 ft. alongside. The branch of the river to the north of the island forms a harbour about 280 yards wide, and vessels can come quite close to both banks from about half-a-mile below the piers to about 200 yards above.

Basse, 248 miles above Bathurst, is the principal port of the upper river, and serves a large area of cultivated land. It has three piers. At low water there is a depth of 12 ft. off the end of the central pier and 10 ft. off the other two.

Besides these, there are numerous small ports, such as Albreda, Karantaba, Tendaba, Kau-ur, Niani Maro, Kossema, Fatta Tenda, and Fatoto. They serve as collecting stations for ground-nuts, which are then sent by cutter or schooner to the larger ports, unless an occasional steamer calls and takes away an accumulation. Few “tendas,” i.e., landing-places, have more than the frailest of wooden piers.

The Government has five steam vessels, two of which are very small. One of these, as a rule, makes weekly visits, in connection with the mail, but the service is very irregular. Four of the trading companies have each a steamer for trading on the upper river. There are a few iron and wood lighters at Bathurst, capable of taking a load of from 3 to 10 tons.

In view of the narrowness of the dependency, its means of communication by river and road may be said to be fairly adequate, although there is no railway. Short feeder railways or roads suitable for motor traffic, leading from the interior to the river ports, would be of value for both internal and external commercial development. At present head-carriage and pack-animals are used, and there has been some difficulty in the past in overcoming native conservatism even so far as to induce the chiefs to adopt wheeled vehicles.

(c) Posts and Telephones

There are two post-offices only, at Bathurst and MacCarthy Island. In 1914 a petition was presented asking for an increase in the number, but the war has
ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

prevented any extension, and it was even necessary in 1916 temporarily to close the office at MacCarthy Island. There is no inland telegraph system.

A limited telephone service is maintained between Government offices, some official quarters, the banks, &c.; but the system has not yet been made available for public use.

(2) **EXTERNAL**

(a) **Ports**

*Accommodation.*—The dependency has only one seaport, Bathurst; but this is the finest harbour on the coast for 1,000 miles, and capable of almost unlimited development. Its westerly limit, about 15 miles from the river-mouth, is a line $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles in length drawn from Barra Point to Slaughter House Point, St. Mary's Island. The narrowing of the river here before it widens to the estuary produces a scour which carries the silt far out to sea, so that even at low-water there is a depth of not less than 27 ft. on the bar. The eastern boundary of the port is a line about 3½ miles in length, from Dog Island to Mandinari Island. Inside these limits lies the harbour, almost circular in shape, 7 or 8 miles across in each direction, and with an area of about 8 square miles available for vessels of the largest size which can cross the bar. At Dog Island there are 5 fathoms of water; but west of it the river is encumbered by shoals extending about 3½ miles from the right bank and about 1¼ miles from the left. There is a steel Government pier, 140 ft. long, with a T-head 215 ft. in length, alongside of which at low water there is a depth of 19 to 23 ft. There are also several wooden piers. All are connected by tramway with Bathurst town.

*Nature and Volume of Trade.*—In Appendix II will be found statistics as to the tonnage and nationality of vessels entered and cleared at Bathurst between 1912 and 1915, and a detailed analysis of the shipping for the last two years before the war.
(b) **Shipping Lines**

In normal times Messrs. Elder, Dempster & Co. provide a fortnightly mail service to Liverpool by the steamers of the African Steamship Company and the British & African Steam Navigation Company. Their new cargo service from New York to West Africa calls at Bathurst. The Woermann Line steamers, from Hamburg, used to call monthly. In the ground-nut season there is frequent communication with Dakar, 90 miles away, from which the Messageries Maritimes, the Compagnie Maritime du Congo Belge and other lines connect with Europe.

(c) **Telegraphic Communication**

Bathurst is in communication with England, South Africa, and South America by cable via St. Iago and St. Vincent, in the Cape Verde Islands. There are two other submarine cables: one to Bissao and Bulama, in Portuguese Guinea, the other to Freetown, in Sierra Leone. The first and last named cables belong to the African Direct Telegraph Company, and the other to the West African Telegraph Company. There is a wireless telegraph station at Cape St. Mary.

(B) **INDUSTRY**

(1) **LABOUR**

(a) **Supply of Labour; Emigration and Immigration**

The labour supply is nowhere in excess of the demand. Indeed, in some parts there is room for more villages. For the ground-nut season, at the beginning of the rains, strangers come in from French territory and even from Portuguese Guinea. The average number arriving in this way between 1912 and 1916 was 12,500 each year, but the annual total varies very much. In 1915, for example, 32,220 of these itinerant planters came to the colony; but owing to the low prices realised
by ground-nuts that season the number dropped to 9,315 the following year. These "strange farmers" settle in the villages, especially along the upper river, each making his own terms with the landlord who supplies him with lodging, food, and seed. The commonest arrangement is for the immigrant to do two days' work each week for his landlord, in return for which he keeps all the nuts raised on the plot allotted to him.

This immigration is, of course, purely temporary. The stranger goes back when the season ends, and may or may not return next year. Cases of permanent immigration are rare, though in a few instances whole families and villages have left French territory for Gambia.

There is not much emigration, for in the Senegal Colony taxation is higher. Some of the younger farmers go away for a time, believing that they will do more work, and therefore make more money, if they are separated from their relatives; but they usually return after no very lengthy absence.

(b) Labour Conditions

Practically the whole population are agriculturists, the men cultivating the ground-nuts and grain, while the women undertake the rice crop. There is no hired labour, each individual doing his share freely, under comfortable conditions, and getting a good return. Government for some years has made a practice of distributing seed-nuts on credit to the planters, who pay for these through their chiefs when the harvest has been sold.

(2) Agriculture

(a) Products of Commercial Value

The ground-nut (Arachis hypogaea) is the outstanding vegetable product of the dependency, and the main source of its prosperity. It is difficult to induce the native cultivator to pay much attention to any other crop; and, as has already been pointed out,
"strange farmers" in thousands come into the Colony annually to help in the planting. The crop occupies the ground during the rainy season, July to October, and is then pulled up and stacked to dry. The withered leaves are used as fodder, and the pods, each of which usually contains two kernels, are beaten out and the nuts winnowed. The oil, which is extracted in Europe, can be used in place of, or together with olive oil, and for margarine-making.

The West African oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis*) is common in the province of Kombo and Foni, and the kernels are collected for export by Jolah, who come over from the French province of Kasamanse. Ton for ton, palm-kernels are more profitable than ground-nuts: in 1916 a ton of the former brought in £21 18s., of the latter only £10 18s. However, the tree is not widely distributed, and the kernels produced are rather small.

The kola nut (*Sterculia acuminata*) occurs in small quantities.

In 1913 the Colonial Secretary for Gambia called the attention of the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce to the opening for the development of the piassava industry. *Attalea funifera*, from which this fibre is obtained, grows in abundance for miles by the riverbanks and on the islands. The natives, who use the fibre for mats and baskets, and sometimes for fences, need only a minute fraction of the quantity available. The only labour required is for cutting the crop and running the machinery which prepares it for export. As long ago as about 1900 a company made experiments, but failed through bad management and lack of capital. In 1915, however, a British firm opened a factory, and the industry will probably make progress.

A good quality of rubber used to be procured from the vine *Landolphia heudelotti*; but the plant has now been almost exterminated by over-tapping. Some experiments have been made with the Ceará rubber tree (*Manihot glaziovii*) from South America, which yields rubber of good quality. It would be worth while to
go on making small plantations, for this tree, usually regarded as unsuited to West Africa, thrives under Gambian conditions.

Another crop deserving attention is cotton, which might be grown extensively. The Mandingo and Jolah cultivate cotton for making the native cloths. The Mandingo cotton is of fair quality, and might easily be improved to meet the European demand. Work in this direction would probably be more remunerative than renewal of the experiments made in the past in introducing American and Egyptian seed.

As it is, the natives are increasingly neglecting cotton in favour of the ground-nut, and are relying much more upon import than in the past. In the same way, they find it easier to buy blue dye than to cultivate indigo. There is a little wild indigo.

The only kinds of timber likely to be worth exporting are rosewood (*Pterocarpus erinaceus*) and mahogany (*Khaya senegalensis*), and large trees of these species do not occur in sufficient quantity to be very profitable.

Food crops used in the past to be sacrificed to the ground-nut industry to such an extent that there was scarcely enough for local consumption. Since the outbreak of war, however, the dependency has grown more foodstuffs, and it would be well if this state of affairs could be maintained. The favourite grain is millet, of which there are at least five varieties: Basso, or Guinea corn (the large millet), Suna (the early millet), Sarnem, Findoo and Kinto. All these, especially Basso, are liable to attack by blight and insects. For this reason, maize cultivation has been begun in some parts. Maize is a quick-growing crop, for which there is plenty of suitable land: but it is not popular, because it does not produce so high a cash return as the ground-nut. Rice is grown, especially in the South Bank Province, along the river, and also on irrigated lands. In seasons of scanty rainfall it suffers from the presence of salt in the river-water, and large areas pass out of cultivation. Far bigger crops have been grown in the last few years, and much less has been imported. Cassava is largely
cultivated, and the tuberous roots are a favourite article of food. Okra (gumbo), tobacco, and indigo are planted near houses. Oranges, limes, bananas, mangoes, and tomatoes are cultivated in Niumi, near Bathurst, and elsewhere where a market can be found for them; but, so far as is known, the natives do not grow them to any extent for their own use.

The native bee, a small form of *Apis mellifera*, is found in a wild state in rock cavities and hollow trees, and the Mandingo hive the wild swarms. Beeswax of a good quality is produced, and sold to the Bathurst merchants to be refined for export.

There are very large herds of cattle in most parts; but the owners object to counting them, so that it is hard to estimate their numbers. They have certainly increased greatly in recent years; for complaints are made in various districts that there is not sufficient grazing. The animals resemble the Channel Islands breeds, but stand higher in the leg. Ayrshire bulls were imported with a view to improving the breed, but all the animals died. Hides might be a very valuable article of export, and did in 1913 bring in more than £18,000. The natives, however, prize their herds more as an evidence of wealth than as a means of increasing it, and are reluctant to turn the cattle to commercial uses. Sheep and goats are kept in small numbers in most districts. Nearly every villager has a few fowls; but these were never of much value, and of late years their number has been very much diminished by fowl-diphtheria. Ponies are fairly numerous away from the river and creeks, where the tsetse fly would soon exterminate them. Donkeys are preferred for transport, as they are less susceptible to the attack of that insect.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

The people of Gambia are, on the whole, careful cultivators. The main difficulties are the sparseness of population and the unwillingness of farmers to adopt labour-saving devices. In 1908 an agricultural school and farm, subsidised by Government and
managed by the Roman Catholic Mission, was opened at Abuko, near Bathurst, with a view to teaching good methods. The chief farm implement among the Jolah is a hand-plough, consisting of a flat blade attached to a pole, and pushed in front of the operator. The Mandingo and Jollof use a large, wooden-bladed iron-shod hoe for making their ridges. Efforts are being made to popularise the simple form of plough, drawn by oxen, which is used in the Canary Islands.

In some parts of the North Bank and South Bank Provinces the fertility of the soil is entirely dependent upon cattle manure, whereas in the regions of alluvial soil, such as Kombo, artificial fertilization is not needed.

Irrigation of rice-lands is satisfactorily carried out on a small scale, and ought to be greatly extended. The cost of large irrigation works, however, would be so high that at present they cannot be undertaken.

(c) Land Tenure

Crown lands are granted in small parcels, limited in ordinary circumstances to 6,000 square yards, and the rent varies from £1 to £4 per 1,000 square yards, according to situation. Leaseholds may be acquired; but no leases are issued in the first instance for more than 21 years. In the Protectorate the land is held by the native community, but, so long as each individual cultivates his share properly, in practice it belongs to him and his heirs.

(3) Fisheries

The lower reaches of the Gambia River abound in fish, and large quantities are taken in nets, dried, and sent up-country each season.

(4) Minerals

Iron, ochres, and china-clay occur in the dependency. Some specimens of the iron ores were sent to the Imperial Institute in 1911, the three richest proving to contain respectively 37·61 per cent, 34·62 per cent, and 32·74 per cent of metallic iron. Large amounts
of silica and other impurities, however, were present. Possibly richer ores exist; but it is unlikely that any export trade in iron could be established in the near future. The extraction of the ore and its transport to a smelting centre would not be difficult, but local labour is not available for mining and handling it, and the cost of importing foreign labour would be high.

The same objection would probably apply to the working of the ochres and china-clay, but there is not yet sufficient information available as to their composition and value to make a decision on this point possible.

(5) Manufactures

There are not many native manufactures, and none is exported. A good deal of boat-building and repairing goes on, and most of the cutters used in the ground-nut trade are built in the colony. Native cloth, of a quality which compares favourably with imported Manchester goods, is woven in strips on primitive looms. In the Upper River Province pottery is made. Goatskins are tanned, stained with red and black inks bought from the European merchants, and made by korankas or leather-workers into highly decorative saddles, slippers, bags, sandals, &c. Ironworking is not unknown, but a blacksmith is regarded as a rare and wonderful person. Beads and dyed grass ornaments are made, and crude vegetable oils are extracted.

(C) Commerce

(1) Domestic

(a) Principal Branches of Trade

A large and increasing number of Syrians and other small traders carry on retail business in Bathurst and the Protectorate. Kru people from Sierra Leone travel through the Gambia hawking imitation silver jewellery and other wares.

In 1917 a Chamber of Commerce was formed at Bathurst to promote and protect British trade, settle disputes by arbitration, &c.
(b) Foreign Interests

There are eight French firms trading in Gambia. Several of these, as, for example, Maurel Bros., Maurel & Prom, the Compagnie française de l’Afrique occidentale, and L. Vézia & Co., have offices at Marseilles, the port to which in normal times most of the ground-nut crop is shipped.

(2) Foreign

(a) Exports

Quantities and Values.—The total value of exports, excluding specie, between 1912 and 1916 was as follows:

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>538,593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>662,406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>693,658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>430,617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>542,843</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Appendix III will be found a return of the quantities and values of the three chief articles—ground-nuts, hides, and palm-kernels—which make up these totals. Of these, ground-nuts remain by far the most important item. In 1912 they represented 93 per cent of the total value of commercial exports; and in 1916 the percentage of value remained the same, though, owing to temporary reasons, the quantity of nuts shipped was much smaller. The figures for 1916 show a startling rise in the export of palm-kernels, which more than doubled both in quantity and in value. This increase may be maintained and extended, and, if so, will be a safeguard against the danger of trusting to the ground-nut crop alone as the staple of the prosperity of the dependency. Hides in the past usually took second place in value, but in 1916 fetched only £10,019, as against the £14,671 produced by palm-kernels.

Rubber and ivory used to appear among the exports; but, after passing through a long period of decline,
have now become almost negligible. The ivory shipped in 1916 was valued at £40, and the rubber at £23.

_Countries of Destination._—In the past commercial history of the dependency, France and the French possessions supplied the chief market for its exports, Germany was playing an increasing part, and the United Kingdom occupied a very inconspicuous position. In 1913, for example, 59·10 per cent of the total exports went to France and her possessions, 24·56 per cent to Germany, and only 6·72 per cent to Great Britain and British possessions. In 1914 the figures were 79·34 per cent, 6·80 per cent, and 9·92 per cent respectively.

The war has made a considerable change. In 1915 the British share rose to 39·45 per cent, the French fell to 48·60 per cent, and Spain and Denmark became, for the first time, important customers. Several British firms have now set up nut-crushing machinery, and ground-nuts have therefore an extending market in this country. In 1916, for the first time for half a century, the United Kingdom took a larger proportion of the Gambia crop than any other country, receiving 22,374 tons of nuts as against 19,313 tons taken by France. The percentage of the total exports was 53 per cent for the United Kingdom, and 35 per cent for France.

(b) Imports

_Quantities and Values._—The total value of imports, excluding specie, between 1912 and 1916 was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>£471,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>£619,294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>£388,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>£302,345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>£478,805</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chief commercial imports are cotton goods, hardware, rice, sugar, spirits, and tobacco. A table will be found in Appendix IV showing the value of
these for the two years preceding the war. The increases and decreases over a number of years are curiously uneven, for they depend largely upon the success of ground-nuts in any particular year.

Countries of Origin.—Most of the imports come from the United Kingdom and British possessions, the percentages derived from this source between 1912 and 1916 being 60, 55, 61, 74, and 54 respectively. France and French possessions come next, contributing on an average 24 per cent. Germany furnished 13 per cent in 1912, 10 per cent in 1913, and 11 per cent in 1914. Except for the exclusion of Germany, conditions remain much as they always were. The main difference is one of degree, the total volume of exports and imports, including specie, having risen from £190,935 in 1895 to £1,958,316 in 1913.

Customs and Tariffs.—The only export duty is a duty on ground-nuts of 6s. 8d. per ton.

Specific import duties are paid on thirteen articles. Motor cars pay £5 each, motor cycles £1. Manufactured tobacco pays 2s. 3d. per lb., unmanufactured 6d., cigars and cigarettes 3s. per lb. Ale and porter, wines and spirits, all pay duty, which in the last case varies according to alcoholic strength, the standard being 5s. 6d. per imperial gallon of 50 per cent pure alcohol. Edible and lamp oils pay duties varying from 3d. to 6d. a gallon, kola nuts 3d. per lb., rice 6d. per cwt. There are also ad valorem duties of 10 per cent on jewellery, boots and shoes, and perfumery; 5 per cent on groceries and provisions; and 7½ per cent on all other imported goods not specifically exempted or taxed. The exemptions include Government stores, coal, agricultural implements, seeds, African produce (except rice, kola nuts and starch), machinery, books, and educational apparatus.

(D) FINANCE

(a) Public Finance

The financial position of Gambia is satisfactory, although the revenue fluctuates according to the success
or failure of the crop of ground-nuts, on which there is an export duty. For the five years ending in 1916 the total revenue was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>96,221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>124,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>86,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>92,252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>103,075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The principal sources of revenue are Customs duties, the chief being the export duty on ground-nuts, hut taxes, and farm rents from settlers in the Protectorate, and interest on the surplus funds of the dependency. The following table, from the Annual Report, shows the heads of revenue in the year before the outbreak of war:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customs</td>
<td>97,691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port dues</td>
<td>1,987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Licences, excise, &amp;c.</td>
<td>3,004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fees of Court</td>
<td>2,681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Office</td>
<td>1,714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent of Government property</td>
<td>507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government vessels</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interests on investments</td>
<td>4,883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hut taxes and farm rents in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protectorate</td>
<td>10,613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>1,236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land sales</td>
<td>673</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total                                     | £124,990 |

There is no public debt, and assets usually exceed liabilities. The total expenditure for the five years ending with 1916 was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>81,340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>95,209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>120,921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>89,028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>83,217</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(b) Currency

The currency of the dependency consists of British coins, West African silver coins and certain foreign coins, of which the five-franc piece of the Latin Union is the only one of importance. The last is legal tender in the Colony and Protectorate at 3s. 10½d., but is current in trade at 4s. It is a favourite with the natives, because it is a useful medium of exchange with the inhabitants of adjoining French territory and with the "strange farmers" in the ground-nut season. Probably from 50 per cent. to 70 per cent. of payments in trade with natives of the Protectorate are made in this coin. British gold is never found in circulation.

(c) Banking

Until 1917 the Bank of British West Africa, Bathurst, was the only one in the dependency, but the Colonial Bank has now begun business in the same town.

(E) GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

From the economic point of view the recent history of Gambia is encouraging. The dependency, it is true, is small, awkwardly shaped, and enclosed by French territory. Its inhabitants, though described by a former Governor as the best-behaved and most contented natives he had come across in Africa, are rather lazy and unenterprising. Its revenue, so long as ground-nuts remain its single source of wealth, will be liable to sudden changes. On the other hand, Bathurst harbour is an asset; the Gambia River is a means of cheap and easy transport; the climate for seven months of the year is the best in West Africa; and recent experience has shown, not only that the dependency has considerable economic resources, but that their presence has been realised and their development begun.
APPENDIX

I

TREATIES

Article X of the Treaty of Versailles, September 3, 1783,\(^1\) provided: "The Most Christian King guarantees, on his part, to the King of Great Britain, the possession of Fort James and of the River Gambia." By Article VIII of the Treaty of Paris, May 30, 1814,\(^2\) His Britannic Majesty undertook to return to His Most Christian Majesty "the colonies, fisheries, factories, and establishments of every kind which were possessed by France on January 1, 1792," in Africa. The operation of this article was held by France to validate its claim to the factory of Albreda on the north bank of the Gambia, on the ground that it had been occupied in 1786. This claim was surrendered by a Convention of March 7, 1857,\(^3\) in return for the surrender by Great Britain of the right of British subjects, accorded by the Treaty of 1783, Article XI, to trade for gum from the mouth of the River St. John to the bay and fort of Portendik. By Article III of the Convention of 1857 "Her Britannic Majesty consents that French subjects shall have free access to the River Gambia for the purposes of their commerce."

The extent of the British territorial rights on the banks of the Gambia was decided in principle by Article I of the Anglo-French arrangement concerning the delimitation of the English and French possessions on the West Coast of Africa, August 10, 1889,\(^4\) as explained by Annex 2. In effect the line was to start in the north from Jinnak Creek, and to follow parallel 13\(^°\) 36' N. as far as the great bend of the river, whence it was to follow a line 10 kilometres distant from the river up to the landing-place known as Yabu Tenda, round which it was to run at the same distance from the centre of the town, following then at the same distance the south bank of the river to the meridian which passes through Sandeng, which meridian it was to follow to parallel 13\(^°\) 10' N. This parallel was to be followed as far as the River San Pedro, the left bank of that river becoming the frontier as far as the sea. The precise delineation of this line was attempted

\(^1\) Hertslet, Map of Africa by Treaty, ii, 713.
\(^2\) Ibid., ii, 714.
\(^3\) Ibid., ii, 716.
\(^4\) Ibid., ii, 729, 734.
APPENDIX

by a Boundary Commission, whose work was embodied
in a protocol of June 9, 1891,1 further defined by a report of May 8,
1893,2 and by Boundary Commissions of 1895-96 and 1898-99, and
1905-06.3 The only important change, however, was that intro-
duced by the Anglo-French Convention of April 8, 1904,4 Article
V of which runs as follows:—

"The present frontier between Senegambia and the English
colony of the Gambia shall be modified so as to give to France
Yarbutenda [Yabu Tenda] and the lands and landing-places
belonging to that locality.

In the event of the river not being open to maritime naviga-
tion up to that point, access shall be assured to the French
Government at a point lower down on the River Gambia, which
shall be recognised by mutual agreement as being accessible to
merchant ships engaged in maritime navigation.

The conditions which shall govern transit on the River
Gambia and its tributaries, as well as the method of access to
the point that may be reserved to France in accordance with
the preceding paragraph, shall form the subject of future
agreement between the two Governments.

In any case, it is understood that these conditions shall be at
least as favourable as those of the system instituted by applica-
tion of the General Act of the African Conference of the 26th
February, 1885, and of the Anglo-French Convention of the
14th June, 1896, to the English portion of the Basin of the
Niger."

II

SHIPPING5

(a) Tonnage and Nationality of Vessels Entered and Cleared,
1912-1915

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>1912</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1914</th>
<th>1915</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>351,883</td>
<td>371,419</td>
<td>366,396</td>
<td>317,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>221,575</td>
<td>253,713</td>
<td>205,544</td>
<td>213,624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>583,458</td>
<td>625,132</td>
<td>571,940</td>
<td>530,624</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Hertslet, Map of Africa by Treaty, ii, 742.
2 Ibid., ii, 754.
3 Ibid., i, p. xlv.
4 Ibid., ii, 817.
5 From the Annual Reports, 1912-1915.
## (b) Tonnage and Nationality of Vessels Entered and Cleared in 1912 and 1913

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>1912</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1913</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Steamer</td>
<td>Sailing Vessels</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Steamer</td>
<td>Sailing Vessels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>361,107</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>361,883</td>
<td>370,921</td>
<td>498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>80,586</td>
<td>1,230</td>
<td>81,766</td>
<td>74,995</td>
<td>1,775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>52,940</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>52,942</td>
<td>60,626</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>2,296</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2,296</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norwegian</td>
<td>14,141</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14,141</td>
<td>20,426</td>
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<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4,158</td>
<td>4,158</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4,295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>14,124</td>
<td>1,282</td>
<td>15,406</td>
<td>24,040</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>13,526</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13,526</td>
<td>11,740</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>31,244</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>31,244</td>
<td>33,278</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>2,937</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2,937</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>2,736</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18,460</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgian</td>
<td>2,390</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2,390</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguayan</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## III

### PRINCIPAL EXPORTS, 1912-1916

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ground-nuts</th>
<th>Hides</th>
<th>Palm kernels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Quantity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>64,169</td>
<td>502,609</td>
<td>49,107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>67,704</td>
<td>622,098</td>
<td>47,031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>66,885</td>
<td>650,451</td>
<td>79,279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>96,152</td>
<td>400,435</td>
<td>40,647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>46,366</td>
<td>506,098</td>
<td>26,496</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*From the Annual Reports, 1912-1916.*
### IV

**PRINCIPAL IMPORTS, 1912 AND 1913**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>1912</th>
<th>1913</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cotton goods</td>
<td>£124,345</td>
<td>£201,797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware</td>
<td>£23,021</td>
<td>£27,276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>£85,763</td>
<td>£62,512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>£5,785</td>
<td>£19,422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirits</td>
<td>£10,959</td>
<td>£17,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobacco</td>
<td>£9,011</td>
<td>£15,488</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 From the *Annual Reports, 1912 and 1913.*
AUTHORITIES

HISTORICAL

The best modern account of Gambia is The Gambia: its History, Ancient, Mediaeval, and Modern, by H. F. Reeve, 1912. Reference should be made to The Partition of Africa, No. 89, and British West Africa, No. 90 of this Series.

ECONOMIC

Official

Annual Reports on the Gambia Colony and Protectorate, 1914-1917.

Board of Trade, Commercial Intelligence Branch, Bulletin C. 14, June 1915.


General


MAPS

Two maps of Gambia are published by the War Office. The larger (G.S.G.S. 1958), in two sheets on the scale of 1:250,000, is from a survey by the Anglo-French Commission which delimited the boundary in 1904-5, and was issued in 1906. The smaller map (G.S.G.S. 2447) is on the scale of 1:500,000; it is prepared from the larger map with corrections up to 1918.
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