

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE  
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 103

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# FRENCH GUINEA

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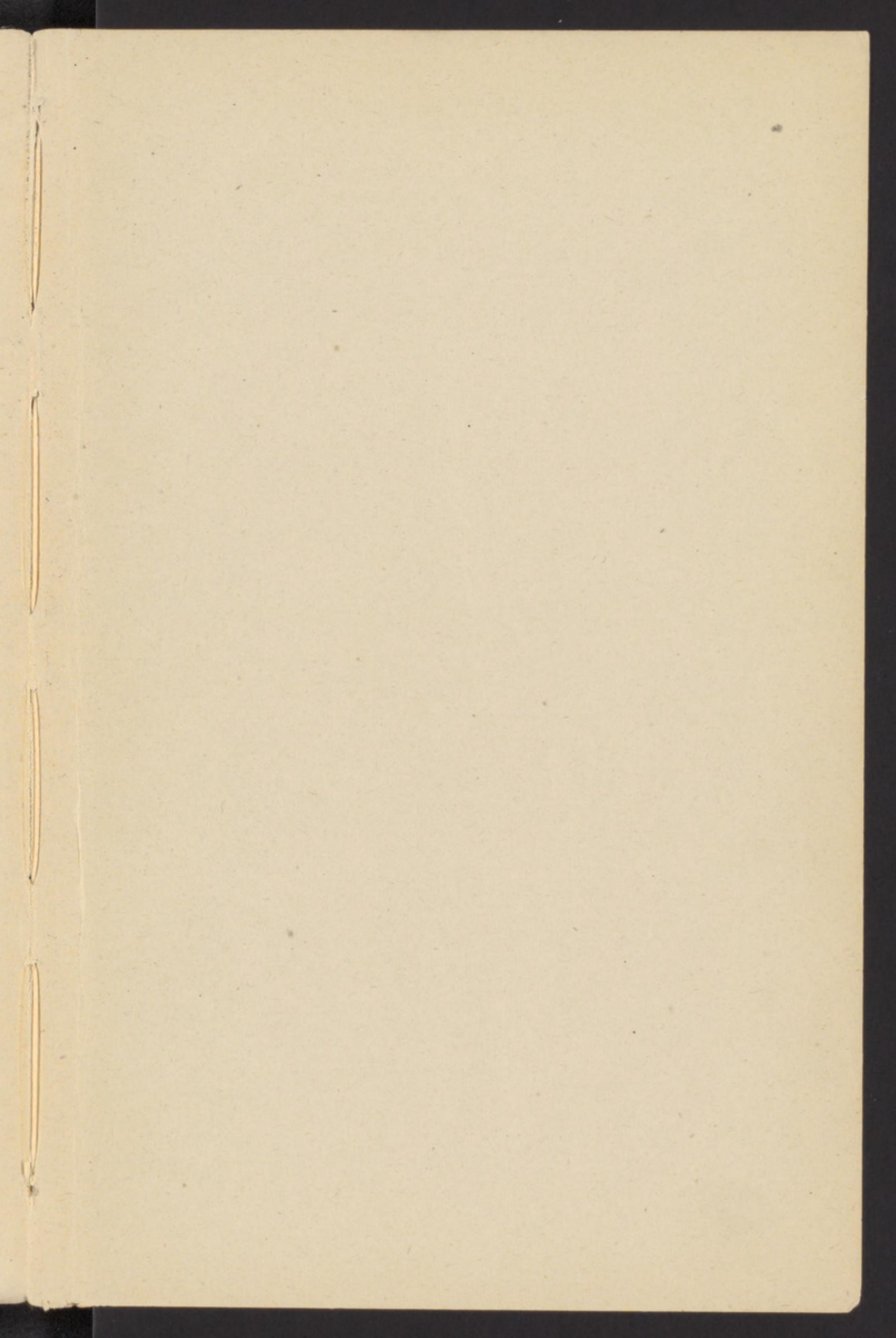


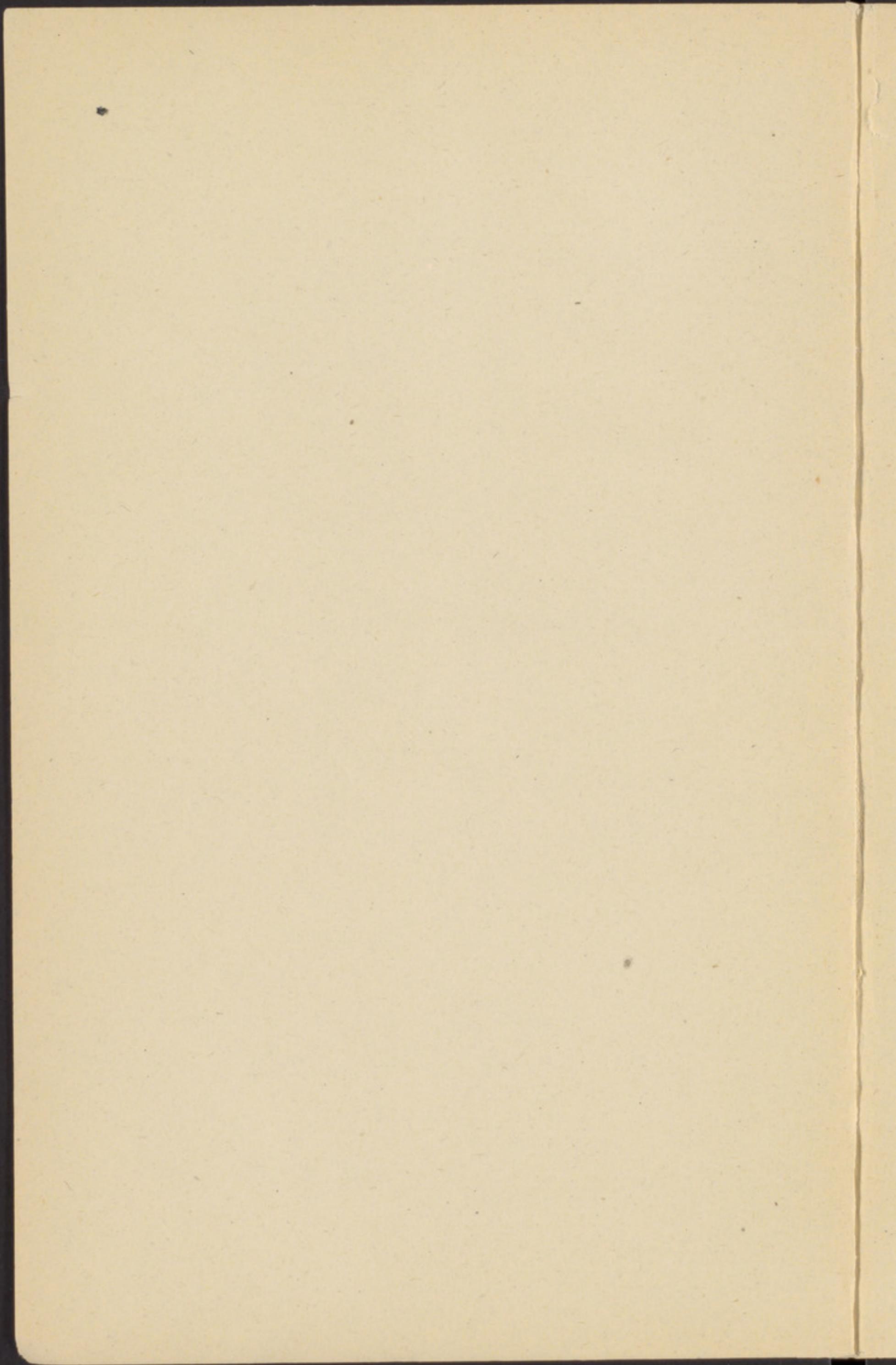
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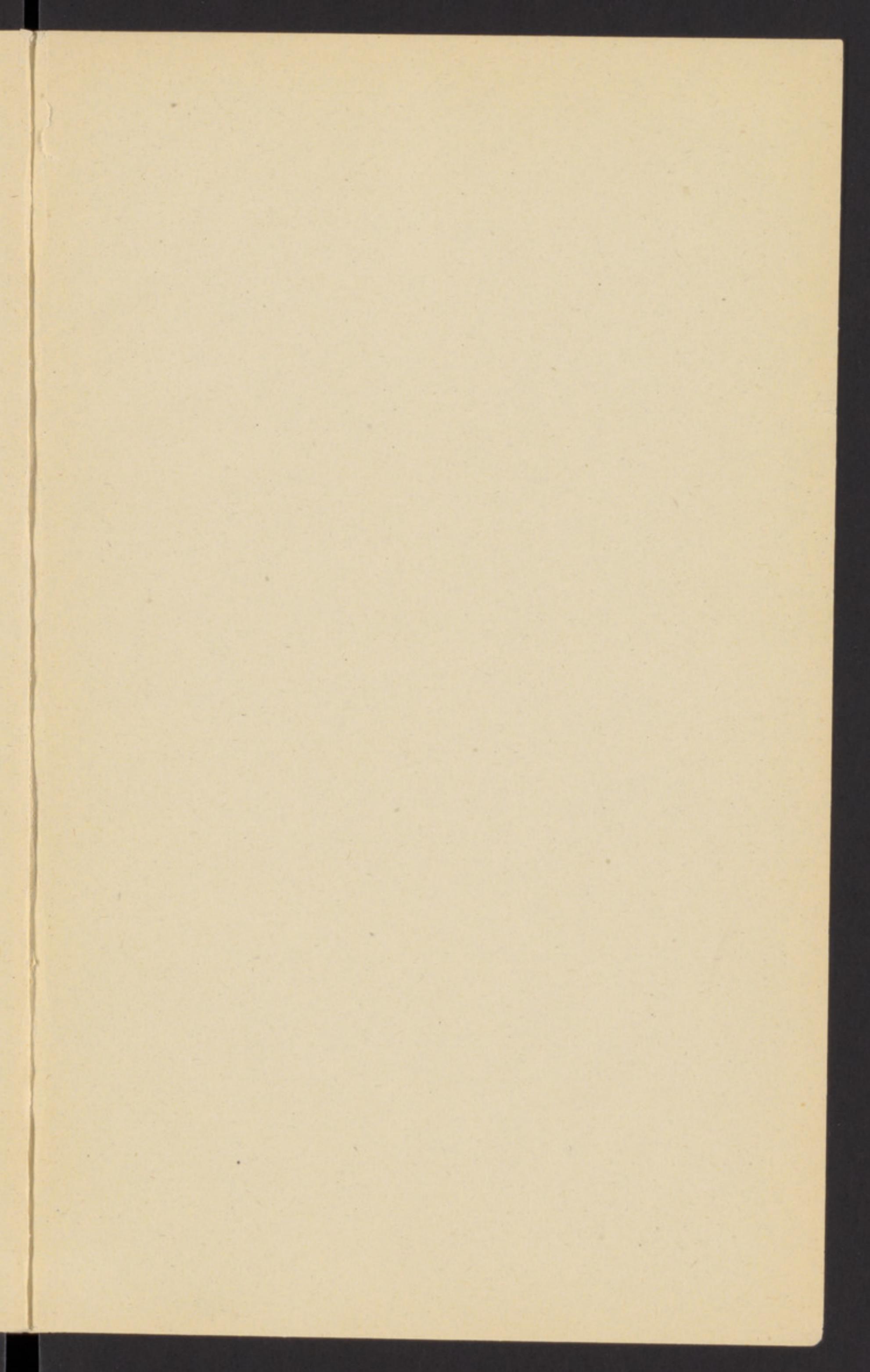


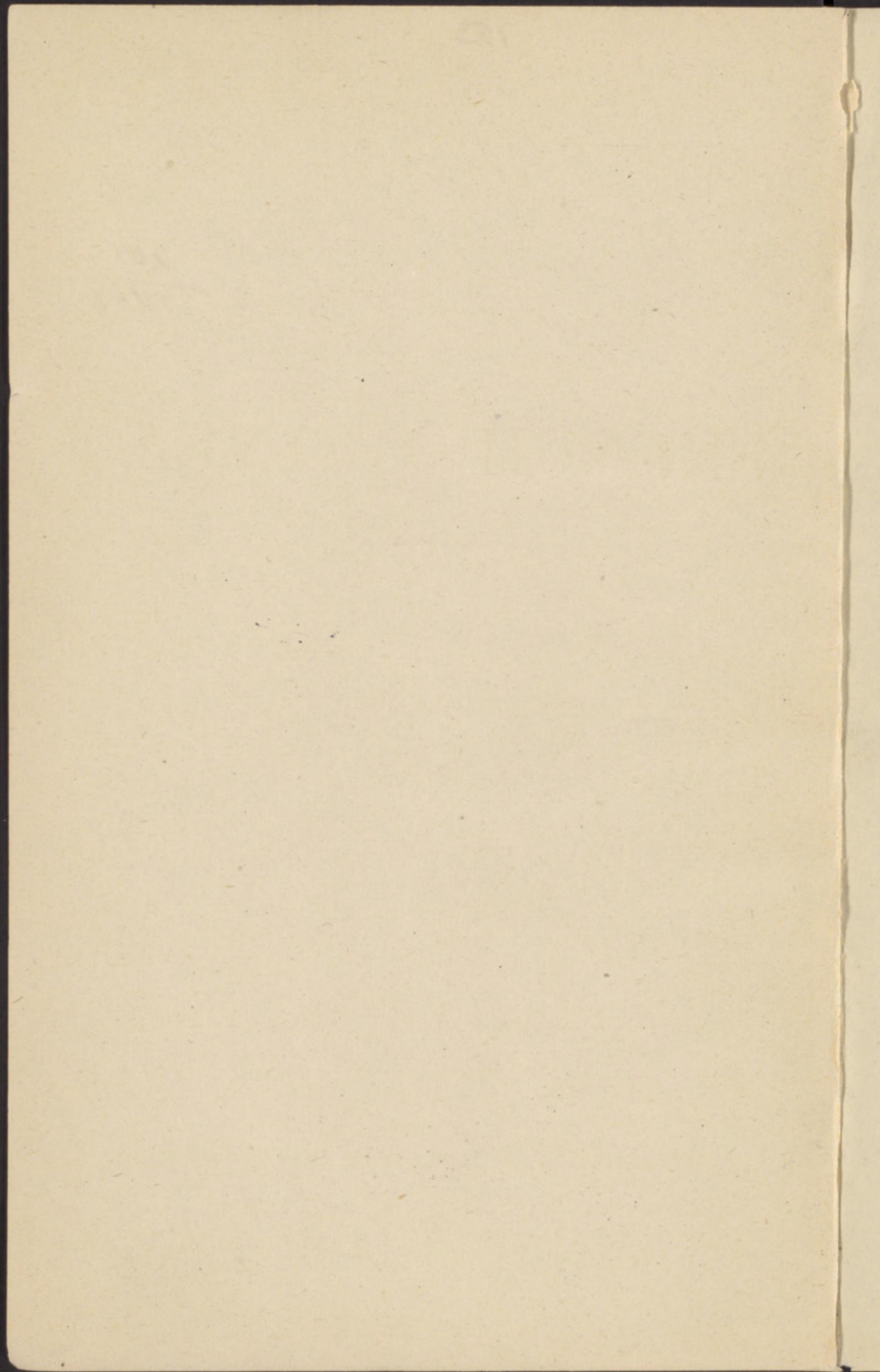
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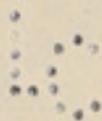
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### Editorial Note.

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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.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly*

*Director of the Historical Section.*

*January 1920.*

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## I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE colony of French Guinea is situated on the west coast of Africa between latitudes  $8^{\circ}$  and  $12^{\circ} 30'$  north and longitudes  $8^{\circ}$  and  $15^{\circ} 10'$  west, and marches on the north-west with Portuguese Guinea, on the north and north-east with Senegal and Upper Senegal and Niger, on the east with the Ivory Coast, and on the south with Liberia and the British colony of Sierra Leone. Its area is 90,000 square miles.

The boundary between French and Portuguese Guinea, which was fixed by the Convention of May 12, 1886, and delimited by a Commission in 1903, runs from the coast in a north-easterly direction, between the Rio Cassini and the Rio Grande on the north-west, and the Komponi, with its upper waters, the Kogon, on the south-east, to the point where the meridian  $16^{\circ}$  west of Paris (about  $13^{\circ} 40'$  west of Greenwich) cuts the parallel of  $11^{\circ} 40'$  north latitude, and thence in a generally northern direction, but with a bend to the west so as to leave Kade to France (see *Portuguese Guinea*, No. 118 of this series).

The internal frontiers towards Senegal and Upper Senegal and Niger are described in the Handbooks dealing with these colonies (Nos. 102 and 107).

Towards the Ivory Coast the administrative boundary leaves the Liberian frontier a little south of latitude  $8^{\circ}$  north, turns east, and then runs generally north following a sinuous line, marked partly by the courses of the Fereduguba and Gwala, as far as the administrative frontier of Upper Senegal and Niger.

The frontiers towards Sierra Leone, determined by the Agreement of January 21, 1895, and the Agreement of September 4, 1913, and towards Liberia, defined by the Act of Delimitation of January 13, 1911, are described under Sierra Leone and Liberia (Handbooks Nos. 92 and 130) respectively.

## (2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

French Guinea may be divided into the following regions:—(1) the coastal lowlands, (2) the sandstone plateaux behind them, (3) the main Futa Jalon (Fouta-Djallon) massif, (4) the Western Sudan zone, and (5) the hill country of the south-east.

The *coastal region* is a flat strip of low-lying country, which is defined at varying distances inland by the sandstone hills that mark the edge of the plateaux leading up to Futa Jalon. These plateaux which extend as far as the upper Rio Nuñez, the Kogon, and the Tomine, are of moderate altitude, and are intersected by deep trenches, in which run winding rivers. The region is largely composed of arid plains of rock, which, during the rains, become marshy and covered with short grass.

The mountainous *massif of Futa Jalon* is a vast oval plateau, traversed from south to north by a series of elevations. It comprises the basins of the upper Konkure, the Baleyo (Bafing), the Dimma (Gambia), and numerous other rivers. The culminating point, near Diagisa, is under 5,000 ft. above sea level, while the mean level of the central parts is about 3,000 ft., and on the whole the Futa Jalon plateau is characterised by the predominance of rolling country with rounded hills.

The *region of the Western Sudan* comprised within French Guinea is composed of a succession of great plains or low plateaux, covered with scattered vegetation. The hills, which run from the south-eastern

end of Futa Jalon as far as the Ivory Coast, and the country on their inland side, are a little-known region. On the Sierra Leone frontier there appear to be a series of undulating plateaux (Kissi, Kuranko, and Sankaran districts). Further south the country is wilder, and in this part there appear to be some of the greatest elevations of the whole colony.

### *Coast*

The coast is about 170 miles in length, exclusive of indentations. It is fringed with mangroves, and is in general low and either sandy or muddy, though in a few places there are rocky headlands, such as Cape Verga, and openings which penetrate deep inland. Off the coast are numerous reefs and islands, of which the chief are the Los Islands (Isles de Los, Islas de los Idolos), off Konakri. The only port of entry is Konakri, but there are other points on the coast, such as the entrance of the Rio Nuñez, which may be approached under favourable conditions by moderate-sized vessels.

### *River System*

The most important rivers of West Africa have their sources within the boundaries of French Guinea. They may be grouped under four main hydrographic centres, which are, from north to south, the plateau of Labe, the plateau of Teliko, the region dominated by Mt. Tembi Kunda, and the region of Bela (Konyan mountains). Of the rivers rising in the two last-named districts, only those flowing northward concern French Guinea to any extent.

The chief rivers flowing from the plateaux of Labe and Teliko are: to the west, the Komba or Rio Grande (which flows through Portuguese Guinea) and the Konkure; to the north, the Gambia and the Bafing (a tributary of the Senegal); and to the east, the Tinkisso (a tributary of the Niger); while from Mt. Tembi Kunda and the Konyan mountains flow the

Niger and a number of its other affluents. Besides these, there are some important coast rivers, of which the chief are the Kogon (Cogon, Kogu) or Komponi (Compony), the Fatalla or Pongo, and the Great Skarsies (Scarcies), the last named forming part of the frontier with Sierra Leone.

In general, after leaving the mountains, these rivers spread out into broad channels, and in the case of the coastal rivers, the tide often makes its influence felt 20 to 30 miles inland. In the dry season some even of the quite large streams are reduced to strings of pools. As a result of these conditions the coastal rivers are of very little use for navigation, except for short distances from the mouth. The Niger and some of its tributaries are navigable for small boats (see p. 17).

### (3) CLIMATE

There are two seasons—a wet, between May and October, and a dry, between November and April.

The rainfall is heaviest on the coast, and decreases towards the interior. At Konakri, on the coast, as much as 240 to 276 ins. of rain have been registered in a year, but the average is about 190 ins. (4,830 mm.). At Labe, Ditin and Timbo on the Futa Jalon plateau, the averages are 61 ins. (1,560 mm.), 75 ins. (1,920 mm.), and 64 ins. (1,630 mm.), respectively. In the extreme north-west there are never more than 40 to 60 ins. (1,000 to 1,500 mm.) per annum, whilst at Kissidugu, in the south-east, there are 80 to 100 ins. (2,000 to 2,500 mm.).

The temperature decreases inland from the coast to the central plateau, and again increases towards the Sudan region. The mean annual range is not great. At Konakri the annual mean is 79° F. (26° C.), the hottest months being March to May, and the coldest August. At Labe, Ditin, and Timbo the annual means are 71° F., 75° F., 74° F. (22° C., 24° C., 23° C.) respectively, the hottest months March to May, and the coldest December. At Dingirai the

hottest months are March and April, when 100° to 104° F. (37° to 40° C.) has been registered. In the Kade region, in the north-west, the hottest season falls during the rains.

The prevailing winds in the west of the colony come from between north-west and south, in the east from between north and south-east. The *harmattan* blows from the east or north-east for short periods between December and April.

#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The health conditions of the colony are on the whole unfavourable both for Europeans and natives, and the greater part of the coastal region in particular is very unhealthy. The most prevalent ailments are malaria and dysentery, while in the regions where there are abrupt changes of temperature, pneumonia and bronchitis are common. Europeans who have spent too long a time in Guinea are liable to suffer from tropical anæmia, and are also subject to ulcers and a painful kind of eruption.

Among the diseases which affect the natives are tuberculosis, elephantiasis, goitre, leprosy, and small-pox, and there are a few cases of sleeping sickness.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The bulk of the population is composed of tribes that have arrived in the region in comparatively recent times, viz., the Fulas (or Fulbes); the Susus and Jalonkes, who are apparently very closely related; and the Malinkes. These tribes cover the whole of the centre of the colony and form about five-sixths of the total population. Around this nucleus are many other smaller groups, some related to them and others representing older elements of the population. The most numerous of these smaller groups is the Kissis of the south-east.

On the whole it would seem that Mande (Mandingo) blood now predominates. This is the case even among the Fulas (who by descent are not negroes, but thought to be Hamites), with the exception of the Fulas "of the bush," or Borores, who are still nomad herdsmen.

Linguistically, there are two chief groups, (i) the speakers of Fulani (Fulfulde) and (ii) the speakers of Mandingo dialects, of which the most important are the Susu in Lower Guinea and the Malinke and kindred dialects in the Nigerian region. The use of Susu appears to be extending among the coast tribes.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

The population was estimated in 1916 at 1,808,893, which included 1,166 Europeans, and this gives a mean density of about 20 per square mile. A demographic map of 1909 shows the population to be densest in the southernmost part of the coastal region, and in the districts around Kissidugu and along the Liberian border. In these regions the density varies from about 19 per square mile (Boffa) to about 75 (Labe), and even 100 per square mile (Ditin). In the greater part of the country to the east and south-east of Futa Jalon, and in the north-west and the west, the density is only 7 to 11 persons per square mile.

### *Towns and Villages*

The largest centres of population are Konakri, Kankan, Tuba, Kurusa, Boke, and Sigiri. There appear to be a number of villages which are important native commercial centres, such as Demokulima, where markets are held which attract large numbers of natives.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1860-70 Acquisition of possessions on coast by France.  
1868-70 Suggested exchange of the Gambia for French rights on coast.  
1875-76 Renewal of suggestion of exchange.  
1881 Futa Jalon brought under French protectorate.  
1882 French claim to Mellakore basin recognised by United Kingdom (June 28).  
1885 French claim to Mellakore basin recognised by Germany (December 24).  
1886 Definition of boundary with Portuguese Guinea (May 12).  
1887 Futa Jalon finally reduced: French successes on the Niger secure hinterland of Senegal and Rivières du Sud (French Guinea).  
1889 Extension of boundary with Sierra Leone (August 10).  
1892 Definition of boundary with Liberia (December 8).  
1895 Boundary with Sierra Leone again defined (January 21).  
1904 French Guinea becomes part of the Government-General of French West Africa. New settlement of boundary with Sierra Leone (March 22/April 5): Îles de Los ceded to France.  
1907 New settlement of boundary with Liberia (September 18).  
1911 Readjustment of boundaries with Liberia and Sierra Leone.

#### (1) FORMATION OF THE COLONY

French possession of the coast of French Guinea was begun by a series of treaties concluded with the inhabitants from 1860 onwards, the territories thus acquired being formed into a possession under the title of Rivières du Sud. The presence of the French on the Mellakore (Mellicourie, Mellacorée) river to the north of the British settlement at Sierra Leone quickly caused uneasiness, and in 1868-69<sup>1</sup> proposals were made

<sup>1</sup> C. 264 or H.C. Paper No. 444 of 1870.

for the surrender of the Gambia by the British in exchange for French renunciation of all claims between the Dembia river and the Sierra Leone boundary. This project fell through, in part owing to the Franco-German War of 1870-71, but was revived in 1875-76, when the surrender of all French claims south of the Fatalla (Pongo) river was suggested.<sup>1</sup> It was then stated that the only possession actually held by France between the Îles de Los and Lagos was at Benty on the Mellakore river, where there was a French station with a detachment of French white troops. The failure of the suggested arrangement was followed, after 1880, by a great revival of French activity; the territory already claimed was effectively occupied, and in 1881 Futa Jalon was brought under control.

The altered position was recognized by Great Britain in the following year; and the Convention of June 28, 1882, which, though never ratified, was accepted by both Powers as a binding arrangement,<sup>2</sup> assigned to France the basin of the Mellakore, and to Great Britain that of the Skarsies, the latter Power undertaking not to exercise any rights over the territory between a line to be drawn between the rivers in question and the Rio Nuñez, the boundary claimed by Portuguese Guinea. The French position was further strengthened by the Franco-German Protocol of December 24, 1885, under which Germany renounced all claims to the territory between the Mellakore and Rio Nuñez. Portugal, by a Convention of May 12, 1886, consented to recognize the French protectorate over Futa Jalon, in return for a precise definition of the frontiers of Portuguese Guinea. Futa Jalon became fully dependent on France in 1888, and the successes of French arms on the Upper Senegal and Niger secured the hinterland of Senegal and the Rivières du Sud.

<sup>1</sup> Parliamentary Paper, C. 1409.

<sup>2</sup> C. 6701, p. 3.

## (2) BOUNDARY AGREEMENTS

New arrangements becoming necessary with Great Britain, touching the prolongation of the boundary line agreed upon in 1882 and under Article II of the Arrangement of August 10, 1889, provision was accordingly made for the line to be extended to the intersection of latitude  $10^{\circ}$  north with longitude  $10^{\circ} 40'$  west, giving the country of the Houbbous to France, and Soulimania and Falaba to the United Kingdom. A further agreement of June 26, 1891, provided that the boundary south of  $10^{\circ}$  north should run along the west of the heights on the left bank of the Niger to Tembi Kunda. By an exchange of Notes of December 2, 1891, and March 4, 1892, it was further agreed that the meridian  $10^{\circ} 40'$  west longitude should form the boundary between the French Sudan and Sierra Leone up to the Anglo-Liberian frontier; and under the arrangement with Liberia of December 8, 1892, the frontier between the French possessions and Liberia was fixed at the parallel of Tembi Kunda to its intersection with that meridian.

The delimitation of the frontier with Sierra Leone proved difficult. By the Agreement of January 21, 1895 (completed by an exchange of Notes of June 14-16, 1898), it was defined up to the intersection of the watershed, separating the basin of the Niger from the basin of the rivers flowing to the Atlantic, with the parallel of Tembi Kunda; and an exchange of Notes of January 22/February 4, 1895, provided that, in accordance with the Agreement of 1891-92, the boundary from that place should be the parallel of Tembi Kunda to  $10^{\circ} 40'$  west, and that meridian to the Anglo-Liberian boundary. This portion of the boundary was demarcated in 1900 and 1903, and accepted by an exchange of Notes of March 22/April 5, 1904: it was subsequently modified by Notes exchanged on July 6, 1911,<sup>1</sup> and finally fixed under the Agreement of September 4, 1913.<sup>2</sup> The Iles de Los, which by the

<sup>1</sup> Cd. 6101.<sup>2</sup> Cd. 7147.

Arrangement of 1882 had been left to Great Britain,<sup>1</sup> were ceded to France by the Convention of April 8, 1904.

The frontier between the French possessions in West Africa and Liberia rests upon the treaty arrangements of December 8, 1892; September 18, 1907; and January 13, 1911,<sup>2</sup> the last of which definitely fixes the boundary as laid down in the Agreement of 1907.

The internal history of the territory has been comparatively uneventful, the native tribes having accepted French control more easily than was the case on the Ivory Coast.

<sup>1</sup> In 1818 the sovereignty of the Iles de Los was acquired by Great Britain from the Chief of the Bago country.

<sup>2</sup> *State Papers*, cvii, 797-800.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(See *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series,  
pp. 3-14.)

By the Decree of October 18, 1904, French Guinea became part of the Government-General of French West Africa.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (1) INTERNAL

IN an undeveloped tropical country such as French Guinea economic conditions are to an exceptional extent dependent upon the character of the internal communications. In this important respect the colony has not been favoured by Nature. Navigable rivers are few; mountains, ravines, and torrents are numerous; and locomotion on land, obstructed by these surface impediments, is rendered doubly arduous by the luxuriance of tropical vegetation and the persistence of tropical rains. Moreover, many of the colony's products are of such bulk and weight as to make the cost of their transport in unfavourable conditions disproportionate to the prices realised by their sale; whilst the natives whose function it is to produce these commodities or prepare them for the market are deficient in energy and enterprise, lacking in grasp of commercial principles, and devoid of ambition for higher standards of living and comfort. It is with such conditions, markedly averse to economic development, that the French Government has had to contend in framing a policy with regard to internal communications.

#### (a) *Roads and Tracks*

The channels in which internal commerce was accustomed to flow while still unaffected by European influences were the caravan routes between the coast and the interior. These were mere tracks, upon which travelling was always impeded by natural obstacles,

and was frequently rendered troublesome or dangerous by the thievish propensities or aggressive hostility of tribes in the districts through which the routes passed. Further, in view of the difficulties of the journey and the necessity of replacing losses caused by sickness and accidents, the number of native porters engaged for a caravan had to be raised to a figure out of all economic relation to the value of the merchandise carried. The first aim of the French Government was therefore to enforce order and ensure the safety of the trade routes; its next object was to facilitate transport by the provision of roads; and it was further concerned to make sure that the road system was so designed as to divert to the commercial centres of the French colony traffic which had been apt to follow routes leading across the frontiers, to the consequent enrichment of neighbouring territories.

In 1891, when Dubréka was the leading commercial centre of the colony, a road was begun from that town to Timbo, the capital of the Futa Jalon region, to attract the traffic in rubber and other products of the interior. About this time, however, Konakri entered upon a growth which was soon to dwarf Dubreka. An extension of the Dubreka—Timbo road was therefore called for, to expedite the passage of caravans from the interior to the rising settlement. The coastal route proving very costly, it was decided to abandon it and to carry the road straight inland from Konakri. After the incorporation in Guinea of the Farana district and of the provinces detached from the French Sudan, this road became the great Niger route. About 400 miles in length, the system connects Konakri with the chief centres in the region of the Upper Niger and its affluents, the Tinkisso and Milo, and thus forms an important artery for the commerce of the colony. Though scarcely to be called a road in the European sense, it is greatly superior to the native tracks; and, equipped as it is with numerous caravanserais, it at once found favour with the natives, and quickly superseded the old caravan routes to the coast.

At various times in later years other projects of road construction on a less ambitious scale have been carried out, including the roads inland from Boffa, from Boke, and from the Konkure. At the outbreak of the late war the road programme in execution or in contemplation comprised a 30-mile road from Konakri to Dubreka, a 90-mile road from Mamu to Labe, and an 80-mile road from Dabola to Farana.

Costly to make, roads in Guinea are also costly to maintain. "In Africa," as one writer<sup>1</sup> has put it, "what with the tornadoes, the climate, the soil, the scarcity of materials, the inadequacy of the supervisory *personnel*, maintenance is difficult. The best roads, built at great cost, speedily degenerated into deeply rutted tracks, scarcely practicable even for porters. I have traversed the whole length of one of the finest of our colonial roads, that from Konakri to the Niger. It cost £80,000 to build, or about £250 a mile.<sup>2</sup> It is no longer practicable throughout for vehicles, or even for pack animals, and necessitates human portage, of which the inconveniences are obvious." Moreover, there are great stretches of the colony where miserable tracks, made and maintained by natives, are still the only channels of communication.

#### (b) Rivers

The rivers of the colony are fairly numerous, but are of comparatively little use as means of communication and of penetration. As the hills extend to within a short distance from the coast the rivers issuing from them have broken courses, and though the falls may some day serve to generate electric power for railways and forest exploitation, they will always prevent navigation beyond the littoral zone. Even little coasting craft cannot anywhere ascend to a greater distance

<sup>1</sup> G. Deherme, *L'Afrique Occidentale Française*.

<sup>2</sup> The author's estimate of the cost of construction is thought to be excessive, £50,000 appearing to be nearer the mark.

than 50 miles inland, and the facilities offered to ocean shipping are very scanty.

Of the rivers flowing into the sea along the Guinea coast the most important are the Komponi or Kogon, the Rio Nuñez, the Fatalla, the Konkure, the Dubreka, the Forecaria, and the Mellakore.

In the main entrance channel of the *Komponi* (Componi) river, known in its upper course as the Kogon (Kogu), navigation is dangerous, and the river is consequently little frequented, though it may be ascended for a good many miles. Above the first bend a rocky barrier crosses the stream, which here runs strongly in its confined and rock-strewn channel. Above this barrier the river narrows, but presents no special difficulties, and small vessels can reach the point, nearly 50 miles from the sea, where other rocky barriers preclude a further ascent.

On the banks of the *Rio Nuñez* are found several settlements, the chief of them being Victoria, 13 miles above the entrance, and Boke, which is situated a little above the head of navigation. If less dangerous than the entrance of the Komponi, the mouth of this river is not entirely safe, as a bank of muddy sand, uncovered in many places at ebb tide, stretches under shoal water well out to sea. It is said that the spits and sandbanks are exceptionally prone to shift, yielding to floods from within and to gales from without. Off Sand Island, at the entrance, there is an ample depth in the channel. Off Long Island depths of 23 ft. to 26 ft. are found, but, the channel being narrow and the stream running strongly, cautious navigation is necessary. Between this point and Victoria a bar of mud has to be crossed, with depths of from 10 ft. to 13 ft. over it at low tide. Above Victoria, where the once prosperous "factories" of Bel-Air, Roppas, and Wakaria are situated, the river diminishes in breadth, becoming rocky and rather shallow in places, and being eventually crossed by a bar which even at high water prevents the passage of any but light-draught vessels. At Victoria, which may be reached by ships of con-

siderable tonnage, there is anchorage in 16 ft. to 19 ft. of water over mud. Spring tides rise 17 ft., and neaps 11½ ft.

The *Fatalla* (Rio Pongo) enters the sea through an estuary which is broader but shallower than that of the Rio Nuñez. Dividing near its mouth into several channels, the river extends for a good many miles inland, but is not navigable for any great distance. Ships of 400 or 500 tons can reach the settlement of Boffa, which is on the northern bank of the principal channel, about 8 miles from the mouth, and may anchor there in 26 ft. of water over mud. Not far above the town the river opens out into a marshy basin, studded with mud islands, among which navigation is impracticable. Neap tides rise 9½ ft. in the entrance of the river; spring tides rise 12 ft. there and over 16 ft. at Boffa. During periods of flood the stream runs with considerable force. Though Boffa may be reached by ships of a fair size, it seems that the Rio Pongo is now frequented only by small coasting craft.

The *Konkure* (Rio Bramaya, Bouramaya, Rio Dembia) is the largest stream flowing into the sea along the Guinea coast. The name Konkure, it is said, signifies "bad river," and was bestowed on this river because of the numerous accidents which occur during every wet season on its torrential waters. At 10 miles from the sea the river divides into two arms, the northern arm being barred by shoals for all craft heavier than boats. A little way above the parting there is a rocky ridge over which vessels drawing 10 ft. may pass at half-tide, and thence ascend to the settlement at the foot of the Bumia falls. The falls bar further navigation, but above them the river appears to be navigable again for light-draught vessels.

The *Dubreka* river divides into two branches at a short distance from the sea, which it enters not far from the mouth of the Konkure. Whilst the northern arm, obstructed by banks and reefs which dry at low water, is not easy to navigate, the southern arm can be used at all states of the tide by vessels drawing

less than 10 ft. ; and ships of 600 tons burden can reach the commercial station of Dubreka, which is above the point where the river divides. About 10 miles higher up (at the foot of a fall) lies Correra, the furthest point accessible to navigation. Once the most important commercial centre of the colony, Dubreka has now been eclipsed by Konakri, and is little visited except by coasting craft.

The navigable portion of the *Forecaria* is short for ships approaching from the sea, as a ridge of rocks runs almost right across the river not far from the mouth; but above this bar there is a good stretch of navigable water, accessible by way of the Mellakore and Tanna rivers. In the mouth of the *Mellakore* the depths are subject to change, but it seems that a vessel of 15 ft. draught may safely enter at three-quarter flood, and vessels of less than 10 ft. draught may ascend for 20 miles. At Benty, near the entrance, there is a wharf. The lesser streams flowing into the sea on the coast-line of the colony are practicable for small coasting craft and trading canoes. The upper waters of the *Great Skarsies*, which reaches the sea through British territory, are partly within the borders of French Guinea, but they are there torrential, and of little use for navigation.

On the other side of the Futa Jalon Hills rise other rivers, which flow towards the sea by devious courses. These include the Komba, or Rio Grande, the Gambia, the Bafing, the Niger, and their affluents. They are all subject to great seasonal fluctuations, and are torrential in character during the rainy months; their higher courses, which alone fall within French Guinea, are thus of small economic value to the colony. The *Niger* is an unimposing stream while among the hills; after entering the plains it passes Farana, an important trade centre and meeting-place of routes from all directions; but its course is broken by a series of rapids, and it is only at Kurusa, a post on the railway, that it becomes navigable for small craft at certain seasons of the year. Some wharf

accommodation has been provided here as part of the railway scheme. The *Tinkisso* has falls in its upper reaches, and is very tortuous lower down; but from Toumania to its junction with the Niger near Sigiri it is navigable nearly all the year, and has thus an appreciable economic value. Much the same may be said of another affluent, the *Milo*. The *Faleme*, a tributary of the Senegal, is reduced to a tiny stream in times of drought, but when in flood it will carry craft of about 2 ft. draught. The *Gambia* is not navigable within the limits of French Guinea.

### (c) Railways

The one railway which the colony possesses runs from Konakri to the basin of the Niger. The line is operated by the State, the cost of construction having been met by loans. Work on the line was begun in 1900; the first section, Konakri—Kindia, 95 miles long, was completed in June 1904; the extension to Mamu, 88 miles long, was opened in August 1908; a third section, 184 miles in length, reaching to Kurusa on the Niger, was available for traffic in January 1911; and the last section hitherto completed, from Kurusa to Kankan on the Milo, a distance of 51 miles, was finished in August 1914. At that time plans were approved, credits allocated, and the route surveyed for an extension from Kankan to Bela; but work was suspended in consequence of the outbreak of war, the intention being to resume it as soon as circumstances should permit. The length of railway in operation at the present time is thus rather more than 400 miles. The line has a gauge of one metre, and the rolling-stock consisted at the end of 1913 of 42 locomotives, 30 passenger coaches, and about 500 goods trucks and waggon. At that time two trains ran daily, one each way, between Konakri and Kurusa, the journey taking two days, including a halt for the night at Mamu. During

the period 1907-13 the receipts averaged over £100,000 a year, and considerably exceeded the working expenditure. The bulk of the revenue is derived from the carriage of goods.

The railway scheme, as thus executed, has not escaped criticism, which has been directed chiefly against the route selected. It has been alleged that the line was carried through a comparatively deserted and very difficult country, where the cost of construction was excessive, for the purpose of reaching the Niger basin, the commerce of which has at its disposal other railways, as well as the navigable channel of the river itself. It is replied that the line was not built to secure immediate profits or to serve local requirements; it was conceived as a line of penetration, designed to populate empty districts and to develop poor ones—for example, by stimulating stock-raising in the Futa region and by facilitating forest exploitation. The benefits which it is said to confer are described in official reports as being partly strategic, partly administrative, and partly commercial. The railway permits of the speedy transfer of troops to any centre of disaffection; officials need no longer make long journeys by hammock in broiling sun or pouring rain; and there is no longer any need to impress large bodies of men to carry provisions and supplies to distant posts. From the point of view of commerce the line throws open to European penetration rich and hitherto inaccessible regions; it promotes the formation of new commercial centres; it enables European merchandise to be carried up the country quickly, in good condition, and at a cost which does not place it beyond the purchasing power of the native; it provides an outlet, not only for such products of the interior as combine high value with small bulk, but also for the heavier and less costly articles which could not otherwise be marketed profitably; cattle no longer die on the road or lose half their value by emaciation and sickness; and the labour supply is no longer depleted by the incessant recruiting of porters. Finally, say

the apologists, the line may be justified on this one ground alone, that ultimately, but for its existence, the Sierra Leone Railway would have captured nearly the whole trade of Upper Guinea and the Western Sudan.

It is unquestionably true that the special conditions of French Guinea are such that economic progress would not be possible without the stimulus afforded by railway communications. The rivers, as has been pointed out, are of limited utility, and roads, though cheaper than railways to construct, are costly to maintain, offer no financial compensation, and serve not to displace but only to expedite the slow, inefficient, and wasteful system of human portage. The caravan travels only at certain seasons of the year, when weather conditions are favourable; it moves slowly and is liable to prolonged delays at any accident; and, unless the journey is begun and concluded within one of the periods when agricultural operations are suspended, the absence of the porters entails an unwelcome shrinkage in a labour supply which is never too plentiful. It has been estimated that in French Guinea the carriage of goods by train has set free for productive work a force of 150,000 labourers; and there is truth in the dictum that, whilst portage dispersed and impoverished, the railway has attracted and enriched. As regards the route selected, the dominant consideration was to promote the economic progress of the colony by developing and exploiting the resources of the Futa Jalon region, and by utilizing it as a connecting link between the coast and the far interior. The district provided the natural exit route from the region of the Western Sudan, but the commercial currents which issued thence tended to flow along the borders of French Guinea into the possessions of her Portuguese and British neighbours. The railway project therefore had in view the diversion of these streams of trade into their natural channel through the French colony. That the railway should be a State undertaking seems to have been generally agreed;

Guinea merchants were averse to the establishment of a powerful monopolist company which might use its power to the detriment of vested interests, and hoped that the State, by retaining control of rates, would protect and promote the free commercial development of the country.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

At the close of 1913 the colony had thirty-two post-offices, twenty-seven of which did telegraphic business. Mails were despatched every week-day between Konakri and the post-offices on the railway, and there was a connexion twice a week between Kankan, the railway terminus, and Bela. Settlements on the coast are served by sea—Boke, Victoria, and Boffa twice a month, and Forecaria and Benty once a month—by steamers of the *Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis*. Away from the railway and the coast the administrative and commercial posts have mail deliveries by courier at intervals varying with their accessibility and their importance.

There were close upon 2,000 miles of telegraph line at the end of 1913. These were grouped in three principal systems, with secondary lines in connexion. The main lines were the Sudan line from Konakri, *via* Kindia, Mamu, Dabola, Kurusa, Kankan, and Sigiri; the Ivory Coast line from Konakri, *via* Kindia, Mamu, Dabola, Farana, Kissidugu, and Bela; and the Senegal line from Konakri, *via* Dubreka, Boffa, Boke, Bensane, and Kade. The secondary lines were the Futa Jalon line from Mamu, *via* Timbo, Ditin, Labe, and Mali to Pita; lines from Kankan to Bela and to Bamako; lines from Farana to Kurusa and, *via* Kaba, to Mamu; a line from Bela to Geasso; and a line from Konakri to Forecaria, *via* Coya.

An urban telephone system was installed at Konakri in 1913.

## (2) EXTERNAL

### (a) Ports

Konakri is the only port of the colony which offers facilities for ocean shipping. The harbour, which is in a natural basin about a mile in length, nearly surrounded by an extensive bank, has depths of 3 to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  fathoms; the entrance has a depth of 23 ft., is 110 yds. wide, and is marked by buoys. The Government pier will accommodate large vessels, and there are one or two other jetties or wharves in private ownership. The Government pier is about 1,100 ft. in length; the inner part, 500 ft. long, being built of masonry, the remainder of wood. The piers and wharves are served by a Decauville rail system which runs through the principal streets of the town and facilitates the handling of cargo. In the harbour spring tides rise 11 ft. and neap tides 9 ft. The tides run strongly in the channel outside the port, and off the entrance the conjunction of a spring ebb with a stiff south-westerly breeze may cause a confused sea which resembles breakers and is dangerous to boats. With the exception of the tornadoes, which blow off shore and are of short duration, no gales are experienced on this coast.

As already stated in connexion with the rivers, Victoria is visited by a few ocean-going vessels, and other places along the coast, such as Dubreka and Boffa, can be used as ports of call by sailing ships and small steamers; but these have been deprived by the growth of Konakri of such importance as they once possessed, and are now seldom visited by vessels other than coasting craft.

### (b) Shipping Lines

Before the outbreak of war Konakri was a port of call for the vessels of several shipping lines. The steamers of the Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis, sailing from Le Havre and Bordeaux to Matadi, called once a month, as did those of the Société Marseillaise

de Navigation Fraissinet et Compagnie, from Marseilles to Dahomey, &c. Cyprien Fabre et Compagnie, of Marseilles, had inaugurated a monthly service by cargo boats, in which a few passengers could be accommodated, their freights being much lower than those of the other French lines. Fortnightly services were maintained by Elder, Dempster & Co., from Liverpool to the West Coast, and by the Woermann-Linie, from Hamburg, Antwerp, and Boulogne to Liberia, &c.; during the dry season the German vessels called once a month at Victoria. The mail boats of the Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo, from Antwerp to Matadi, called at Konakri every three weeks on their return journey; while their ordinary service, from Antwerp, Dunkirk, Calais, Boulogne, and Bordeaux or Bayonne, included a monthly call at Guinea ports. Overseas mails are entrusted to all ships touching at Konakri, but registered mails only to the Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis, which is subsidized by the State.

In the days before Konakri had attained its present development, tramp steamers were not uncommon on the coast, but they are now to be seen only in the Rio Nuñez, where cargoes of palm kernels and ground-nuts may be shipped. Heavy goods, such as building materials, are brought out in three-masted sailing vessels, many of them Italian, which usually go on to America to load up with sugar. American oils and tobaccos come in American bottoms. The prevailing practice before the war was for Guinea houses importing goods from Europe to join in chartering a steamer, usually British. This vessel would call at Liverpool, Hamburg, Antwerp, and a French port, discharge at Konakri and Victoria, and return with a cargo of palm kernels and ground-nuts. The coasting trade is mostly carried on in small cutters and schooners, which need not necessarily be under the French flag.

*Shipping Statistics.*—On the annual average for the period 1905-14 the ports of the colony were entered by 596 vessels, of 612,504 tons. Of these 286 vessels, of

185,723 tons, or 30 per cent. of the total tonnage, flew the British flag; 185 vessels, of 170,408 tons, or 28 per cent., flew the French flag; 86 vessels, of 163,654 tons, or 27 per cent., were German; 19 vessels, of 80,667 tons, or 13 per cent., were Belgian; and 4 vessels, of 5,454 tons, or rather under 1 per cent., were Greek.<sup>1</sup> For the coasting trade the figures for vessels entered on the annual average of the period 1909-13 were: Konakri, 2,471 vessels of 28,504 tons; Boffa, 618 vessels of 10,481 tons; Farmorea, 1,278 vessels of 10,397 tons; Boke, 237 vessels of 8,914 tons; and Dubreka, 369 vessels of 3,548 tons.<sup>2</sup>

### (c) *Telegraphic Communication*

As already mentioned, the land system of telegraphs is in connexion with those of Senegal, Upper Senegal, and the Ivory Coast. Cables run from Konakri to Dakar, and thence to Brest, in one direction, and to Sierra Leone, Liberia, &c., in the other. A wireless telegraph station at Konakri has been available for use by the general public since 1912.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR

French Guinea being a country in which climatic conditions preclude prolonged manual toil by the white man, the labour question is not without its difficulties. A few skilled artisans are introduced from neighbouring colonies, but there is nothing in the nature of the organized immigration which is found in some tropical countries, and it is considered improbable that such a policy, if adopted here, would achieve success. The colony is therefore obliged to recruit its labour force from its own population, which is estimated at about 1,800,000 souls.

<sup>1</sup> *Statistiques de la Navigation dans les Colonies Françaises.*

<sup>2</sup> *Rapports d'Ensemble Annuels.*

The economic value of the various elements of which this population is composed varies with their different racial characteristics. Of good physique, gentle manners, and docile disposition, the Susus, who inhabit the Dubreka and Mellakore regions, exhibit a fairly advanced civilization; they do not appear to have any innate aversion to labour, in which they engage readily; they are reasonably proficient in most kinds of employment; but their preference is for commerce, for which they evince a marked aptitude. They are, however, lacking in application and energy, and the extent to which they can be made to assist the economic progress of the colony depends upon the creation among them of needs which demand for their gratification the regular exercise of their commercial and industrial abilities. The Fulas, who inhabit the Futa Jalon region, are numerous, are intellectually superior to their neighbours, and are more capable of agricultural and industrial progress; but they dislike and despise labour, and their innate distaste for it has been fed for generations by the ownership of slaves, whom they have systematically employed in all kinds of work—agricultural, pastoral, industrial, commercial, and domestic. A race of some importance in the north and north-west of the colony, the people of Mandingo birth are inferior in natural ability to the Fulas, and are avaricious, unscrupulous, and dishonest; but they are deficient neither in activity nor in ambition, and in the heyday of caravanning the mercantile trains which ranged the country from the Ivory Coast to Senegal and from the Atlantic to Timbuktu were largely theirs. “Tenacious in pursuit of their schemes, and unscrupulous in their execution, they aspire to a general dominance; as merchants they have need of the white man, from whom they purchase goods; but they distrust him, and commerce with them is neither easy nor agreeable. Yet it must be admitted that, unlike their fellows, these blacks have a certain force, and by appealing to their greed it should be possible to enlist their aid in developing the agriculture and commerce

of the interior."<sup>1</sup> Of the other races none is important either by its diffusion or by its industrial value. The best of them, perhaps, are the Bagas, a pacific people, not disinclined to agricultural pursuits, who grow rice, collect palm kernels, and tend a few flocks and herds; improvident, wasteful, and squalid, they are greatly inferior to their neighbours, and are of little economic value.

From what is known as to the size of the population of Guinea, and from what is generally accepted regarding the characteristics of the natives, it would seem not unreasonable to infer that the labour question might some day acquire a sinister importance. By those who regard the future without misgiving it is claimed that the Guinea native is peaceable and tolerably industrious; that, if inferior as a craftsman to the European, he can yet perform satisfactory work as a joiner, carpenter, mason, and smith; and that in the all-important matter of agriculture he is possessed of hereditary aptitude, enabling him to do the different kinds of work on an agricultural estate. The claim cannot be accepted without qualification. The technical skill of the native is limited, and he is incapable of work requiring mental application or really skilled craftsmanship; nor will his alleged aptitude for agricultural pursuits bear a close scrutiny. If left to himself he will invariably follow primitive methods which are anything but productive; and his utilization of the natural resources of the country is marred by improvident destruction. To clear a rice-field or to make a pasture, the Guinea native will not hesitate for a moment to start a forest fire, the destructive ravages of which he is powerless to control. In collecting rubber he will seriously injure or completely destroy the *lianas* upon which he depends for future supplies, and will then spoil the product by slovenly or fraudulent methods of preparation.

The question of the adequacy of its labour resources

<sup>1</sup> An opinion cited by F. Rouget, *La Guinée*, p. 163.

to the satisfactory development of the colony cannot therefore be dismissed lightly. If natives only are to be employed, will they be numerous enough in the districts where they will be required? If not, can the deficiency be made good, and how? Will they be willing to perform the services required of them, and, if willing, will they possess the necessary capacity? Such questions are vitally important, and they are not easily answered. The replies depend in a measure upon the yet uncertain effects of European civilization and control. Habits of industrious and intelligent toil can at best be slowly acquired by the native in contact with the white man's practices and modes of thought. It is but yesterday that Guinea was a mass of hostile tribes living in a state of chronic warfare, and the general reign of that security without which material and moral progress is impossible has but recently begun. There are signs that the natives will respond to the educational influences of their European rulers, and that under the stimulus of the new desires which are arising among them they will make a real advance in habits of industry and in capacity for work. Many years, however, must elapse before Guinea can be rendered self-sufficient for complete economic development.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

### (a) *Products of Commercial Value*

(i) *Wild Rubber and Other Natural Products.*—Of the products of commercial value rubber, which accounts for nearly 73 per cent. of the total export trade, is incomparably the most important. It is derived almost entirely from *lianas* growing wild in the colony. Other wild and semi-wild resources account for 8 per cent. of the export trade, the products of the pastoral industry for 13½ per cent., and purely agricultural products for no more than 2 per cent.

*Rubber.* The wild *lianas*, known as *landolphias*, from which rubber is derived, are found throughout the colony. They vary in size from the thickness of the human thumb to that of the human body; and, though their yield is inferior in quantity to that of the cultivated rubber-producing trees, they have the merit of growing more quickly. For the period 1900-14 the mean export of rubber was 3,183,572 lb., of the value of £441,060 (see Appendix, Table II); in the period of 1900-4 the export was 2,767,888 lb., valued at £347,423; in the next quinquennial period it was 3,245,023 lb., valued at £515,660; and in the period 1910-14 it was 3,537,805 lb., valued at £460,096.

Though rubber is almost entirely responsible for the rapid expansion in the trade of the colony which has occurred during recent years, its influence has not been altogether conducive to permanent welfare. It has demoralized the native; the prospect of large and quickly-earned profits has lured him away from productive work, and even this easy occupation he has not pursued without indulging in pernicious practices of reckless collection and ingenious adulteration. "In one day and without the smallest fatigue," as an official publication<sup>1</sup> has pointed out, "a man can extract about a pound of rubber, representing a wage of 4s. at present prices. To gain the same rate of daily wage a grower of ground-nuts must bring to the factory a hundredweight of pods; he must toil for eight months of the year, weeding and tending his field; and at harvest-time he must have his crop carried laboriously on the human back to the nearest dealer. Naturally, therefore, the native devotes his attention to rubber, so easy to win and so lucrative to sell." The danger of the situation was obvious, but it was not heeded by the commercial interests of the country so long as the boom in rubber continued; and the Government was alone in its desire

<sup>1</sup> See H. Jumelle, *Les Ressources Agricoles et Forestières des Colonies Françaises*.

to induce the native to return to productive agricultural pursuits.

Not only has the native abandoned all else in favour of rubber collection, but he has gone far to ruin even that industry by his barbarous methods and fraudulent abuses. Incapable of far-sighted views, he has tapped recklessly and brutally, with an eye only to present yield; thousands of *lianas* have been permanently injured by the treatment to which they have been subjected, and hundreds have been cut down and grubbed up, so that their yield might be slightly increased by tapping their roots. Defective preparation has too often followed reckless collection, the yield being lessened in value by the method of handling it, or the rubber being deliberately adulterated by the introduction of extraneous substances, such as inferior gums, oranges, stones, and water, which were secreted in the balls in which rubber used to be marketed in the colony. This abuse, which coincided with a period of depression, gravely prejudiced the reputation of the rubber produced in the colony in European markets, and whilst all rubber fell in price, Guinea rubber became almost unsaleable.

The collection of rubber is now governed by regulation, and practical instruction in tapping is given. The methods of its preparation have also been prescribed by law, and fraud has been checked by the prohibition of dealings in rubber otherwise than in strips. The result has demonstrated the quality of Guinea rubber when fairly handled. The best Konakri rubber is classified as next in order of merit to Pará, and commands a correspondingly satisfactory price.

Another drawback to the dominance of rubber is the sensitiveness of the colony to the fluctuations in the price of the commodity in the European markets. The booms and the slumps of Liverpool, Antwerp, and Bordeaux react instantly upon Guinea, where periods of high profits and feverish excitement alternate with times of depression, stagnation, and embarrassment. Thus in the year 1913 the price of rubber at Konakri

fell from about 4s. 6d. a lb. to about 1s. 6d., and the result was a commercial crisis which gravely affected the colony. In commenting upon it, the official report for the year remarked that, "despite the serious efforts which have been made to mitigate the disastrous consequences of the crisis, and despite the encouraging results obtained, the crops which ought to make up for deficiencies occasioned by a slump in the principal product, and, by swelling the exports, to provide the negroes with funds, are not yet generally enough cultivated or productive enough to restore the equilibrium of the colony. The transactions of the past year make it plain . . . that the native derives from his toil no more than is strictly necessary for the satisfaction of his most urgent needs. With reduced resources he cannot think of buying the various articles of luxury to which he used to treat himself when his income more than sufficed for his absolute wants."<sup>1</sup>

Finally, there is the question of the maintenance of supplies. So seriously have the sources been affected by improvident methods of collection that, if the export has tended to increase, it has been only because the extension of communications has enabled the yield of new districts opened up in the interior to counterbalance the diminishing production of the old. In 1904 a director of the *Compagnie Française de l'Afrique Occidentale*, acting as the mouthpiece of French commercial interests, wrote thus to the Governor-General of French West Africa: "The apprehension that the production of rubber will soon become inadequate . . . seems to be well-founded, if we consider on the one hand the primitive or even barbarous methods by which rubber-yielding trees and plants have been, and still are, exploited, and on the other hand the small success so far achieved by attempts at cultivation. As regards exploitation, it is, indeed, but too certain that, through ignorance, and perhaps still more through want of foresight and an

<sup>1</sup> *Rapport d'Ensemble*, 1913, p. 306.

inordinate desire of gain, the natives have indulged in an extravagant tapping of the plants, which has sometimes gone to the length of cutting them down, thus destroying at a blow a natural wealth, which, properly husbanded, might have given a good and safe return for years. It is true that these cases of thoughtless destruction have been tending to disappear since the Colonial Governments and merchants have set about enlightening the natives as to their true interests. But even though the disappearance of rubber plants be thus retarded or prevented, that will be but an inadequate palliation of the rubber scarcity which may be expected, and there is another task of equal importance, namely, the encouragement and development of the cultivation of this valuable plant, so as to maintain the supply of raw materials for the industries which use them in ever-growing quantities."<sup>1</sup>

Everybody was, indeed, agreed as to the object to be aimed at, and the Government has tried to promote the creation of new sources of supply side by side with the preservation of old ones, the education of the native, and the suppression of fraud. The plantation varieties of rubber, Pará (*Hevea brasiliensis*) and Ceará (*Manihot glaziovii*), will do well in the colony, and are superior to the wild *lianas*, as they have a higher yield, and run less risk of destruction by fires, by the depredations of cattle, and by bad tapping. Other sorts of cultivated rubber will also thrive, notably the *Castilloa elastica*, which may be tapped twice a year, and is in the front rank of imported rubber plants by its rapidity of growth, richness of yield, and ease of tapping. But the cultivation of all these rubbers requires patience and skill, and there seems to be little chance of inducing the improvident natives to undertake their systematic cultivation on any considerable scale.

*Palm Kernels and Palm Oil* give rise to an export averaging about £34,000 a year in value. The palms

<sup>1</sup> Y. Henry, *Le Caoutchouc dans l'Afrique Occidentale Française*, pp. 126-127.

are less numerous in Guinea than in some neighbouring colonies, but they flourish in the coastal region. Their thin and flexible trunks, not more than a foot thick, sometimes attain a height of 50 to 65 ft., terminating in a head of big leaves, among which grow the nuts, surrounded by thorns. The export figures of palm kernels and oil must not be taken as indicating the total possible production of the colony, for large quantities of nuts remain unused; and if efficient communications allowed of easy transport to the coast, the export trade would almost certainly expand. As in the case of rubber, the prevalent methods of exploitation are improvident and defective. The recent installation of a crushing plant at Konakri may help to stimulate production.

*Gum Copal* is losing its importance as an export, partly because of the destruction of the *copaiferae*, burnt in conflagrations or cut down to make room for rice-fields, and partly because of the difficulty and danger of collecting the resin on the fragile branches of trees growing on precipitous hillsides.

*Kola Nuts, &c.* Kola nuts and certain edible and oleaginous nuts, known locally as the *lamy*, the *méné*, and the *néri*, may also be had for the trouble of collection. They are gathered by the natives for culinary and other domestic purposes, but little use is made of them commercially. An improvement may, however, result from the recent establishment at Konakri of the plant for expressing oil.

(ii) *Cultivated Products.*—Agriculture is far from holding the place which it is desirable for it to occupy in the economy of the colony. It is adversely affected by the indolence and improvidence of the native, by the want of cheap transport in the districts remote from the railway, and by the dominance of rubber. By a series of crises due to fluctuations in the price of its main product, the colony has now, however, been compelled to pay serious attention to the increase of agricultural production. The cultures which must be encouraged in the interest of economic development are

of two varieties: annual crops and slow-maturing plants or trees. In the latter class are oil-palms, coconut palms, kola trees, and gum trees. Climatic conditions are favourable to the growth of these trees, and there is no lack of suitable land in Lower Guinea; but the apathy and conservatism of the native are formidable obstacles to the progress of cultivation, whether by native enterprise or under European control. European plantations are few and small, and have not achieved much success. Annual crops are grown mostly for domestic consumption; in this category are rice, millet, manioc, and a crop (*Paspalum longiflorum*) known locally as *fonio*; ground-nuts and sesame seed make a small contribution to the export trade.

The *Ground-nuts* of French Guinea are markedly inferior to those of some other West African colonies, notably those of Senegal. The crop is smaller, and its oil content is much less valuable. Whereas the best Senegal nuts will yield 30 per cent. of edible oil and 7 or 8 per cent. of lamp and factory oil, the Guinea nut will yield nothing better than lamp oil at the first crushing and factory oil at the second. The reason appears to be that the heavy, clayey soils of the colony are unfavourable to the habits of the plant, which pushes its pods into the ground, where they remain until they ripen. There cannot, therefore, be any great future in Guinea for a crop which can be produced in far more favourable circumstances in other countries. Moreover, ground-nuts are bulky in proportion to their value, and even where suitable soil exists the transport question presents difficulties.

*Sesame Seed.* The higher value of sesame seed enables this plant to be grown profitably at a greater distance from means of communication. The seed used to be one of the chief exports of the colony, shiploads of it being despatched from the Rio Pongo and Mellakore districts; but, like other forms of activity, the cultivation of sesame was suspended in favour of rubber collection. The seed is rich in oil, and the crop, which ought to be remunerative, would be a valuable resource

for the less favoured districts of the colony, if the natives could be induced to devote to it the care which is requisite for successful production.

*Rice* is important because it forms one of the chief items in the dietary of the people. In the Susu districts and in the Niger basin it is almost the only food, and in the Futa Jalon region it is a staple article of diet. Two sorts are cultivated; an American rice, grown in the Indo-Chinese fashion in swampy ground near the sea, and a mountain rice, which is smaller, and red in colour. Guinea ought to become increasingly capable of providing out of its own resources for its enormous consumption of rice; and, in fact, the agricultural renaissance which the Government has been striving to promote is to some extent apparent in the increasing production of swamp rice in the coastal region. The people of the Mellakore, Bramaya, Rio Pongo, and Rio Nuñez districts are more and more devoting themselves to this pursuit, and in some places the activity is so considerable that labour has to be introduced from elsewhere to reinforce the local population. But the coastal region as a whole is still far from having attained its maximum productivity. If, as was suggested in the official report for the year 1912, the defectiveness of the native processes of milling are the main obstacles to development, the recent establishment of a rice-mill at Konakri should have beneficial results.

*Cotton* is grown in all the districts of the colony where transport difficulties make European textiles expensive. The kind chiefly produced has no value on the European market; but the possibility that more useful varieties might be introduced and might prove successful under intelligent methods of cultivation has not escaped the attention of French commercial interests. Meanwhile, however, though supported by the Association Cotonnière Coloniale, which was formed to defend the economic, industrial, and commercial interests of the French cotton industry, the cultivation of cotton in Guinea does not seem to make

much progress. In Lower Guinea the soil, the climate, the density of the population, and the cheapness of imported textiles are all unfavourable to it, and experiments conducted in the interior have not been particularly encouraging. Native methods fall far short of the perfected cultivation which the better sorts of cotton require, and circumstances do not admit of European operations on a large scale.

*Other Crops.* Maize, millet, *fonio*, manioc, sweet potatoes, and yams are grown for food. Manioc grows luxuriantly, and its rhizomes, being buried in the soil, are safe from the ravages of locusts. Maize may be reaped three months after it is sown. *Fonio* is the principal crop in the Futa Jalon region; easy to cultivate, and doing well on ground unfitted for rice and millet, it suits both the habits of the people and the nature of the soil; but, despite its suitability to local conditions, it is not produced in adequate quantities. An indigenous coffee is exported in small amounts, but is less lucrative than rubber, and therefore is comparatively neglected. Tobacco, like cotton, is grown in districts where difficulties of communication make the imported article expensive; but the natives prefer American tobaccos, when they are obtainable.

*Fruit.* Bananas and pineapples are often to be found growing without attention round the villages; and the littoral of French Guinea, by reason of its accessibility and suitable soil and climate, was believed by the Colonial authorities to offer a promising field for the development of a fruit trade. A certain number of European estates, mostly near Konakri, have been laid out for the growth of fruit, but the sanguine expectations with which they were started have not been realized. For the years 1900-14 the average exports of bananas and pineapples were valued at £291 and £181 respectively, the highest annual averages for a quinquennial period being £555 and £468 in 1910-14. If the country is ever to become an important producer of fruit, the question of cheap, quick, and regular transport to Europe must be dealt

with, and the whole business of shipping and marketing must be organized by a large company able not only to grow bananas on a large scale itself, but also to handle the crops of the smaller growers.

(iii) *Live-stock and Animal Products*.—Stock raising is practised on an extensive scale in all districts where there is pasture, and especially in the Futa Jalon region and the valley of the upper Niger. At the census taken in 1912 the numbers of live-stock in the colony were stated to be 400,000 cattle, 150,000 sheep, 140,000 goats, and 3,000 horses; but the enumeration, based largely upon native estimates, had no pretensions to exactness, and it is certain that the flocks and herds were greatly underestimated.

The native loves his animals, which often constitute the whole of his wealth, and are always the evidence of his social standing; but he blindly follows antiquated empirical methods, and it is certain that the colony could support many more cattle than it does at present, and that stock-raising, if it were pursued on more enlightened principles, would acquire much greater economic importance. The great obstacles to expansion are the difficulty of providing food-stuffs during the dry season, the slovenly and neglectful methods of the natives, and the prevalence of endemic and epidemic diseases. Pasture is plentiful enough during the wet season, but from January to April the cattle must either be driven down to the river valleys or eke out a precarious existence on the young growths of the bush shrubs, or on a sort of short grass which springs up after a tract of bush has been burnt off. Hardy though the predominant type is, the strain of this period of malnutrition and the ill-effects of a sudden return to luxuriant vegetation on the renewal of the rains are injurious to the herds, and especially to young calves and to cows in milk. The native does nothing to improve prevalent conditions. He tends his cattle indifferently, ignores sanitary precautions, and impairs the vigour of the stock by breeding from immature animals. In addition to this, and partly, no doubt, as a conse-

quence of it, disease of one sort or another is always present among the herds. The cattle of the Futa Jalon region are a prey to an endemic malady which carries off many of them every year. In 1913 a deadly epidemic of pneumonia, introduced apparently by cattle imported from the Sudan, decimated the herds in Upper Guinea, and thousands of animals succumbed in the Sigiri, Kankan, Kurusa, and Bela districts. The disaster was the more regrettable as stock-raising had begun in those districts to recover from the effects of former misfortunes; many natives had invested the whole of their capital in live-stock, and herds were growing in size and numbers. Some villages lost practically all the animals they possessed, and many small proprietors were utterly ruined. Stock-raising is, no doubt, capable of becoming of great economic importance to the colony; but its future is to some extent menaced by the absence of improvement in methods and the lack of efficient safeguards against the more fatal diseases.

Sheep are found all over the colony, but nowhere in large flocks, the usual practice being for each family to keep a few animals. The goat takes the place of the sheep in the hill districts. Horses do not do well, the climate not being favourable and the native having no natural aptitude for the care and management of them. If ever the colony should possess a system of carriage roads, the work of traction upon them would have to be performed by mules or by mechanical power.

Exports of live-stock and animal products have grown considerably since the beginning of the present century. Comparing the annual averages of the periods 1900-4 and 1910-14, the export of live-stock has risen from £38,619 to £53,464; that of hides from £8,869 to £58,546; and that of other animal products from £1,638 to £6,444 (see Appendix, Table II, p. 59). The increase is not to be ascribed entirely to greater activity in the pastoral industry, since it is primarily due to a reaction in the rubber markets. Between the trade in rubber and that in cattle the relation is close, since a

fall in rubber prices reduces the native's earnings and compels him against his inclination to sell his animals in order to find the means of paying his taxes and providing for his other wants. "Though the native," says a recent report,<sup>1</sup> "still has a marked tendency to retain his herds, the consequence at once of his affection for them and of his pride of ownership, it must be admitted that necessity has constrained him to regard his animals in a more practical light." Not long ago commerce was confined to supplying requirements for local consumption, and then it was often almost impossible to obtain butcher's meat, even in the stock-raising districts. At present a much greater domestic demand is easily satisfied, and at the same time exports are greater. It should be added that the striking increase in the export of hides is far from being a sign of progress, since it arises from the exceptional mortality among the herds in recent years, and furnishes rather disquieting evidence of the diminution in their size which must have taken place.

A ready sale for the products of the industry seems to be assured by the variety of the markets which are open to it. In addition to an increasing domestic demand, the colony is favourably situated both with regard to the countries to the south of it, where livestock is scarce and butcher's meat frequently unobtainable, and with regard to France, where increased consumption, diminished production, and a growing tendency to export French cattle were conspiring before the outbreak of war to make meat both scarce and dear. To take advantage of her opportunities, however, the colony will have to have better shipping facilities, and will probably have to adopt the refrigerating system. The export of live animals overseas is open to many objections: it demands special transport arrangements, and involves high freights and serious losses by the death or deterioration of the animals during the

<sup>1</sup> *Rapport d'Ensemble*, 1912.

voyage. The sending of meat in a frozen state appears to be a satisfactory alternative.

### (b) *Forestry*

Apart from the collection of rubber and the other wild products to which allusion has already been made, there is not much attempt at forest exploitation. On one concession in the Dubreka district the mangrove is utilized both for its bark, which yields a dye, and for its stems, which make serviceable telegraph poles. Other trees yield good cabinet woods and timber suitable for building purposes. But, like the *lianas* and the palms, useful trees are too often wantonly destroyed in the grass and forest fires kindled by the natives.

The natives retain their customary rights of exploitation in the woods belonging to the State domain, but may there be compelled to observe rational methods. European exploitation of the forests must be by virtue of a concession, or under a personal licence, the Government imposing conditions as to the nature and size of the trees which may be felled, and prohibiting, or retaining a right to prohibit, the destruction of plants yielding rubber, gum, commercial essences, &c.

### (c) *Land Tenure*

Most of the land is held by the natives, largely upon a sort of communal basis. The law provides that the title to land in private ownership may be, and in some cases must be, registered, the advantage of this being that it settles the status of land claimed to be held in private or collective native ownership. Realty held by natives may not be sold or let to individuals without the permission of the Lieutenant-Governor. The land belonging to the State is granted under a system of concessions in urban and in rural holdings; but the machinery has not yet been much used except in the

towns, European settlement beyond the urban limits being comparatively rare and on a small scale. Rural concessions, including grants for agricultural, pastoral, and forestry purposes, may be rented at from 2*d.* to 4*d.* an acre, and may be purchased at prices which range, according to the situation and extent of the concession, from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* an acre. Improvement conditions are imposed, and provisions are inserted for safeguarding the interests of the native population of the district within which the concession is situated.

### (3) FISHERIES

The seas of Guinea are rich in fish, and fish are found in the rivers also; but there is no fishing industry. The natives catch turtles, which are plentiful in the Îles de Los and on the sandbanks of the Konkure, Coba, and lower Komponi; oysters, prawns and shrimps, spiny lobsters, and large edible crabs are taken; the flesh of the alligators which infest the rivers is also eaten. Fishing is not likely to develop among the natives; for the seas are dangerous for the frail local craft, and the rock-strewn bottom increases the difficulty of the undertaking.

### (4) MINERALS

So far as at present ascertained, the mineral resources of the country have no great importance. Gold exists in reefs in the Sigiri district, and in alluvial deposits in various localities; and it has been found in some of the rivers of the interior. Sulphate of iron occurs in the lower Rio Nuñez valley, but is not of much commercial value. A clayey iron, known as laterite, is widely distributed, and hopes were once entertained that it might be exploitable, but analyses of it have not been encouraging. Some clays, china clays, and ferruginous conglomerates are worked by the natives for their own purposes—chiefly for use as building material. It is said to be geologically improbable that

coal or anthracite exists in the colony; and discoveries of tin and copper, though not geologically unlikely, have not, in fact, been made.

There is some extraction of gold by the natives, chiefly from the alluvial deposits; and, although with their primitive methods and imperfect appliances they cannot always reach the areas of greatest richness, the total yield of their operations appears to be not inconsiderable. European experiments have not been very successful. A few companies were formed in 1903, and more came into being in 1907 and 1908, the total number amounting to twenty or more. The chief of them were the Société Anonyme des Dragages Aurifères du Tinkisso; the Compagnie des Mines d'Or de Siguiri; the Compagnie Minière de Guinée; and the Société des Mines de la Haute-Guinée. These companies expended considerable sums of money in prospecting and in boring and drilling, to determine the value of alluvial deposits and the existence of reefs, but the results were disappointing. The first-named company had two dredges working for several years in the sands of the bed of the Tinkisso; but the quantity of material which the dredges handled was small, and only a low percentage of its gold content was recovered. The Compagnie Minière de Guinée attempted the exploitation of an alluvial deposit which had already been worked by natives, but its efforts did not prove successful, and the work was abandoned. In 1913 all the companies had discontinued operations except the Compagnie des Mines d'Or de Siguiri, which worked intermittently.

## (C) COMMERCE

### (1) DOMESTIC

The natives carry on some trade among themselves, but from the European point of view domestic commerce consists in the main of the purchase from the natives of rubber, live-stock, and other local produce on

the one hand, and on the other of the sale to them of textiles, groceries, tobaccos, metal goods, and other imported articles of necessity and luxury. This trade is in the hands of a sort of commercial hierarchy, with the large European business-house at the top, the native pedlar at the bottom, and the small European merchant and the Syrian trader in intermediate positions between the two. The chief importing and exporting houses have in Europe a parent house or a branch or some establishment of that nature, which acts for them in the consignment of European merchandise and the disposal of local produce. Before the outbreak of war some of the larger houses used to have several European branches, as, for example, one in France, one at Liverpool, and one at Hamburg. Houses with but one establishment and merchants established in the colony employ agents to act for them at the ports, the intervention of the agent being regarded as indispensable, though disliked as being tiresome and costly. Imports are sometimes paid for by shipments in kind, and in any case purchases are rarely for cash on delivery, the usual arrangement being for payment in three months to French houses and in six months to British houses. Imported goods are almost invariably sent for delivery at Konakri, where the consignee often incurs heavy costs for the discharge of his cargo, unless he makes his own arrangements for dealing with it. Transport from the wharf to the warehouse is, however, facilitated by a system of Decauville rails which run through all the chief streets of the town, and over which the merchant's private trolleys may easily be pushed by hand. Imports at Konakri pay a *droit de Decauville* of 2 francs a ton.

Konakri is the commercial centre of the colony, the other places on the coast, such as Boke, Victoria, Boffa, and Dubreka, being subsidiary to it, and having few direct relations with Europe. Most of the larger houses are companies with registered offices at Konakri, and with branches on the rivers and in the most important places in the interior, such as Kindia, which has

become an active commercial centre, and at Sigiri, Kankan, and Kurusa, in Upper Guinea. These establishments and their branches supply goods on a semi-wholesale basis to the smaller European houses and to Syrian and native dealers. As a rule, the main business of the branches is retail trade, and some of them have a large turn-over. The system of sales on commission has undergone a considerable extension in recent years, this being the only means of securing a market for new sorts of goods in which the local merchant cannot afford to speculate, but which the native will purchase, if the opportunity is presented to him.

The intervention of the Syrian dealers dates from 1897, when the first representatives of this race began operations as intermediaries between the European houses and the native vendors of local produce. The success of the first-comers was immediate; with no shops, no establishment charges, and no code of commercial morality, they were in a position to make large profits by means both legitimate and illegitimate; and it is said that one of them, landing at Konakri with a capital of £20, was worth £4,000 at the end of four years. Where these were so conspicuously successful, others of the same race quickly followed, and, despite strenuous opposition on the part of the European community, the whole trade with the interior soon began to pass through Syrian hands. With the rapid expansion in their numbers, which had risen to 700 by the end of 1905, the Syrians could no longer hope to grow rich as speedily as in earlier years; but, in spite of competition with each other and of continued European antagonism, they continued as a class to make a comfortable living. Their sole rivals in their own line of business were the native dealers and the traders coming in from Sierra Leone and Senegal. Some of the natives of the colony are not lacking in commercial aptitude, but they were hampered by their want of education and their ignorance of arithmetic. Compared with them the Sierra Leone traders are lettered; they have an adequate primary education,

and can master the native languages; but their commercial and personal morality is of a low type. They failed, therefore, to establish the ascendancy which has often been acquired by their less able and less instructed Wolof rivals from Senegal, many of whom, settling in the colony, have risen to the rank of local chiefs.

The great undeveloped interior beyond the centres of civilization is the commercial domain of the native pedlar or *diula*. Visiting as he does the smallest villages and remotest corners of the colony, the *diula* is an essential link in the commercial chain. His methods, however, are primitive and unsatisfactory, consisting as they do of a system of sales on credit for future payments in kind, which leads to endless disputes, and is made workable only by the expedient of setting off unconscionable gain against unnecessary loss. The native prefers to deal direct with European houses when he can, and the pedlar retreats before the advance of civilization. It has been estimated that, by transferring trade to European hands, the provision of adequate means of communication would have the important economic effect of restoring some 10,000 native pedlars to agriculture, which was the occupation of their ancestors.

Reference has already been made to the native caravans, or strings of laden porters, by which the rubber and other similar produce of the interior is made available for commerce. With regard to live-stock the position is somewhat different, as a trade in beasts is carried on all over the colony in markets held in the principal and secondary centres, the breeder making a few sales to the *diula* in the pastoral districts, but tending to do most of his business in certain recognized centres at fixed seasons of the year. Dabola and Bissikrima attract the cattle of the Bailo region, and there Upper Guinea satisfies its requirements in the matter of live-stock. Kindia and Mamu are the chief outlets of the Futa Jalon and other pastoral regions, and it is here that cattle are sold both to the

Sierra Leone brokers and to the Konakri butchers who provision the capital and the steamers which use it as a port of call. The new road from Labe to Mamu (see p. 14) should help to feed the Mamu market. A little business in cattle from the adjoining districts is also done at Boke and Dubréka. The supply of the markets is variable, and the quality is also uncertain, many immature animals being sent for sale. The secondary markets of the interior are frequented mainly by native middlemen, those of Upper Guinea dealing mostly in cattle and sheep imported from the Sudan.

Chambers of Commerce exist at Konakri and at Kankan.

## (2) FOREIGN

### (a) *Exports*

*Values.*—The mean value of the exports for the period 1900-14, calculated from the annual average, was £606,675 (see Appendix, Table I, p. 58). The export trade has undergone a considerable expansion during the last quarter of a century: from a value of £209,215 in 1895 it had risen to £403,515 in 1900, to £654,946 in 1905, and to £732,256 in 1910, whilst in 1912 it exceeded £800,000. The average annual values of the three quinquennial periods from 1900 to 1914 were respectively £454,699, £677,145, and £688,181.

Rubber is the predominant export; on the annual average of the period 1900-14 it accounted for nearly 73 per cent. of the total exports of the colony (see Appendix, Table II, p. 59). Other exports were live-stock, about 8 per cent.; palm kernels, rather over 5 per cent.; hides, 5 per cent.; gum copal, just under 2 per cent.; ground-nuts and sesame seed, each about 1 per cent.; other animal products, kola nuts, ivory, and gold, each about  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. With the single exception of kola nuts, all show a tendency to expansion, notably rubber, live-stock, palm kernels, and hides. In addition, the export of raw cotton and of wool showed signs of expansion in the most recent years for which returns are

available, though the total was still insignificant. The values of the exports will be found in the Appendix, Table II, p. 59.

*Countries of Destination.*—France is the largest purchaser of the colony's produce, having taken 36 per cent. of the exports during the period 1900-14 (see Appendix, Table III, p. 60); the French colonies took about  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., the United Kingdom 32 per cent., Germany  $21\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., Sierra Leone 7 per cent., and Liberia  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

The French share in the trade has undergone a large increase, both actual and relative, during the period: whereas in 1900-4 it amounted to no more than 17 per cent. of the whole, in 1910-14 it amounted to 48 per cent. (see Appendix, Table III, p. 60). In the case of Sierra Leone there has been a slight increase actually and relatively. The share of the United Kingdom has declined by about £60,000 a year actually, and has fallen relatively from 46 per cent. to 22 per cent. That of Germany, though rising actually, declined relatively.

Further particulars of the trade with the principal countries will be found in the Appendix, Table IV, p. 61.

### (b) Imports

*Values.*—Like the exports, the imports show a marked expansion; from under £500,000 in 1900 they rose to over £1,000,000 in 1910, the annual averages for the quinquennial periods from 1900 to 1914 being £521,195, £708,639, and £766,606, and the mean £665,480 (see Appendix, Table I, p. 58).

The chief imports (Table II, p. 59) are textiles, which accounted for 40 per cent. of the import trade during the period 1900-14; metal goods, 13 per cent.; farinaceous substances,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.; kola nuts, palm oil, rubber, &c.,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.; liquors and metals, each 4 per cent.; groceries, tobacco, &c., about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.; and building materials, coal, and oil, 3 per cent. An increase, both actual and relative, is seen in the case of textiles, farinaceous substances, metals,

and building materials, &c. Liquors, groceries, &c., have increased actually, but have maintained the same relative proportion. A relative decline is found in the case of metal goods.

*Countries of Origin.*—France supplied 40 per cent. of the imports in the period 1900-14; the French colonies supplied  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., the United Kingdom 38 per cent., Germany  $9\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., Liberia not quite 3 per cent., and Sierra Leone not quite 2 per cent. Among other countries, which together supplied 6 per cent., are included the United States with a share of something under 2 per cent. for the whole period. Holland, Belgium, and Italy, separate figures for which are not available before 1908, supplied respectively 2 per cent., 2 per cent., and  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. in the period 1910-14.

If the three quinquennial periods from 1900 to 1914 be compared, it will be found that the share of France and of the French colonies in the import trade has increased both actually and relatively; that the share of Germany declined both actually and relatively; and that the share of the United Kingdom, though declining relatively, actually increased. The placing in France of large orders for railway materials accounts to some extent for the growth in the French trade.

Further particulars of the trade with the principal countries will be found in Table V of the Appendix (p. 62).

### (c) *Customs and Tariffs*

Guinea belongs to a group of colonies to which the ordinary French tariff does not apply. Its fiscal regime imposes specific duties on some imports, notably tobacco, arms and ammunition, and liquors; charges the majority with *ad valorem* duties; levies a surtax on goods of foreign origin; and grants exemption from duty in certain cases, including livestock, fresh meat, fish, fruit, and vegetables, agricultural machinery and tools, coal, manures, ships and

boats, rice, rubber, palm kernels, sesame seed, ground-nuts, and gum copal. A duty of 7 per cent. *ad valorem* is levied on all rubber exported.

## (D) FINANCE

### (1) *Public Finance*

The public finance of French Guinea is governed in part by the general budget of the Government of French West Africa and in part by the local budget of the colony itself. The general budget provides for the service of the debt, maintains the solvency of the constituent colonies, and besides defraying its own expenses meets those of certain services in the colonies, such as the customs, judicial administration, and financial control. It also bears the cost of such works as are of general utility, or, not being of general utility, are yet thought to be urgently required and to be beyond the financial resources of the colony in question. The general budget derives its revenue mainly from the customs, excise, and shipping dues, and from the profits on the working of the colonial railways. The local budget bears the cost of local administration, its chief resource being the capitation tax of 4 francs a head, payable in French money. On the annual average of the years 1909-13 the revenue of the local budget was £276,818, and its expenditure was £264,009. The revenue was made up of capitation tax, £219,735; trading licences, &c., £17,733; posts and telegraph, £8,131; and miscellaneous, £31,219.

### (2) *Currency*

The gold, silver, and base metal coins of France circulate in the colony, and alone are legal tender, with the addition of the English sovereign. A certain amount of English money is in circulation in the country by virtue of the commercial connexion with Sierra Leone.

### (3) *Banking*

The Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale, formerly known as the Bank of Senegal, opened a branch at Konakri in 1902. It enjoys a privileged position, and issues notes of all denominations from 5 francs to 1,000 francs. It is the only institution of the kind in the colony; nor has Guinea any co-operative credit institutions. The nearest approach to them are the agricultural prudential societies, which have been organized in certain districts. As official reports admit, the idea upon which these societies are based is foreign to the mentality of the native, who never looks beyond the morrow, and is blind to the advantages of provident organization. Yet no small good would be likely to result if these societies were to be generally established, and their funds judiciously employed under official guidance to further the agricultural renaissance which is so important to the future prosperity of the colony.

### (E) GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

To estimate the future possibilities of the country is not an easy matter. Impressed by the great increase in its trade during recent years, the majority of French writers upon the subject entertain sanguine expectations, and distinguished economists believe that Guinea has as brilliant a destiny as any possession in the colonial empire of the French. The commercial expansion is certainly calculated to arrest the attention; for the total trade, which stood at £412,131 in 1895, reached £1,411,939 in 1905, and progressed again to nearly two millions sterling in 1910. But the prosperity of the past is no sure indication of progress in the future. It has been founded almost entirely upon the collection and export of rubber, and the dominance of this one commodity is not unattended by drawbacks and dangers. In the first place, as already pointed out, the constant

fluctuations in the price of rubber in the world's markets react adversely upon the colony, since the booms and the slumps of Europe produce in Guinea corresponding bursts of feverish activity and unwholesome excitement in alternation with periods of stagnation, depression, and embarrassment. And even if the markets were stable, a difficulty would arise in the maintenance of supplies. The rubber exported from the country is the product, not of scientifically tended and progressively expanding plantations, but of wild plants growing haphazard in the woods; the improvident native destroys these or impairs their productivity by his careless methods of collection and by his reckless clearance fires; and the greater the activity in the collection of rubber, the greater is the damage inflicted on the sources of supply, and the greater the need for going further afield, with the prospect of exploiting at an ever-increasing cost, and of destroying in turn, the resources of the more remote regions of the interior. If the export of rubber has so far been maintained, it has been rather by the exploitation of successive new districts than by the regular productivity of the old, and to expansion of this nature there is an obvious limit.

The question thus arises how far the other resources of the country are capable of replacing or supplementing rubber. There are no manufacturing enterprises, nor can any be undertaken during the continuance of the conditions prevailing to-day. The prospects of mining expansion hold out no substantial hopes. If development is to occur, it must apparently take place in the pastoral and agricultural spheres. Stock-raising is the main resource of the Futa Jalon region, and has made rapid strides in the Upper Niger district during recent years; herds have increased both in size and in numbers; an active commerce in live-stock is carried on; and exports of animals and animal products show a marked tendency to increase. Yet the omens are not so propitious as might be inferred by a superficial observer. Proud and fond of

his beasts though the native is, he has little skill in their care and management; in breeding he exercises no discrimination in the selection of his stock; in marketing them he lacks the prudence to offer only beasts which are mature; in tending them he makes no provision either for their well-being in adverse conditions of weather or for feeding them in the critical period when the cessation of the rains deprives them of their natural pastures; and the endemic and epidemic maladies which grievously impair the vigour of the herds, even when they do not decimate or exterminate them, set a limit to the possibilities of development in the pastoral sphere.

Nor, again, does agriculture seem likely to achieve any notable expansion. To some extent, it is true, the native is an agriculturist by instinct and heredity; but work is distasteful to him; he is wasteful, negligent, and improvident; his methods are primitive; and such results as he achieves are as a rule deplorably inadequate both in quantity and in quality. Further, except in the alluvial soils of some of its river valleys, the colony offers no such prospects of agricultural wealth as are found in many tropical and sub-tropical countries. For the most part Guinea is an old, much worked, long cultivated land, and it would be a mistake to suppose that it possesses great fertility. The soil soon becomes exhausted, its yield is moderate, and under the native system of cultivation it is rested for years after each crop, with the consequence that huge tracts of land are laid under contribution for the maintenance of relatively few people. If the native could be induced to adopt modern methods of ploughing, manuring, and tending and harvesting his crops, this particular difficulty might be partially relieved; but, in fact, things have hitherto been going from bad to worse. Whenever a native wants to cultivate new ground or to make a new pasture, his method of procedure is to clear off the trees and scrub by large fires; then the tropical rains come, and in many places, when the binding influence of the tree

roots is removed, the thin layer of soil is washed away from the underlying rock. Thus the arid hill regions of the country become more arid still, and there are some who contend that stock-raising and agriculture, which ought to be the main resources of the colony, tend rather to impair its productivity.

In the last resort, the real weakness of the country seems to lie in the fact that, European exploitation being impracticable, the future will be such as the natives of the colony choose to make it, and that the natives, with their disinclination for work, their aversion to progress, their apathy, negligence, and improvidence, are no fit architects of economic prosperity. "If the question of European plantations and exploitations be seriously considered in the light of all the facts, the conclusion is irresistible that they can form only an exception, and that a long time must elapse before any real colonization takes place. The prosperity of Guinea must be based upon the development of cultivation by the natives."<sup>1</sup> In the opinion of another writer<sup>2</sup> the unfortunate and costly experiments made by Europeans in the past "seem to be due to our profound ignorance of the country and its people; to our preconceived determination to reject *en bloc* all the experimental methods of the natives in favour of the counsels of more or less competent theorists; to the want of persistence and to the impatience of those who put up the money, and then want it back again immediately, and give up the game; to the necessity for intensive, and therefore very costly, cultivation of land which quickly becomes exhausted; sometimes to the negligence or ill-will of the neighbouring village; finally, to the carelessness of the work-people, who take no account of time, and over whom there is no real control. Some of these obstacles will endure for a long while, and we must not encourage adventures

<sup>1</sup> *Annuaire Colonial*, 1915, p. 717.

<sup>2</sup> A. Arcin, *La Guinée Française*, pp. 88-89.

which discredit the colony. . . . European plantations on a big scale cannot be recommended."

The conclusion would seem to be that, in spite of the striking expansion in the colony's trade which has been witnessed during the last two decades, there remain many obstacles to surmount, and much educational and constructive work to accomplish, before its welfare can be said to rest upon a secure basis of economic stability.

## APPENDIX

### EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES, &c.

#### I

#### ARRANGEMENT CONCERNING THE DELIMITATION OF THE BRITISH AND FRENCH POSSESSIONS ON THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA

*Signed at Paris, August 10, 1889*

*Art. II.*—To the north of Sierra Leone, in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of 1882, the line of demarcation, after having divided the basin of the Mellicourie from that of the Great Scarcies, shall pass between Bennah and Tambakka, leaving Talla to England and Tamisso to France, and shall approach the 10th degree of north latitude, including in the French zone the country of the Houbbous, and in the English zone Soulimaniah and Falabah.

The line shall stop at the intersection of the 13th degree of longitude west of Paris ( $10^{\circ} 40'$  of Greenwich) as marked on the French map, and of the 10th degree of latitude.

#### II

#### ARRANGEMENT OF BOUNDARY BETWEEN FRENCH AND LIBERIAN POSSESSIONS, DECEMBER 8, 1892

*Art. I.*—On the Ivory Coast and in the interior, the boundary line between the Republic of Liberia and the French Possessions shall be laid down as follows, in conformity with the red line on the map annexed to the present Arrangement in duplicate and signed, viz. :

1. The thalweg of the River Cavally, as far as a point situated at a point about 20 miles to the south of its confluence with the

River Fodédougou-Ba, at the intersection of the parallel  $6^{\circ} 30'$  N. Lat. and the meridian  $9^{\circ} 12'$  of W. Long.<sup>1</sup>

2. The parallel passing through the said point of intersection until it meets the meridian  $10^{\circ}$  Long. W. of Paris,<sup>2</sup> it being, in any case, understood that the basin of the Grand Sesters shall belong to Liberia, and the Basin of the Fodédougou-Ba shall belong to France.

3. The meridian of  $10^{\circ}$  until it meets the parallel  $7^{\circ}$  N. Lat.; from this point the boundary shall run in a straight line to the point of intersection of the meridian  $11^{\circ}$  Long.<sup>3</sup> and the parallel passing through Tembi Counda, it being understood that the town of Barmaquinola and the town of Mahomadou shall belong to the Republic of Liberia, Naalah and Mousardou remaining, on the other hand, to France.

4. The boundary shall then run in a westerly direction along this same parallel until it meets on the meridian  $13^{\circ}$  Long. W. of Paris<sup>4</sup> the Anglo-French boundary of Sierra Leone. This line shall, in any case, secure to France the whole Basin of the Niger and its affluents.

### III

#### AGREEMENT BETWEEN FRANCE AND LIBERIA FOR THE SETTLEMENT OF THE FRONTIER BETWEEN FRENCH WEST AFRICA AND LIBERIA, SEPTEMBER 18, 1907.

*Art. I.*—La frontière franco-libérienne serait constituée par :

1. La rive gauche de la rivière Makona, depuis l'entrée de cette rivière dans le Sierra Leone jusqu'à un point à déterminer à environ 5 kilomètres au sud de Befosso;

2. Une ligne partant de ce dernier point et se dirigeant vers le sud-est en laissant au nord les villages suivants : Koutoumaï, Kissi-Kouroumaï, Soundébou, N'Zapa, N'Zébéla, Koïama, Banguédou, et allant rejoindre une source de la rivière Nuon ou d'un de ses affluents à déterminer sur place, au maximum à 10 kilomètres au sud et dans le voisinage de Lola.

Dans cette section de frontière, le tracé à délimiter devra éviter de séparer les villages d'une même tribu, sous-tribu ou groupement et utiliser autant que possible des lignes topographiques naturelles telles que le cours de ruisseaux et de rivières;

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<sup>1</sup>  $6^{\circ} 52'$  W. of Greenwich.

<sup>2</sup>  $7^{\circ} 40'$  W. of Greenwich.

<sup>3</sup>  $8^{\circ} 40'$  W. of Greenwich.

<sup>4</sup>  $10^{\circ} 40'$  W. of Greenwich.

3. La rive droite de la rivière Nuon jusqu'à son confluent avec le Cavally;

4. La rive droite du Cavally jusqu'à la mer.

Dans le cas où la rivière Nuon ne serait pas un affluent du Cavally, la rive droite du Nuon ne formerait la frontière que jusqu'aux environs de Toulepleu; à hauteur et au sud de la banlieue de ce village la frontière serait tracée entre le Nuon et le Cavally dans la direction générale du parallèle de ce point, mais de manière à ne pas séparer les villages d'une même tribu, sous-tribu ou groupement et à utiliser les lignes topographiques naturelles; à partir de l'intersection de ce parallèle avec la rivière Cavally, la frontière serait constituée par la rive droite de la rivière Cavally jusqu'à la mer.

#### IV

### CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND PORTUGAL RELATIVE TO THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR RESPECTIVE POSSESSIONS IN WEST AFRICA, MAY 12, 1886

*Art. I.*—In Guinea, the frontier which shall separate the Portuguese from the French possessions, will follow, in accordance with the tracing upon Map I, which is annexed to the present Convention:—

\* \* \* \* \*

In the east, the frontier will follow the meridian of  $16^{\circ}$  west<sup>1</sup> from the  $12^{\circ} 40'$  parallel of north latitude to the  $11^{\circ} 40'$  parallel north latitude:—

In the south, the frontier will follow a line starting from the mouth of the River Cajet, which lies between the Island of Catack (which will belong to Portugal) and the Island of Tristão (which will belong to France), and keeping, as far as the nature of the land permits, at an equal distance between the Rio Componi (Tabati) and the Rio Cassini, then between the northern branch of the Rio Componi (Tabati) and at first the southern branch of the Rio Cassini (tributary of the Kacondo), afterwards the Rio Grande, until it reaches the point where the 16th meridian of west longitude cuts the parallel  $11^{\circ} 40'$  of north latitude.

Portugal will possess all the islands included between the meridian of Cape Roxo, the coast, and the southern boundary formed by a line following the thalweg of the River Cajet, and

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<sup>1</sup>  $13^{\circ} 40'$  W. of Greenwich.



## STATISTICS

TABLE I.<sup>1</sup>—EXPORTS, IMPORTS,<sup>2</sup> AND TOTAL TRADE.

—	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
	£	£	£	£	£
Exports ..	403,515	309,184	450,156	563,630	547,009
Imports ..	497,665	292,857	505,649	717,719	592,081
Total ..	901,180	602,041	955,805	1,281,349	1,139,090
—	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Exports ..	654,946	684,931	639,590	631,514	774,746
Imports ..	756,993	645,475	653,769	570,138	916,821
Total ..	1,411,939	1,330,406	1,293,359	1,201,652	1,691,567
—	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.
Exports ..	732,256	784,434	802,305	665,790	456,121
Imports ..	1,182,511	733,492	770,975	776,528	369,527
Total ..	1,914,767	1,517,926	1,573,280	1,442,318	825,648
<i>Annual Averages.</i>					
—	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.	Mean.	
	£	£	£	£	
Exports .. ..	454,699	677,145	688,181	606,675	
Imports .. ..	521,195	708,639	766,606	665,480	
Total .. ..	975,894	1,385,784	1,454,787	1,272,155	

<sup>1</sup> Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*.  
Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

<sup>2</sup> Excluding bullion and specie.

TABLE II.<sup>1</sup>—PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT AND IMPORT.

Exports.	Annual Averages.			Mean.	Percent- age.	Imports. <sup>2</sup>	Annual Averages.			Mean.	Percent- age.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.				1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
	£	£	£	£			£	£	£	£	
Rubber ....	347,423	515,660	460,096	441,060	72·69	Textiles ....	200,061	270,010	339,193	269,755	40·53
Live-stock ....	38,619	52,290	53,464	48,124	7·93	Metal goods ....	80,937	103,188	75,959	86,695	13·03
Palm kernels ....	20,811	26,732	50,050	32,531	5·36	Farinaceous substances ....	39,841	54,258	55,216	49,772	7·47
Hides ....	8,869	23,346	58,546	30,254	4·98	Rubber, kola nuts, &c. ....	25,993	39,546	24,262	29,933	4·50
Gum copal ....	9,225	13,744	10,960	11,310	1·87	Liquors ....	22,258	26,213	31,549	26,673	4·01
Ground-nuts ....	5,735	4,641	13,176	7,851	1·30	Metals ...	9,527	37,945	32,086	26,519	4·00
Sesame seed ....	3,053	5,685	5,516	4,761	·80	Groceries, tobacco, &c. ....	19,020	22,649	28,702	23,457	3·54
Various animal products ....	1,638	2,188	6,444	3,423	·56	Building materials, coal, and oil ....	11,191	23,281	27,999	20,824	3·13
Kola-nuts ....	3,161	2,474	2,212	2,616	·43	Arms and ammunition ....	16,068	21,699	5,585	14,451	2·16
Ivory ....	1,728	2,143	3,523	2,465	·40	Chemicals ....	11,411	11,643	16,387	13,147	1·97
Gold ....	638	564	5,804	2,335	·39	Glassware, &c. ....	10,372	9,657	9,273	9,767	1·47
Palm oil ....	1,946	1,632	2,263	1,947	·32	Live-stock and animal products....	8,292	9,176	10,654	9,374	1·40
Other domestic produce ....	3,097	6,398	5,498	4,997	·83	Timber, &c. ...	5,633	7,122	5,587	6,114	·92
Total domestic produce ....	445,943	657,497	677,582	593,674	97·86	Boots, shoes, and leather goods ....	4,111	5,232	6,720	5,354	·82
Re-exports ....	8,756	19,648	10,599	13,001	2·14	Paper & paper goods ....	2,038	4,680	4,988	3,902	·59
						Miscellaneous ....	54,442	62,340	92,446	69,743	10·46
Total exports ....	454,699	677,145	688,181	606,675	100·00	Total imports ....	521,195	708,639	766,606	665,480	100·00

<sup>1</sup> Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1. <sup>2</sup> Excluding bullion and specie.

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French  
Guinea]

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

TABLE III.<sup>1</sup>—TRADE WITH THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

	Exports. <sup>2</sup>					Imports.					Total Trade.	
	Annual Averages.			Mean.	Per-centage.	Annual Averages.			Mean.	Per-centage.	Mean.	Per-centage.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.			1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.				
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
France .. ..	74,619	240,479	329,011	214,703	36·17	179,840	312,460	311,375	267,892	40·26	482,595	38·32
French Colonies ..	5,337	2,251	21	2,537	·41	2,210	9,780	16,859	9,616	1·45	12,153	·97
United Kingdom ..	206,532	212,256	149,189	189,326	31·89	210,433	256,055	292,890	253,126	38·04	442,452	35·14
Germany .. ..	107,687	135,308	137,448	126,814	21·36	77,980	58,861	51,600	62,814	9·45	189,628	15·06
Sierra Leone ..	30,697	41,076	53,364	41,712	7·03	9,710	14,037	14,897	12,881	1·94	54,593	4·34
Liberia .. ..	6,074	14,420	3,721	8,072	1·36	14,474	28,437	12,572	18,494	2·74	26,566	2·11
Other Countries ..	14,997	11,707	4,828	10,510	1·78	26,548	29,009	66,413	40,657 <sup>3</sup>	6·12	51,167	4·06
Total .. ..	445,948	657,497	677,582	593,674	100·00	521,195	708,639	766,606	665,480	100·00	1,259,154	100·00

<sup>1</sup> Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

<sup>2</sup> Domestic produce only.

<sup>3</sup> Including the United States, which supplied imports to the value of £9,419 in 1900-04, £12,001 in 1905-09, £14,072 in 1910-14, mean, £11,831. In 1910-14 Holland supplied imports to the value of £15,333, Belgium supplied them to the value of £12,156, and Italy supplied them to the value of £4,136. Separate figures for the latter countries are not available prior to 1908.

TABLE IV.<sup>1</sup>—EXPORTS<sup>2</sup>: COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION.

	Annual Averages.			Mean.	Percentage of Mean Total Export.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
France—	£	£	£	£	
Rubber .. .. .	62,588	221,272	274,346	186,069	42
Hides .. .. .	3,655	9,563	27,052	13,423	44
Ground-nuts .. .. .	4,363	3,030	11,557	6,317	80
Sesame seeds .. .. .	2,241	5,563	4,854	4,219	88
Miscellaneous .. .. .	1,772	1,051	11,202	4,675	..
Total .. .. .	74,619	240,479	329,011	214,703	..
United Kingdom—					
Rubber .. .. .	186,826	191,572	109,730	162,710	37
Gum copal .. .. .	8,923	13,656	10,155	10,911	96
Palm kernels .. .. .	5,601	3,313	11,204	6,706	21
Hides .. .. .	2,604	1,431	9,625	4,553	15
Miscellaneous .. .. .	2,578	2,284	8,475	4,446	..
Total .. .. .	206,532	212,256	149,189	189,326	..
Germany—					
Rubber .. .. .	88,438	98,222	75,782	87,481	20
Palm kernels .. .. .	14,817	23,300	38,082	25,400	78
Hides .. .. .	2,483	11,786	20,100	11,456	37
Miscellaneous .. .. .	1,949	2,000	3,484	2,477	..
Total .. .. .	107,687	135,308	137,448	126,814	..
Sierra Leone—					
Live-stock .. .. .	26,436	35,508	50,075	37,340	79
Rubber .. .. .	2,373	2,674	59	1,702	½
Ground-nuts .. .. .	685	1,073	1,243	1,000	12
Miscellaneous .. .. .	1,203	1,821	1,987	1,670	..
Total .. .. .	30,697	41,076	53,364	41,712	..
Liberia—					
Live-stock .. .. .	4,689	11,446	2,243	6,126	13
Miscellaneous .. .. .	1,385	2,974	1,478	1,946	..
Total .. .. .	6,074	14,420	3,721	8,072	..

<sup>1</sup> Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.<sup>2</sup> Domestic produce only.

TABLE V.<sup>1</sup>—IMPORTS: COUNTRIES WHENCE SHIPPED.

	Annual Average.			Mean.	Percentage of Mean Total Import.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
France—	£	£	£	£	
Metal goods .. ..	65,714	83,173	56,288	68,392	79
Textiles .. ..	16,150	40,127	51,219	35,832	13
Farinaceous substances ..	24,849	40,539	40,313	35,234	71
Metals .. ..	3,991	33,080	24,920	20,664	78
Liquors .. ..	10,214	17,570	21,221	16,335	61
Building materials, coal, and oil	7,007	16,915	14,128	12,683	61
Groceries and tobacco ..	4,528	8,228	11,316	8,024	34
Miscellaneous .. ..	47,387	72,828	91,970	70,728	..
Total .. ..	179,840	312,460	311,375	267,892	..
United Kingdom—					
Textiles .. ..	157,546	204,306	233,117	198,323	73
Chemicals.. ..	6,876	8,688	10,005	8,523	65
Metal goods .. ..	6,054	10,843	7,762	8,230	9
Groceries and tobacco ..	7,177	5,855	8,817	7,283	31
Metals .. ..	4,683	3,691	4,706	4,360	16
Farinaceous substances ..	6,186	3,784	2,874	4,281	9
Building materials, coal, and oil	826	1,635	5,638	2,700	13
Liquors .. ..	2,047	1,197	1,089	1,444	5
Miscellaneous .. ..	19,038	16,056	18,882	17,982	..
Total .. ..	210,433	256,055	292,890	253,126	..
Germany—					
Textiles .. ..	19,476	12,545	17,215	16,412	6
Metal goods .. ..	6,242	7,756	8,822	7,607	9
Arms and ammunition ..	9,377	8,650	584	6,204	43
Liquors .. ..	8,035	6,000	3,679	5,905	22
Glass, &c... ..	5,455	4,739	4,782	4,992	51
Farinaceous substances ..	4,725	1,065	2,404	2,731	6
Groceries and tobacco ..	3,654	1,608	631	1,964	8
Chemicals.. ..	3,176	1,510	647	1,778	13
Miscellaneous .. ..	17,840	14,988	12,836	15,221	..
Total .. ..	77,980	58,861	51,600	62,814	..
Liberia—					
Kola nuts, &c. .. ..	13,612	20,693	1,244	11,850	} 60
Palm oil, rubber, &c. ..	369	7,391	11,100	6,287	
Miscellaneous .. ..	493	353	228	357	..
Total .. ..	14,474	28,437	12,572	18,494	..

<sup>1</sup> Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

TABLE V.<sup>1</sup>—IMPORTS: COUNTRIES WHENCE SHIPPED  
(continued).

	Annual Average.			Mean.	Percentage of Mean Total Import.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
Sierra Leone—	£	£	£	£	
Farinaceous substances ..	2,209	4,821	4,328	3,786	8
Textiles .. ..	3,290	2,035	2,405	2,576	1
Palm oil, rubber, kola nuts, &c.	1,073	4,909	5,491	3,824	13
Miscellaneous .. ..	3,138	2,272	2,673	2,695	..
Total .. ..	9,710	14,037	14,897	12,881	..
United States—					
Groceries and tobacco ..	2,802	5,363	5,917	4,694	20
Building materials, coal, oil, &c.	2,333	2,587	6,399	3,773	18
Miscellaneous .. ..	4,284	4,051	1,756	3,364	..
Total .. ..	9,419	12,001	14,072	11,831	..

<sup>1</sup> Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

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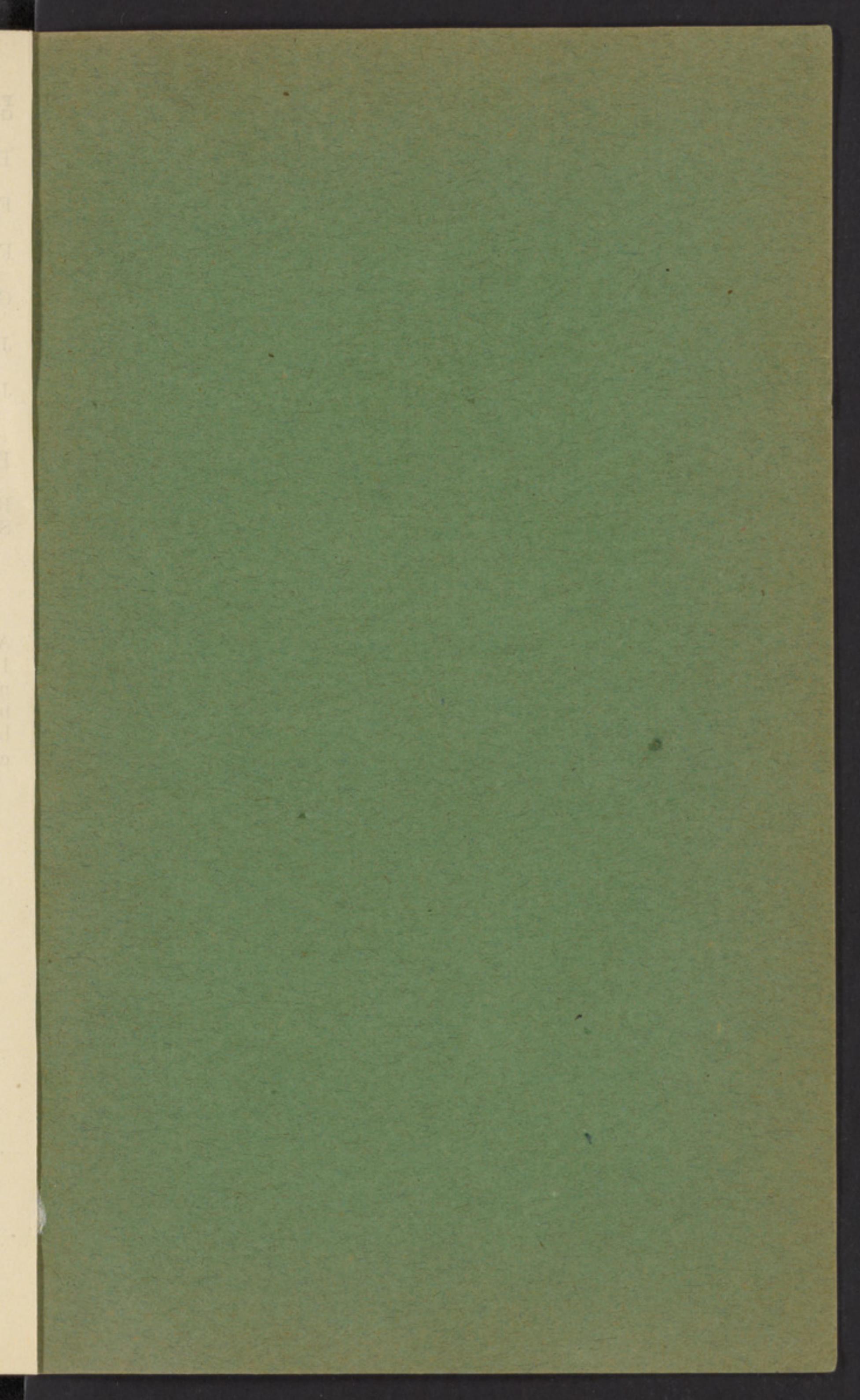
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## MAPS

French Guinea is covered by the War Office map of West Africa (G.S.G.S. 2434), on the scale 1:6,336,000; 1903 (additions 1914, boundaries corrected 1919); also by sheets 58-70 and 59 (old numbering) of the War Office map of Africa, G.S.G.S. 1539; also by a map, "French Guinea," on the scale of 1:2,500,000, issued by the Intelligence Department of the Naval Staff, March 1919, in connexion with this series.





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