

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 92

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SIERRA LEONE

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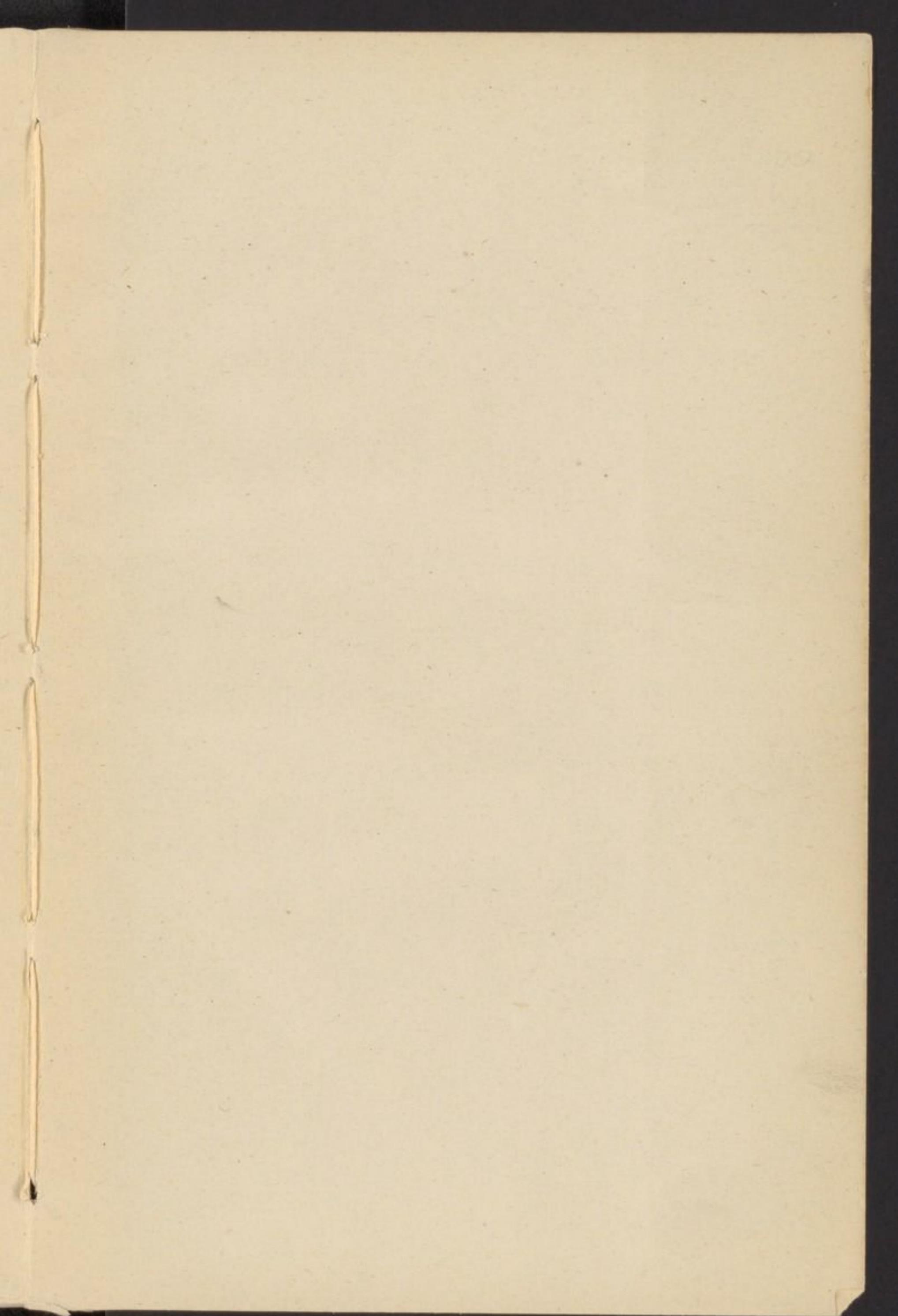
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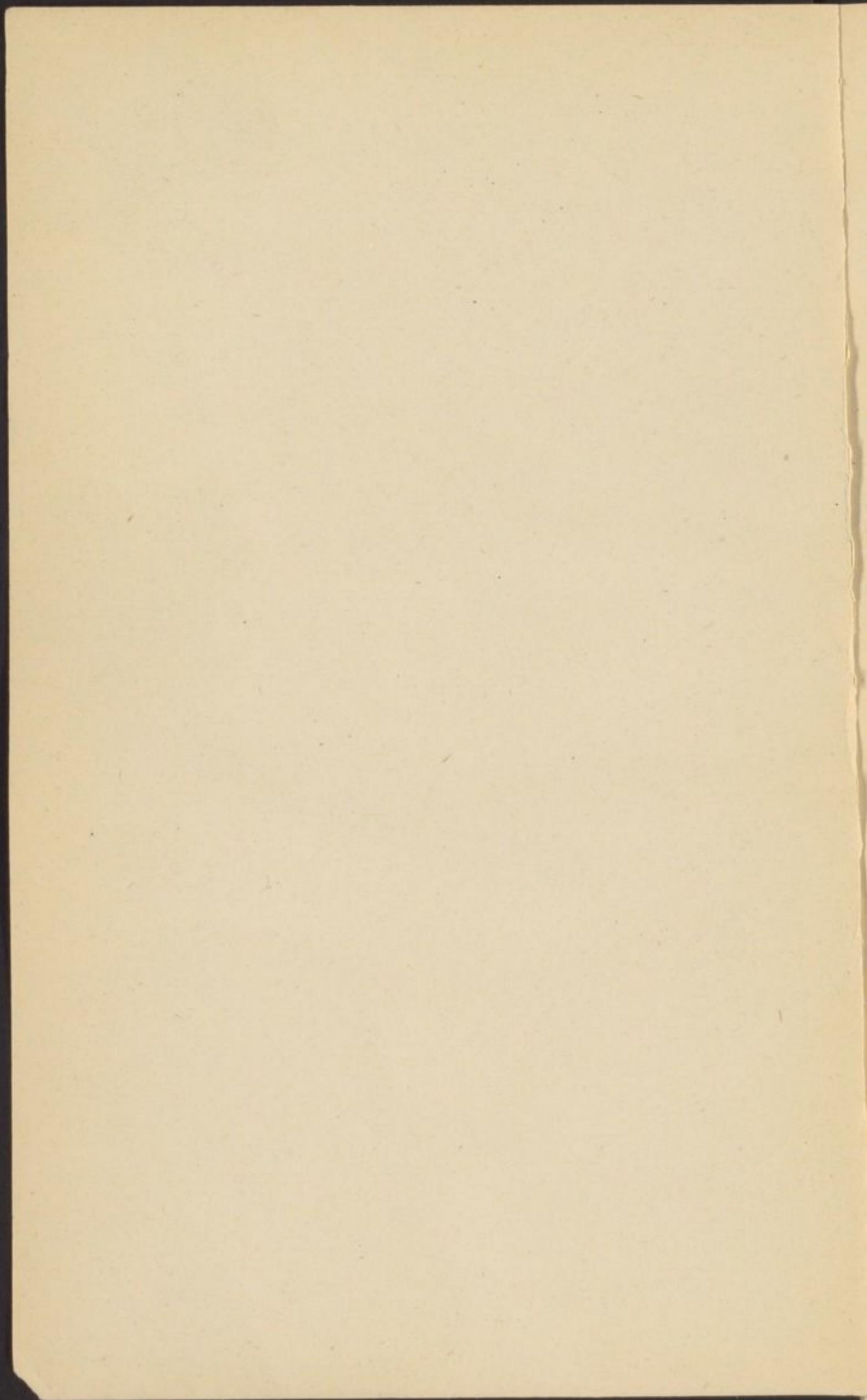


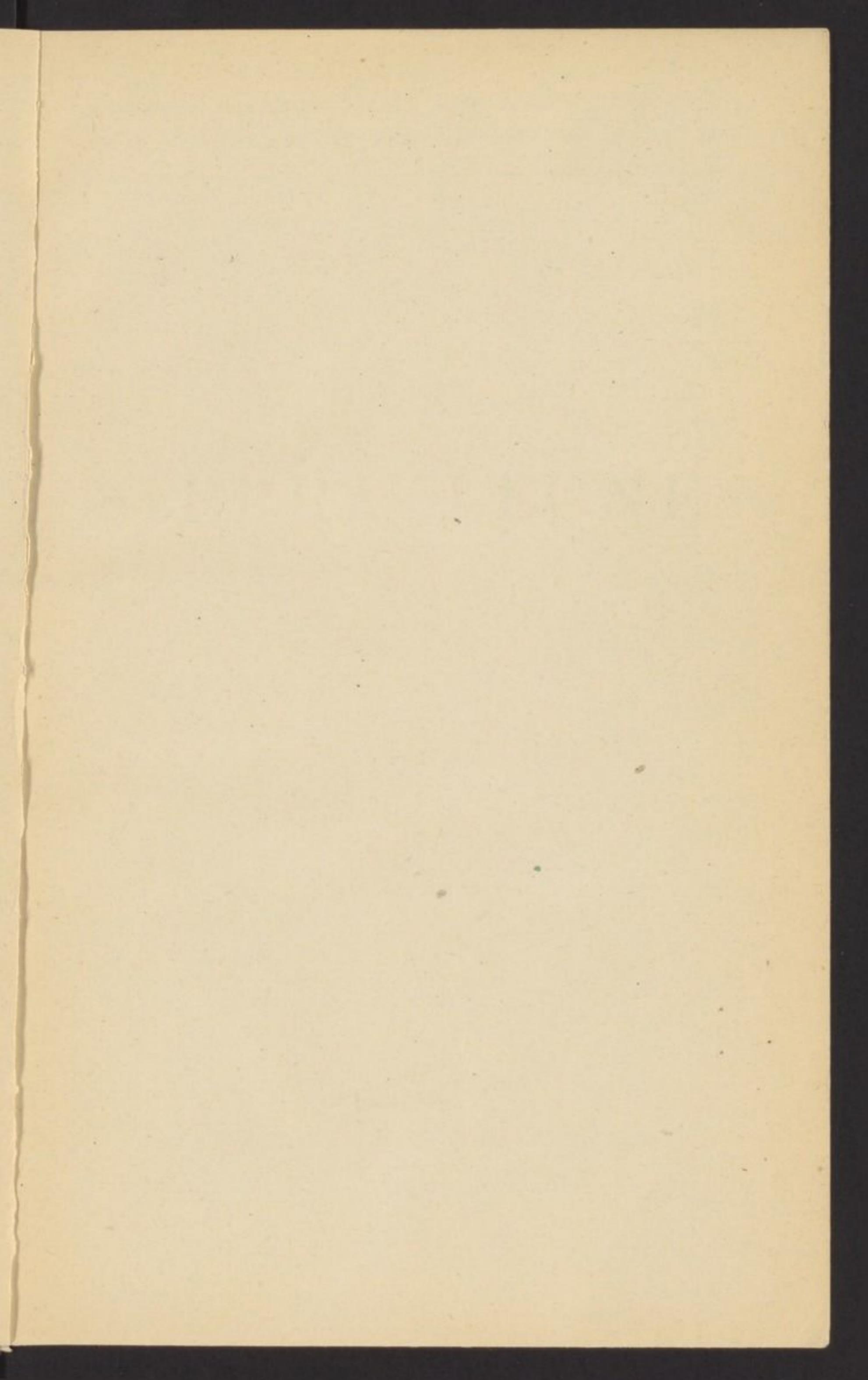


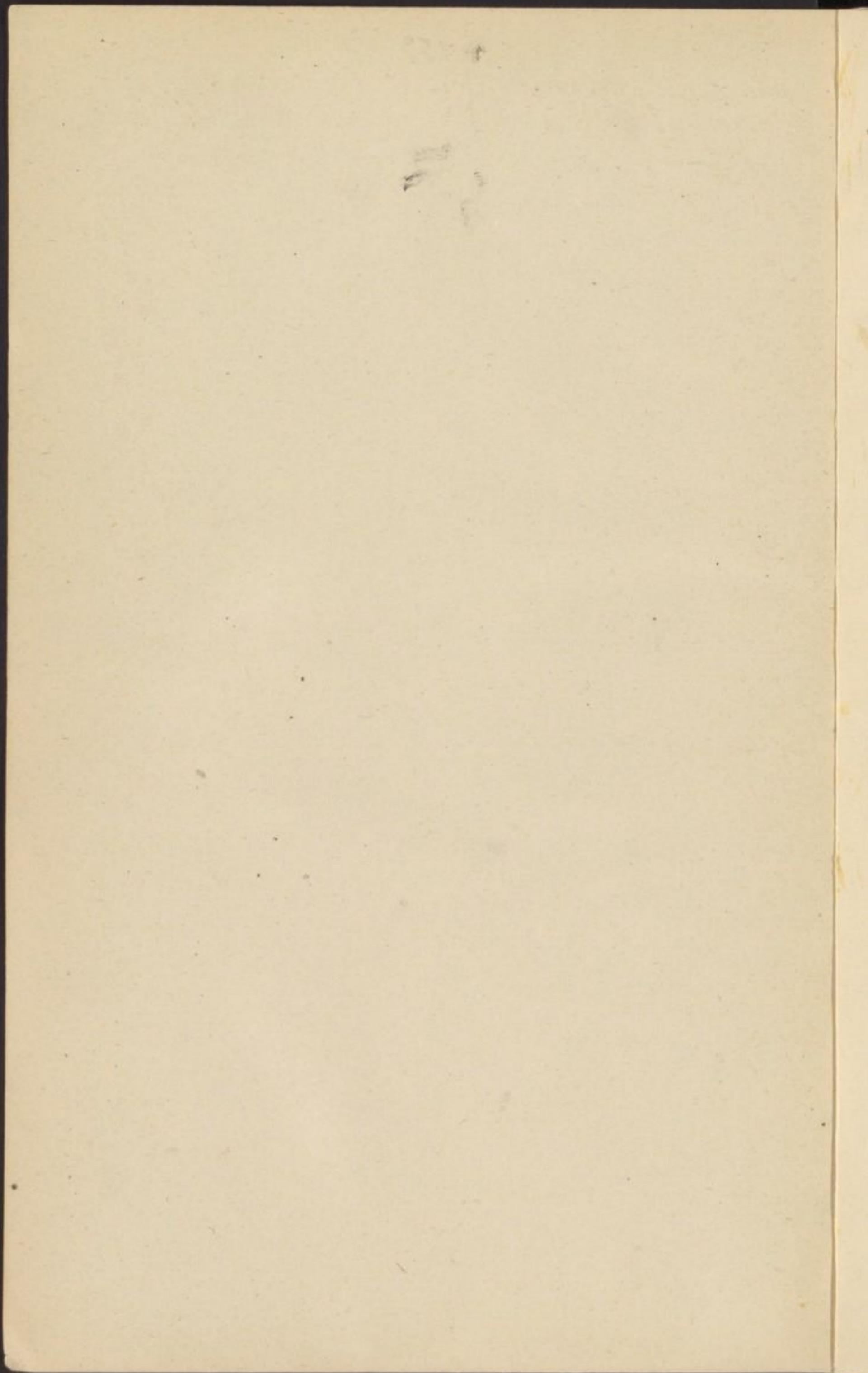
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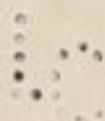
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HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE ^{Int. Sect.} FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 92

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SIERRA LEONE



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Editorial Note.

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

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

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

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

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 territory of Sierra Leone, of which part of the coastal area is a colony, while the rest is a protectorate, lies between $6^{\circ} 55'$ and 10° north latitude and $10^{\circ} 16'$ and $13^{\circ} 19'$ west longitude. It is bounded on the south-west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north-west, north, and the northern part of the east by the colony of French Guinea, and on the southern part of the east by the negro republic of Liberia. It is situated close to the main trade routes between Europe and West and South Africa, and not far from the routes from Europe across the South Atlantic Ocean. The total area of the territory is about 27,300 square miles, of which about 550 square miles constitute the Colony.

The northern frontier runs in a north-easterly direction from Kiragbe (lat. $9^{\circ} 2' N.$) on the coast to the point where the Little Skarcies river crosses the tenth parallel of north latitude. The boundary then runs due east along the parallel for 45 miles. The eastern frontier has a generally south-easterly direction as far as the confluence of the Meli and Moa rivers, and a generally south-westerly direction from a point about 20 miles further south, where the meridian of longitude $10^{\circ} 39'$ west cuts the Mauwa river, to the sea at the mouth of the Mano. In between, a kind of peninsula of British territory, about 20 miles wide, juts out eastward between Liberia and French Guinea. Its northern boundary is the Moa valley, as far as the confluence of the Dundogbia river, at $10^{\circ} 19'$ west longitude, and its southern the Magoi and Mauwa valleys for about an equal distance, these being connected by an arbitrary line.

It will be seen from the map that rivers are utilised as boundaries to a considerable extent. Tribal limits are followed for the most part, except that the Kissi tribe is divided by the line drawn from the eastern limit on the Moa to the eastern limit on the Magoi.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, RIVERS, AND LAKES

Surface.—The country north of the 9th parallel is a confused mass of hills and grassy plateaux, varying in altitude from 800 to 3,000 feet. South of that parallel an undulating plain, with a few isolated hills and ridges, slopes towards the sea. Along the coast is a level strip varying from 10 to 40 miles in width, except in the Sierra Leone peninsula, which is covered by wooded hills, with an extreme altitude of 2,494 feet. The peninsula is 25 miles long, 12 miles wide, and has an area of about 280 square miles.

Practically the whole country is suitable for cultivation and settlement, except some of the higher ground in the north, and some rocky hills and swamps to the south. No detailed study of the soil has been made, but it appears to be fertile in most parts. Up to an altitude of about 2,000 feet much of the surface is covered with red laterite. Often this is combined with syenite, and is then very fertile, though when unmixed it is hard and barren. Above 2,000 feet the soil is usually composed of disintegrated gneiss and granite, of no great fertility. Along both the Skarcies rivers there is wonderfully rich soil, derived from dolerite, and the alluvium of the mangrove swamps in the coastal area produces extraordinary crops of wet rice. In the east there are large areas of good agricultural land, consisting of decomposed hornblendic granite.

There is an ample supply everywhere of surface and subsoil water. It is stated, however, that the disappearance of the rain-forest is resulting in the washing away of the surface soil in many places, and so is increasing the volume of flood-water in the rivers and reducing the amount of sub-soil water.

Coast.—The coast is 210 miles in length. It is low-lying, except along the Sierra Leone peninsula, and is intersected by numerous creeks and lagoons, bordered by mangrove forests. There are few bays, but there are a number of capes and headlands. The most important, named from north to south, are Ballo Point, Cape Sierra Leone, Cape Shilling (225 feet high), Shenge (Tasso) Point, and Cape St. Ann. There are a good many islands off the coast. Among these may be noted groups in the estuaries of the Great and Little Skarcies rivers, the Banana Islands off Cape Shilling, the Turtle Islands off Cape St. Ann, and the large Sherbro Island (250 square miles). Turner's Peninsula, in the south-west, is practically an island. It consists of a low-lying stretch of land about 60 miles long and 8 miles wide at its broadest point, separating from the sea the lagoon formed by the Bum-Kittam river, the Kittam river, and other stretches of water.

Rivers.—The land is watered by a large number of streams. The chief rivers, named from north to south, are the Great Skarcies or Kolente; the Little Skarcies or Kabba; the Rokelle or Seli; the Jong, called in its upper course the Taia, Pampana, or Sanden; the Great Bum or Sewa, which unites with the Kittam to form the Bum-Kittam; the Sulima or Moa; and the Mano, known in its upper waters as the Morro. These have courses varying in length from 300 to 500 miles. Among important tributaries may be noted the Mango and the Mabole, feeding the Little Skarcies; the Bagwe, feeding the Sewa; and the Meli and Mauwa, feeding the Moa. None of the rivers is ever dry, and most of them contain a considerable volume of water throughout the year. Even in the dry season the Moa cannot be forded even so far inland as Baiima on the railway, and the Morro is 50 yards wide at Goli near the Liberian frontier.

Lakes.—Eleven lakes are known, and there may be others in the interior. Lake Kasse (9 miles long by 3 miles wide) and Lake Mabessi (6 miles long by 3 miles wide) form part of the upper waters of the Kittam

river, behind Turner's Peninsula. Smaller lakes in the North Sherbro district are Poppi, Kamasun, Kwarko, Baiama, and Masatoi. There are three small lakes on Sherbro Island. Lake Sonfon ($2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long by $\frac{3}{4}$ mile wide), in the Koinadugu district, is the source of one of the feeders of the Jong river.

(3) CLIMATE

Little information is available about the climate of the interior, but it is known that on the coast there are two seasons, the wet and the dry, of which the former lasts from May to October.

At Freetown, during a period of 21 years ending with 1916, the average annual rainfall was 164.8 inches (4,194 mm.). July and August are the wettest months, the average monthly fall in them having been 32.2 inches (818 mm.) during a period of 19 years, while during the same period in January, February, and March, which are the driest months, the average monthly fall was only 0.7 inch (18 mm.). In the interior the rains appear to begin a month or so earlier, and are said to be less heavy than on the coast. This latter statement is borne out by the fact that at Kaballa (about lat. $9^{\circ} 30' N.$) the average annual rainfall for the three years ending 1916 was 83.7 inches (2,126 mm.) as compared with 126.3 inches (3,208 mm.), the corresponding figure at Freetown during the same period. The rainy season all over the country opens and closes with heavy thunderstorms, which are said to be more violent in the Karina district than elsewhere.

The prevailing wind on the coast is from the west; but throughout the territory the *harmattan*, a dry easterly wind, blows between December and February. From April to August inclusive there is said to be a sea-breeze on the coast during the hottest part of the day.

The average maximum temperature at Freetown was $88^{\circ} F.$ ($31^{\circ} C.$) during the 12 years ending

in 1916; and during the same period the average minimum temperature was 72° F. (22° C.). The hottest months are February to April inclusive, and the coolest are July and August, which also are the wettest. During the five years 1909-1913 the highest recorded (shade) temperature at Freetown was 101° F. (38° C.), and the lowest was 60° F. (15° C.).

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The coastal climate is damp, hot, and unhealthy for Europeans, but the interior is much less trying, and is said to be suitable for European planters. Malaria is common among both Europeans and natives, and accounts for the death of many native infants; but the natives are also very subject to diseases of the respiratory organs, and it is said that in the interior more of them die of bronchitis than of malaria. Small-pox, a dry-season disease, is endemic, and sometimes assumes serious proportions; there was an outbreak of it in 1915, but good results have followed the introduction of compulsory vaccination in some districts. The annual total of vaccinations has risen from 10,000 to nearly 90,000. Dysentery, blackwater fever, elephantiasis, and skin diseases are common. Sleeping sickness, although said to be increasing, has not become a serious plague so far; but since *glossina palpalis* is found everywhere, it may extend. Yellow fever has been much reduced. The natives have a considerable knowledge of the medicinal uses of plants.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

In the Colony proper the inhabitants are mostly Sierra Leoneans or Creoles. These people are descendants of the original settlers, and of the liberated slaves, who were imported into this part of Africa in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. They are of many African nationalities, mixed, in some cases, with a little European blood. Their language is English, and they are Christians.

In the Protectorate there are 14 principal tribes, all speaking different languages. These are divided into many clans (the Timmani alone have at least 25 clans), some of whom speak different dialects. The most important of the tribes are the Mendi (about 420,000), who are found in the southern parts of the Ronietta and Railway districts¹; the Timmani (about 300,000), whose country lies in the southern part of the Karina district and the eastern part of the Ronietta district; the Limba (about 100,000), who live in the north-western parts of the Karina and Koinadugu districts; the Sherbro (about 80,000), found along the coast south of the Sierra Leone peninsula; the Susu (about 60,000), in the north; and the Kuranko (about 60,000), in the Railway district north of the Konno. Of these tribes the Mendi, the Lokko (about 26,000), and the Krim (about 9,000), who are probably branches of the Mendi, with the Vai (or Vei, about 8,000), who possibly are a branch of the Mendi, but more probably belong to the Mandingo tribe, as well as the Sherbro and their branch, the Bullom (about 5,000), are classed as autochthonous; the others, together with the Fula (about 9,000), the Mandingo (about 10,000), and the Yalunka (about 8,000), who are a branch of the Susu, are thought to be descendants of invaders from the north. Most of these distinctions of origin, however, are of a somewhat speculative character. In addition to the connections given above, it should be stated that the Konno, the Kuranko, and perhaps the Susu are branches of the Mandingo, while the Timmani are connected with the Baga, of French Guinea. The Mandingo, the Fula, and the Susu are far more numerous beyond the British frontier, in French Guinea; while the Vai and Gora are more numerous in Liberia.

As regards the origin of the languages spoken there is much speculation, and few authorities are in agreement; it seems, however, that Fula is a Hamitic

¹ The Railway district is the central eastern district marked Panguma on the map.

language, while the others are Sudanese. Of these Sherbro, Bullom, Krim, Timmani, and Limba belong to the prefix group, while Mendi, Lokko, Vai, Mandingo, Konno, Kuranko, Susu, and Yalunka belong to the non-prefix group. There is, as might be expected, much overlapping of languages; for instance, Mendi is absorbing Sherbro, Krim, and Vai; while Bullom is being displaced by Timmani. Of the numerous dialects, some differ greatly from others, and some differ but slightly.

(6) POPULATION

The Colony proper, that is to say, practically the Sierra Leone peninsula and Sherbro Island, contained at the last census (1911) a population of 75,572; of these about 60,000 were Creoles, who are town-dwellers. The aboriginal inhabitants, who are estimated to number about 1,300,000 in the Protectorate and about 15,000 in the Colony, live on the land; all are farmers except the pastoral Fula, who number about 9,000 and are a nomadic or semi-nomadic race, and some of the Susu. In addition to Creoles and natives there were in 1916 over 500 non-military Europeans, officials and traders, and also some 3,000 Syrians (said by some to be Beyroutis, and by others to come from various parts of the Mediterranean area), who are spreading over almost every part of the country where trade can be carried on.

It appears from the above estimate of population that the inhabitants number about 50 to the square mile, a figure which seems high for such a country. The probability of the population having been estimated at an excessive number is increased by the fact that there is only one town of any size in the whole territory, and that reports indicate that there is a difficulty about obtaining labour for ordinary agricultural work.

The chief towns are Freetown, Bonthe, and Waterloo; there are a few smaller towns along the coast, and

some townships inhabited by Creoles in the Colony. In the Protectorate the natives live in villages of which the populations vary from about 50 to several hundreds. The sites of these villages appear to have been selected mainly on account of their proximity to land suitable for agriculture, and at present new villages are being made near good agricultural land when the land surrounding the old villages can no longer support their population.

Nothing definite is known concerning the increase or decrease of the population, the census figures for the Colony not furnishing reliable facts for comparative purposes, while those for the Protectorate are only estimates. The registration records of births and deaths in the Colony, which have been maintained since January 1, 1914, tend to show that the deaths considerably exceed the births; but this may not indicate a falling population, since of recent years there has been an influx from the interior into the Colony of men seeking for work, who probably do not bring their women with them. Indeed, there is some evidence to show that the cessation of wars and slave raids in the hinterland is resulting, as might be expected, in an increase of the population. So far as is known, no migratory movements of any importance are in progress.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1787-88 Beginning of the British settlement.
1808 Sierra Leone made a Crown Colony.
1818 Acquisition of the Iles de Los.
1861 Acquisition of Sherbro.
1866 Seat of Government for British West Africa.
1882 First Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
1885 Boundary with Liberia settled.
1888 Sierra Leone constituted a separate Colony.
1889 Second Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
1891 Third Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
1895 Fourth Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
1904 Iles de Los ceded to France.
1911-13 Final Agreement with France and Liberia.

(1) ORIGIN OF THE COLONY

SIERRA LEONE owed its origin in 1787-88 to philanthropic efforts to find a home for freed African slaves and other negroes who had fallen into destitution in the United Kingdom; and, after some vicissitudes, direct government by the Crown of the territory so acquired was brought into force in 1808. The original territory was gradually increased through successive cessions by native rulers; and, though this process was temporarily arrested by the resolution (1865) of the Select Committee of the House of Commons in favour of the restriction of British authority in West Africa, it was shortly afterwards renewed.

(2) RELATIONS WITH FRANCE

The process of expansion was, however, checked by the development of French activity; and so early as

June 28, 1882, an agreement with France assigned to Great Britain the basin of the Skarcies river as the western boundary of the Colony and British sphere, and reserved the basin of the Mellakore to France. Further definition of the boundary between French Guinea and Sierra Leone was effected by the treaties of August 10, 1889, June 26, 1891, and January 21, 1895.¹ The net effect of the agreement of 1891, which embodied an "express understanding" that, in the region of the Upper Niger, "both banks of the Niger shall remain in the sphere of French influence," was definitely to terminate the possibility of extending the British sphere to the Upper Niger. The Îles de Los were ceded in 1904 to France as part of the settlement of the Newfoundland fisheries question; and certain modifications of the frontier were agreed to, which were further altered by an exchange of notes (July 6, 1911),² and an agreement of September 4, 1913.³

(3) RELATIONS WITH LIBERIA

The boundary with Liberia on the east was long under discussion, until in 1882 the government of Sierra Leone obtained from the natives cessions of territory up to the Mano river, which Liberia recognised as the boundary by the treaty of November 11, 1885. The boundary was provisionally marked out by commissioners in 1902-3, but was altered by a treaty of January 21, 1911,⁴ in order to secure for Great Britain a portion of the Kissi country in exchange for a cession of territory between the Mano and Morro rivers. An agreement of April 10, 1913, provides for rules respecting the navigation of the Mano river.⁵ A

¹ For the Treaties or Agreements of 1882, 1889, 1891, see Africa, No. 7, 1892 (C. 6701, June 1892).

² Cd. 6101.

³ Cd. 7147.

⁴ Cd. 5719.

⁵ Cd. 6803.

boundary commission of 1913-14 marked out the boundary from the River Moa in the north to the River Magowi in the south; and the boundary so delimited was accepted by an exchange of notes of June 19-26, 1917.¹

¹ Cd. 8589.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

CHRISTIANITY is represented most prominently by the Anglicans; but the Wesleyans, United Methodists, and Roman Catholics, as well as some minor sects, are also active. Of late years, however, Christianity appears to have made comparatively little progress, while Mohammedanism has been fairly successful; but paganism still largely prevails.

(2) POLITICAL

In 1821, and again in 1866, Sierra Leone was made the centre of the administration of the British West African territories, the other colonies being placed in a relation of dependence. Since 1888, however, when the Gambia was made a separate colony, Sierra Leone has been on the same footing as the other West African colonies. The result of the settlement of 1895 with France was to render it necessary to place under effective administration the territories now recognized as within the British sphere of influence; in 1897 authority to legislate for the government of these territories was vested in the Legislative Council of the Colony, and a scheme of Government was introduced. The imposition of a hut tax, as part of the scheme and its necessary financial basis, produced a revolt in 1898, which was not repressed until much damage had been done. By 1900, however, complete peace had been restored; and the control of the Government has steadily extended, despite the utter barbarism of a considerable proportion of the tribes of the Protectorate.

The legislative authority over the Colony and the Protectorate alike is exercised by the Governor in Legislative Council, this body consisting of five or six officials and four non-official persons nominated by the Crown. Throughout the Protectorate and the part of the Colony administered on the same lines, authority is exercised through the native chiefs under Government supervision; and native courts are permitted, on similar conditions, to exercise a considerable amount of jurisdiction in all cases affecting natives and resting on native law.

(3) PUBLIC EDUCATION

In the Colony elementary education is given in elementary mission schools, of which there were 112 in 1915. These schools receive State aid, and have an average attendance of about 4,800 pupils, whom they instruct in reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, elementary hygiene, and sanitation. Various crafts, history, geography, and nature study are included in the curriculum of most schools. There is also a governmental model elementary school in connexion with which teachers are trained; it has accommodation for 200 senior and 100 infant pupils, and undertakes work up to the Cambridge Senior Local standard. There are two industrial schools, one maintained by the Roman Catholics at Mohe, with Government aid, and one at Waterloo maintained by the Seventh Day Adventists; thirteen secondary schools, eight missionary and five proprietary, with an average attendance of 1,050; and a Diocesan Technical School, with 30 pupils (in 1915), at which instruction is given in the theory and practice of the building trade and kindred subjects. Fourah Bay College, which in 1915 had 15 students, is affiliated to the University of Durham, and is the only university college in West Africa. There are, further, five Mohammedan schools, with an average attendance of 411 (in 1915), at which the ordinary elementary school subjects, with the addition of Arabic, are taught.

In the Protectorate there is a governmental school at Bo for the training of the sons and nominees of chiefs (with 113 pupils in 1915), and an elementary day school at Bumpeh in the railway district. There are also a number of mission schools, most of which, however, are of limited value owing to the lack of funds for providing satisfactory teachers. The total expenditure on education is under £14,000 annually.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The principal features of Sierra Leone as a British colony may be summed up as follows. (1) It owes its origin entirely to philanthropy and peaceful cession, and is specially associated with the beginnings of the crusade against the slave trade and slavery. It has, therefore, a peculiar sentimental value in the eyes of a large number of British citizens, who might be more or less indifferent to political, military, and commercial grounds for maintaining or extending British overseas possessions. (2) It possesses a fine harbour, which is half-way to the Cape, and has been constituted a fortified Imperial coaling station. (3) It is encircled by French territory, except on the side where it marches with Liberia, a negro republic, whose origin was similar to its own. But (4), though cut off from the Niger basin, it possesses sufficient back-country to make it, with its coast districts, valuable for commercial purposes, apart from the value of the harbour and the associations of the Colony.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

IN Sierra Leone, as in other West African colonies, the secret of economic success lies in offering to the native inducements so considerable that he will be persuaded to exploit the natural wealth at his command instead of resting content with the bare necessities of existence. Among such inducements a high place belongs to cheap and easy transport. The palm belts in Sierra Leone are of wide extent, and incalculable quantities of oil and kernels are to be had for the taking; but for years tons of nuts rotted on the ground every season, simply because the regions where the palms flourish were cut off from the markets by miles of difficult country.

For this and other reasons the Government of Sierra Leone has devoted itself seriously to improving means of communication. The first Government railway in West Africa was opened here, and was persisted with in the face of many obstacles. Feeder roads have been built to bring the trade down to the stations on this line. Head carriage has been supplemented by revolving casks, by bullock-carts, by pack animals, and even, of late, by motor vehicles. Much, no doubt, remains to be done, both in adding to the main arteries of communication and in solving the problems of minor transport in regions distant from those main lines. Yet already a considerable improvement has been effected. Mr. T. J. Alldridge, whose experience as an official in Sierra Leone dates from 1871, travelled the length of the railway in 1910, noting the changes since first he was there. The impression he received is reflected in

the title he chose for his book—*A Transformed Colony: Sierra Leone*.

(a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

In the Colony, outside Freetown, there were in 1916 about 150 miles of roads maintained by the Public Works Department. These are mostly unmetalled, become badly rutted in the rainy season, and are easily overgrown with grass and small bush.

A separate Roads Department for the Protectorate was formed in January 1913, and has under its care all first- and second-class roads, while the third-class roads are still under the control of the District Commissioners, and are cleaned and kept in order by the chiefs. The total mileage was estimated in 1914 as 1,361 miles, 68 of the first class, 81 of the second, and 1,212 of the third. All these roads are unmetalled, but the first-class roads are wider and have steel and concrete bridges, whereas the rest are only provided with the native "stick" bridges, ingenious but often unsafe. In a country full of deep ravines this is no small consideration.

Feeder roads, with a hard surface, and often planted with shade trees, now converge upon the more important railway stations—Moyamba, Bo, Blama, Hangha, Segbwima, Baiima, Pendembu, and others. The case of Bo is a good illustration of the value of such roads. The railway line reached this point as early as 1903, but the place remained unknown to traders, while the natives continued to take their produce to Sumbuya, for Bonthe, by a time-honoured route which crossed the line some ten miles nearer to Freetown. In 1906, however, the Government built a road connecting Bo with Mandu and the palm country to the north. Two European firms and other traders then set up stores, a market was created, the old Sumbuya route was deserted, and to-day Bo is one of the busiest up-country stations. One of the latest roads made, running north-east from Pendembu to Kanre Lahun (Kailahun), and forming

the main artery of trade with the French Kissis, is suitable for mechanical transport.

A large part of the Protectorate, however, is still unprovided with other means of communication than the tortuous native tracks. In the slave-trade days these were purposely kept narrow and overgrown, so as to facilitate escape and concealment. Now, however, many chiefs are applying their energies to straightening and improving them.

The quantity of produce which can be dealt with, of course, depends largely on the nature of the roads available. On the bush-tracks the only transport is by native carriers, who trot along in single file, with their burden in palm-leaf baskets, 6 ft. in length by 9 in. in width, strapped on head or back. The regulation load for Government transport is 50 lb., though the native carrying for himself or his chief can manage as much as 100 lb., or even 150 lb. for a short distance. All sorts of efforts have been made to supplement this slow and expensive method. In 1909 a forest official suggested that elephants, which are plentiful in the forest near the Morro river, might be tamed and trained for transport purposes. On the feeder roads leading to Hangha loads are dragged along in revolving casks with iron handles. These can be hired at a small charge, and are made in two sizes. The larger, which must be drawn by four men, takes a load of 700 lb., and the smaller, which two men can manage, 300 lb. The constant revolution, however, would damage any goods except kernels or cement. Sometimes use is made of a four-wheeled bullock wagon, which can carry 1 ton. Motor lorries would be better still, and a few have been landed. On the present roads, however, they could not be used very extensively.

(b) *Rivers*

Sierra Leone is well provided with waterways, though they are not all or always useful for transport purposes. Streams which in the rains are navigable

for large vessels are of little use in the dry season. Moreover, many of the rivers have rocky beds impeded by boulders. However, several retain a considerable volume of water even when at their lowest, and water transport is always cheaper than land transport. Consequently, the streams in the north were formidable competitors to the first 60 miles of the railway, while those in the south continue to serve a region which is left untouched by the railway. European firms place their factories at the navigable heads of these rivers, and the produce collected there is sent down to the coast in native surf-boats and canoes.

The principal navigable rivers in the north are the Great Skarcies, the Little Skarcies and the Rokelle, which in its estuary receives the name of the Sierra Leone river. This last is navigable for 40 miles, to Mabile, while a regular electric launch service plies from Freetown up the northern arm of the estuary to Port Lokko. If a similar service were instituted along the Great Skarcies to Tawiya (30 miles), the whole of the northern alluvial coast lands would be brought into touch with the capital.

The central part of the coast is served by the Bumpe, navigable to Rotifunk (25 miles), and the Walle, navigable to Senahu (20 miles).

In the south there is a fine waterway, known as the Sherbro river, between the mainland and Sherbro Island. Into this flow the Bagru, navigable to Tasso (20 miles) and the Jong, navigable for 15 miles. Next comes the Bum-Kittam, flowing parallel with the coast behind Turner's Peninsula, and navigable during the rains by craft drawing 12 ft. of water for 35 miles. The Great Bum river, which flows south into the Kittam, is only practicable in the wet season as far as Mafwe Falls (30 miles). The Upper Kittam is navigable for about 25 miles. Further south, again, is the Sulima or Moa river, blocked 20 miles from its mouth by falls at Wedaro.

It has been suggested that trade would be stimulated if a light-draught steamer could run regularly between

Sherbro and Freetown. Such a course, however, involves a very dangerous bit of navigation across Yawri Bay.

(c) *Railways*

Railway System in general.—"There is nothing remarkable about the Sierra Leone Government Railway," wrote Mr. Alldridge, "except that it is where it is." By this he meant not only that the line, carried through forest and mountain, has had to overcome huge natural difficulties, but also that it has plunged into the heart of country which till its appearance seemed utterly remote from civilization. It passes through districts which quite recently were fastnesses of cannibalism and fetishism, the haunt of "human leopard societies," the scene of the barbarous outrages of the revolt of 1898. "What a civiliser this railway has been!" wrote Sir Harry Johnston, pointing the contrast between old and new by the story of the polite attendant at the refreshment-bar, some two-thirds of the way up the line, whom he identified as a man formerly on trial for killing and eating a human victim.

Commercial expansion has also followed the development of the railway, though it was not until the palm country was reached in 1904 that the effects began to be evident. Whereas in 1901-3 the average annual value of palm-kernels exported was £186,000, in 1905-8 it was £344,000. In the same period the total average value of exports rose from £375,000 to £711,000.

The total mileage open to traffic at the end of the year 1916, exclusive of sidings, was 354 miles. The gauge throughout is 2 ft. 6 in., and the same rolling-stock is used on all lines. Some surprise has been expressed that a 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, uniform with the Nigeria and Gold Coast lines, was not adopted, but it must be remembered that the cost of a broader gauge would have been prohibitive at the time when Sierra Leone made its first railway experiment. If, however, lines are built in Liberia to link up with the Sierra

Leone system, the problem will arise anew, and it may be that the wisest decision will be to scrap the present line, and secure the advantages of a broad-gauge heavy railway.

The present system is made up of five principal parts:—

(1) The main line, 220 miles in length, running south-eastward from Freetown by Waterloo, Boia, Bo, and Blama to Baiima. The country is intersected by deep tropical gorges, and in the first 20 miles no less than 11 steel viaducts had to be built. Among these may be noted the Orogu viaduct, 386 ft. long and 74 ft. high; the Maroon viaduct, 330 ft. long and 82 ft. high; and the Ribbi viaduct, with nine spans and a total length of 662 ft. The rivers which these viaducts bridge used to be serious impediments to travel. In 1894, for example, the Governor and his column took three hours to cross the Ribbi river, their only means of transport being four dug-out canoes. Further up the line there are other huge bridges, such as those over the Taia (589 ft.), the Sewa (718 ft.) and the Moa (633 ft). The first sod was cut for the line in 1896, and the first section was opened to the public in 1899. Bo was reached in 1903, Blama in 1904, and Baiima in 1905.

(2) A tramway extension from Baiima to Pendembu, close to the Liberian frontier. The trains run along a road 12 ft. wide, with clearings to a width of 66 ft. For a considerable distance the road is a raised causeway above swamps.

(3) A branch leaving the main line at Boia Junction, 63 miles from Freetown, and running north-east through the palm-growing Yonni country, by Yonni-banna and Makump, and so across the Rokell river to Makene and Kamabai. This last point, 104 miles from Boia, was reached in February 1917.

(4) A mountain railway, 6 miles in length, with gradients as steep as 1 in 22, from Freetown to Hill Station, 800 ft. above the town. This was completed in 1904.

(5) Lines connecting the Freetown terminus with the Government wharf, the Government quarry, &c.

Financial Considerations.—West African railways in their early days were a very controversial subject, and in some quarters their cost was considered an excessive charge upon colonial resources. It is true that a large part of the public debt of Sierra Leone was due to expenditure on the railways; but, as the Governor pointed out in 1908, when there was a deficit of more than £20,000 in the Colony's finances for the year, the expenditure was well considered, and made with a view to the future. Mr. Shelford, an engineer prominent in the construction of West African railways, in a lecture to the African Society in 1902, vigorously defended the Sierra Leone line against its critics. He pointed out that a distinguished engineer had once estimated its probable cost at £10,000 a mile; that a well-known contractor had offered to do it for £8,000 a mile; but that the first section of 32 miles had in actual fact cost only £4,200 a mile. For purposes of comparison he instanced the Congo railway, which cost £10,400 a mile.

For the first five years of its existence, and the first 168 miles of its course, the railway had to live mainly on hopes. In 1904 the working expenses exceeded the receipts by £5,000. Since then, however, both the main line and the Yonni tramway have tapped the palm-yielding country, and the prospects are brighter. In 1916 the railway carried 503,706 passengers and 54,570 tons of goods. The revenue was £156,429 and the working expenditure £127,466, so that there was a surplus of £28,963 in earnings over expenses. This represents 1·8 per cent. on the total capital expenditure of £1,612,143. The receipts were higher than for any year since the war began, though not so high as in 1913, when they reached their maximum of £167,661. Goods traffic was the principal source of revenue, totalling £115,996 in 1916, as against £35,139 earned by coaching traffic (passengers, parcels, and luggage). It must

be remembered that in Sierra Leone the only land system of telegraphs and telephones is under the control of the railway, which in 1916 earned from this source £2,497.

A return showing the revenue and working expenses from 1907-1916 will be found in Appendix II, p. 50.

(d) Posts, Telegraphs, Telephones

At the end of 1916, 45 post offices and postal agencies were open. Savings-bank business was transacted at 11 of these, money-order business at 23, and postal-order business at 36. In 1913 there were 53 offices open, but postal business fell off considerably after the outbreak of the late war. It seems now to be growing again, for in 1916 the revenue amounted to £8,046, an increase of £573 over the previous year. In any case, temporary interruptions are inconsiderable as compared with the rapid expansion over the last 20 years. In 1898 there were 23 post offices, 4 money-order offices, and no postal-order offices.

The only non-military land telegraph system is under the control of the Railway Department. Telegraph and telephone services are in operation between Freetown and Pendembu, and between Boia and Kamabai on the branch line. There are important transmitting centres at Boia and Bo, and sub-stations at Songo Town, from which messages are telephoned to Port Lokko, and at Mano, from which telegraph lines run south for $71\frac{1}{2}$ miles through Sirabu and Sengema to Bendu. There is a telegraph line from Sengema to Pujehun (47 miles). In all, more than 1,100 miles of wire are in use. A public telephone exchange was opened at Freetown in 1916, and connected with Hill Station, the Government offices, and the chief mercantile houses. Both the telegraph and telephone services have been much improved of late years.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

Accommodation.—The chief ports, named from south to north, are Mano Sulija and Sulima, both close to the Liberian frontier; Sherbro harbour; Freetown, on the Sierra Leone peninsula; and Mahela, on the point between the estuaries of the Great and Little Skarcies rivers. A full list of the number and tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at these ports is given in Appendix III (a), p. 50. It should be noted, however, that here and there the facts are rather disguised by the figures. For instance, the majority of the vessels which call at Sherbro and go on to Freetown are recorded at the latter. Whereas in 1912 and 1913 only one ship is recorded as entered at Sherbro, 135 in the former year and 151 in the latter called at the port. Ships entered at Mano Sulija are often cleared at Sulima or Freetown.

The approach to the Sierra Leone river is difficult at night or during the season of haze produced by the *harmattan* wind. Once past Cape Sierra Leone, however, the course for five miles lies in deep water, close to the shore, till Freetown is reached. Here the depth of water is sufficient for the largest vessels afloat, and, although ocean-going steamers cannot go alongside the wharves, passengers and goods can be landed in boats in still water all the year round. There is a Government wharf, 1,150 ft. in length, with a depth alongside of 5 ft. at low water and 15 ft. at high water. The railway lines run to this wharf, from which there have been built out two new screw pile jetties, each 100 ft. long, with a depth of 20 ft. alongside at high water. These are being lengthened, and a third jetty, 145 ft. long, with rails and a travelling crane, has been constructed. There are five private wharves. A new export wharf is under construction at Cline Town, and when this is finished steamers will be able to go alongside to load.

Sherbro harbour is the name given to the whole channel behind Sherbro Island, on which is the town

of Bonthe, and a considerable volume of river-borne trade is dealt with there. Vessels drawing 24 ft. of water can ascend as far as Bobs Island, about 20 miles from the open sea; craft drawing 18 ft. can go on 10 miles further, to York Island; while those drawing 8 ft. can reach Bonthe.

Nature and Volume of Trade.—Before the outbreak of war many of the vessels calling at Freetown were German, and many British vessels calling were engaged in trade with German ports. The total shipping inwards in 1913 was 993 ships, with a total tonnage of 1,463,602 tons. Of these, the British tonnage was 1,025,591, or 70 per cent.; while German tonnage was 406,811, or 27 per cent. The German shipping had been steadily on the increase for years. Under the abnormal conditions produced by the war British shipping has risen to 91 per cent.

Details of inward shipping between 1912 and 1916 will be found in Appendix III (b) and (c), p. 51. Outward shipping is practically the same.

Adequacy to Economic Needs.—The resources of Freetown harbour are not yet sufficient for dealing with a big overseas trade. Since 1914 the port has become more widely known among shipowners and merchants, and it is essential to proceed with the improvements in appliances for handling cargo.

(b) Shipping Lines

In Appendix III (d) will be found a table of the principal lines of steamers which traded with Sierra Leone in 1912 and 1913. The express mail and passenger boats of the Woermann Line began to call in 1911, and on account of their excellent accommodation and punctuality were prospering at the expense of some of the British lines. Elder, Dempster & Co. used to have a weekly mail service to Freetown from Liverpool; there are now about three mail boats a month. The same firm's new cargo service between New York and West Africa calls at Sierra Leone.

(c) *Telegraphic Communication*

Telegrams can be sent to all parts of the world from any railway station through the African Direct Telegraph Company, Freetown.

There is a wireless station at Freetown, under the control of the same company, with a normal range of 250 nautical miles.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

Supply of Labour.—There seems nowadays to be an adequate supply of labour for ordinary purposes, though, when large numbers of carriers were wanted for military expeditions, or labourers for the railway, there was not a sufficient surplus available without temporary neglect of agriculture. In the Protectorate the natives all work their own farms, so that there is no question of labour employed by planters. In the Colony the Sierra Leoneans do no agricultural labour, but employ natives for their household and farm work. Traders and the Government require a limited amount of paid labour, and this is readily obtainable at rates varying from 6*d.* to 9*d.* a day.

Before 1898 labourers from Sierra Leone sought service outside the Colony in large numbers, but they now no longer do so.

Labour Conditions.—Under the native tribal system the chiefs, heads of families, families, and so-called “slaves,” who might be more accurately described as serfs, all work together, partly for their own good and partly for the community.

“Casual observers who have seen native families travelling along the roads, the man walking ahead, and his women-folk following behind carrying such few household goods as they take with them, may be tempted to suppose that the men allow the women to do all the work. Such is not the case, and the admirable and economical division of labour between the men and the women is a remarkable feature of native life. The men do the heavy agricultural work, road-clearing, sowing,

palm-climbing, roof-building, carrying heavy loads; the women crack the nuts, extract the oil, weed, and prepare and apply the mud with which the houses are plastered, while the children are usefully employed in looking after the poultry. In the tribal community every individual has his place; none are overlooked, and pauperism is unknown. A native, on being informed that in Europe men have died of starvation, greets the assertion with incredulity.¹

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The mainstay of Sierra Leone is the oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis*), which is indigenous, and finds congenial soil and nutriment almost everywhere in the Protectorate. The exceptions are rocky or swampy strips, and dry lands in the extreme north, where there is not enough moisture except beside the streams. These areas apart, Sierra Leone is covered with dense stretches of palm forest. Authorities are unanimous in laying stress on the enormous wealth of the country in this respect, and in deploring the carelessness of the native, who destroys the trees in quantities to make room for his rice farms. As long ago as 1795 Dr. Afzelius noted the prevalence of this "common, handsome, and useful tree"; while in 1916 Mr. Lane Poole, of the Forest Department, stated that

"a time will come when all the palm trees in the country will have to yield their fruit to the merchant, and it is quite impossible to have too many of this valuable species."

The variety of palm which grows in Sierra Leone, however, has a thin pericarp and a thick-shelled kernel. Palm-oil is taken from the pericarp only, so that the yield of oil in proportion to kernels is not so great as in parts of Africa, such as the Gold Coast, where the pericarp is more fleshy.

In 1912 it seemed likely that an era of rapid development would begin for the palm industry. Lever Bros.

¹ Annual Report, 1908, p. 61.

secured a monopoly for 21 years for the extraction of palm-oil and cracking of kernels by machinery over an area of several hundred square miles in the Yonnibanna district. They opened a large factory with the latest machinery close to a private railway siding. Unfortunately the natives could not be convinced that the scheme, so far from interfering with the local palm industry, would be to its ultimate benefit. Some chiefs gave their support, but labour was not readily offered, and in 1915 it was decided to close the factory and transfer the plant to the Gold Coast.

Next in importance, in the present state of export trade, comes the kola tree (*Cola acuminata*), which grows wild in certain forests, and is also nowadays extensively cultivated both in the Colony and in the Protectorate. Almost every village has its kola grove, but the native "so works his plantation that he gets the minimum possible yield from the maximum number of trees." He surrounds his plants with "medicine" to guard them against misfortune, but himself brings disaster upon them by crowding the plants, nipping off the shoots of seedlings when they are only 3 ft. high, encouraging the parasite mistletoe, and making deep cuts in the stem. The tree has many insect and fungoid enemies. Better methods of cultivation would be well repaid, for there is a huge demand among the Mohammedan natives of Africa for the fresh nuts. They are not easy to market, however, for they can only be kept fresh by constant renewal of the thick leaves in which they are packed.

Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*), which was introduced to tropical Africa from the East, grows pretty freely in the Ronietta and Railway districts. The soil, however, which is laterite gravel, does not bring the roots to a very large size. The native is apt to leave them in the ground too long, and uses sand to rub off the outer skin, a method which for himself has the advantage of adding a good deal of sand to the weight of the finished product, but which for the purchaser has obvious

disadvantages. Consequently, Sierra Leone ginger is not likely to command a high price.

There are fine forests of camwood (*Baphia nitida*), and the fast red dye to be obtained from this tree acquired a sudden export value in 1914, when the supply of aniline dyes ran short. This was, however, only temporary.

Many fibre-producing plants are indigenous. The native makes stout fishing-lines from the mid-rib of the oil palm and coconut leaflets, while for delicate work he uses the fibre of the pineapple. The wine or bamboo palm (*Raphia vinifera*) is common, and the piassava obtained from it is of value for export as well as for local use, though prices in the European markets vary considerably. Sherbro piassava is considered to be the finest in West Africa.

Rubber is obtainable from various sources. Djenje rubber, a valuable kind, and Jawar rubber used to be got from two kinds of *Landolphia* vine, which grew widely in the rain forest. The natives, however, have destroyed many of the vines. *Funtumia elastica* is found in the forests, but the native's method of preparation is very defective. He fells the trees, covers them with dry grass, and sets this on fire, so that the heat may coagulate the latex. The bark is then bruised off with a stone and the debris washed in the nearest stream. The result is a dirty rubber fetching from 2s. to 2s. 6d. per lb. A cheap sort of rubber is also obtained from *Ficus vogelii*. Ceará rubber (*Manihot glaziovii*) was introduced, but its tapping presents special difficulties, not yet overcome. Better results might be obtained from Pará rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*), which has done well in various plantations. Of late years rubber prices have been low and the export on the down-grade, so that there was no stimulus to experiment. In 1916, however, 10 tons were exported, as against 1 ton in 1915, and the value was £1,848, as compared with £40. If this demand continues, it will be worth while to extend cultivation and protect the wild rubber.

Another product which has suffered heavily through native ignorance is gum copal, obtained from *Copaifera guibourtiana*. The trees were once very widely distributed, and even now exist in great numbers in certain places, notably on the Kassewe Hills, south-east of Yonnibanna. The natives, however, recklessly push their rice farms into the midst of the richest belts, and will even cut down a gum tree to make a bridge. Moreover, even when using the trees for their proper purpose, they tap them literally to death. Holes 1 in. square and $\frac{1}{4}$ in. deep are chopped all over the trunk with a small hoe. The gum exudes and hardens, and is collected without the least care about cleansing it and freeing it from chips and dirt. This misuse of natural wealth, however, is coming to an end; for the export of gum copal has been prohibited for five years from September 1913, and the Kassewe Hills were in 1914 made a forest reserve. With a long rest the trees will recover, for they exhibit in this region a marvellous capacity for natural regeneration.

Among foodstuffs, rice forms the staple food of the country, and, though not indigenous, has been cultivated from time immemorial. Swamp rice of fine quality is grown in the Timmani country, especially near Port Lokko, and hill rice, which is smaller and thinner, on dry land. African rice, though of high nutritive value, is dark in colour, and the rind is not thoroughly removed by the native method of pounding with pestle and mortar. It is possible, therefore, that it would never command a wide market in Europe. Its export to other parts of Africa, however, might be much developed. Early missionaries introduced American rice, which has done well on swampy ground. It is whiter in colour, and the grain has the advantage of being too big for the beaks of the local rice-birds.

Two sorts of millet, two sorts of cassava, and benni-seed, or sesame, are cultivated. In the Koinadugu district, in the north-east of the Protectorate, ground-nuts are grown in large quantities, and their cultivation is spreading gradually southward.

Fruit is abundant. Various sorts of pineapple are indigenous and hardy; bananas, once planted, thrive and go on reproducing themselves; oranges and limes flourish on both laterite and alluvial soils. For years, from official and other quarters, the suggestion has been made that an export trade to Europe in fruit might be developed. This would need fast boats specially built. An agricultural authority in Sierra Leone wrote to the editor of *Tropical Life*:—

“ I wish you could make it known that limes thrive wonderfully well here; so much so that I am sure it would pay one of the big lime-juice-producing firms to start in a small way in Sierra Leone by opening up a factory to deal with the limes that are at present running to waste. I have seen better limes here than I saw in Dominica, which claims to be (and rightly so) the premier lime-growing centre in the West Indies.”

There are a good many other plants with which experiments have been or are being made. Cotton, for instance, which is grown in small and decreasing quantities for native weaving, was tried on a larger scale under the auspices of the British Cotton Growing Association, but without success, largely because of the withering effect of the *harmattan* wind. The Government tried to encourage the cultivation of the coconut palm, which is a universally useful tree, very responsive to a little human care, and apparently ready to flourish in Sierra Leone, even at some distance from the sea. The natives, however, could not be induced to take trouble about watering, and consequently the trees are not sufficiently numerous for commercial use. Lately the chiefs in the Sherbro country have made extensive cocoa plantations, but the climate is not quite so suitable as that of the Gold Coast. Bush tea, also known as the Sierra Leone fever plant (*Ocimum viride*), has lately roused interest as a possible source of thymol. The bush grows wild, and, in addition, almost every village has a few plants.

Horses, which are imported from French Guinea, do not do well on account of the tsetse, and an experiment made in the introduction of donkeys from the Gambia was not successful.

Small, red-brown cattle are bred in the northern parts of the Protectorate, in the Karina and Koinadugu districts. The natives, however, do not know much about the management of live-stock, and are hampered because the export of cows is forbidden from the neighbouring French territory. There are plenty of straight-haired sheep and small goats, which seem to thrive well. The fowls are small, and in 1914 the Government introduced large English birds in the hope of improving the size and getting more eggs. Very little success was met with at first, while the American pen system was in use, but open runs are now being tried, with better results.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

There is plenty of room for improvement in this respect. At present the native simply clears a space for his farm by cutting or burning the bush, prepares the ground by shallow hoeing, and abandons it to rest as soon as one year's crop has been taken. In 1912 an Agricultural Department was started, with an experimental farm at Jala, about six miles north of Mano in the Ronietta district. Here the chiefs are shown the improvements which may be effected by deep hoeing, green manuring, and the rotation of crops. Some of them have made frequent visits and shown keen interest. As early as 1908 a native, Mr. S. B. Thomas, bequeathed £60,000 for the foundation of an agricultural college. This was an indication that the educated natives were alive to the unscientific character of the methods generally used.

(c) Forestry

The Colony and Protectorate contain both the dense evergreen rain forest of the tropics, with trees of 100 ft. and more in height, and also the more open, park-like savannah forest, with grassland and

herbs, and trees whose height rarely exceeds 30 ft. The transition from the one to the other is, in this part of the world, abrupt, and there are none of the monsoon forests which elsewhere divide the two types.

The rain forest must, at one time, have covered the whole country, but a great deal has been destroyed by native farming, and it is now confined to the mountain ranges, the Ronietta, Railway, and Sherbro districts, and parts of Panguma and Konno. The savannahs are found in North Ronietta, North Panguma, North Konno, Koinadugu and Karina.

The forests were inspected and reported upon in 1909 and 1911. It was discovered that the rain forest was being rapidly reduced, and that in consequence valuable trees were disappearing, soil being washed from steep slopes, rivers becoming torrential, and the climate in danger of change. A Forest Department was therefore set up in 1912 to regulate the collection of produce and the cutting of timber, to constitute reserves at the request of the tribal authorities, and to administer the forests in the interests of the native population. The 73 square miles of forest in the peninsula have now been surveyed. A reservation of nearly 6,000 acres has been made on the Kassewe Hills; another has been begun in the Kambui Hills, and one was formed on the peninsula in 1916.

The Forest Report of 1909 stated that of the 138 species of timber trees found in the peninsula forest 14 were used locally, 12 of which were suitable for export. A native once made an attempt to export timber, and felled about 300 trees, but he did not square the logs, and the experiment was a failure. The time is probably not yet ripe for much to be done in this direction, for transport is difficult.

(d) Land Tenure

All land in the Colony belongs to the Crown, and may be held in fee simple, or occupied under squatters' licence at a nominal rent.

Land in the Protectorate belongs unreservedly and entirely to the people of the tribes, for whose benefit it is administered by the chiefs and their advisers. No chief can alienate land for his own advantage against the wishes of his people. He may, with their consent, grant leases of land for agricultural purposes, but these must have Government confirmation. Any individual in the tribe can, with his chief's consent, clear a piece of land for his own use and cultivate it. At his death the family may cultivate it for their common good or divide it among themselves.

(3) FISHERIES

Sierra Leone is well supplied with fish, for which there is a great demand.

“It is no uncommon thing,” writes Mr. Alldridge, “to see the Sherbro waters about the port limits boiling over, as it were, with immense shoals of moving fish.”

Only the most primitive methods of capture used to be employed, but recently a steam trawler has been introduced. Most of the fish is consumed locally, but some, after being dried and salted, is sold to tribes in the interior or sent to other West African ports. The commonest fish are the *bunga* (a kind of herring), skate, grey mullet, and tarpon.

(4) MINERALS

Iron ore and gold-bearing quartz exist in the Protectorate, but not in sufficient quantity to make it profitable to work them on a large scale. Plumbago is found in Sherbro and has been mined, but the enterprise was not a commercial success. There is clay suitable for fire-bricks and tiles, but the extent of the deposits is not known.

(5) MANUFACTURES

Country cloths used to be made from locally-grown cotton, and ornamented with beautiful indelible dyes in indigo blue, anatto brown, yellow, and black, with occasionally a little red added from wool unwound from comforters sent out from England. This industry, however, is dying out. One of the oldest native industries is the making of pottery out of a light grey clay found on the banks of some of the rivers. In some districts iron is smelted for local use, and made into knives, cutlasses and sticks.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

Principal Branches of Trade.—In this connection a clear distinction must be drawn between the Creoles, or Sierra Leoneans, who are descendants of the original settlers, and the native Africans of the Protectorate. The former are born traders, and buying and selling seems to be the only work to which they take naturally and kindly.

“The Sierra Leone woman,” says Mr. Alldridge, “has developed an extraordinary faculty for trading, which she hands on to her children, who begin business life as soon as they can toddle about with a little calabash containing perhaps a single pineapple or a few bananas on their woolly heads.”

So numerous are the competitors that many find it hard to make a living, and many well-wishers to the Colony have been anxious to direct the energies of the rising generation to mechanical or agricultural work. However, the railway has opened up fresh opportunities, of which the traders have taken full advantage.

“Up at Baiima,” wrote Mr. Alldridge in 1910, “they have come in such force that if their stores continue running up at the present rate the tops of the cuttings and the levels of this new extension will in time be one long trading street. . . . All along the line and feeder roads you meet them, not in dozens, but in hundreds.”

The native African, on the other hand, was in the past an agriculturist pure and simple, with no trading ambitions. Lately, however, in the more accessible parts of the Protectorate, he has been attracted to commerce to some extent. The number of hawkers' licences applied for has greatly increased, and natives as well as Creoles are among the applicants.

The most serious competitors with the Sierra Leoneans, however, are Syrian immigrants, who begin in a small way as peddlers of imitation coral and the like. Gradually, co-operating among themselves and saving where the Creole squandered, they have built up a remarkable position. They have captured practically the whole of the trade in kola nuts, for example, and form a wealthy and important element in the commercial life of the dependency.

Towns, Markets, &c.—The capital of the dependency is Freetown, a busy trading centre which in 1911 had a population of 34,090, and has had a municipal council since 1893. The Government has made large loans to the municipality for various public works, the most important being the establishment of a pure water supply. In some other respects Freetown compares unfavourably with towns in other parts of British West Africa. The red laterite used for building creates an irritating dust, many of the older houses have no verandahs or other shade, and the lighting is by kerosene lamps.

The second place in size and importance in the peninsula is Waterloo, a purely Creole town situated in the market-garden district south-east of Freetown.

The capital of the Sherbro district is Bonthe, a small, hot, overcrowded town on a narrow lagoon shut in by mangrove swamps.

Besides these three chief towns, markets and trading centres exist at Bo, Blama, Hangha, Baiima, and other points along the railway where feeder roads meet the line, and at Port Lokko in the north-west.

Organizations to Promote Trade.—A Chamber of Commerce has existed at Freetown since 1892. There

is also an organization known as the Kissi Road Traders' Association, so named from one of the most crowded business quarters of Freetown.

Foreign Interests.—Most of the firms in the colony are British, but the Société commerciale de l'Ouest africain and the Compagnie française de l'Afrique occidentale have houses at Freetown and Sherbro. A writer in *L'Exportateur français* in 1917 describes the Sierra Leone purchasers as "routiniers dans leurs goûts et habitudes et en général assez peu disposés à les modifier."

Beads have a great sale, and some years before the war an Austrian house opened a store in Freetown, now closed, to sell beads of their own manufacture. They were thus able to study local tastes on the spot, and meet them at a low price with goods of their own making. Bright colours, striking designs, and an abundant choice of patterns and samples are what are needed to tempt Sierra Leonean buyers.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) Exports

Quantities and Values.—The exports for the last five years were as follows:—

Year.	Specie.	Other Exports.	Total.
	£	£	£
1912	190,582	1,350,172	1,540,754
1913	240,964	1,490,288	1,731,252
1914	208,571	1,041,907	1,250,478
1915	311,753	942,868	1,254,621
1916	48,998	1,174,546	1,223,544

A full table of the principal exports will be found in Appendix IV, p. 53, but the following notes may be made here.

Palm kernels far exceed in value all other articles

exported. For years the output had been increasing, until in 1913 kernels contributed £920,943, or 68 per cent., to the total of £1,376,603 derived from native produce. Their principal market was Germany, and of course disappeared on the outbreak of war. However, arrangements have now been made to absorb the output (see p. 38), and the trade has recovered. In 1916 the kernels exported had a value of £680,705. Margarine, in which oil expressed from palm kernels is an important ingredient, has come into general use during the war, and is likely in the future to be used in increased quantities. Thus the very cause which dealt the trade a blow in 1914 may in the end contribute to its expansion.

Next in importance comes the trade in kola nuts, which in 1913 brought in £328,003. The export of dried nuts is so small as to be negligible, but the fresh nuts have a large African market. This is affected, naturally, by the purchasing power of the natives of neighbouring colonies. In 1916, for instance, Senegal had a good ground-nut season in consequence of efforts made by the Government in distributing seed, whereupon the kola nut exports from Sierra Leone rose by 442 tons in quantity and £69,314 in value.

Palm oil comes third in order of importance, and in 1913 contributed 4.12 per cent. of the total. Most of this always went to the United Kingdom, and the markets have remained pretty steady since the outbreak of war, the percentage in 1916 being 4.87 per cent.

Ginger occupies an important place, but the export fluctuates because the native is always able to leave his roots in the ground in any year when the prices are not high enough to tempt him. In 1914 and 1915, when prices were low, the quantities exported dropped to 1,213 tons and 567 tons respectively. In 1916 the average price rose to £36 per cwt., nearly double the average for the preceding four years, and immediately the quantity exported rose from 567 tons to 971 tons, and the value from £8,091 to £25,814. Ginger, therefore, will always be a variable element in the exports.

Piassava is another article with a fluctuating export. In the years immediately preceding the war low prices ruled in the European markets, and the export was on the down-grade. After the outbreak of war, however, there was a sudden demand, and in January 1915 the price rose to £61 per ton. By the end of the year it had sunk to £23 per ton, but rose in April 1916 to £36 per ton, dropping to £26 again in December. A new impetus has been given to the trade since it has been discovered that piassava pulp, formerly regarded as a waste product, can be utilised as a substitute for coir.

Minor exports are hides, rice, gum copal, and rubber, which in 1913 brought in £4,249, £3,990, £2,682, and £1,292 respectively. Rubber used to figure more largely, but the export has been decreasing for years, partly because so many trees have been ruined by over-tapping, and partly because caravans which used to bring down rubber from the interior have gone to Konakri, in French Guinea, since the delimitation of boundaries.

Countries of Destination.—In normal times Germany was the principal customer of Sierra Leone for her chief product, palm kernels, and also for piassava. In 1913, 43,016 tons of the 49,201 tons of kernels exported went to Hamburg, which had a monopoly of the machinery used for the extraction of the oil. Germany also took 537 tons of the 839 tons of piassava exported. She thus occupied a commanding position, and was responsible for 47·49 per cent. of the total export trade.

The Imperial Institute, however, has now called the attention of British commercial circles to the possibilities of the kernel trade, and nut-crushing mills have been set up at Hull and Liverpool. In 1916 the kernels exported reached a total of 45,316 tons, a figure almost as high as the 49,201 tons of 1913. France took 3,103 tons, and all the rest went to Great Britain. In the same way, out of 883 tons of piassava exported, France took 59 tons and Great Britain all the rest. The United Kingdom had always been Sierra Leone's chief customer for palm-oil, taking 509,688 gallons in 1913 out of

a total of 617,089 gallons; but Germany took as much as 69,786 gallons. In 1916, out of 557,751 gallons exported, the United Kingdom took 406,516 gallons, and France more than filled Germany's place by taking 129,025 gallons. The United Kingdom has thus become responsible for 58·74 per cent. of the export trade, as against 13·29 per cent. in 1913. The change may have more than a temporary significance, and continue when German markets are again open.

The trade with West African countries, formerly second in importance to that with Germany, now ranks second to that with the United Kingdom.

In 1916 the United States for the first time occupied a prominent position in the export trade, taking more than 69 per cent. of the ginger shipped, whereas they had never before taken any.

It is believed in commercial circles that a wide market for West African products may be opened in America, and that the present direction of trade may in time be revolutionised.

A table showing the destination of exports in 1912, 1913, 1915, and 1916 will be found in Appendix IV, p. 54.

(b) Imports

Quantities and Values.—The total value of the imports for each of the last five years was as follows:—

Year.	Specie.	Other Imports.	Total.
	£	£	£
1912	205,461	1,219,403	1,424,864
1913	312,268	1,438,035	1,750,303
1914	238,648	1,166,401	1,405,049
1915	175,724	1,080,031	1,255,755
1916	155,160	1,135,667	1,290,827

In 1913 the imports exceeded all previous records. This was not entirely due to the increase in Government imports for public work and railway construction,

but also to the increased buying powers of the Protectorate.

Cotton goods are the most notable import. In 1913 the piece goods imported amounted to £267,089 in value, cotton hosiery to £45,952, cotton lace to £5,557, cotton yarn to £7,431, and other cotton goods to £99,004. The total value, therefore, was £425,033, or 32 per cent. of the whole amount derived from commercial imports. Beads are largely imported. Boots and shoes, hats and caps, tobacco, soap, perfumery, jewellery, and confectionery are increasingly in request as European ways spread further in the Protectorate. There is a large cattle import by land, but no record of this has been kept since the Preventive Service was given up on the north-west frontier.

In Appendix V (a) and (b) will be found an analysis of the imports from 1912-1916, and a table of the principal imports in 1913 (see pp. 54, 55).

A large part of the population of Sierra Leone is Mohammedan, so that the importation of alcohol is not great, but, as the duties are heavy, it contributes largely to Customs receipts. In 1913 spirits represented 5·18 per cent. of the total imports, and contributed £167,491 out of the £315,742 derived from Customs duties. A table will be found in Appendix V (c), p. 55, showing the importation of spirits between 1912 and 1916, and also the importation of pure alcohol.

The importation of specie is always large, because the Freetown branch of the Bank of British West Africa is a distributing centre for practically the whole of West Africa. Much of the coin imported, therefore, never circulates in Sierra Leone at all, and the amount of the importation in any given year must not be taken as a guide to the financial condition of the colony. A table showing the net import will be found in Appendix V (d), p. 56.

Countries of Origin.—The United Kingdom normally stood first among the countries supplying Sierra Leone, and has improved her position relatively during the war, though on account of shipping difficulties the

actual volume of trade has shrunk. Thus in 1913 the United Kingdom supplied imports worth £1,138,683, or 65·06 per cent. of the whole; while in 1916, though the goods were valued only at £941,899, they represented a percentage of 72·97.

Germany in 1913 came next, contributing 9·95 per cent., or £174,191, and British West Africa third, with £163,158. The share of the United States, which in 1913 was £54,055, has now more than doubled, reaching in 1916 a total of £135,603.

Too much importance must not be attached to temporary readjustments due to the war, but in the case of America, at any rate, the upward tendency had begun before the removal of German competition, and will probably continue.

A table showing the origin of the goods imported in 1912, 1913, 1915, and 1916 will be found in Appendix V (*e*), p. 56.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

There are no export duties.

The import duties have been revised lately on several occasions, and the tariff in 1916 was as follows. Specific duties were charged on eleven articles. Among these were ale and porter (9*d.* per imperial gallon), turpentine and non-edible oils (7½*d.* per old wine gallon), tobacco (manufactured 3*s.* per lb., unmanufactured 1*s.* per lb.), wines (varying from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 5*s.* per gallon) and spirits. The duties on the last varied according to alcoholic strength, 7*s.* 6*d.* per imperial gallon being charged on those of a standard strength of 50 per cent. pure alcohol as ascertained by Tralles' alcoholmeter. Articles not specifically charged or specifically exempted were subject to an *ad valorem* duty of 15 per cent. Among the exemptions were Government stores; coal, coke, and patent fuel; machinery; motor vehicles; railway stock; agricultural implements, seed, and manures; West African produce; material for packing or preparing local produce; printing machines and printed matter; drugs, disinfectants, &c.

The Blue Book for 1913 shows that the total Customs revenue for that year, £317,463 2s. 3d., was made up as follows:—

(a) Direct—		£	s.	d.
Imports, <i>ad valorem</i> ...	67,492	5	8	
Imports, specific ...	247,383	4	2	
(b) Parcel mails—				
Imports, <i>ad valorem</i> ...	2,501	0	7	
Imports, specific ...	86	11	10	

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The total revenue and expenditure for each year from 1912 to 1916 was as follows:—

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Balance or Deficit.
	£	£	£
1912	559,855	524,417	+ 35,438
1913	618,383	622,439	— 4,056
1914	675,689	680,146	— 4,457
1915	504,425	546,771	— 42,346
1916	551,106	532,940	+ 18,166

It will be seen from these figures that expenditure has more than once exceeded revenue, and that, although the financial condition of the dependency is now sound, there is not a very wide margin. The funded debt at the end of 1916 amounted to £1,730,848; £81,028 stood to the credit of the Sinking Fund, so that the net liability of the Colony amounted to £1,649,820.

The revenue is mainly derived from Customs duties, from the Government railway, and from a hut tax of 5s. a year on each house with less than four rooms. The latter when first imposed excited much opposition, and was in many quarters believed to be the main reason of the terrible rising of 1898. It was part, however, of

the general reconstruction necessary when the Protectorate was formed and the railway planned. It is collected nowadays by the chiefs themselves without trouble.

The heads of revenue in 1913 were as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Customs	317,463	2	3
Government railway ...	167,304	0	0
Hut tax	60,314	8	0
Licences, &c.	19,430	12	1
Fees of Court, &c. ...	17,853	2	6
Post Office and Savings Bank	14,486	17	10
Interest	12,323	15	9
Port, harbour, and light- house dues	6,937	11	3
Miscellaneous	1,820	19	4
Rents on Government property	416	18	1
Land sales	31	10	0

(2) *Currency*

The use of currency in parts of the country is quite recent. As late as 1899, when the chief of the Dama country was paid £5 or so in silver for rice supplied to the troops, he first of all objected, saying he would prefer tobacco; but afterwards stated that he was glad he took the money, because when melted down it made ornaments for his wives. In some remote parts of the Protectorate payment is made in strips of iron.

Coin, however, is now in general use. The special West African silver coinage was introduced in June 1913, with a view to superseding gradually Imperial silver currency. Certain foreign coins are also legal tender, notably the 5-franc piece of the Latin Union, whose value is fixed at 3s. 10½*d.*, though in 1916 its actual value fell to 3s. 5½*d.*, and its import was therefore prohibited. The £1 and 10s. currency notes issued in the United Kingdom are also legal tender, and were

supplemented in 1916 by West African currency notes of the same values, issued in Nigeria. The latter are not legal tender in Sierra Leone, but the Government undertakes to accept them in payment of dues.

(3) *Banking*

The Bank of British West Africa has branches at Freetown and Bonthe, and agencies in the Protectorate. A Government Savings Bank was established in 1882. The Colonial Bank has recently opened a branch at Freetown.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

Sierra Leone, the oldest of the West African Colonies, was for a long time the least progressive. The addition of the Protectorate in 1896 brought in healthier districts and a hard-working, if ignorant, population of native Africans, but there were anxious times while old and new were being welded into peaceable relationship. All the essential preliminaries to progress—easy transport, sanitary precautions, native education, and so forth—have been begun quite recently; and if, on the one hand, a wonderful amount has already been accomplished, it must also be admitted that the process is still incomplete.

Yet the present situation gives reasonable grounds for hopes of a prosperous future. The indigenous products of the country are valuable, while the fertile soil gives opportunity for supplementing them with planted crops. Organization, in the Agricultural and Forest Departments, exists to teach the inhabitants to make the most of them. Freetown is already a magnificent harbour, and will rank higher still when the improvements now in progress have been completed. European firms are alive to the openings in the dependency, and are extending their operations there. It is true that the biggest recent experiment tried, that of Lever Brothers

in the kernel industry, had to be abandoned; but that was rather because the time was not ripe and the native not ready than on account of any permanent obstacle in country or people. The revenue in 1893 was £92,769; in 1904, £240,472; in 1913, £618,383—an ascending scale which speaks for itself. The period of stagnation is over.

APPENDIX

I.—TREATIES

(a) *With France*.—Article I of the Convention between Great Britain and France of June 28, 1882,¹ provided:

“The line of demarcation between the territories occupied or claimed by Great Britain and France respectively to the north of Sierra Leone, on the West Coast of Africa, shall be drawn between the basins of the Rivers Scarcies and Mellicourie (Mellakore).”

The exact line was to be determined by local inquiry.

“The said line of demarcation shall, however, be drawn in such a manner as to ensure to Great Britain the complete control of the Scarcies Rivers and to France the complete control of the Mellicourie River.”

The island of Yelboyah (? Yellaboi) and all islands south of the line of demarcation were recognised as British; the island of Matakong and other islands north up to the Rio Nunez were recognised as French,

“with the exception of the Iles de Los, which last-mentioned islands shall continue to belong to Great Britain.”

By Article V:

“British subjects in the French possessions on the West Coast of Africa and French citizens in the British possessions of the West Coast of Africa shall receive equality of treatment with the citizens or subjects of France and Great Britain respectively as regards the protection of life and property.”

Article VII provided for the grant to British subjects in the French possessions and French subjects in the British possessions of the same rights as to holding real property as were granted to British subjects in France and French subjects in the United Kingdom.

The treaty, though never ratified, was assumed to be binding by both parties, but the delimitation proposed was not carried into effect.

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 724.

By Article II of the Agreement of August 10, 1889,¹ it was provided:

“ 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 Scarries, shall pass between Bennah and Tambakka, leaving Talla to England and Tamisso to France, and shall approach the 10th degree of north latitude, leaving 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° 40' W. of Greenwich) as marked on the French map, and of the 10th degree of latitude.”

Annex I² provided for the demarcation of the line by boundary commissioners, who were to

“ endeavour to find means of assuring to France a route of communication to the south of Fouta Djallon between Mellicourie and the French Soudan, which shall, however, in no way interfere with the possession by England of the road between Kambia and Falabah.”

Annex II repeated the terms of the treaty of 1882 as containing the principle on which the demarcation was to take place.

An Agreement of June 26, 1891,³ provided for the further delimitation of a line between the French and British spheres of influence to the south and west of the middle and upper Niger, to follow to the south the meridian 13° west of Paris (about 10° 40' west of Greenwich), subject to such variation as might be necessary in the opinion of the commissioners. From 10° N. lat. to Tembikundo the line was to follow the west of the heights on the left bank of the Niger shown in Monteil's map (Paris, 1886). If the watershed, however, were not as marked on that map, the commissioners were to

“ trace the frontier without regard to it, on the express understanding that both banks of the Niger shall remain in the sphere of French influence.”

This was further explained to mean that the line was to follow at a distance of 10 kilometres the left bank of the Djalibi, of the Fatiko, and finally of the Tembi, if necessary up to its source.

The actual delimitation of the line proved difficult, and had to be resettled by a fresh Agreement of January 21, 1895,⁴ fixing the boundary north and east of Sierra Leone. This was to run from

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 730.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 733.

³ *Ibid.*, ii, 744.

⁴ *Ibid.*, ii, 257.

the village of Kiragbe to the watershed of the Mellakore and Great Skarcies, along that watershed, along the Little Mola, and the Mola, to its junction with the Great Skarcies, along the River Kita, along the Little Skarcies, and finally along the Niger watershed to its intersection with the parallel of Tembikundo. This frontier was demarcated by boundary commissioners, whose results were expressed in a *procès-verbal* of April 9-30, 1896;¹ there remained however, one point of difference, the French claiming a portion of territory at Simitia. This claim was, however, withdrawn by notes exchanged on June 14 and 16, 1898,² and the demarcation was definitively accepted. The boundary to the east of Tembikundo was defined by an exchange of notes of January 22, 1895,³ as running along the parallel of latitude of Tembikundo from its point of intersection with the Niger watershed to its intersection with long. 13° west of Paris (10° 40' west of Greenwich) and then along that meridian to the Anglo-Liberian boundary. This boundary was marked out in 1900 and 1903, and defined by *procès-verbaux* of March 12, 1903,⁴ the results of which were approved by an exchange of notes of March 22—April 15, 1904.⁵ This agreement, however, was modified by an exchange of notes of July 6, 1911,⁶ under which the boundary from the source of the River Uldafu was to follow the *thalweg* of that river to its intersection with the Meli, the *thalweg* of the Meli to the Moa, the *thalweg* of the Moa to its intersection with long. 13°, the meridian to its intersection with the south bank of the Moa, and that bank to the meeting-place of the boundaries of French Guinea and Liberia and Sierra Leone and Liberia. The exact line was marked out by a boundary commission and finally approved by an agreement of September 4, 1913,⁷ which expressly provided that the results of the delimitation were not to be varied if any error were subsequently discovered in the fixing of long. 13°.

A further exchange of notes of January 22, 1895,⁸ provided for the free use of roads by traders and travellers between French Guinea, the French Sudan, and Sierra Leone, and forbade the levying, along the frontiers laid down by the treaty of January 21, 1895, of export and import duties higher than those levied on the maritime frontiers of French Guinea and Sierra Leone, and the levying in any case of export duties exceeding 7 per cent. *ad*

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 765.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 794.

³ *Ibid.*, ii, 761.

⁴ *Ibid.*, ii, 809.

⁵ *Ibid.*, ii, 1815.

⁶ Cd. 6101.

⁷ Cd. 7147.

⁸ Hertslet, ii,

valorem. By Article VI of the Convention of April 8, 1904,¹ the Iles de Los were ceded to France.

(b) *With Liberia*.—By Article II of a Treaty of November 11, 1885,² it was provided:

“ The line marking the north-western boundary of the Republic of Liberia shall commence at the point on the sea coast at which, at low water, the line of the south-eastern or left bank of the Mannah River intersects the general line of the sea coast, and shall be continued along the line marked by low water, on the south-eastern or left bank of the Mannah River until such line, or such line prolonged in a north-easterly direction, intersects the line or the prolongation of the line making the north-eastern or inland boundary of the territories of the Republic, with such deviations as may hereafter be found necessary to place within Liberian territory the town of Boporu, and such other towns as shall be hereafter acknowledged to have belonged to the Republic at the time of the signing of this Convention.”

The line was marked out by a commission whose results were embodied in a *procès-verbal* of June 25, 1903.³ This result was, however, altered by a Convention of January 21, 1911,⁴ so as to secure a boundary following the *thalweg* of the Mo, Maia, Makowi (Magoi) and Mauwa Rivers to the intersection of the latter by the provisional boundary of 1903, then that line to the Morro River, the *thalweg* of that river to the Mano (Mannah) River, and then the provisional boundary. Liberia was granted £4,000 as compensation for the less developed condition of the lands acquired by her between the Morro and Mano Rivers in comparison with that of the lands ceded by her. By an Agreement of April 10, 1913,⁵ facilities for Liberian vessels to navigate the River Mano (Mannah) were accorded. The actual boundary as laid down by the Treaty of 1911 was delimited by a commission in 1913-14, and their results, which dealt with the line from the Moe to the Magowi (Makowi), were accepted by an exchange of notes on June 19-26, 1917.⁶

¹ *Ibid.*, ii, 817.

² *Ibid.*, iii, 1132.

³ *Ibid.*, iii, 1136.

⁴ Cd. 5719.

⁵ Cd. 6803.

⁶ Cd. 8589.

II.—REVENUE AND WORKING EXPENSES OF THE
GOVERNMENT RAILWAY, 1907-1916¹

Year.	Revenue.			Working Expenses.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1907	74,515	0	2	61,312	18	10
1908	71,499	9	3	65,273	9	7
1909	84,228	14	7	68,222	14	11
1910	101,567	2	11	66,750	13	10
1911	107,319	19	7	69,503	5	5
1912	142,146	14	11	75,706	10	7
1913	167,661	17	1	89,153	3	10
1914	143,250	8	1	100,154	5	5½
1915	146,150	14	6½	107,190	0	0½
1916	156,428	19	4	127,466	4	0

III.—SHIPPING

(a) *Number and Tonnage of Vessels Entered and Cleared at the Chief Ports in 1912 and 1913*²

Port.	Entered.				Cleared.			
	1912.		1913.		1912.		1913.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Freetown ..	682	1,297,889	713	1,422,789	656	1,258,282	678	1,367,909
Sherbro ..	1	22	1	1,621	28	47,246	36	61,737
Mano Sulija ..	28	32,274	28	30,771	8	7,237	12	7,364
Sulima ..	3	4,412	5	7,416	19	26,006	20	29,444
Mahela ..	343	1,489	240	962	359	1,546	250	1,029
Gene ..	6	34	6	43	6	34	—	—
Total ..	1,063	1,336,120	993	1,463,602	1,076	1,340,351	996	1,467,483

¹ From the Administrative Report of the Railway, 1916.

² From the Report for 1913 of the Comptroller of Customs on Revenue, Trade, and Shipping.

(b) Vessels Entered, 1912-1916¹

Year.	Steam Vessels.		Sailing Vessels.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1912	666	1,331,719	397	4,401
1913	702	1,460,197	291	3,405
1914	638	1,391,445	260	7,263
1915	337	860,659	232	8,746
1916	348	775,449	51	2,273

(c) Nationality and Tonnage of Vessels Entered in 1912, 1913, 1915, 1916

Nationality.	1912.		1913.		1915.		1916.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
American ..	1	609	—	—	3	2,021	2	1,561
Belgian ..	3	13,400	—	—	5	23,564	9	42,358
British ..	728	933,537	686	1,025,591	448	769,066	322	703,959
Danish ..	4	3,376	5	4,661	—	—	—	—
Dutch ..	—	—	3	887	2	3,359	—	—
French ..	134	5,285	84	8,885	100	10,958	52	24,919
German ..	176	367,226	191	406,811	—	—	—	—
Greek ..	4	5,024	5	6,773	3	3,729	—	—
Italian ..	—	—	1	2,221	—	—	—	—
Liberian ..	1	5	6	53	—	—	—	—
Norwegian	8	4,562	8	4,208	3	4,008	5	1,715
Portuguese	2	58	2	56	8	1,242	6	124
Spanish ..	2	3,038	2	3,456	3	5,756	—	—
Swedish ..	—	—	—	—	2	2,021	1	954

¹ Figures for all tables in this Appendix are taken from the Reports of the Comptroller of Customs, 1913 and 1916.

(d) *Principal Lines of Steamers Trading with Sierra Leone in 1912 and 1913*

Line.	1912.		1913.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British and African Steam Navigation Company, Limited	176	341,621	207	436,672
African Steamship Company ..	128	304,328	119	308,970
Elder Line, Limited ..	100	220,400	98	212,729
Imperial Direct Company, Limited ..	9	22,224	6	14,364
Woermann Linie	123	260,714	149	323,015
Hamburg-Amerika Linie ..	23	50,509	27	59,137
Hamburg-Bremer-Afrika Linie ..	21	42,582	13	25,905
Jo. Holt & Company	13	10,598	8	6,678
Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo..	3	13,400	—	—
Couppa Brothers	4	5,024	5	6,773
Eastern Telegraph Company ..	12	5,494	11	2,420
Elder, Dempster, & Company, Limited	—	—	7	16,034
Miscellaneous	54	54,825	52	47,500
Total	666	1,331,719	702	1,460,197

IV.—EXPORTS

(a) *Value of Exports (excluding Specie), 1912-1916*

Year.	Produce and Manufactures of the Colony.	British, Foreign, and other Colonial Produce and Manufactures.	Total.
	£	£	£
1912	1,222,946	127,226	1,350,172
1913	1,376,603	113,685	1,490,288
1914	933,384	108,523	1,041,907
1915	852,751	90,117	942,868
1916	1,101,846	72,700	1,174,546

(b) Quantities and Values of Principal Exports, 1912-1916

Articles of Export.	1912.		1913.		1914.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£		£
Palm Kernels... .. tons	50,751	793,178	49,201	920,943	35,915	559,313
Kola Nuts "	1,652	276,530	1,865	328,003	1,925	279,199
Palm Oil gallons	728,509	67,314	617,089	56,659	436,144	38,537
Ginger tons	2,200	44,864	2,047	35,468	1,213	15,639
Hides leaves	10,247	4,041	9,789	4,249	10,561	4,782
Rice bushels	30,715	5,713	21,546	3,990	18,705	4,855
Gum Copal tons	17	1,607	24	2,682	16	3,075
Rubber "	10	2,962	6	1,292	3	364
	1915.		1916.			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
		£		£		
Palm Kernels... .. tons	39,624	504,033	45,316	680,705		
Kola Nuts "	2,042	233,406	2,484	302,720		
Palm Oil gallons	481,576	45,671	557,751	53,622		
Ginger tons	567	8,091	971	25,814		
Hides leaves	11,564	5,554	14,989	6,396		
Rice bushels	21,600	7,228	3,192	1,364		
Gum Copal tons		
Rubber "	1	40	10	1,848		

(c) Percentage of Values of Principal Products to Total Exports

Products.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
Palm Kernels	64·86	66·90	59·92	59·08	61·78
Kola Nuts.. ..	22·61	23·83	29·91	7·61	27·47
Palm Oil	5·50	4·12	4·13	5·36	4·87
Ginger	3·67	2·58	1·68	·95	2·34
Hides	·33	·31	·51	·65	·57
Rice	·47	·29	·52	·85	·12
Gum Copal	·13	·19	·33
Rubber	·24	·09	·04	..	·17

(d) *Destination of Exports (including Specie) in the Years 1912, 1913, 1915, 1916*

Country.	1912.	1913.	1915.	1916.
	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom ..	272,735	230,091	657,297	718,656
British West Africa ..	219,734	253,882	292,472	182,815
Other British Possessions..	—	—	—	30
France	969	200	11,347	60,441
Germany	674,516	822,155	—	—
High Seas	107,011	100,393	66,229	37,777
Holland	—	—	—	—
United States	4	—	14	17,372
Foreign West Africa ..	265,682	324,418	226,471	204,587
Other European Countries	—	—	—	19
Other Countries.. ..	103	113	791	1,847
Total	1,540,754	1,731,252	1,254,621	1,223,544

V.—IMPORTS

(a) *Analysis of Imports, 1912-1916*¹

Year.	Food and drink.	Tobacco.	Raw articles, or articles mainly unmanufactured.	Articles wholly or partially manufactured.	Miscellaneous.	Specie.	Total imports.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1912	250,782	70,296	113,826	784,310	189	205,461	1,424,864
1913	279,211	75,277	103,680	979,449	418	312,268	1,750,303
1914	206,259	62,568	127,543	769,952	79	238,648	1,405,049
1915	254,766	76,961	111,584	636,619	101	175,724	1,255,755
1916	264,993	90,209	94,512	685,675	278	155,160	1,290,827

¹ From the Report of the Comptroller of Customs, 1916.

(b) Principal Commercial Imports, 1913¹

<i>Article</i>					<i>£</i>
Cotton goods	425,033
Foodstuffs	146,357
Wines and spirits	101,537
Tobacco	75,277
Iron goods	50,890
Coal and fuel	48,854
Clothing, boots, &c.	41,300
Boats, launches, &c.	33,628
Hardware, glass, cutlery	30,587
Telegraphic materials	22,643
Lumber	22,355
Bags	21,397
Woollen goods	19,983
Miscellaneous	252,141
					<hr/>
Total	£1,291,982
					<hr/>

(c) Importation of Spirits, 1912-1916²

Year.	Gallons.	Percentage to total imports.	Imports in gallons at 100° Tralles.
1912	626,061	6·29	288,022
1913	632,087	5·18	275,464
1914	322,836	3·26	134,909
1915	295,489	4·47	128,485
1916	154,478	3·60	70,261

¹ From the Report of the Comptroller of Customs, 1913.² From the Annual Reports, 1915 and 1916.

(d) Export and Import of Specie, 1912-1916¹

Year.	Specie Imported.	Specie Exported.	Net Import or Export.
	£	£	£
1912	205,461	190,582	14,879
1913	312,268	240,964	71,304
1914	238,648	208,571	30,077
1915	175,724	311,753	136,029
1916	155,160	48,998	106,162

(e) Countries of Origin, 1912, 1913, 1915, 1916¹

Country.	1912.	1913.	1915.	1916.
	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom ..	912,014	1,138,683	870,901	941,899
British West Africa ..	130,247	163,158	73,167	88,584
Other British Possessions	123	60	4,286	692
France	13,811	18,139	21,994	24,181
Germany	166,671	174,191	13,210 ²	2,008 ²
Holland	81,262	89,634	55,333	37,517
United States	28,463	54,055	102,435	135,603
Foreign West Africa ..	32,685	31,756	96,932	47,657
Other European Countries	3,716	7,842	1,509	1,933
Other Countries ..	55,872	72,785	15,988	10,753

¹ From the Reports of the Comptroller of Customs, 1913 and 1916.

² Prize cargo.

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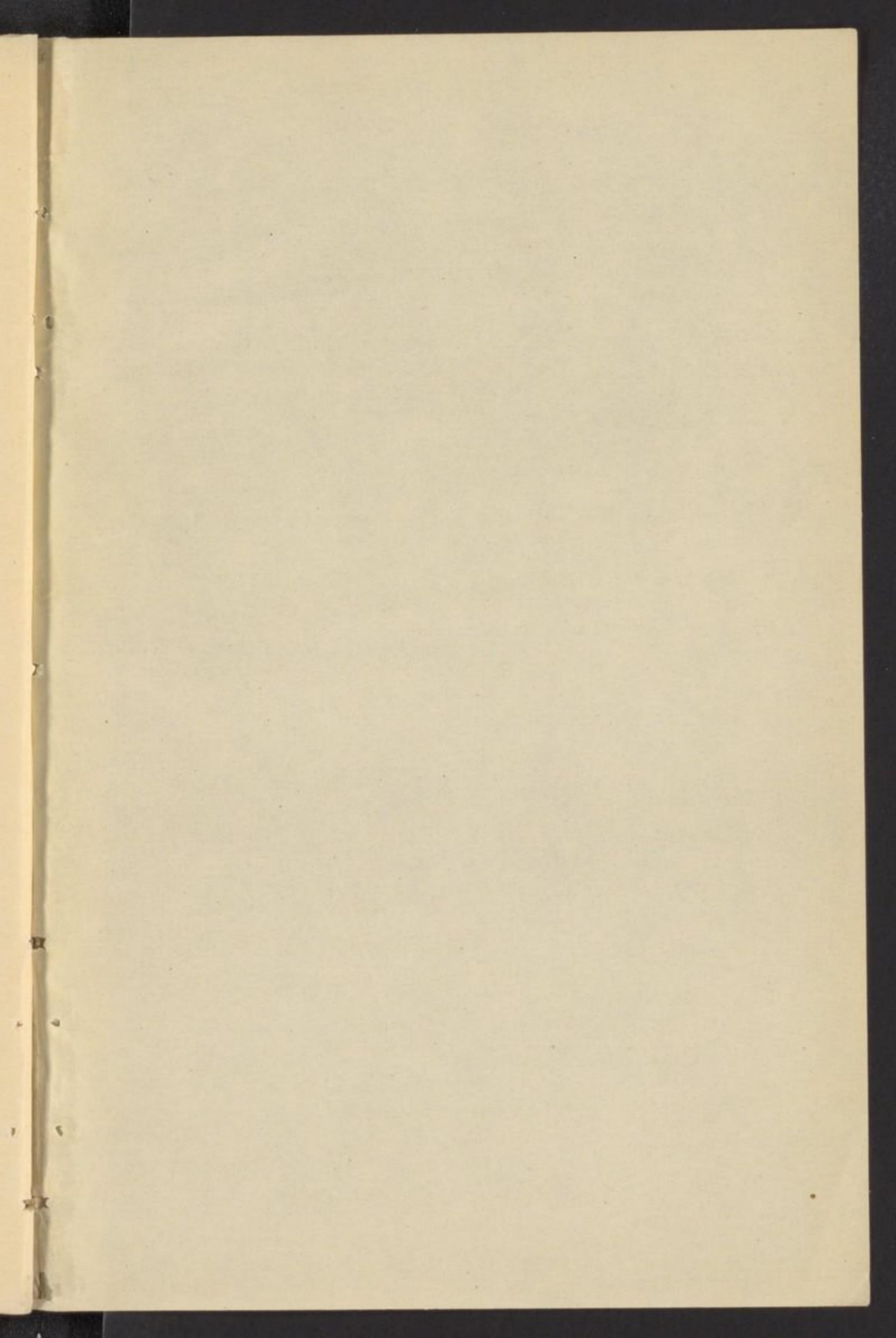
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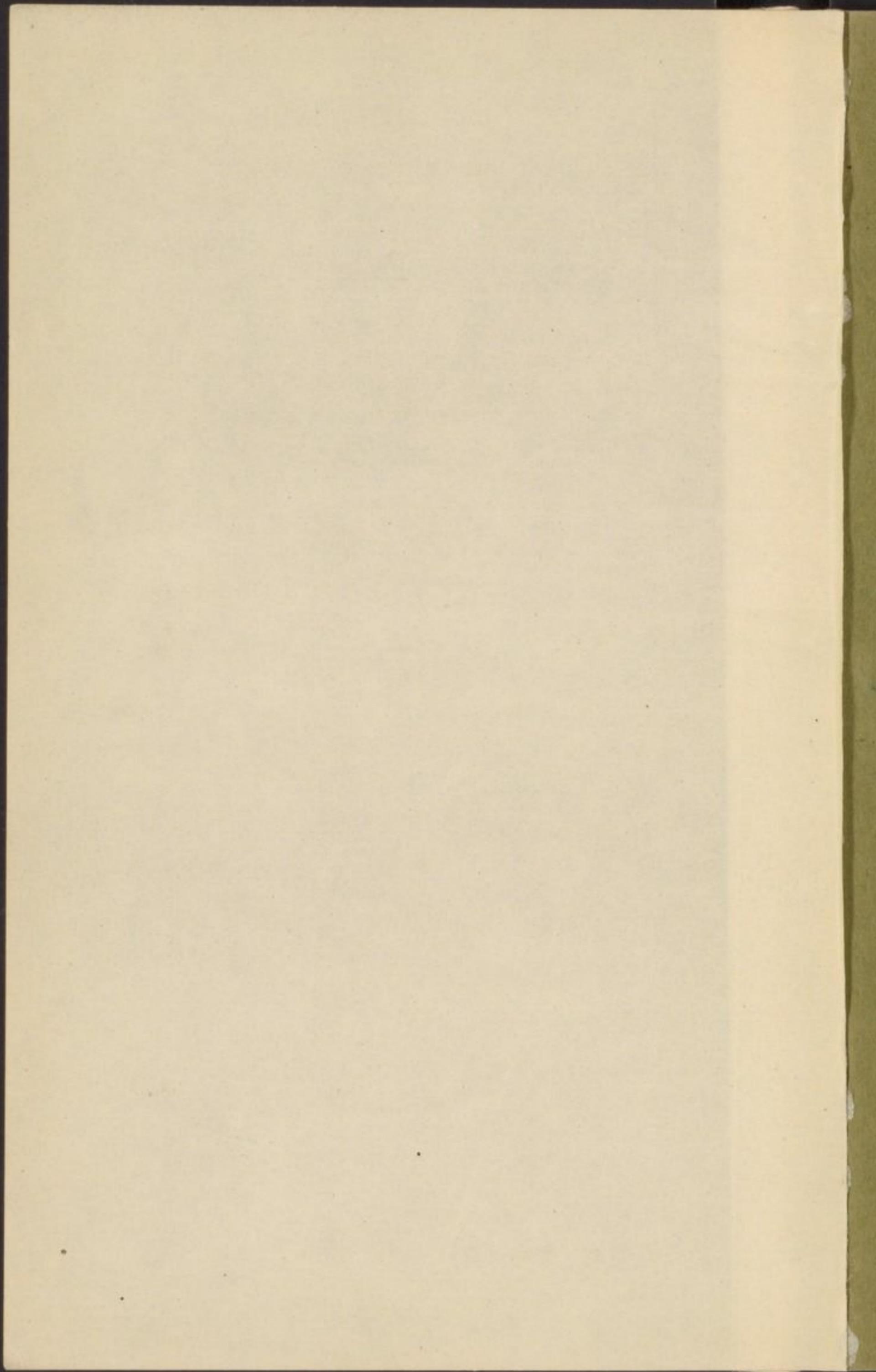
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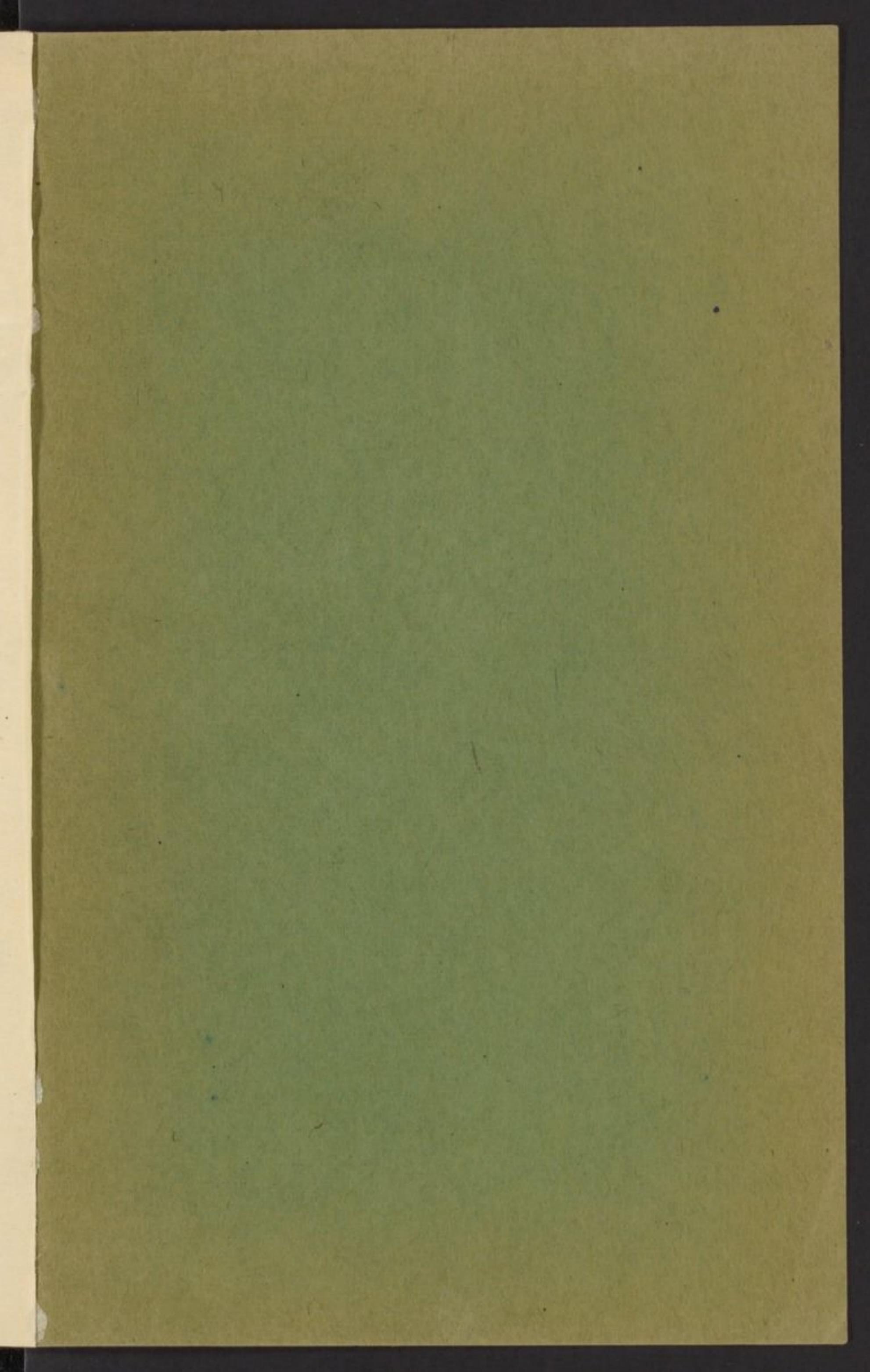
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There is a map of the Sierra Leone Peninsula on the scale of 1:63,360, or one inch to a mile (G.S.G.S. 2459, corrected to 1913), and an enlargement of this on the scale of 1:21,120, or 3 inches to a mile (G.S.G.S. 2404, 1908), showing Freetown alone.







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