SPANISH GUINEA

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE
1920
SPANISH GUINEA
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
January 1920. Director of the Historical Section.
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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

The territories comprised under the name of Spanish Guinea are as follows:

(a) Continental Guinea (Rio Muni):
   District of Bata and environs
   Interior
   9,459
(b) Insular Guinea:
   (i) Fernando Po
      Santa Isabel (town district)
      San Carlos
      Interior
      810
   (ii) Annobon
       6.6
   (iii) The Greater and Lesser Elobeys
        (Elobeys Grande and Elobeys Pequeno or Chico)
        0.8
   (iv) Corisco
       5.4

Continental Guinea lies on the eastern shore of the Gulf of Guinea between 2° 10' 30" and 1° north latitude, and 90° 54' and 11° 20' east longitude. Its limits were determined by the Treaty of Paris of June 27, 1900, which made it a rectangular piece of territory, bounded on the north by the German colony of Cameroon, and on the east and south by the French colony of Gabun. After the Franco-German Agreement of 1911, however, which considerably enlarged the territory of Cameroon at the expense of the
French possessions, Spanish Guinea became an enclave in German territory. The coast-line has a marked trend to the south-west from the estuary of the Rio Campo (Kampo) to the Rio Muni.

Insular Guinea consists of two groups of islands, one comprising Fernando Po (Fernando Póo) and Annobon (Isla Annobón, Ilha de Anno Bom), lying out in the Gulf of Guinea, and the other, including Elobey Chico or Pequeño ("little"), Elobey Grande, and Corisco, extending west-south-west of the Rio Muni. Fernando Po is the largest and most important island in the Gulf, and is 19 miles from the nearest point on the mainland.

(2) Surface, Coasts, and Rivers

The surface of continental Guinea is generally flat, and offers little variety of feature. The shore is fringed with shoals and small rocks, there is a heavy surf, and the mouths of the rivers are blocked by bars, which extend in banks seawards. The coastal region consists of a plain 15 to 25 miles wide, which is low and swampy and covered with immense forests, and this type of country continues along the banks of the streams. Further inland the forest thins out, and treeless plateaux intervene. The higher land of the interior preserves the general monotonous character of surface; but there are some isolated mountain regions, of which the Siete Montañas (Seven Mountains), north of the San Benito river, and not far from the coast, and the Sierra del Cristal (Crystal Mountains), south of the River Utamboni, alone are worth mentioning. The highest point is 3,940 ft. above sea-level.

Fernando Po is of volcanic origin, and rises to a height of 10,000 ft. in the Pico de Santa Isabel, with a narrow coastal plain on every side but the south. There is a rich forest growth. Annobon, not quite 4½ miles long, with an average breadth of 1½ miles, is of similar character, but has a much less luxuriant vegeta-
tion. Of its many short streams, one issues from a central lake of excellent water, 600 metres long by 400 broad. A serious drawback to this island is its coast, which is extremely difficult of access, there being no harbours and no sheltered roadsteads. The only possible place for landing is a small stretch of sandy beach in the bay of San Antonio on the north-east. The two Elubeyos and Corisco are all low-lying islands with a sandy soil. Elubey Chico has no fresh-water springs, and its inhabitants have to store the abundant rainfall in cisterns to tide over the short dry period. Corisco is the largest island of the group, being 3 miles long and averaging 1 1/4 miles in breadth. These islands are surrounded by extensive shoals with channels of varying depths.

Though continental Guinea possesses many small streams, two-thirds of the whole territory are embraced in the basin of the San Benito or Vole (Woló), which is 360 miles long. In the north is the River Campo; but only a small part of its course near the mouth lies within Spanish territory. The Envía or M'Bia is the only considerable stream between the Campo and the San Benito. The Rio Muni, close to the southern frontier, is really an arm of the sea, 25 miles long, into which flow a group of rivers, of which the Kongue (Congüe), the Utongo, and the Utamboni (Temboni) are the most important. As a whole, the direction of the main streams is from east to west, but the Kongue and Utongo enter the Rio Muni from the north. The rivers which come from any distance inland, such as the San Benito and the Utamboni, have their courses broken by rapids and cataracts, and by islands in their lower reaches, while their banks are generally covered with thick jungle, and, near their mouths, are fringed by mangrove swamps.

(3) Climate

As in equatorial Africa generally, the year may be divided into a rainy and a dry season, these seasons being reversed in the northern and southern tropics.
The dividing-line between the two leaves Fernando Po in the northern climatological zone, and all the rest of Spanish Guinea, continental and insular, in the southern. The dry season in the northern, which is the rainy in the southern zone, lasts from November to March; while the rainy season in the former and the dry in the latter cover the rest of the year. In the dry season, however, though the heat may be considerable—78° to 82° F. (26° to 27° C.)—the sun is generally hidden by clouds and mist. Almost daily during the rains the atmosphere reaches saturation point, but at night little or no rain falls, and then the temperature may go down a point or two. Heavy rains occur even in the dry season, and the rainfall generally is one of the heaviest in the world.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

The most unhealthy period, both for Europeans and natives, is the period of transition between the rainy and dry seasons; malaria of various kinds is then specially prevalent, and most deaths from black-water fever occur. In the upland regions conditions are healthier. The island of Annobon has a reputation for healthiness, and its natives attain a much greater longevity than those of any other part of the colony, but its colonization by Europeans has proved impracticable. Corisco, again, is considered unhealthy, and long remained unsettled. On El Obey Pequeño good sanitary measures have long been adopted, but in other regions sanitation is practically non-existent. There was a smallpox epidemic among the Bubis of Fernando Po in 1892, and that people is also said to be threatened with endemic sleeping sickness, introduced by immigrants from Liberia (see p. 33).

(5) Race and Language

The majority of the population of continental Guinea is formed by the sub-tribes of the Fan or Fang race, called Paluê by the Spaniards and Pahouin by
the French. This strong and vigorous race inhabits most of the interior, and is gradually overwhelming all the other peoples. Most of these Pamué tribes do not recognise Spanish sovereignty, and are extremely wild and intractable.

Other tribes are the Bengas, who are now confined to a few villages on Cape St. John; the Kumbes; the Balengues, who, together with the Bapukos, once occupied a position of semi-slavery under the Bengas and Kumbes; and the Bujebas. All of these are coastal tribes.

The languages of all the various tribes belong to the Bantu family, and the dialects spoken by the Benga form an important sub-division.

The native inhabitants of Fernando Po are of two classes: (1) the aboriginal Bubis (formerly called Ediyas) who occupy the interior of the island, and are only partly civilized; (2) the civilized Portos, on the coast.

The Bubis are of Bantu stock, and probably represent the oldest race on this seaboard. The Portos (a corruption of "Portuguese") are the descendants either of negro slaves, liberated during the British occupation of the island; or of Sierra Leonians, who settled here of their own choice during British rule, and of Accras, with a strong admixture of Portuguese and Spanish blood.

English and Spanish are both spoken at Santa Isabel, but English has been the common speech of the coast peoples since the British occupation. Trade or pidgin English is used as a *lingua franca* not only between whites and blacks, but also between natives with distinct languages of their own. The dialects of the Bubi belong to the less archaic Bantu languages.

Annobon is inhabited solely by negroes, supposed to be the descendants of a cargo of slaves shipwrecked there in the sixteenth century. Some of the Annobonese speak English, but Spanish is taught by the missionary fathers. In Elobey Pequeno, and Corisco the greater
part of the population consists of Bengas, and in Elobeys and Grande of Bengas mixed with various other aboriginal stocks.

(6) Population

Distribution

The population of continental Spanish Guinea has been estimated at 101,000, and that of insular Guinea at 19,650 (Fernando Po 17,000, Annobon 1,300, the Elobeys 490, and Corisco 860), but these figures are admitted to be only approximate. The government of the colony has taken no census of continental Guinea, and this is not surprising when it is remembered that Spain has never succeeded in asserting her effective dominion over the country. She occupies only a fringe of the seaboard and strips of territory along the navigable rivers of the interior, and, for the most part, the real rulers of the tribes decline to recognise her authority.

In Fernando Po, the census is fragmentary and useless. Bravo Carbonel gives the European inhabitants of the island (1917) as 291, and the Bubi population as 20,873, but he can only speak to the approximate accuracy of these figures. Another authority (1915) gives the total population of the island as 17,000, a figure which can only be reconciled with the other estimates on the hypothesis of a heavy native mortality having occurred during the first years of the present century. The regions with the greatest density of population are the districts at the mouths of the various rivers. The largest number of Europeans is found in Elobeys Pequeno, owing to the superior health conditions of that island.

Towns and Villages

The chief settlement of continental Guinea is Bata, capital of the district of the same name. Its population in 1912 is said to have been 200 natives and 36
Europeans, of whom 20 were Spanish, but another estimate gives 3,000 natives and 50 Europeans (Anuario General de España, 1917). At the mouth of the San Benito is Benito, the most important trading-station, and other towns are Campo, on the River Campo; Kogo, on the Kongue, within the Rio Muni; and Mebonde, on the Utamboni.

In Fernando Po there are 51 villages and only one town, Santa Isabel, which was founded during the British occupation, being then named Clarence Town. It is the seat of the Governor-General of Spanish Guinea, and has a population of about 2,000. Other settlements are San Carlos and Concepción, each of these having a population of less than 150. In Annobon the chief villages are San Antonio (pop. 500), and San Pedro.

**Movement**

Nothing is known as to birth or death-rates in Rio Muni, but the population appears to have increased considerably of late years, owing to the influx of natives from the adjacent German territory, due to German methods of government.

In Fernando Po the death-rate is said greatly to exceed the birth-rate, and the level of population is only maintained by means of immigration.
II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

1471 Fernando Po discovered by Portuguese.
1472 Annobon discovered by the same navigators.
1778 Both islands ceded by Portugal to Spain, with trading and navigation rights along the Guinea coast.
1827 Fernando Po temporarily given over to British occupation as a base for suppressing the slave trade.
1833-34 British slave trade commissioners withdrawn.
1839-41 Negotiations for the purchase of these islands by Britain: agreement reached, but waived.
1843 Don Juan de Larena sent out as Royal Commissioner: he appoints an English resident to be Spanish Governor, and takes Corisco and the Elobeyes under Spanish protection, annexing them three years later, and extending the Protectorate to the mainland.

English Baptist missionaries settle at Fernando Po, and Spanish Roman Catholic missionaries at Corisco.
French Roman Catholic priests and a naval post are established at the mouth of the Gabun estuary.

1844-1900 Franco-Spanish rivalry and overlapping claims to influence from the Gabun northwards, as far as the Río Campo, continue.

1858 English Baptist missionaries finally removed.
1883-84 Germany makes overtures for the acquisition of Fernando Po, and annexes Cameroon.
1900 The limits of Spanish Guinea on the mainland fixed by the Convention of Paris.
1901 The Transatlantic Company exploits the colony. Official administration improved.
Ellobe Chico becomes the chief centre of trade, where European "factories" are established.

SPANISH GUINEA AND FERNANDO PO

(1) Early Portuguese and Spanish Occupation

Prior to 1778 Spain had no territorial possessions in the countries bordering the Gulf of Guinea, and claimed no sovereignty in that region, though her ships were accustomed to navigate the coastal waters for trading purposes in common with those of other
nations. The paramount European influence in the Gulf was formerly that of Portugal; and the islands of Fernando Po and Annobon had been included in the dominions of the sovereigns of that Power ever since the close of the fifteenth century, though put to little use by them.

By a treaty signed at El Pardo in 1778 Portugal ceded those two islands to Spain, with certain rights over the ports of the Gulf, in consideration of the evacuation of the island of Santa Catalina, off the coast of Brazil, and certain parts of the adjoining mainland, which had been seized and occupied by the Spanish expedition under Casa-Tilly in 1766. The evacuation and restoration of that island were secured to Portugal by the Convention of San Ildefonso in October 1777; and, in virtue of the above-mentioned treaty of 1778, Annobon and Fernando Po were formally “dismembered from the Kingdom of Portugal,” and declared to “appertain to the Kingdom of Spain,” on October 24, 1778. But, on the Spanish Commissioner proceeding to Annobon to take over possession of it, the natives resisted with such determination that the Portuguese naval commandant had to intervene and confirm the cession.

Owing mainly to the sickness and mortality experienced by the Spanish expeditionary force, the earliest attempts to colonize the islands were soon abandoned; and, except as a depot for slaves, and an occasional resort for trading vessels in need of supplies, the possession remained neglected for more than forty years.

(2) Temporary British Settlement

In 1827, however, a small British naval squadron under Captain Fitzwilliam Owen was despatched to

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1 See Appendix II.
2 See Appendix I.
4 Baldrén y Rózpide, in Article Fernándo Póo, in Diccionario Hispano-Americano.
Fernando Po and occupied the island, for use as a base from which to facilitate measures for suppressing the slave trade in accordance with new international agreements on that subject. The Spanish Government acquiesced with great reluctance in this act of intrusion upon the island. It appears, indeed, that it was not consulted, and that the British Government was actually unaware that Fernando Po belonged to any civilized nation. But a square mile of land at the north end of the island was purchased from the natives, and an establishment was formed, to which the name Port Clarence was given; and Lieutenant-Colonel Nicholls was installed there as Civil Governor.

In 1829 the British Commissioners were transferred to Port Clarence from Sierra Leone; and in the following year an assurance was given by the British Government that England fully recognised Spain's right to the sovereignty and ownership of Fernando Po. A proposal made in 1831 to acquire it in exchange for Viques (one of the Virgin Islands, West Indies) was rejected by Spain; and three years later the Commissioners were recalled, chiefly on account of the prevalence of tropical diseases among the seamen and marines, and returned to Sierra Leone. The British Government then sold its property at the north end of the island to Messrs. Dillon and Tennant, who afterwards transferred it to the West African Company. The island again lay neglected for a few years; but in 1839 or 1840 the British Government once more offered to acquire it from Spain, this time for a sum of £50,000 by way of compensation. Though this offer was at first declined, the Spanish Ministry eventually agreed to accept £60,000 for Fernando Po and Annobon together. But so strongly was public sentiment in Spain—expressed in the newspapers and backed by

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1 The Times, June 16, 1828.
3 Coello (La cuestión del Rio Muni) says that the recall was due to Spanish protests.
the Cortes—opposed to this proceeding that the Ministry felt constrained to recede from the undertaking it had given, and requested Great Britain to cancel the bargain, which was done.

During the British occupation some two thousand English-speaking negroes from the West Indies and Sierra Leone and the Kru coast had settled in the vicinity of Port Clarence. In 1840 two English Baptist missionaries visited the island, and three years afterwards they installed a mission there on land purchased from the West African Company. But the Spanish Roman Catholic Order of the Immaculate Heart of Mary, two of whose missionaries had come out early in 1843 with Captain Lerena, regarded the Protestants with no favourable eye. Acute tension arose between them, especially as the influence of the Baptists continued to attract Protestant settlers from Jamaica.¹

(3) **Spanish Development**

In 1840 or thereabouts a British naval party had found it necessary to destroy a Spanish trading station on the mainland, because it had become a centre for slave-dealing.² Partly owing to this occurrence, the Spanish Government became alive to the increasing importance of its possessions in the Gulf. Early in 1843 they despatched an expedition, commanded by Captain D. Juan José de Lerena, who once more hoisted the Spanish flag at Port Clarence, renamed it Santa Isabel after the Queen of Spain, and proclaimed Spanish ascendancy and possession. Failing to find a Spanish settler of adequate education, Captain Lerena appointed John Beecroft, a coloured man, who represented the West African Company in those parts,³ to be Acting Governor, and gave him a commission in

¹ Johnston, *George Grenfell and the Congo.*
² Coello, *La cuestión del Río Muni.*
³ Johnston, *George Grenfell and the Congo.*
the name of the Queen of Spain. Four or five years later he was also entrusted with the office of British Consul. In the same year (1843) Lerena proceeded to Corisco and the Elobeys islets, whose chief, Boncoro, petitioned to have his dominions, including the district on the mainland peopled by the Benga tribes of the Muni basin, placed under Spanish protection. This privilege was accorded him, with rights to levy dues on shipping; and the protectorate was extended over the territories of all or most of the native rulers between the left bank of the Campo river southwards to the right bank of the Gabun, and for a considerable distance inland. Minor conventions and commercial agreements were then made between the Spanish authorities and the local chiefs throughout a great part of this region; while Spanish priests founded mission stations in their neighbourhood, and helped to maintain friendly relations and to strengthen Spanish influence. French naval and ecclesiastical agents took similar steps about the same time, but selected the mouth of the Gabun estuary for their principal field of action, and purchased a small area of land on the north bank in 1842. They entered into possession of it on June 18, 1843; a few months after the Spanish agreement with Boncoro had been completed; and six years later the present town of Libreville was founded on that spot, and French influence pushed farther afield up the Gabun and southwards towards Cape Lopez.

(4) Relations with France and Germany

In 1845 Spain made another unsuccessful attempt to colonize Fernando Po; but in the next year the islands of Corisco and the Elobeys were definitely annexed, and the French authorities in the Gabun basin were formally notified that the compact included the

1 Coello, La cuestión del Río Muni.
2 Revue maritime et coloniale, IX, 44.
3 Coello, op. cit.
dependencies of the chiefs of Corisco on the mainland. From this date forward rivalry between the two nations appears to have continued until their respective boundaries were finally fixed by the Convention of June 27, 1900; the preliminary sittings of the Joint Commission for reaching an agreement extended over nearly four years. But long before this Fernando Po had become the seat of the colonial Government. Beecroft had in 1854 been succeeded in the Governorship by a Dutchman, who in 1858 gave place to Don Carlos Chacón. The Baptist missionaries were then obliged to withdraw, and transferred themselves to the shores of Ambas Bay, on the mainland. They received tardy and inadequate compensation from the Spanish Government. The Jesuits, who succeeded them, were likewise expelled later. Sub-Governors were appointed at Corisco and the chief commercial or political centres on the mainland; the dues they levied in disputed territory gave rise to protests from their French competitors.

In 1883 Germany made overtures for the acquisition of Fernando Po, which was regarded by the Government of that nation as a strategic vantage-point, as well as a valuable commercial asset. But Spain gave no ear to the proposal. In the same year the French Government announced its intention of taking over all the lands as far north as the San Benito river (in latitude 1° 35' N.), and took steps for gaining over the native chiefs, especially along the coast-line, to whom they issued French flags. Spanish writers assert that Germany acted in similar fashion as regards the country between the Campo river (latitude 2° 21' N.) and Cape San Juan (latitude 1° 9' N.). Spanish exploring expeditions were therefore despatched in 1884 and 1886, under the Governor of Fernando Po, to enquire into these

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1 Coello, op. cit.
2 See Appendix III.
3 Johnston, George Grenfell and the Congo.
matters and endeavour to secure the adherence of the native States in that region. Germany desisted from encroachment southward of the Campo river, but when, in 1884, the Spanish Society of Africanistas sent out officers to negotiate agreements in Cameroon they found that country already in German hands.¹

The boundaries of continental Spanish Guinea were finally settled in 1900; and the Paris Convention was ratified, as between Spain and France, on March 22, 1901.² The eastern boundary of Spanish Guinea was then fixed at 9° east of Paris (11° 20' east of Greenwich),³ coinciding with that meridian from its point of intersection with the parallel of 1° N., as far as to the southern frontier of Cameroon.

Several systematic attempts to colonize Fernando Po have failed. Settlers have been sent out from Spain, from Algiers, and from Cuba; but imprudent selection, malarial fevers, and other adverse circumstances have caused all these efforts to fail. The international recognition of the fixed limits of the colony in 1900 gave a new impetus to enterprise.

In 1911 a German so-called "scientific" expedition, an offshoot of the Duke of Mecklenburg's party, subsidized by the German Minister for the Colonies, visited Fernando Po. The principals were Dr. Arnold Schultze and Dr. Mildbraed. Dr. Mildbraed ascended to the summit of the island in company with the agent of the German firm of Krull.⁴

By the Franco-Spanish Convention of 1900, France has rights of pre-emption over the whole or part of these Spanish possessions.⁵

² Hertslet, op. cit. No. 359.
³ See Appendix III.
⁵ See Appendix III (Art. VII).
ANNOBON

After its acquisition by Spain from the Portuguese in 1778, Annobon appears to have excited little interest. Its inhabitants were mostly descended from liberated slaves, and formed a not very united community. For a time they were governed by a council of five native delegates, each of whom became in rotation *primus inter pares* for a somewhat uncertain term. More recently the Governor-General of the colony has appointed a native deputy at Annobon, with three or four constables; but there is no permanent European establishment in the island, except a small mission station of the Order of the Immaculate Heart of Mary.

In 1885, when the Spanish missionaries of this Order were just settling at Annobon, the island was visited by a ship of war called the *Cyclope*, which seems to have been a German one; for Señor del Río Joan states that a forcible attempt made by her officers "to hoist the black eagle" on shore there "was foiled by the frail hand of a mission priest, who ran up the flag of Spain in protest." In 1911 the island was explored by the German expedition mentioned above (p. 14). A complete map of Annobon on a scale of 1:25,000, showing elevations and other physical details, with contour lines, and a descriptive article by Dr. Arnold Schultze, appeared in Petermann's *Mitteilungen* as a result of this visit.

It has been suggested (by Señor Granados) that, though Annobon has never brought any profit to Spain, France might do better with it, in connection with the Gabun or Congo. He proposed its exchange with France for the small strip of land bordering the Utamboni river where that stream divides

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1 *Africa occidental española.*
2 *Die Insel Annobon im Golf von Guinea, Band LIX, 1913, pp. 181-183, and Pl. 24. (The map is a good one.)*
3 *España en el Muni.*
French Gabun territory, then (1907) bounded on the north by the parallel of 1° north. Senor Granados observed that disputes had frequently occurred in connection with the passage of Spanish produce from the upper river and the Mitombe, through the wholly French portion of the Utamboni river, towards its lower reaches where the two nations had common rights of navigation and fishery. The Franco-German agreement of 1911, however, put such a scheme out of the question by including the French territory of the lower Utamboni in the southern extension of Cameroon.
III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

The religion of the great majority of the natives of the Muni territories is pagan and animistic. They are much influenced by the fear of demons and of sorcery, the more so as their religion is bound up with their tribal government.

Since 1843 Christianity has made some progress in Fernando Po among the mixed classes (i.e. descendants of liberated slaves and other settlers of African origin), and to a limited extent among the Bubis (the indigenous race). The career of the first Christian mission to the island, that of the English Baptists, and its extinction in 1858, has been referred to above (pp. 11, 13). The labours of that mission left a lasting mark in the adherence to the Protestant faith of about nine-tenths of the immigrant blacks of its period and their descendants, and of the mulattoes, many Liberians and natives of Lagos who have more recently settled in Fernando Po hold the same faith.

In 1870 the English Primitive Methodists were permitted to settle in the island to minister to the Protestant population; and they have continued their work to the present time. They own (1918) five stations, namely, one at Santa Isabel and another at San Carlos, working among mixed classes; one at Botonos, originally for Bubis, but now including mixed classes lately settled there; a small station at Baticopo; and a purely Bubi mission at Baney. The missionaries of this society use the English language only, with Bubi interpreters at times, and have no schools. They teach not only moral principles and Christian dogma,
but also cacao-planting and habits of industry; they hold services on Sundays, and to some extent give medical aid, though not academically "qualified" in this respect.

The only Protestant mission station on the mainland belongs to American Presbyterians, and was established some ten years ago at Bolondo, adjoining the mouth of the river of San Benito. There is a hospital attached, where from twenty to thirty in-patients can be accommodated. Two duly-qualified medical missionaries reside there, and their work has been very highly praised. This enterprise is controlled by the American Board of Missions.

At Bata, on the mainland coast, there is a French Roman Catholic mission, conducted entirely in the Spanish language by French priests, who appear to work quite harmoniously with the missionaries of Spanish nationality, being on good terms both with the Governor (Don Angel Barrera) and the Bishop. The former wrote¹ in 1907:—

"Our missionaries ought to labour hard to reduce the widespread influence possessed by the Protestant Missions established at Santa Isabel, Botonos, and San Carlos in Fernando Po, and at the Rio Benito on the mainland—the first three English and the last one American—for, no matter how Christian (i.e., friendly as well as pious) they may be, they cannot keep their nationality and their language in subjection, but propagate both with genuine zeal, and work for their nations as much as they are able; so that it is quite usual to see the portrait of His Majesty the King of England in those natives' houses instead of our august Monarch's."

The sphere of work undertaken by the Roman Catholic Order of the Immaculate Heart of Mary is wider, and bears a national character. It had been initiated in Fernando Po before 1883, when a staff of twelve members resided at Santa Isabel. Two years later they founded branches at Corisco, Annobon, and Cape San Juan (at the mouth of the Muni River); in 1886 a station was established at Banapa (F.P.), and

¹ Revista de Geografía C. y M., IV, 1907, p. 283.
another at Elobey Chico. In 1888 the mission colleges at Maria Cristina (near San Carlos, F.P.), for girls, and Concepcion (F.P.), were instituted; and by 1890 the Order had fifty missionaries and dependants at work in the colony. These stations have since been increased by five others (making fourteen in all) at Basile (F.P.), Musola (F.P.), Biapa (F.P.), Bata, and Benito: the last two on the mainland. To each station are attached a school and a workshop, and industrial training of a varied kind is given. Sisters, called "Hermanas Conceptionistas," work under direction of the order, and conduct the girls’ schools at Maria Cristina, Basile, Bata, and Corisco; some of them also assist in the General Hospital at Santa Isabel.

The one station of the mission in Annobon is at San Antonio, at the north end of the island. All the 600 natives of Annobon are nominally Christian; but they remain the poorest and most primitive folk in the colony, owing to their isolation and the slender resources of their soil. They are mostly fishermen.

The missions of the Spanish Order have undertaken much useful work, both of a spiritual and an industrial or civilizing kind; but the Governor complains that the Protestant missions

“have secured many converts, and it is painful to confess that the natives of best social position at Santa Isabel and San Carlos are Protestants, and there are quite a number of settlements throughout the coastal region of the mainland of the colony which have their native pastors, Bibles having been translated into the local dialects, in addition to English, which last is the language most generally current in the Possession.”

(2) Political

The chief authority is vested in a Governor-General, who is instructed by, and responsible to, the head of the “Colonial Section” of the Ministry of State at Madrid. The Governor-General resides at Basile (F.P.), and has offices in Santa Isabel. At Elobey (for the Muni River settlements) he is represented and

1 Sir H. H. Johnston in George Grenfell and the Congo.
assisted by a Sub-Governor; and at Bata (for the northern division of the mainland territory) by a Sub-Governor also. The river Sidore marks the dividing line of these districts. At Annobon affairs are entrusted by the Governor-General to a minor official, whose authority is supported by three or four native constables, and by the influence of the mission priests, there being no other white settlers.

The estimates of revenue and expenditure (for 1913) provide for a first-class judge, a registrar of titles, and a notary; Treasury, Customs, and Port officials; a Department of Public Health, which includes the hospitals at Santa Isabel, San Carlos, Elobery, and Bata, and the administration of charitable relief; a Department of Agronomy; Mails and Radio-telegraphy; Public Instruction, &c.

(3) Educational

There is a State school at Santa Isabel, recently erected, for all classes and shades of coloured children. Work is conducted in the Spanish language; by what type of master is not stated. No religious teaching is given. There is also a Spanish public school at San Carlos, where the executive control is stated to be in the hands of priests. It is reported to be less popular, and less successful, than the school at Santa Isabel. Figures of attendance are not available; nor is the scope of the instruction given.

There are other primary schools, controlled by the Order of the Immaculate Heart of Mary, at each one of its mission establishments. At Basile, Maria Cristina, Bata, and Corisco it has "colleges" for girls, conducted by mission sisters. All the stations have workshops attached, in which handicrafts, and even some of the arts, are taught. They are assisted by a grant from the public funds of the colony. The more wealthy members of the mixed classes, being descended from Anglicized parents, prefer to send their children
to Lagos or Sierra Leone to be educated; or, if they can afford to do so, to England.

Señor del Río Joan stated\(^1\) in 1915 that the condition of general education and society in the colony was "at best no more than embryonic." There was only one printing press, and that belonged to the mission; so that even the Boletín oficial of the Government had to be printed there. The State school had not then been opened; there were no night classes, no library, no theatre, casino, or café—not even an inn. The Europeans were few in number, and split up into three sets—the Government officials, the planters, and the traders. White women could not live there; consequently there was no family life, except where natives were concerned, no society, and no refinement.

\(^1\) Africa Occidental Española.
IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) Roads, Paths, and Tracks

In Fernando Po, apart from eight kilometres of road connecting Santa Isabel with the hill station of Basile and a few private roads made by the Catholic and Methodist Missions to connect their stations with the railway or the sea, there may be said to be no cart roads. Prior to 1907 funds appear to have been assigned in a haphazard fashion for roads and other public works, but by that year all that the province could show for the money spent was an unmetalled track cleared in the forest south of the capital, which it was planned to connect with San Carlos. This had reached only the sixth of the thirty miles intervening between the two towns, and had to be cleared afresh year by year as it became obliterated by the ceaseless encroachments of vegetation.

In 1911 a Department of Public Works was created, and in 1913 it evolved certain projects of railway communication. These were duly sanctioned, and funds allotted for their execution. A new road was made between Santa Isabel and Basile, and, in the following year, a commission of engineers under D. Francisco del Río Joan was sent out to report on the working of the Department. The report of this Commission was published in 1915. Among other findings it recommended the abandonment, as involving an unjustifiable cost, of all further attempts at road-making for wheeled traffic, and the concentration of the energies of the Department upon the upkeep and extension of
existing bridle tracks and footpaths and upon the completion of the railway programme.

In continental Guinea, especially in the central region north and south of the Rio San Benito, roads for wheeled traffic do not exist; paths are numerous, but are for the most part subsidiary to the waterways. The course of even unnavigable streams is usually preferred by the natives to a path through the forest, and routes through the interior are thus formed alongside the affluents of various rivers and connected by tracks over the watersheds.

(b) Rivers and Waterways

Owing to its comparatively level surface, continental Guinea has a fairly complete network of waterways. The three principal rivers which drain the territory, and also a number of their tributaries, are navigable by small craft and canoes for long distances inland—in some cases for fifty or sixty miles.

The Rio Muni, at the southern extremity of the territory, has fairly deep water, varying from 9 to 32 metres, even on its bar at Coco Beach, and with efficient dredging might be developed into a safe harbour for ocean-going vessels. This estuary receives from Spanish territory three large rivers, the Kongue, the Utongo, and the Utamboni, and the smaller Banye. The Kongue (Congüe) is navigable for some 20 km. by steamboats of moderate draught, and gunboats or small cruisers have penetrated its affluent, the Manyani, for a distance of 6-8 km. The Utongo is less important, but, though only 295 metres wide at its mouth, it expands further up to 1,000 metres and encloses various islands. The Banye is navigable by steamboats as far as the western end of the triangular island formed by the Banye, the Utongo and a small connecting creek, impracticable for boats. The Utamboni can be entered by vessels of moderate draught, and a cruiser has even reached Kanganyi. The value of the river to Spain, however, is lessened by
the fact that for 25 km. of its lower course it traverses Cameroon territory.

The Rio Campo (Kampo), at the northern extremity of the territory, has a bar at its mouth from which a bank extends several miles to sea, but it is navigable for small craft up to Ngoambang, a village from which a network of forest paths extends southward, opening up the country between the basins of the Campo and the San Benito.

The mouth of the San Benito (Vole, Wolô), like that of the Campo, is obstructed by a formidable sand bar, but a channel through the bar allows of the passage of vessels of 300 tons burden. Vessels with a draught of not more than 3.5 metres can proceed up stream for 19-21 km., but careful navigation is necessary as the current is strong. The Utonye affluent, on the left bank, has a depth of 2.7-4 metres and can be ascended as far as the village of Medama, where there is just swinging room for small craft. An affluent of the Utonye, again, the Metoma, has its source near to that of the Manyani, a tributary of the Kongue, a circumstance which determines the inland line of communication between the Muni and the San Benito. The San Benito offers so many possibilities, from both the physical and the politico-economic points of view, that it has been urged that the seat of government should be removed from the island of Fernando Po to a site on its banks. In support of this proposal it is contended, not without a show of reason, that the provision of a land-locked harbour and the construction of quays for the accommodation of ocean-going vessels would be easier here than anywhere else in the colony.

The islands have no navigable rivers.

(c) Railways

So far the only railway is in the island of Fernando Po. The scheme relating to it dates from 1913, with subsequent modifications (slight changes of track, &c.) and extensions. The total length originally contem-
plated was 190 kilometres (118 miles), and the extensions since proposed do not exceed 8 km. According to the latest information available (Río Joan, 1915; Bravo Carbonel, 1917)\(^1\) the only portion open for traffic is the section from the capital to the village of Basupu (14 kilometres), the second section, Basupu-Basakato, being under construction to the 25th kilometre. The complete scheme is for the construction of two lines proceeding in opposite directions from Santa Isabel. One is intended to skirt the western coast and link up the capital with the port of San Carlos, running thence to the village of Dooko, about 12 kilometres further south; the other to follow the northern and eastern coast-line via the town of Concepción and to end at the village of Ureka, about five kilometres north of Point Santiago, the south-east extremity of the island. On the western line, about four kilometres to the north of San Carlos, a branch line is to diverge eastward to the hill station of Moka, where the native king of the Bubi tribe resides. It may be continued thence to Concepción, in which case the whole island, except the hilly tracts in the extreme south, will be completely encircled by railways. Plans have also been drawn up for a short line on the Rigi principle between Santa Isabel and the hill-station of Basile; this project may be proceeded with before the rest of the scheme, as at present the only communication between these important places is by road.

The railway is a State undertaking, both as regards construction and working. The Budget provision for expenditure was ptas. 294,883, and up to 1913–14 construction had cost ptas. 193,342, or ptas. 15,694 per kilometre. As most of the material required has been bought and landed, it is estimated that the sum of ptas. 97,774 will cover the further outlay.

The project seems fully to meet the economic needs of Fernando Po. But it leaves continental Guinea untouched, and, if the proposed transfer of the capital to the Río San Benito is proceeded with, the area,

\(^1\) See list of Authorities, pp. 57-59.
population and economic possibilities of that region will doubtless compel in the immediate future further schemes of a much larger kind. Before the outbreak of war a scheme of railway connexion of an international character had been mooted. The idea that finally commended itself to Spain and France was that a Spanish line proceeding from Benito southward via Kandyama should meet a French line running northward from Libreville to Wesso. The project involved the crossing of the strip of territory acquired from French Equatorial Africa by Germany subsequent to the Treaty of Paris in 1900. Such a scheme, however, would probably be only the first section of a comprehensive programme of railway expansion, both northwards and inland.

(d) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones

The General Post Office at Santa Isabel and the sub-offices at San Carlos and Concepción in the island of Fernando Po, and also the sub-offices at Bata and Benito on the mainland, and the island offices in Anno- benon and Elobey, receive all classes of mail matter for inward and outward transmission. Official statements make no mention of inland telegraphs, but it appears that a telephone line follows the track of the San Carlos railway now under construction, and that both Santa Isabel and San Carlos have their own local telephone exchanges.

In continental Guinea Bata and Benito are connected by telephone, the line following a 50-metre track cut for 110 kilometres through the forest along the coast-line. The northern section of this line, 70 kilometres in length, is already open, and, according to official information published in 1917, the remainder has been constructed and should have been opened before the end of that year.
(2) External

(a) Ports

On the mainland coast there is a lack of ports, and the conditions of navigation are bad. The few anchorages are poor and distant from the shore, which, moreover, is nearly always veiled by a dense mist. It is proposed to build a quay at Benito, which has already been mentioned in connexion with the international railway scheme and the suggested transference of the seat of government from Fernando Po to continental Guinea.

The ports in Fernando Po are Santa Isabel (called Port Clarence in the Africa Pilot, Part II, 1910), San Carlos, and Concepción, the last named being of minor importance, and the second undeveloped, though susceptible of great improvement. Both the first and second have natural harbours. That of Santa Isabel is a semicircular bay bordered by steep rocky cliffs about 60 metres in height, open only to the north. It is, in fact, a partially submerged crater, a sunken portion of the rim forming the mouth, which is about 1,000 metres wide with depths of 7–18 metres and a passage 22–26 metres deep about the middle of the arc. Within is deeper water, reaching in places 55–82 metres, and outside there is again deeper water, abounding, however, in rocky shoals. The harbour is small, but as the surf and swell so troublesome in other West African ports are here unknown, ships are able to anchor quite close to the shore. On the other hand, enclosed as it is, the anchorage is hot and unhealthy. It is connected with the town by a cog-wheel railway rising diagonally along the face of the cliff till it reaches the summit, where it turns and curves towards the railway terminus in the town of Santa Isabel. The scheme of harbour works initiated by the Río Joan Commission includes the reclamation of the foreshore, a portion of its task which seems now to have been completed.
San Carlos Bay is a deep indentation, about 11 km. across and the same distance in length, within which there is excellent anchorage. Concepción, on the opposite side of the island, has a fair anchorage, which may become valuable as trade with the Moka valley develops. Neither port had quay or jetty in 1913, but the plans and estimates for these have been approved, and the works may now be nearing completion.

The natural harbours at Bata and Elobery have not yet been equipped with landing facilities.

(b) Shipping Lines

Two Spanish companies, the Compañía Trasatlántica de Barcelona and the Compañía Intercolonial de Gijón, maintain connexion between the continental and insular regions of this province and the mother-country. Before the war Fernando Po also received regular calls from steamers of the Woermann and Deutsche Ost-Afrika lines, and occasional calls from those of the Elder-Dempster line. The two German companies had made special efforts to capture the trade of Bata, Benito, and Elobery, where they had their own representatives. Besides the two Spanish companies, Messrs. John Holt & Co., Loring & Co., E. H. Moritz, and Wilson & Co. have agents at Santa Isabel.

(c) Cable and Wireless Communication

The island part of the province is not connected with the mainland by submarine cable, nor is there any telegraphic connexion between Spanish Guinea and the outside world, except by wireless. Santa Isabel has a wireless station capable of communicating with Duala (Cameroon), and is now raising its power so as to include in its radius of operations the British stations of Lagos and Bonny. Wireless installations are also being erected at Elobery Chico, and at Bata.

The nearest cable station to Fernando Po is that of the British West African Telegraph Company at Principe.
(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

(a) Supply; Emigration and Immigration

The labour question has received very careful examination at the hands of the Spanish Colonial Ministry. It is concerned mainly with two matters, namely: (i) European (Spanish) immigration; (ii) coloured labour within the province itself, or from foreign possessions in West Africa.

(i) Until malaria and other noxious climatic influences can be reduced to a minimum, the only service the white artisan or labourer can render in these regions is that of an overseer; and even in this capacity his employment is to be deprecated, as his frequent illnesses and speedy break-down rob his work of much of its usefulness and render it extremely costly.

(ii) In the matter of native labour supply the Río Joan Commission record their opinion that the Bubi of Fernando Po has been harshly judged as a worker, experience having shewn that with just and sympathetic treatment, due recognition being paid to his natural limitations, much better results can be obtained than have hitherto been customary. D. Angel Barrera, late Governor-General of the province, points out that the case for the Bubis has never had fair trial, inasmuch as Fernando Po unfortunately includes in its planting community a number of men whose only idea of labour control is to exploit the native to the utmost, and also possesses a Curaduria (Protectorate of Native Labour) so subservient to this element as to be either unwilling or unable to fulfil its functions and secure to the workmen their rights in the matter of wages and fair treatment. That the fault does not lie with the Bubis is clear from the fact, recorded by the same authority, that in the public works of the
State, where irregularities of this kind are unknown, there is no lack of Bubi candidates for employment; men come forward voluntarily by the dozen, and work harder and for longer hours than Europeans. Moreover, the Bubis show an assiduity in the tillage of their own little cocoa groves that belies the complaint as to their physical feebleness. The Public Works Department sees to it that temporary housing is available for the men in the immediate vicinity of their work, and that those whose homes are at a distance enjoy as liberal a weekend leave as circumstances will permit; also that they are not detained at work for Government during the harvesting season of their cocoa crops. Were the planters to imitate Government in these respects they would doubtless find the results as satisfactory as they have been to the Department concerned.

But the Bubis alone do not furnish labour sufficient for any large development of agriculture, and it has been found necessary to import other labour. The Bata tribesman from continental Guinea has been tried, and is found to stand midway between the Bubi and the Liberian in point of physique. But physique has to be paid for; and, whereas twenty years ago the tribesman was willing, in his own country at least, to work for his food alone, he now knows his value and demands his price accordingly. Moreover, he is more inclined to become the means of inducing natives from the interior to undertake work, for which he receives a commission, than to work himself. On the whole these Bata labourers are accepted only where others are not available.

Among the negro races of Spanish Guinea the most intelligent are the Bengas. They consider agriculture to be degrading, but, as they are almost the only natives who can read and write, their services are in demand as clerks, commercial travellers or pedlars, in all of which capacities they do well. They are generally good linguists, many possessing a practical knowledge of Spanish, English, and French. They
dress in the tropical European fashion and imitate European habits and customs. But the men are addicted to alcohol and readily degenerate from this cause, while they are much given to pilfering.

The most valuable of all workers native to the province is the Pamué, who runs the Kru or Liberian very close as regards physique. He is independent and not disposed to venture far afield, and this type of labour is therefore difficult to obtain. Nevertheless a beginning has been made in utilizing this source, and a small Pamué settlement is now in existence at Sacriba, near Santa Isabel in Fernando Po.

By a treaty dated May 22, 1914, Liberia agreed to supply Spain with labour for her colony on the following very favourable terms:—(1) engagements to be for two years maximum, one year minimum; (2) permission to be refused for recruiting by anyone not expressly licensed by the Governments of Spanish Guinea and the Liberian Republic; (3) no recruiting in Liberia to be allowed for specified estates or proprietors, but all labourers to be consigned to the Liberian Consul at Santa Isabel; (4) the Liberian Consul and the Curador to board the vessel before the disembarkation of the labourers, and to conduct them under escort to an allotted depot, whence they are to be assigned to the planters who have indentured them; (5) guarantees to be given for payment of wages, good treatment, and punctual repatriation on completion of term of service.

Under the new agreement, 260 Liberians were brought to Fernando Po during the year 1914, and there were consequently at the end of that year rather more labourers in the island than usual. It is doubtful, however, whether the new arrangement will prove a success. The result will depend largely on the treatment the "boys" receive; but British firms are also apprehensive as to the effect on recruiting of the provisions under which the "boys" do not choose their own masters. Their fears are aggravated by the fact
that German firms in Cameroon are making every effort to attract the Krus.

Tables published in 1912 record that 3,010 natives were supplied to Fernando Po by the Rio Muni settlement and the islands, and 2,735, largely Krumen, from Senegal, Sierra Leone, Lagos, Calabar, Accra, Cameroon, Liberia, and the French Congo. The death-rate in the island greatly exceeds the birth-rate.

(b) Labour Conditions

The Native Labour Ordinance of July 27, 1913, governing all classes of indentured labour, is a well-drafted and beneficent piece of legislation. It provides that all unemployed residents in Fernando Po who cannot show means of subsistence, or are not registered in the books of the District Council (local village communities), must perform such work as the Curaduria may assign to them, whether for the State or for private employers. This article, however, does not apply to the Bubis. The private employer is forbidden to engage native labour except under contract executed before the Curaduria. No native labourers may be engaged who are over 70 years of age or under 15, or suffering from certain diseases. The agreement is to be for not more than two years or less than one year, but may be renewed, if the labourer is willing, for either the longer or the shorter period. The labourer must be returned to his place of engagement at the employer’s expense. There are special regulations for the engagement and employment of families; and a family, on expiry of contract, may select two hectares of land in Fernando Po, as a free grant in lieu of repatriation. Detailed conditions are laid down as to the hours of labour for men, women, and young people, the housing, feeding, and payment of labourers, and treatment in case of sickness. On the one side corporal punishment is forbidden; on the other, refusal to work and incitement to strike are
punishable offences. Finally, provision is made for inspection and for the infliction of punishment where necessary.

Intimately connected with the labour question is that of the health of the labouring population. Throughout equatorial Africa, according to Sir Harry H. Johnston, the peril of spreading epidemic disease, such as sleeping sickness, by encouraging uncontrolled migration of labour grows yearly more menacing. Sleeping sickness is not a new disease, as between 1820 and 1870 it used to occur with some frequency in the coast region of Liberia, from which Fernando Po now draws its labour supply, and was by no means extinct there in 1908. Sir H. H. Johnston is of opinion that, notwithstanding reports to the contrary, there has been a marked increase in the number of the Bubis since the island passed from British into Spanish hands, and that they now number about 50,000, as against 20,000 in 1846. The Río Joan Commission, on the other hand, estimated the rural population in 1914 at only 6,000, or at 17,000 including the two largest towns. Dr. Pittaluga, who has given the matter his special attention, records that a terrible epidemic of smallpox visited the Bubis in 1892, and caused a very high mortality; while as regards sleeping sickness he says: "If energetic measures are not adopted to oppose the invasion of this malady, human trypanosomiasis in Fernando Po will within a few years have attained the same endemic intensity as in Principe. In the continental territory of Muni and Benito it will end in incalculable loss by progressive depopulation."

1 George Grenfell and the Congo, 1908.
2 When this was written (1910) the ratio of cases to population in Principe was about 26 per cent., and the mortality was well over 8 per cent. per annum. In 1914, however, the island was officially declared to be free of the disease.
ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) Products of Commercial Value

Spanish writers in discussing the agriculture of this province deplore the contrast it presents between actual and potential wealth, and enforce their arguments for a more enlightened policy by illustrations and comparisons drawn from actual experience in the adjoining Portuguese province of San Thomé and Principe. Fernando Po and continental Guinea can and ought to grow some twenty or thirty of the products forming the staple output of other tropical countries, where conditions of soil and climate are similar. Under present conditions, however, cocoa alone is exported in any quantity from Fernando Po, and timber and rubber from continental Guinea, and neither of these industries is developed as it should be. Under Spanish control Fernando Po produces only 5,000,000 kg. of cocoa per annum; while San Thomé, whose available acreage is less than half as great and whose soil is not so fertile, yields 25,000,000 kg. In the former island there are at present no internal communications worth speaking of; in the latter all the estates are linked up with the seaports by road, rail, or bridle path. The same contrast obtains as regards agricultural processes and the practical handling of the labour problem.

The question of labour supply is indeed critical. A neglected cocoa farm deteriorates rapidly under a swift growth of weeds, which so lower the fertility of the soil that a piece of virgin forest is preferable to land in this condition. Yet cocoa should not be allowed to bear till the fifth year, and a full crop cannot be expected till the seventh year, while during all this time the plantation must be carefully tended. These conditions militate against the small farmer with little capital who fails to secure or maintain adequate labour for such
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

attention. For these reasons farms are often allowed to decline in value and are then abandoned. In some years, owing to lack of labour, part of the cocoa crop has to be left to rot on the trees.

At ptas. 1·50 per kg., the 5,000,000 kg. of cocoa thus produced represent in Santa Isabel a market value of ptas. 7,500,000, or in the European market (Barcelona) double that amount. It is estimated that ten times the area at present under cultivation might be brought under this crop, leaving about 57,000 hectares as forest reserve or waste land, including town and village sites, roads, beds of streams, &c.

Among the numerous products of the soil which have not yet been exploited commercially may be mentioned palm oil, obtained from the oil-palm (Elaeis guineensis); various tubers, such as yams and manioc (cassava); an excellent variety of potato which grows on the higher levels, e.g., at Moka; rubber (Landolphia sp.); copra and other products of the coconut palm; and the usual tropical fruits, including the plantain and banana. Coffee, too, is grown of a quality which, it is claimed, might compete with that of Puerto Rico; sugar, tobacco, and quinine are also produced.

Cattle-breeding is another agricultural industry indicated by local conditions as likely to be profitable, and it has been taken up on practical lines by the Compañía Trasatlántica de Barcelona on its farm at Moka in the hill-country of Fernando Po. The Moka region is specially suited to an enterprise of this kind, as it contains abundant supplies of guinea-grass, which the cattle eat greedily, and of trefoil and certain gramineous plants such as Erugrostis tremula. These plants are also to be found at Cape San Juan in continental Guinea, and the pasture of the island of Annobon is almost as rich; but Moka has the advantage of both in the matter of climate and abundance of potable water, with an absence of swamps and no excess of decaying vegetable matter. The company's farm at Moka was originally stocked from Europe, but, as might have been foreseen, acclimatization of the imported animals
proved impossible. They survive, however, for some years, and reproduce their kind, which is as much as can be expected. The object of their maintenance is to supply the markets of the island and the European community with milk, butter, and beef.

In Annobon the Roman Catholic missionaries have started, on the same lines but on a much smaller scale, a sheep and goat farm, which appears to be prospering. Pig-breeding in that island is undeveloped, but is an industry that commends itself to the natives, and is quite successful so far as it has hitherto gone.

(b) Forestry

The timber industry of continental Guinea, at present its only source of revenue from the land, is rudimentary. Exports, chiefly of mahogany, ebony, redwood, and bocumen (a dyewood: *Amyris sp.*) reached only 11,000 tons in 1913.

(c) Land Tenure

Real and personal property rights in Spanish West Africa are regulated, and their transmission secured, by the machinery of the Registry and Notaryship. The Royal Decree of July 11, 1904, supplemented by another of January 16, 1905, governs the case of real property in this province, and its general lines follow as closely as practicable those of the law of Spain. Its special features are as follows.

No native property is alienable save under the authority of a competent court. As to State property in lands, forests, and mines, a foreign concessionnaire must, as a condition of grant, file an express declaration of renunciation of right of recourse to his own Government, and an acceptance of submission to the jurisdiction of Spanish tribunals. Further, grants of lands as such do not include mines or
previously demarcated native lands found within the limits of the grant. Grants of less than 100 hectares are sold by public auction; those of greater extent are granted by the home Government. The cost, including fees, of bush land thus acquired runs to about 40 pesetas per hectare, or 12 shillings an acre, and there is an annual tax of 10 pesetas per hectare.

(3) Fisheries

The inhabitants of Annobon are experts with the harpoon, and frequently bring to the shores of the island the carcasses of whales which they have killed. But as they always kill more than they can utilize for their own requirements, and have no market for the surplus, the practice is a very wasteful one. At certain seasons of the year whales are abundant in the waters of this province, and the industry of oil extraction should prove lucrative. It has attracted Norwegian whalers and is being worked further south in Angola.

The existing demand for salt fish might be largely, if not entirely, met from local sources.

(4) Minerals

Continental Guinea is said to be rich in mineral resources. A coal bed, believed to be very extensive, exists in the immediate vicinity of Cape San Juan. There is abundance of iron in the regions of the Muni and Utamboni rivers. The existence of auriferous quartz has been suspected in the mountains crossing the eastern boundaries. Iron and coal have been reported in Fernando Po, but are not mined.

(5) Manufactures

There are at present practically no manufactures either on the mainland or on the islands, but there are several directions in which development is possible, as raw material exists for various classes of goods for which there is a large demand. Clay for making
bricks and tiles, and sand for glass-making, have both been worked experimentally, the former by the Roman Catholic Mission in Fernando Po, the latter by a concessionnaire on the Rio Benito, whose purpose was to use the fine white sand of the island of Corisco.

Another branch of industry suggested for attention in Spanish Guinea is the production of pulp for paper-making. Nine-tenths of the timber exported from the province before the war used to go to Hamburg, whence Spain herself obtained considerable supplies of the furniture and paper manufactured from it. Plantain meal or flour, which is really a form of arrowroot, is also a product to which attention deserves to be given. Spanish Guinea, however, is only one of many tropical possessions of different nations where this manufacture has been deplorably neglected. The same may be said of the banana, of which the plantain is merely an insipid variety; it makes a delicious food when dried and packed for export after the manner of the Smyrna fig.

(6) Power

There is ample water-power in Fernando Po, not only for the provision of electricity for the public and private lighting of Santa Isabel, but also for the working of saw-mills, oil-mills, ice-factories, and other such enterprises. At present Santa Isabel is lighted by paraffin lamps, and such industrial undertakings as exist are dependent on manual labour.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) Domestic

The cocoa trade of Santa Isabel is in the hands of 60 or 70 firms. When harvesting is in progress, the staffs of many of these houses migrate to the planting districts and establish temporary "factories" which they move from place to place, buying up the crop.
wherever it is to be had. Some of them trade also as
general import and export merchants, and carry on
a retail business in articles in common demand among
Europeans and well-to-do natives.

At Bata, in continental Guinea, there are fourteen
or fifteen business houses, and at Benito two or three.
The head factories of all nationalities have been
placed on Elóbey Chico because of the healthy condi-
tions there.

Most of the traders in Santa Isabel have English
names, but are of African origin, being probably
descendants of the natives converted by the Baptist
missionaries in the first half of the nineteenth century
or of the negroes sent over from the United States on
the abolition of slavery. Some houses, however,
are genuinely British, such as the Ambas Bay Trading
Co., John Holt & Co., Hatton & Cookson, and others,
long established at various points on the West African
coast.

Before the war, German firms operating from Santa
Isabel, with branches at various points in Fernando Po
and continental Guinea, had a large share in the trade
of the province.

(2) Foreign

(a) Exports

The staple export of Fernando Po is cocoa. Other
products exported are coffee, coco-nuts, copra, palm
kernels and palm oil, but, relatively to cocoa, their
importance is small. Out of a total value of 4,778,742
pesetas for exports from Fernando Po in 1912, cocoa
accounted for 4,645,397 pesetas. The output of palm
products has actually diminished, as the result of a
monopoly granted by the Government to a firm which
has made little use of the privilege. The great bulk
of the exports from Fernando Po in 1912, 3,812,010 kg.
out of 4,245,154, was carried in Spanish vessels; of
the balance only 144,279 kg. went in British vessels,
while 288,865 kg. were carried in German. The
countries of destination are not specified in the statistical returns.

The exports from Bata, Benito and Elohe are inconsiderable, amounting in 1912 to 474,030 pesetas (less than £20,000). They consist principally of timber, ebony and redwood, rubber, cocoa and palm products, rubber being the item of highest value. The exports of Annobon are insignificant.

(b) Imports

The import trade to the colony as a whole is made up mainly of wines and spirits, tinned foodstuffs, rice and salt fish for labourers, textiles, building materials and household requisites. These were received mostly through Spanish firms, but there were also three British firms concerned in the trade and one German house. Out of a total value of 5,079,156 pesetas for all imports in 1913, foodstuffs accounted for 1,289,091 pesetas, and wines and spirits and textiles for 659,533 and 505,137 pesetas respectively.

The countries which furnish the imports are not indicated in the available official reports. Most of the beer and gin consumed in the colony came from Germany; the beer was popular because it was both of excellent quality and suitable to a tropical climate, and gin because it was cheaper than could be obtained from other sources. Cheapness, again, made possible the successful competition of German machetes and enamelled ware with the superior British articles, and the same was true of sterilised milk and the chemical concoction which masqueraded as cider.

Various tables dealing with the foreign trade will be found in the Appendix.

(c) Customs and Tariffs

The Customs tariff of the province opens with a list of 31 classes of imports which are duty-free irrespective of origin. Machinery and tools for arts and crafts, for agricultural purposes, and for road, railway
and tram construction; cases and packages; live animals; foodstuffs, both for man and beast; ships and boats; ironmongery; and chemical products, are the more important items in this list. Textiles (cotton or silk), ready-made garments, boots and shoes, still wines, jewellery, and coal are dutiable only when of foreign origin. Alcoholic liquors other than wine are dutiable at rates fixed according to scale of strength. The differentiation between Spanish and foreign goods among the dutiable articles ranges from 5 per cent. ad valorem (upon petroleum) to 80 per cent. ad valorem (upon arms of precision). Prohibited imports into certain districts of Spanish Guinea on the mainland are firearms, matches, and wax vestas.

Export duties are levied on a few specified classes of goods, and range from one peseta upon pieces of ivory or ivory tusks of 6 kg. or over to 35 pesetas per 100 kg. on rubber. Prohibited exports are ivory tusks or pieces under 6 kg. in weight, and bocumen wood under 75 centimetres in diameter.

On cocoa shipped from Spanish colonies to foreign countries there is an export duty of about £3 15s. a ton. Cocoa consigned to Spain is not liable to export duty, but pays in Spain an import duty of 50 centimos per kg., plus a temporary duty of 10 c. per kg. On shipments subsequent to the arrival in any calendar year of 4,000 tons the duty is 1·20 pesetas per kg., plus the temporary duty of 10 c. As these duties are payable in gold, they amount, roughly speaking, to 3d. and 6d. per lb. respectively. They operate to retain the crop in store in the island from the latter half of one year to the beginning of the next, when it comes under the easier tariff. Though meantime it accumulates heavy charges for storage, and in many cases deteriorates seriously in quality. The larger firms, too, are favoured by this tariff, which leads the smaller producers to sell to them and not to attempt to export on their own account.
(D) FINANCE

(1) Public Finance

Detailed information as to recent budgets is not available, but some extracts may be given from a comparison of the sanctioned revenue and expenditure for the years 1903 and 1905. The total revenue for these years was 137,417 and 587,000 pesetas respectively. Of these sums the greater part was derived from indirect taxation, that is, from customs receipts, stamp duties, &c., which yielded 80,000 and 235,000 pesetas in the two years under consideration. From direct taxation, such as land, industrial, and income taxes, came 19,917 and 92,500 pesetas. Direct State revenues supplied 9,500 pesetas in 1905.¹ A substantial part of the balance consisted of profits on medical attendance and the sale of medicine in the Government dispensaries. All this, however, did not come near to covering the expenditure, and accounts in both years had to be balanced by a grant of 2,000,000 pesetas from the home Government. Thus personal expenditure (salaries, &c.) on public services and works amounted to 1,028,002 and 1,080,385 pesetas, the largest entry being under naval and military forces; and material expenditure to 769,966 and 1,042,836 pesetas, of which outlay on communications accounted for 442,500 and 250,000 pesetas. Public instruction, including allotments of funds to missions for educational purposes, absorbed in both years about 31,000 pesetas. The sums of 35,500 and 500,000 pesetas set aside for colonization and public works were not spent in those years, and reappeared with little modification in an extraordinary budget for 1911-12 as an aggregate of 485,000 pesetas assigned to harbour works. The total expenditure under all heads in 1903 and 1905 came to 1,922,718 and 2,219,721 pesetas respectively and the accounts

¹ No figure appears under this head for 1903.
were finally balanced at 2,137,417 and 2,587,000 pesetas, including in each case the grant-in-aid. The estimated total revenue for 1913 was 2,850,000 pesetas, or about £112,800, of which sum two-thirds represented the subvention from the home Government.

Before the arrival of the Río Joan Commission in 1914 the sanctioned appropriations for public works had for several years been allowed to lapse for want of a definite programme, but these were consolidated and regranted pending preparation of a considered scheme, which has now been formulated and is in process of execution.

The system of taxation has also received attention. A decree of December 31, 1910, enacts that agricultural land in Spanish Guinea, which seems to have escaped assessment up to about 1905, shall, unless specially excepted, pay a tax of 10 pesetas per hectare, whether held on a definite or on a provisional title. The tax was leviable for five years from the date of enactment, and has presumably been continued for a further period. On lands expressly granted for cotton-growing, and on pasture lands, a reduced assessment of 1 peseta per hectare has been made. Land covered by buildings pays 15 per cent, on its annual rental value, except in the case of buildings owned by the State or the District Councils or in villages organized by such Councils. Garden land included in towns and villages but not covered by buildings pays 25 centimos per square metre.

A trades and professions tax is also in force, ranging from 100 pesetas up to 1,500 pesetas per annum, according to the rating of the contributor. This rating takes into account the nature of the business or industry, the situation of the premises, and other general or special circumstances.

(2) Banking and Currency

The Bank of British West Africa has a branch at Santa Isabel. A Spanish colonial bank, or rather its
promoters, drew a subsidy from the Spanish Government for nearly seven years without any visible result to the colony till 1917, when a company was founded under the title Banco Colonial Español del Golfo de Guinea, for the protection of the trade and agriculture of the province. But before it had established itself in the colony, the Cortes, “on the motion of a single ignorant or malevolent deputy,” as Bravo Carbonel states, wrecked it by withdrawing the subsidy and guarantee.

The currency is the Spanish decimal system of pesetas and centimos.

(3) Foreign Capital: Fields of Investment

On these points little or no trustworthy information is forthcoming. In this colony Spanish fiscal legislation does not seem to identify patriotism with exclusion of the foreigner, for the British Consular Report for 1914 states that one German and three British firms had up till then had the bulk of the import trade in their hands. The Vacuum Oil Company, which had obtained a monopoly for its products through the instrumentality of a German firm, was then transferring its agency to a British house, with whom it was hoped it would remain. German beer figured prominently on the list of imports before the war; this fact suggests a possible opening for British enterprise.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

Spanish writers are unsparing in their criticisms of the backward condition of the colony, but weak in suggestions of a positive and constructive character. According to them, blame must be distributed among the trading and planting communities and the government, local and central, while the climatic conditions of the colony have also hampered development. The traders and planters are to blame for their low standards of commercial morality, which have given them a
bad name not merely in the province itself but in the neighbouring foreign colonies. Finally, the disadvantages due to the climate are aggravated by disregard, both in public and in private dispositions, of the sanitary measures essential for maintaining health.

The forecasts of abundant wealth indulged in by these writers are not likely to be realized as speedily as they seem to think possible. No doubt the planters start with the initial advantage that their labour reserves are larger and more accessible than those of the neighbouring and more successful Portuguese islands. Their soil is fertile, and even in Fernando Po it has as yet hardly been touched. The timber resources of Spanish continental Guinea are ample; but an insuperable obstacle has hitherto been the failure of Spain to assert her effective occupation of the regions containing the timber.

Sir Harry Johnston, who was British Consul in Fernando Po in 1887-88, takes the view that there is no reason why that island should not become as healthy, prosperous, and successful a European colony as San Thomé has become under Portuguese rule. Quite half the island, and that the healthier half, he asserts, is without inhabitants, while in the coast belt there is a growing colony of English-speaking negroes, planted there originally by the Baptist Mission and by British cruisers. He advocates that full support should be given by the Spanish authorities to the efforts of the Catholic and Protestant missionaries to win over the Bubis to a reasonable type of civilization, and is emphatic as to the urgent need for suppressing the drink trade, for which Britons, Germans, and Spaniards are equally responsible. The location of the Bubi tribe on native reserves is, or was in his time (it seems now to have been provided for), an urgently needed measure of justice. After ample provision has been made for them, he points out, thousands of acres of magnificently fertile soil will still remain available for development by white and negro colonists.

The problem presented by the invasion of sleeping
sickness has already been referred to in the section dealing with labour conditions (p. 33). Here, again, the experience gained by the Portuguese in grappling with the scourge in the island of Principe proves that its eradication, from an island at least, is not impossible (cf. p. 33, n. 2). It may be the deciding factor in the future of Fernando Po.

The fundamental conditions of the economic development of Spanish Guinea may therefore be said to comprise: (a) the effective occupation of the mainland territory and the improvement of means of communication, internal and external; (b) a considered programme of sanitation, including measures for the betterment of public health; (c) the encouragement of agricultural and commercial enterprise; (d) a rigorous administration of justice, on lines securing fair play for the native producer and labourer; and (e) the progressive recruitment of native labour, beginning with the more industrious and tractable elements of the population and extending gradually to tribesmen less amenable to the discipline and influence of labour.
APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES, &c.

I

PRELIMINARY TREATY IN RESPECT OF BOUNDARIES IN SOUTH AMERICA AGREED TO BETWEEN THE CROWNS OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL:

Signed at San Ildefonso, the 1st of October, 1777

ARTICLE XXII

1 In proof of the said unity and friendship so genuinely desired by the two august contracting parties, His Catholic Majesty offers to restore and evacuate within four months after the ratification of this treaty the island of Santa Catalina and the part of the continent adjoining it which the Spanish forces may have occupied, with the artillery, munitions, and other effects that were there at the time of such occupation.

2 And His Most Faithful Majesty, in return for such restitution, promises that at no time, whether during peace, or during war in which the Crown of Portugal has no part (as is hoped and desired), will he consent to the admission of any foreign squadron or ship, either of war or engaged in trade, to the aforesaid harbour of Santa Catalina or those of the neighbouring coast, nor allow them to shelter or stay there, especially if they should be ships of a Power at war with the Crown of Spain, or in respect of which there

1 Translated from Del Cantillo, Tratados, &c., p. 543.
may exist any suspicion of being intended to engage in contraband traffic.

Their Catholic and Most Faithful Majesties will promptly despatch suitable orders for the execution and punctual observance of the provisions of this Article; and will exchange with each other a duplicate of such orders, so that not the slightest doubt may remain concerning the exact fulfilment of the objects expressed in it.

Dated at San Ildefonso the 1st of October, 1777.—El conde de Florida Blanca.—Don Francisco Inocencia de Souza Coutinho.

Ratified by His Catholic Majesty the Lord and King Don Cárclos III, by instrument under his hand,

At San Lorenzo el Real, the 11th of the same month and year.

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Spanish Text of Extracts Translated Above.

1 Tratado Preliminar de Limites en la América Meridional ajustado entre las Coronas de España y Portugal;

Firmado en San Ildefonso el 1° de Octubre de 1777

Artículo XXII

2 En prueba de la misma unión y amistad que tan eficazmente se desea por los dos augustos contrayentes, su Majestad católica ofrece restituir y evacuar dentro de cuatro meses siguientes á la ratificación de este tratado la isla de Santa Catalina y la parte del continente inmediato á ella que hubiesen ocupado las armas españolas con la artillería, municiones y demás efectos que se hubiesen hallado al tiempo de la ocupación.

3 Y su Majestad fidelísima, en correspondencia de esta restitución, promete que en tiempo alguno, sea de paz ó de guerra, en que la corona de Portugal no tenga parte (como se espera y desea), no consentirá que alguna escuadra ó embarcación de guerra ó de comercio extranjeras entren en dicho puerto de Santa Catalina ó en los de la costa inmediata, ni que en ellos se abriguen ó detengan, especialmente siendo embarcaciones de potencia que se

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halle en guerra con la corona de España, ó que pueda haber alguna sospecha de ser destinadas á hacer el contrabando.

Sus Majestades católicas y fidelísimas harán expedir prontamente las ordenes convenientes para la ejecución y puntual observancia de cuanto se estipula en este artículo; y se canjeará mutuamente un duplicado de ellas á fin de que no quede la menor duda sobre el exacto cumplimiento de los objetos que incluye.

Feche en San Ildefonso á 1º de octubre de 1777.—El conde de Florida Blanca.—Don Francisco Inocêncio de Souza Coutinho.

Su Majestad católica el señor Rey Don Carlos III, le ratificó por instrumento expedido en San Lorenzo el Real en 11 de dicho mes y año.

II

TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP, SECURITY, AND COMMERCE, AGREED TO BY THE CROWNS OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL, AND SIGNED AT EL PARDO, THE 24TH OF MARCH, 1778.

ARTICLE XIII

His Most Faithful Majesty will cede, as in fact he has ceded and does cede, for himself and in the name of his heirs and successors, to his Catholic Majesty and his heirs and successors in the Crown of Spain, the island of Annobón, off the coast of Africa, with all rights, possessions, and estate appertaining to the said island, that it may henceforth form part of the Spanish dominions, in the same manner as it has hitherto formed part of those of the Crown of Portugal; and also all right and estate appertaining or that may appertain to the island of Fernando del Pó [sic], in the Gulf of Guinea, in order that the subjects of the Crown of Spain may settle there and trade in the ports and coasts opposite the said island, namely, the ports of the River Gabaon [sic], of the Camarones,

1 Translated from Del Cantillo, Tratados, &c., p. 547.
of Santo Domingo, Cape Fervoso and others of the same district, without, however, causing let or hindrance thereby to the trade of subjects of Portugal, particularly those of the islands del Príncipe and Santo Tomé, who at present go or may in the future go to the said coast and ports for trading purposes, where the Spanish and Portuguese subjects are to conduct themselves with the most perfect harmony and are not to interfere with or obstruct each other for any cause or on any pretext.

**Article XIV**

2 All Spanish ships, whether of war or engaged in trade, which may put in at the islands del Príncipe or of Santo Tomé belonging to the Crown of Portugal, to refresh their crews or lay in provisions or other necessary stores, shall be received and treated at the said islands as belonging to the most-favoured nation: and the same shall be observed towards Portuguese ships, whether of war or commerce, which may resort to the isle of Annobón or that of Fernando del Pó [sic] belonging to His Catholic Majesty.

**Article XV**

3 [Provides for the continuance of] free and open traffic and commerce in negroes at the aforesaid islands, and in the event of the Portuguese nation conveying them to the said isles of Annobón or Fernando del Pó [sic], they shall be bought and paid for duly and promptly, in accordance with ruling prices and having regard to the quality of the slaves, and not in excess of those customarily charged or hereafter to be charged by other nations in similar sales and localities.

Dated at the royal seat of El Pardo, the 11th March, 1778.—El conde de Florida Blanca.—Don Francisco Inocencia de Souza Coutinho.

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1 Prince's Island and St. Thomas.
2 Del Cantillo, *op. cit.*, p. 551, continued.
Ratified by His Catholic Majesty by instrument under his hand, At El Pardo, the 24th of the same month and year.

Spanish Text of Extracts Translated Above.

1 TRATADO DE AMISTAD, GARANTÍA Y COMERCIO AJUSTADO ENTRE LAS CORONAS DE ESPAÑA Y DE PORTUGAL, Y FIRMADO EN EL PARDO, EL 24 DE MARZO DE 1778.

ARTÍCULO 18°.

cedería su Majestad fidelísima, como de hecho ha cedido y cede, por sí y en nombre de sus herederos y sucesores, á su Majestad católica y los suyos en la corona de España, la isla de Annobón, en la costa de África, con todos los derechos, posesiones y acciones que tiene á la misma isla, para que desde luego pertenezca á los dominios españoles del propio modo que hasta ahora a pertenecido á los de la corona de Portugal; y así mismo todo el derecho y acción que tiene á tener á la isla de Fernando del Pó en el Golfo de Guinea, para que los vasallos de la corona de España se pueden establecer en ella, y negociar en los puertos y costas opuestas á la dicha isla, como son los puertos del río Gabaon, de los Camarones, de Santo Domingo, de Cabo Fermo y otros de aquel distrito, sin que por eso se impida ó estorbe el comercio de los vasallos de Portugal, particularmente de los de las islas del Príncipe y de Santo Tomé, que al presente van y que en el futuro fueron á negociar en dicha costa y puertos, comportándose en ellos los vasallos españoles y portugueses con la más perfecta armonía, sin que por algún motivo ú pretexto se perjudiquen ó estorbecen unos ú otros.

ARTÍCULO 14°.

Todas las embarcaciones españolas, sean de guerra ó de comercio de dicha nación, que hicieren escala por las islas del Príncipe y de Santo Tomé, pertenecientes á la corona de Portugal, para refrescar sus tripulaciones ó provéerse de víveres ú otros efectos necesarios serán recibidas y tratadas en las dichas islas como la nación más favorecida: y lo mismo se practicará con las embarcaciones portuguesas de guerra ó de comercio que fueren á la isla de Annobón ó á la de Fernando del Pó, pertenecientes á su Majestad católica.

1 Del Cantillo, Tratados, &c., p. 547.
ARTÍCULO 15º.

[Provides for] un tráfico y comercio franco y libre de negros [at those islands]; y en caso de traerlos la nación portuguesa á las referidas islas de Annobón y de Fernando del Pó, serán comprados y pagados pronta y exactamente, con tal que los precios sean convencionales y proporcionados á la calidad de los esclavos, y sin exceso á los que acostumbren suministrar ó suministraren otras naciones en iguales ventas y parajes.

Fecho en el real sitio del Pardo á 11 de Marzo de 1778.—El conde de Florida Blanca.—Don Francisco Inocencia de Souza Coutinho.

Su Majestad católica ratificó el anterior tratado por instrumento expedido en el mismo sitio del Pardo el 24 de dicho mes y año.

III

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND SPAIN FOR THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR POSSESSIONS IN WEST AFRICA.

Signed at Paris, the 27th of June, 1900

BOUNDARIES IN THE GULF OF GUINEA

Article IV.—La limite entre les possessions françaises et espagnoles sur la côte du Golfe de Guinée partira du point d’intersection du thalweg de la Rivière Mouni avec une ligne droite tirée de la pointe Coco Beach à la pointe Diéké. Elle remontera ensuite le thalweg de la Rivière Mouni et celui de la Rivière Outemboni jusqu’au point où cette dernière rivière est coupée pour la première fois par le 1° degré de latitudem nord et se confondra avec ce parallèle jusqu’à son intersection avec le 9° degré de longitude est de Paris (11° 20’ est de Greenwich).

De ce point la ligne de démarcation sera formée par le dit méridien 9° est de Paris jusqu’à sa rencontre avec

1 Del Cantillo, op. cit., p. 552.
2 Hertalet, op. cit., No. 359.
la frontière méridionale de la Colonie allemande de Cameroun.

Article V.—[Provides for reciprocal rights of access for French and Spanish ships in the territorial waters of the other, and mutual fishing rights in the Rivers Muni and Utamboni.]

Article VII.—Dans le cas où le Gouvernement espagnol voudrait céder, à quelque titre que ce fût, en tout ou en partie, les possessions qui lui sont reconnues par les Articles I et IV de la présente Convention, ainsi que les Îles Elobey et l’Île Corisco voisines du littoral du Congo français, le Gouvernement français jouira d’un droit de préférence dans des conditions semblables à celles qui seraient proposées audit Gouvernement espagnol.

Article VIII.—[Boundary Commission to be appointed by each party.]

Article IX.—Les deux Puissances contractantes s’engagent réciproquement à traiter avec bienveillance les chefs qui, ayant eu des traités avec l’une d’elles, se trouveront en vertu de la présente Convention passer sous la souveraineté de l’autre. [Article X follows.]

[Done at Paris, in duplicate, 27 June, 1900.] Delcassé.—F. de Léon y Castillo.
APPENDIX

STATISTICS

Table I.—Foreign trade of Spanish Guinea for the years 1909–13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th></th>
<th>Exports</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>5,330,055</td>
<td>3,808,712</td>
<td>4,241,647</td>
<td>2,397,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>6,409,543</td>
<td>3,980,181</td>
<td>6,148,640</td>
<td>4,066,513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>6,851,279</td>
<td>4,448,269</td>
<td>11,157,841</td>
<td>4,337,126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>7,298,827</td>
<td>4,758,161</td>
<td>14,386,338</td>
<td>5,087,625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>8,377,522</td>
<td>5,079,156</td>
<td>16,696,686</td>
<td>7,831,429</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Figures taken (with corrections) from F. del Río Joan’s Africa Occidental Española. The figures for weights are approximate only.

Table II.—Details of exports for 1912.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fernando Po.</th>
<th>Bata, Benito, Elobey.</th>
<th>Total.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cocoa</td>
<td>3,994,318</td>
<td>4,645,397</td>
<td>79,193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logs</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>8,692,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm oil and kernels</td>
<td>155,162</td>
<td>83,157</td>
<td>55,825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>38,845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>95,674</td>
<td>50,188</td>
<td>111,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Figures taken from Consular Report, No. 5519, Annual Series.
## Table III.—Details of Imports and Exports for 1913.

### Imports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value (Pesetas)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dutiable:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles other than silk</td>
<td>505,137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table wines</td>
<td>461,335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other wines, beer, spirits</td>
<td>198,198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ready-made clothing</td>
<td>130,179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobacco</td>
<td>133,226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>74,426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal</td>
<td>22,387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor commodities</td>
<td>354,462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,879,350</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duty free:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foodstuffs</td>
<td>1,289,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building materials</td>
<td>345,985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware and Machinery</td>
<td>346,294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waters, mineral and medicinal</td>
<td>55,769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor commodities</td>
<td>1,162,667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,199,806</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Figures taken (with corrections) from F. del Rio Joan's *Africa Occidental Española.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dutiable:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocoa</td>
<td>7,087,524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timber</td>
<td>226,851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber</td>
<td>129,929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oils, oil-seeds, &amp;c.</td>
<td>68,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivory</td>
<td>25,706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor commodities</td>
<td>11,555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>7,500,188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Duty free:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empty barrels</td>
<td>17,016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copra</td>
<td>3,290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor commodities</td>
<td>310,985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>331,241</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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**Official**


**General**


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Maps.

Spanish Guinea and Fernando Po are covered by the War Office Map of Africa, sheet "French Congo" (G.S.G.S., 2871), on the scale of 1:2,000,000 (1919); also by sheet 82 of the War Office Map of Africa (G.S.G.S., 1539, old numbering), on the scale of 1:1,000,000.

A sketch Map of Spanish Guinea, including Fernando Po, on the scale of 1:2,000,000, was issued with this book.