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THE GAMBIA



Photo by Elliott and Fry

SIR GEORGE C. DENION, K.C.M.G. F.R.G.S.

Late Governor of the Gambia (1900-1911)

[Unidentified]

THE GAMBIA

ITS HISTORY

ANCIENT, MEDIÆVAL, AND MODERN

TOGETHER WITH ITS

GEOGRAPHICAL, GEOLOGICAL, AND
ETHNOGRAPHICAL CONDITIONS

AND A DESCRIPTION OF

THE BIRDS, BEASTS, AND FISHES

FOUND THEREIN

BY

HENRY FENWICK REEVE

C.M.G., M.I.C.E., F.R.G.S., F.A.S., Etc., Etc.

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS

LONDON

JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET, W.

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PREFACE

MORE accustomed to the tangible difficulties that beset the path of the pioneer and explorer in front of those who make or write History, nevertheless, the Author sallies out boldly on his hopelessly quixotic quest, and sets his quill in rest to tilt with ethical truths against the Windmills of the European Powers, who have come to regard Africa and the African Peoples as specially designed by a beneficent Providence for their national aggrandisement, or as a makeweight in their squabbles about what they term the balance of World Power. He therefore claims the indulgence of those who wield the facile pen and the purple pencil, for his trespass on their field, on the plea that he has "worked with patience which is almost power" and perhaps "done some excellent things, indifferently." His sole object is to give his own people and Government a true perspective of the Colony of the Gambia, its value to the British Empire, and, above all, a clear view of their obligations as a Great Nation, towards those who have been our loyal fellow-subjects for more than three centuries.

In order to attain these objects he has adopted as a guide the preface of Francis Moore, one of his predecessors in writing about the Gambia.

Moore says :

"It is the business of every one who gives a Book to

PREFACE

the Publick, to make it as agreeable as can be to the Reader. For this purpose Invention, Stile, Learning, and the Ornaments of Eloquence, are employed by those who are Masters of them, for setting off their Compositions.

“As I cannot pretend to any of those accomplishments, and can value myself upon Nothing but the Truth, it is not the manner of Writing, but the Subject; that is to say, the Description of a Country, much talked of and little known, which must please in the following Relation,” and so on.

To achieve that end, the Historical Chapters deal with the Gambia, Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern, while the Geographical and Geological Chapters endeavour to show forth the magnificence of its harbour and its waterways into the interior—together with the value of immense deposits of iron ore on the cliffs overhanging the river that await shipment to England, when those of our own Islands are worked out. The last of these alone should give pause to a Nation mainly dependent upon its iron and steel, in ships and guns, for its national life, seeing that its own ore deposits are calculated to last only 50 or 60 years, and that importations from foreign countries constitute a large proportion of its present trade and manufacture.

Much could be said as to the commercial value of the Gambia and its exports and imports. These statistics are at hand in the Colonial Office List and Yearly Reports, but the Author does not appeal to his countrymen as a “Nation of Shopkeepers.”

In the Ethnical Chapters the Author has possibly added little to solve the question of the fusion of races in

PREFACE

North-West Africa, excepting his personal observations during years of service in the Colony.

The Chapters on Birds, Beasts, and Fishes, to which Dr. Hopkinson and Captain Stanley have contributed, may be taken as comprehensive of the animal life in the Valley of the Gambia from a popular point of view as apart from that of the Scientist.

And finally, the ethical standpoint from which the Author regards our National retrogression in West Africa may be deemed unpractical in the twentieth century, but in this lies the "crux" of the work and the *raison d'être* of the undertaking.

It is perhaps too late to right the wrongs of the people who have trusted in us for hundreds of years, wrongs that, commencing with slave dealings in the sixteenth century, culminated in breaches of trust by the barter of territory in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; but at least, we can repent and sin no more.

The whole civilized world held up deprecatory hands at the horrors of the Congo, but the European Powers in all their glory of trustees for the natives of Congo did not move a ship or a soldier to prevent the continuance thereof, and yet lives were sacrificed and bodies mutilated by thousands in order to gain money or commercial advantage.

To the human race, black or white, liberty, lands, and peace of mind are often considered worth many lives in warfare, and to barter in cold blood these ideals of primitive races, with whom we have entered into solemn treaties to protect and sustain, is but little less vile.

These, in the Gambia, we have continually sacrificed in the interests of our Foreign Relations, and it is little

PREFACE

to be proud of that we should be unable to maintain our place in Europe among the Nations of the World without bartering away the lands of our Subjects in Africa.

By our own profession we are but trustees for our African Subjects, and we have betrayed our trust and smirched our National Honour in these barterings of lands which ethically belong to the Races whom the Creator has placed within them.

Moreover, History proves that the commencement of the downfall of the successive Empires which have ruled the World from age to age, has been the loss of Territory and Peoples, once under their Dominion, either by conquest or by cession as a bribe to obtain Peace.

"Peaceful penetration," "Rectification of Boundaries," and other shibboleths of the Scramble for West Africa are terms used simply to gloss over the barter of lands that are not our own, lives on which we have no claim, and liberties which we have sworn to protect with our National Flag. England, that is now busied with legislation for the improvement of the conditions of her working-classes, marking her progress in humanity, should decline to soil her flag and name by any further dealings in "black ivory," to the detriment of the African Races under her control, and to her everlasting Condemnation in History.

HENRY REEVE.

DECEMBER, 1911.

CONTENTS

PART I HISTORICAL

CHAPTER I

B.C. 600-0

	PAGE
Legendary—Visits of Ancient Navigators—The Phœnicians—Sataspes— Hanno and the Carthaginians	3

CHAPTER II

0-1000 A.D.

The "Periplus of Scylax"—The Songhois or Egyptians	12
--	----

CHAPTER III

1000-1300

The Arabians, or Mohammedans, invade the valloys of Senegal, Gambia and Niger—The Mandingos	22
--	----

CHAPTER IV

1300-1500

Advent of the Norman explorers and the Portuguese—Cada Mosto and Pedro Vaz	27
---	----

CHAPTER V

1500-1600

Leo Africanus—The riches of Timbuctoo—Advent of the English to the West Coast—Sir John Hawkins and Slavery—Decline of Portuguese Power—The return of the French—Invasion of the Niger Valley by the Moors	41
--	----

CHAPTER VI

1600-1630

Our Merchant Adventurers—First English Charter and Company— Thompson, Jobson, Buckar Sano—Compagnie Normande, first French Company	47
--	----

CONTENTS

CHAPTER VII

1630-1723

Second, Third, and Fourth Charter—War with Holland—Crown Subsidy granted—Compagnie du Sénégal—De Brue—Mutiny of Gambia Castle	PAGE 54
---	------------

CHAPTER VIII

1723-1730

Captain Stibbs—The Third Attempt to penetrate to Timbuctoo	66
--	----

CHAPTER IX

1730-1786

Francis Moore—Slave Trade made Free to British Subjects—Treaty of Versailles—Golberry—Albreda	70
---	----

CHAPTER X

1788-1800

The African Society—Major Houghton—Mungo Park from the Gambia to the Niger	83
--	----

CHAPTER XI

1800-1870

Colonies transferred from Home to War Office—Mungo Park's Second Expedition and last—Treaty of Paris—Bathurst founded—Mollien discovers sources of Gambia, Senegal and Rio Grande—Last of the African Companies—Gambia and Sierra Leone Crown Colonies—Albreda ceded—Baddibu War—Sir Richard Burton	89
---	----

CHAPTER XII

1870-1904

Cession of the Gambia raised—Activity of the French and Germans in Africa—Governor Gouldsbury—Cession of the Gambia valley—Conclusion, Part I.	100
--	-----

PART II

GEOGRAPHICAL, GEOLOGICAL, AND ETHNICAL

CHAPTER I

The Geography of the river Gambia from its sources in the Fouta Jallon Mountains to its mouth in the Atlantic Ocean	115
---	-----

CHAPTER II

The Geology of the Valley of the Gambia	149
---	-----

CONTENTS

CHAPTER III

The Ethnology of the Gambia—The distribution of races in the Valley of the Gambia	PAGE 168
---	-------------

CHAPTER IV

The Description of races, the Jollofs, the Floops—The Ancient Graves . .	180
--	-----

CHAPTER V

The Origin of the "Poulli" or Hybrid Fulahs, in the Middle Valley—The People of Wuli and Kantora—The Mandingos	197
--	-----

PART III

NATURAL HISTORY, BIRDS, BEASTS, AND FISHES

CHAPTER I

Introduction—Notes of former Authors—Le Maire—Barbot—Moore—Labat	211
--	-----

CHAPTER II

The Birds of the Gambia. By Dr. Hopkinson, D.S.O., M.D., M.A. . . .	216
---	-----

CHAPTER III

Wild Animals and Hunting. By Captain W. B. Stanley, late Travelling Commissioner for Upper Gambia	234
---	-----

CHAPTER IV

The Amphibians of the Gambia	258
--	-----

CHAPTER V

The Fishes of the Gambia	265
------------------------------------	-----

APPENDIX

List of Birds, Beasts, and Fishes with Native Names	277
---	-----

INDEX	283
-----------------	-----

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

SIR GEORGE C. DENTON, K.C.M.G., F.R.G.S., LATE GOVERNOR OF THE GAMBIA (1900-1911)	<i>Frontispiece</i>
	FACING PAGE
DAKAR HARBOUR FROM INSIDE, SHOWING ENTRANCE.	6
BATHURST IN THE GROUND-NUT SEASON, STEAMERS LOADING AT THE WHARVES	6
VIEW OF VALLEY, FROM KOSSOUN CLIFFS	16
BALLANGAR WHARF	16
MCCARTHY ISLAND AND TOWN	28
GUENOTTO, ABOVE BARRA-KUNDA. END OF TIDAL WATERS	28
A RIVER VIEW AND A FERRY CANOE	38
VIEW OF RIVER LOOKING DOWN FROM KOSSOUN	38
FATTA TENDA FROM UP RIVER. RIVER 300 YARDS WIDE	50
RIVER VIEW, BLACKSMITH HILL. IRONSTONE CLIFFS	50
SEA-HORSE ISLAND. MANGROVES	60
DASALAMI CLIFFS OF IRONSTONE	60
THE RIVER AT KOSSEMA	72
GREY RIVER CAMP, JUNCTION WITH GAMBIA. THE FIRST SAILING VESSEL ON THE GREY RIVER	72
DOWN-RIVER VIEW, FROM KOSSEMA	82
BATHURST FROM THE RIVER, EASTWARD FACE	82
BATHURST FROM UP RIVER, WITH STEAMER ENTERING HARBOUR. ST. MARY'S ISLAND, BARRA POINT	94
BATHURST, VIEW OF WELLINGTON STREET AND WHARVES	94
ST. JAMES' ISLAND—OUR FIRST "PIED-À-TERRE" ON THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA, 1620.	104
ALBREDIA, OPPOSITE ST. JAMES' ISLAND	104
THE FIRST FRENCH SETTLEMENT ON THE GAMBIA	104
THE END OF STEAMER NAVIGATION IN FLOODS SEASON, FROM ABOVE THE BARRAGE	118
MOUTH OF THE NERICO RIVER, JUNCTION WITH THE GAMBIA	118
"TENDA HILL" (MARKED CLIFF FEATURES), NEAR THE NERICO RIVER	124
FORDING THE GREY RIVER, TWELVE MILES FROM THE JUNCTION	124
BARRA-KUNDA FALLS—WITH CUTTERS WAITING FOR HIGH TIDE TO PASS THE BARRAGE	130
S.S. "MUNGO PARK" ALONGSIDE AN UP-RIVER TRADING WHARF	130
KANUBE	136
TOWING CUTTERS UP RIVER	136

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

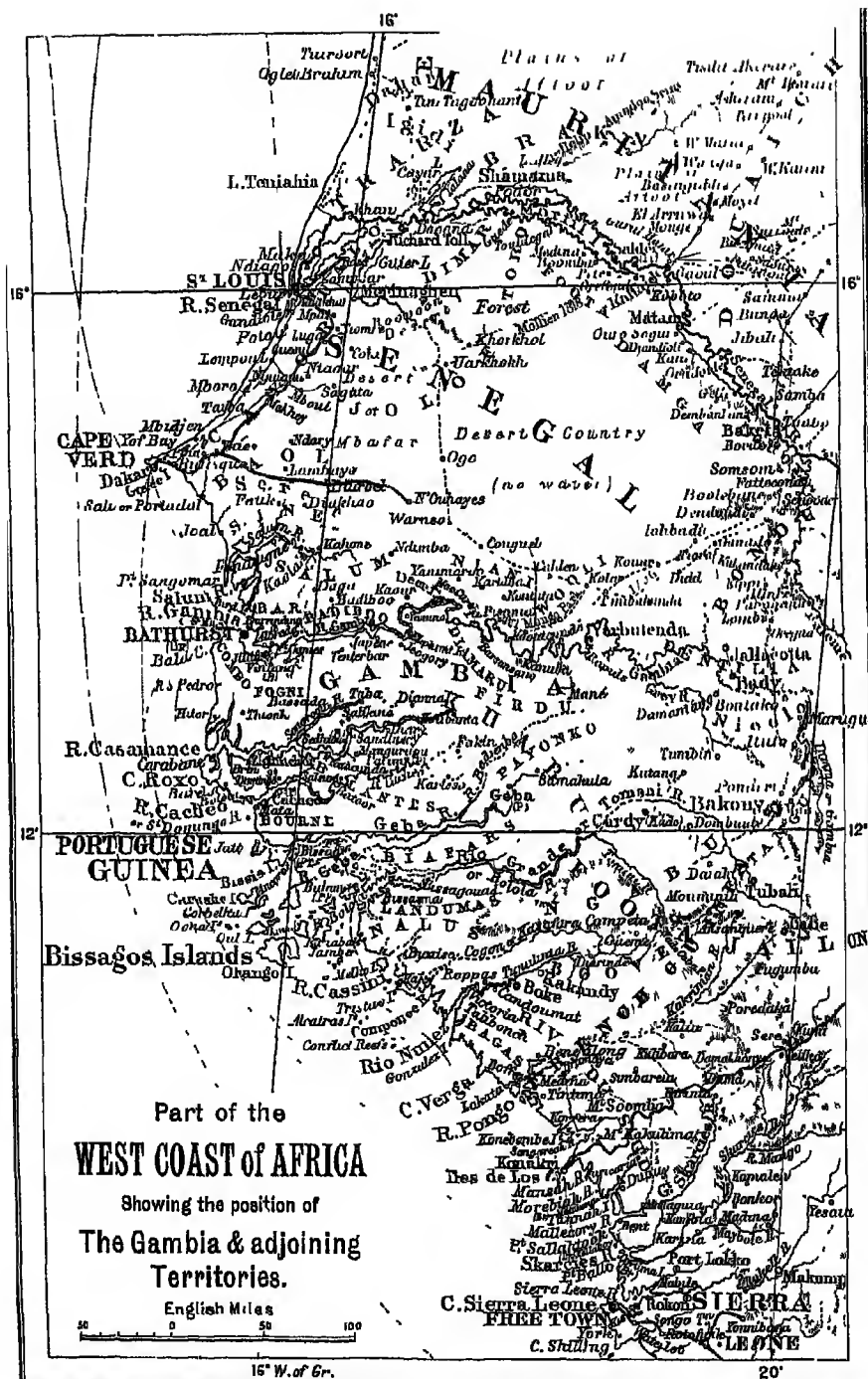
	FACING PAGE
GOVERNMENT HOUSE, MCCARTHY. BANIAN GROWING ON OLD FORT	
AND BARRACKS	142
KAU-UR WHARF	142
A TYPICAL IRONSTONE CLIFF	152
BARRA-KUNDA. CLIFF OF IRONSTONE GRIT.	152
BORING FOR IRON ORE	158
PANNING OUT SAMPLES	158
SAMI. THE IRONSTONE CLIFFS	164
PERAL. IRONSTONE CLIFFS	164
THE DANCING MAN "READY"	170
THE DANCING MAN "OFF"	170
A WASHING BEE. SERAKOLIS AND FULAH WOMEN	176
A NATURAL STUDIO	176
THE GRAVES, LAMIN KOTO, SHOWING ONE STONE	182
THE ANCIENT GRAVES	182
THE HUNTERS (SERAKOLIS)	186
SERAKOLI WOMEN	186
SERAKOLI "BRIDE"	192
A MANDINGO HUNTER	192
JOLLOF BOY AND WOMAN	198
"GRIOTS"	198
MANDINGO WOMAN	204
JOLLOF MEN	204
A BRACE OF HIPPOS	258
THE AUTHOR'S CAMP AFLOAT	258
BRINGING THE CROCODILE ON BOARD	262
CUTTING UP THE CROCODILE	262
A SIXTY-POUNDER	268
ICHTHYBORINA. PHAGO, WEST AFRICA.	268
MY FAMILIARS—TOBY AND CHAPPIE	270
A TRIO OF SPECKLED BEAUTIES	270
JOB'S CATCH—FRESH-WATER MULLET	274
POLYPTERUS—PERCH	274
THE AUTHOR	276

MAPS

PART OF THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA, SHOWING THE POSITION OF THE GAMBIA AND ADJOINING TERRITORIES	I
THE UPPER GAMBIA RIVER	116
THE BRITISH GAMBIA, SHOWING THE COURSE OF THE RIVER GAMBIA FROM ITS SOURCE TO THE SEA	288

PRINCIPAL AUTHORITIES

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ERRATA

For "Fath Tenda" *read* "Falla Tenda."
„ "Koulah" „ "Fulah."

CHAPTER I

B.C. 600—0

Legendary—Visits of Ancient Navigators—The Phœnicians—Sataspes—Hanno and the Carthaginians.

WHAT constitutes History? Nations that have progressed in civilization, with all its attributes of advanced mechanics, Science and Art, are prone to consider that the history of a less advanced country, or community, commences with their own conquest of the same by the sword, or their intrusion into it for the purpose of exploration and discovery.

One might as well regard the history of metamorphic rocks as commencing with the intrusion of a basaltic dyke, and yet the stratified formations were once intrusive to older formations, were ground down and mixed with them by the gigantic forces of Nature during the period in which our little Globe was cooling and contracting to its present quiescent state, were deposited and became solid and stratified, perhaps for the hundredth time, ages before a comparatively recent convulsion upset their repose and broke up their mass by thrusting up to the surface a foreign body in a high state of heat and energy, the vibrations of which altered even the grouping of the particles in the older rocks within reach of its powers.

And so with tribes and communities in West Africa, whose primitive lives in some regions still tend to carry us back in thought to the dawn of human intelligence; their history of successive upheavals and fusions of peoples; the intrusions of Warlike Tribes from the East,

THE GAMBIA

with fire and sword at first, to be followed by the more peaceful Caravan man, who, loading his camels in Cairo or Tripoli, struggled across the oceans of sand with fancy goods, the results of the progress of industrial arts in the East, to barter for gold and ivory in Gao, Jenne and Timbuctoo, from whence they eventually reached the Atlantic by the valley of the Senegal or the Gambia ; and there, later on, entered into competition with the White Man from Europe. Are these not leaves in the History of the World, in common with the invasion of our own islands of Norse, Dané, and Saxon, to be followed by the Romans, with whom our own written history, as distinguished from oral traditions and legends, would commence, from a Roman's point of view ?

And before that phase of conquest and penetration, peaceful or otherwise, there are still the legends and traditions which stretch back to the dawn of reason in the proto-human mind, unwritten, but recorded in the memory of one generation by frequent repetition in the small arboreal communities, where there was little to talk about on the branches after the sun had set, and handed down to the next generation as the last word in human wisdom, until at last some genius made marks upon the walls of the family cave or on the bark of the family tree to remind him of the details of the story the elders had told unto him.

And so human history takes its rise with the first pair of intelligent beings who were able to communicate their thoughts, while behind them are still the mists and darkness of a greater antiquity ; like the great river of which I am writing, which, before emerging into the sunlight on the slopes of the Fouta Jallon Mountains, finds its way through dark caverns which extend so far into the heart of the mountain as to give rise to the tradition, told to the earliest explorers, that the Niger, Senegal, and Gambia were one big river, and that they

THE PHOENICIANS

all came out of the same big lake in the middle of the mountains.

And like the river, once started on its way, recorded history receives tributary after tributary, swelling its original volume to a thousandfold until it reaches the ocean of the twentieth-century Press, and is recorded in cabled paragraphs with heavily leaded headlines to be served hot with our breakfast coffee in the morning, and coldly referred to the same evening as lacking confirmation.

And thus the present writer is emboldened to commence the History of the Gambia as far back as the mists of legend or tradition will take him, and while keeping the dates and facts based on written evidence clearly before his readers, yet draw slightly on imagination and logical deduction for the connecting links which are necessary to complete the chain.

The earliest voyagers on the coasts of Africa of which we have any records are the Phoenicians. In that circumnavigation of the continent during the reign of Pharaoh Necho, as recorded by Herodotus (W. 42), and which lasted for three years, including the periods necessary for raising crops of food, and repairing the galleys of the intrepid explorers.

Hakluyt, quoting from Herodotus, says, "Necho, an Egyptian King, for trial's sake sent a fleet of Phoenicians down the Red Sea, who, setting forth in Autumn and sailing south until they had the sun at noontide upon their sterboard (that is, having passed the Tropic), after a long navigation directed their course to the north, and in the space of three years environed all Africk, passing home through the Gaditen Straits (Gibraltar), and arriving in Egypt."

It may appear a somewhat long-drawn conclusion to connect this round Africa in 1600 days with the History of the Gambia, but it must be remembered that

THE GAMBIA

navigation in those days was in its infancy, and for choice, a voyage of any considerable length consisted of the extension of a number of short voyages, during fine weather and with favourable winds, along the coast from port to port where ports were known, and where unknown, the putting into any favourable-looking inlet for fresh water, wood, and any other necessary of life obtainable ; for information, or, in sailing unknown waters, for safety, by anchoring during the night.

Their antique models of seagoing craft were little adapted to weather the storms of either the Indian or the Atlantic Oceans, even if they had been equipped with chart and compass. While they were making the former themselves, the latter (although said to have been invented by the Chinese Emperor, Hooang-Ti, in 2634 B.C., or about 2000 years before their sailing date) only came into use for purposes of scientific navigation after its improvement by Flavio, in 1300 or thereabouts, or 1900 years after that date. They would have been intrepid sailors indeed, to knowingly lose touch of the landfall, lacking all those scientific methods which permit the mariner of to-day to set a bold course off the land.

For their methods, then, the great estuary of the Gambia was like a trap set on their homeward voyage, for they were still in the unknown as far as records will serve us, and were probably the actual discoverers amongst civilized nations of the great river system of West Africa from the Congo to the Senegal.

On a northerly course, the distance from off Bald Cape on the south, to the Broken or Bird Islands on the north of the estuary of the Gambia, is over thirty miles, while, after rounding Cape Bald, the land to Cape St. Mary trends north-east, and then east, to the actual entrance of the river at Bathurst. Even on a clear day and from the bridge of a 3000-ton steamer, the northern shore



DAKAR HARBOUR FROM INSIDE SHOWING ENTRANCE



BATHURST IN THE GROUND NUT SEASON STEAMERS LOADING AT THE WHARVES

SATASPES, B.C. 500

cannot be seen at a distance of ten miles, and in the "smoke," as the coasters of to-day call the peculiar land haze off the North-West Coast of Africa, the northern landfall is so low that vessels coming south frequently overrun the mouth of the river, until they pick up Cape St. Mary or Bald Cape.

Therefore it seems probable that the Phœnicians, in their galleys of fifty to seventy tons, were led into the Gambia by the run of the land, but whether they remained there and raised a crop of food-stuffs while lying in the quiet waters above St. Mary's Island cannot be determined, as their log book was burnt, with other priceless records, in the fire which destroyed copies of almost all the literature, past and present, current up to the day that the fanatical fiend Mahmoud set light to the Alexandrian Library.

According to Dr. Leyden, who collated in his work, first published in 1799, nearly all the information, ancient and modern, up to that date, a work known as the "Periplus of Scylax" was still extant, which gives a description of all the shores of the countries known in his time.

Scylax describes the Phœnicians as carrying on trade with the Ethiopians, as all the races of Africa south of the desert were called in his day, by exchange of Athenian cloth, Egyptian unguent, and various domestic utensils, for ivory, which was so plentiful in the country of the Ethiopians that it was used for cups, and adornment of both men and animals.

The next possible over-sea visitor to the Gambia was Sataspes (B.C. 500), a Persian noble, who, on being condemned to death by Xerxes for a criminal offence, was interceded for by his mother, and made the offer to expiate his crime by making a voyage round Africa.

His failure to succeed is told by Herodotus, but not much information is given about West Africa, except

THE GAMBIA

that the people of the coast were small and cowardly, fleeing to the mountains and leaving their cattle and other worldly goods at the mercy of the invaders.

This description will not agree with the coast below Cape Verde, as there are no mountains to flee to.

The next nation that aspired to honourable adventure on the West Coast of Africa was the Carthaginians (B.C. 450), at that time the leaders of the world in commercial enterprise and over-seas traffic.

The expedition was fitted out not only for a voyage of discovery, but for colonization, and its magnitude throws into the shade even all the efforts of our own time for the exploitation of Africa. According to Dr. Leyden, quoting from the *Periplus of Hanno*, the admiral who commanded the expedition, the fleet consisted of sixty large vessels, on board of which were embarked 30,000 persons of both sexes, including 50 galley slaves to each galley.

The narrative commences at the Straits of Gades (Cadiz), or Pillars of Hercules, two days from which they founded the City of Thymiaterium, in the midst of an extensive plain. In two days more they came to a cape shaded with trees, called Solocis, or the promontory of Lybia, on which they erected a temple to Neptune. After this they founded other four cities. Their next course was to the great River Lixius, flowing from Lybia and the high mountains behind.

Proceeding then three days along a desert coast, they came to a small island situated in a deep recess of the sea, to which they gave the name of Cerne, and there founded another colony.

This is supposed to be Arguin Island behind Cape Blanco.

Continuing, they passed over a great extent of coast and found several islands and rivers, particularly one very large, filled with crocodiles and hippopotami. After

THE CARTHAGINIANS

passing a wooded promontory they came to a gulf, in which were several large islands.

So far the *Periplus* of Hanno, as translated by Leyden, and the last paragraph describes the mouth of the Gambia perfectly. They sailed past Barra Point, wooded until this day, and known to successive explorers as the Pavilion, owing to the graceful shape of the commanding clump of trees on the point. They would then enter the bay behind the Island of St. Mary, practically the delta of the river, which is divided into three islands by smaller outlets than the main channel; while in view they would have Dog Island and James Island, all in the "Gulf" or estuary of the river. The translation goes on to describe the shores as densely wooded and silent by day, which describes the masses of mangrove that line the river for 80 to 100 miles from the sea, but adds that at night the shore blazed with fires. This is exactly what the traveller will see in the twentieth century, from the time that the grass is dry enough to burn, generally about January until March. Firing the grass is the improvident manner of clearing the ground for cultivation even unto this day, and square miles of vegetation with useful timber are burned in order to clear a patch of a few acres.

The account goes on to describe the apes as of "human form, but shagged and covered with hair, suggesting the idea of those grotesque deities by which superstition supposed the woods to be peopled."

To these monsters they gave the name of "Gorillæ." The males evaded all pursuit, as they climbed precipices, and threw stones on their pursuers; but three females were caught, and their skins carried to Carthage." Here the narrative stops by saying that the further progress of the expedition was stopped by the want of provisions.

Dr. Leyden sums up the conflicting comments as to how far Hanno succeeded in discovering the coast, after

THE GAMBIA

giving the views of Major Rennell in his "Geography of Herodotus," and those of M. Gosselin in his "Geographie des Anciens," by saying: "Those who wish to see how far learning and ingenuity can be carried on such a subject, will find much gratification in perusing the respective treatises of these very learned and eminent writers." And adds: "It is certain that the whole aspect of man and nature, as observed by Hanno, seems exactly that which now presents itself on the banks of the Gambia and Senegal." With which conclusion, knowing the conditions of life to-day on these two great rivers, the author cordially concurs, for Africa in the interior changes not, and has not changed in 500 years of European intrusion, from the early French and Portuguese expeditions to the coast, in the fourteenth century, to the present day, and like human nature itself, probably underwent no change from the time of Hanno to that of the early European discoveries.

There are one or two points in the description above given that may be made clearer. Neither hippos nor crocodiles are found on the sea coast in salt water, but may exist in brackish, where the fresh water overlies the salt, so that they are able to obtain the former to drink.

The same conditions of life apply to the apes. Fresh water is necessary to their existence. There are, therefore, but few of the animals described by Hanno to be seen while sailing down the Atlantic coast, but the rivers above tidal limits abound with them. There are no large communities of dog-faced baboons, or Pongos, with which the earlier writers identify the "Gorillæ" of Hanno, excepting where the forest, as distinguished from the mangrove, comes to the bank of the river. On the Upper Gambia nearly every sharp bend of the river is marked by an abrupt cliff formed by the cutting away of the toe of the hills by the action of the current.

On these cliffs hundreds of dog-faced baboons may

GRAVES OF THE GAMBIA

be seen looking down over the river, especially in the cool of the evening, and if disturbed by an enemy trying to climb the cliff, they will throw earth and stones down, not as one throws a cricket ball, but underhand like a girl or a child. This is also a very common way with them of showing anger when chained up in captivity. The only convincing evidence that these were the "Gorillæ" of Hanno would be the three skins, and I am afraid that these perished with the fall of Carthage.

Although only hypothetical, when I come to describe the graves of the Gambia as compared with the present mode of burial, fresh support for the hypothesis will be adduced by some of the grave monuments near to the river-bank. These ancient graves are those of a people who ceremoniously marked the last resting-place of their dead by worked stones brought from a great distance, invariably arranged in the set form of a perfect circle, set out with nine monoliths, and a line bearing east from the centre of the circle is marked by three similar pillars.

However, enough has been adduced, when coupled with the same argument as that advanced for a visit to the Gambia by the Phœnicians, to show that it is quite reasonable to suppose that Sataspes, if he went so far, or Hanno with his immense fleet, could hardly pass the mouth of the Gambia on both the outward and the homeward voyage, or cross the bight between the Broken Isles and Cape Bald, without discovering the mouth of such a mighty river, seeing that colonization was the aim of their expedition, and that such natural features were the main object of their search.

CHAPTER II

0-1000 A.D.

The "Periplus of Scylax"—The Songhois or Egyptians.

As far as research on the part of the old writers has been successful for authentic information and records of the progress of exploration on the West Coast of Africa, there is a blank in over-seas expeditions from the days of "Delenda est" until the fourteenth century, as both the Grecian and Roman Empires, during their successive period of World Power, apparently found sufficient employment for their naval energies on the Northern Coast, or within the Mediterranean.

Ptolemy of Alexandria mentions records which were made of the Roman discoveries in Africa, but they were destroyed in the great fire kindled by Mahmoud the Fanatic, and it is to be feared that the hiatus thus caused in the history of the world will never be bridged over, as those were the days of a single edition of one copy of even the latest and most popular books.

But although we are without records of any naval enterprise during the years that stretched out from B.C. 450 to A.D. 1364, according to Dr. Leyden, the "Periplus of Scylax" gives a description, collected from various sources, of all the shores of the then known world. To quote the more modern authority: his representation of the western coast agrees nearly with that of Hanno, except that it reaches no further than Cerne; beyond which, he asserts that the accumulation of mud and seaweed renders navigation impossible.

THE "PERIPLUS OF SCYLAX"

In this connection it is interesting to note that with some authorities, Cape Verde, the ancient *Arsinarium*, takes its name from the large masses of Saragossa weed found floating in its vicinity.

Scylax would appear to have been led away by the excuse that Sataspes gave for not circumnavigating Africa, without taking into consideration the fact that the ancient mariner in question was lying for his life, a circumstance which is calculated to have a marked influence upon travellers' tales.

However, Dr. Leyden goes on to say, still quoting from the "Periplus of Scylax": "Here the Phoenicians carried on trade with the Ethiopians, a race who (*sic*) exceeded all other men in stature, and even chose their kings on account of that quality of body."

"Ivory was the chief object of their trade, and here was so abundant that the natives made it into cups, and employed it in adorning, not only themselves, but even their horses. They abounded in horses and cattle; lived chiefly on flesh and milk, and made, as well as imported, a great deal of wine. Other imports were Egyptian unguent, Athenian cloths, and various domestic utensils."

"It was reported by some that the coast, from this point, reached across in a direct line towards Egypt, and that Africa thus formed a peninsula, of which the greatest length was from east to west."

But although we have no more convincing evidence than the generalities of the "Periplus of Scylax," which was a sort of encyclopædia of the knowledge up to date on the point of other voyages, as to communication with the West Coast from Europe or the Mediterranean, there is little doubt that the *Ships of the Desert* made many successful voyages to the West Coast, sailing from Alexandria and Cairo up the valley of the Nile, and along the northern shore of the Sahara, or from Tripoli and Tunis and thence through the Fezzan, or the Oases of Air,

THE GAMBIA

Agades, and other green islands in that ocean of red sand which sweeps across the African continent from the Atlantic to the Nile, parallel to the Mediterranean Sea.

We continually find, in historical records of the magnificence of Emperors, Sultans, Princes and Potentates and their palaces on the littoral of the Mediterranean, and even farther afield, that reference is made to African gold and ivory brought by caravans across the great desert.

Now, without wishing to claim another locality for the Ophir of the ancient records, or Soopheira of the Septuagint, it may be briefly stated that, taking the intersection of the meridian of Greenwich with the sixteenth parallel of north latitude near the present town of Goa (Goa or Gago of the ancients, and celebrated for its exports of the precious metal) on the great bend of the Niger as a starting-point, the whole of the country to the westward of the said meridian and southward of the said parallel, to the Atlantic in both cases, is gold-bearing in its mountains, plains, and the sands of its rivers.

The upper valleys of the rivers that water this immense area, densely covered by forests extending from the coasts to the Plateaux of Fouta Jallon and the Kong Mountains and thence down the valley of the Niger, are the Homes of the Elephants, or more properly were so before the market became enlarged to the circle of the globe, and the magnificent animals were ruthlessly destroyed in order to keep pace with the demand for ivory.

This was then the nearest supply of these two desirable articles of trade, gold and ivory, and throughout this stretch of country evidence is not wanting of an ancient connection with the countries across the desert on the Mediterranean littoral. As far as Morocco is concerned this connection is natural, although the Sahara lies between the two countries, as there is no limit to the

THE EGYPTIANS

extension of trade along an ocean shore given unlimited time, but it is the arts and industries of the Valley of the Nile that have left the most distinct traces in the customs of the races peopling the Valley of the Niger, and thence westward down the Valley of the Gambia to the Atlantic.

It should be premised here that the geography of West Africa was in its infancy until between the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and that even then the Niger had not been definitely divided from the Nile; but in the maps of that time the former was stretched due east across the continent in order to connect with the latter, while the Senegal, Gambia and other great rivers were shown as the mouths of the Niger-Nile on the Atlantic seaboard. This subject will be dealt with in another chapter, as it is intensely interesting, and at present it will be sufficient to bear in mind that until the seventeenth century, Nile, Niger, Gambia and Sanaga were interchangeable names for the river system of Central Africa from east to west, according to the accepted geography of the author, whether ancient, mediæval, or modern.

After the Carthaginians, the Egyptians, and I am indebted to M. Dubois' "Timbuctoo the Mysterious" for the next link in the history of Senegambia. In this entrancing work, published in 1897, the author traces the course of an exodus of the Songhois from the Valley of the Nile to that of the Niger, and thence up the river to Jenne, or Guinea. His great discovery was the finding of the Tarik-e-Soudan, in the hands of the Marabouts residing in that once royal city, which, in the days of its power, gave its name to the whole of the Atlantic coast of West Africa north of the equator, and incidentally to our gold coinage of the Middle Ages, made from the gold which our early navigators brought home from the coast of Guinea. The Tarik may be termed the Scriptures of the Soudan, and recounts, in a style curiously like the

THE GAMBIA

Old Testament, the wanderings of the Songhois from Misr, the ancient name of Egypt, across Africa until they struck the great bend of the Niger, and thence up the Valley until they found a country flooded annually by a great river, almost identical in natural conditions with that they had left ; and there built a town with bricks dried in the sun in the Egyptian manner, the ruins of which are totally unlike any West African, and exactly like the Egyptian style of architecture in the early years of the Christian Era. M. Dubois welds this link between east and west in Africa by oral tradition, ethnology, and philology ; as to the last, by showing the similarity of words in the Songhois language of to-day to that of their ancient country.

In his opinion the exodus was due to the conquest of the Valley of the Nile by the Mohammedans, who overran the Egyptian provinces about the middle of the seventh century, driving before them the people and races that preferred their ancient creed to the new gospel, across Africa, both north and south of the Sahara Desert, and shows that Jenne was founded about 765 of our Era, and 150 years after the Hegira.

Leyden says, quoting Leo Africanus, or John of that name, as he became after conversion to Christianity, who wrote in the sixteenth century about Timbuctoo and its surrounding kingdoms :

“ Ghinea, or Genni, is described as an extensive country, 500 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, extending along the Niger till that river fell into the ocean. The country was very fertile, particularly in cotton, the manufacture of which formed the main staple of its trade.

“ During the months of July, August and September it is completely overflowed by the branches of the Niger, which surround it in the manner of an island. At that time the merchants of Timbuctoo convey their commodities in small canoes made of a single tree. These



VIEW OF VALLEY FROM KOSSOUN CLIFFS



BALLANGAR WHARF

THE SONGHOIS

they rowed during the day ; then fastening them to the shore spent the night on land. To the south of it lay Melli, upon a river that fell into the Niger. It is described as also fertile, abounding in merchants and artificers, who enjoyed a great degree of opulence.

"The inhabitants (of Melli) were the first to embrace the religion of Mahomet, and were superior to all other negroes in wit, civility and industry."

It will be seen from the above quotation that the Songhois had occupied the so-called island before the intrusion of the Mohammedans, and carried on trade as far as the Atlantic. Later on it may appear that they were also the ancestors of the Jollofs, who were the dominant race between the Gambia and Senegal when the Portuguese appeared upon the scene.

With reference to the "river that fell into the Niger," it should be noted that Sanaga, Sanagha, or Songhois, all different forms of our modern Senegal, was regarded as the main branch of the Niger flowing to the westward. In the rainy season the waters of the Senegal were said to join those of the Gambia by way of the Nerico, and from that junction to the Atlantic the Senegal, Gambia and the Rio Grand, known to the ancients as Stachiris, Daranus, or Darandus, and Niger, were known in common as "The mouths of the Niger." The fact that all these rivers and the modern Niger had their extreme sources under the Fouta Jallon Mountains, where they were said to come from one big lake, may have had something to do with the confusion, and especially so when a difference of levels would seem a trifle to the native mind in ignorance of the forces of gravity with respect to fluids.

Again, above the junction of the Nerico the Gambia was known as the "Ba Dimma" (Big Clear Water), and as "flowing into the Niger."

Denham, in his work "Travels and Discoveries in

THE GAMBIA

Northern and Central Africa," also throws some light on this confusion of names ; he writes :

" An intelligent Moor of Mesurala again told me that this water was the same as the Nile. Asking how that could be, as we had traced it into Lake Tchad, he replied, ' Ah yes, but it is nevertheless Nile Water Sweet.' I had been asked before if the Nile was not in England, and subsequently, when my knowledge of Arabic was somewhat improved, I became satisfied that these questions had no reference whatever to the Nile of Egypt, but merely meant ' running water,' ' sweet water,' from its rarity so highly prized by all desert travellers."

The Mandingos were the " inhabitants of Melli," and the middle men between the Gambia, Senegal and the Niger. The return trade for the manufactures and natural products of Jenne was simply salt, and this necessary of life the Mandingo middlemen carried from Joal, where it was made in salt pans by sun power, up the Gambia for 400 miles by water to " Tenda," and thence across the slopes of the Fouta Jallon Mountains to Jenne.

Tenda, where water carriage was exchanged for land portorage, is at the head of canoe navigation, near the junction of the Nerico River. " Tenda " means a wharf or landing-place in the Mandingo language, and is used after the name of the upland town or village, as Kusu-tenda, Kali-tenda, the wharf of Kusu or Kali.

Used without qualification it signifies " the wharf," and in this instance was the most important wharf on the river, giving its name to the upland town and to a large district around, " The country of Tenda."

As will be seen, it was still important in our own time, and was the scene of Captain Jobson's interview with Buckar Sano, the great Mandingo trader, and with the King of Tenda.

Jobson christened it St. John's Mart.

The nearest supply of salt, otherwise than that from

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

the Atlantic, was in the mines of Thegazza, about thirty days' journey to the north of the Niger, and although these mines were within the sway of the Empire of Jenne, the trade was more or less precarious, partly owing to the risks and dangers of desert travelling, and partly because the salt mines were on the boundary of the Moroccan Empire, and the merchants were subject to incursions of predatory Moorish tribes, who also claimed the monopoly.

The traces of this intercourse in trade between the Songhois and the coast are apparent to-day in the manners and customs of the people of the Gambia, in their dress, the weaving of cotton cloths, their beads and golden ornaments, and more conclusively still, in their weights and measures, which exist side by side with the European systems.

Gold is weighed against a bean called a "carat," a term still in use with us as a standard of purity. It is also traded in by means of a standard bar, beaten square and tapered to a point at both ends, then twisted and bent into a ring so that it can either be worn on the finger or in the ear for safety, or threaded on a string for transport.

The merchant on the upper Gambia measures out stuffs and silks by the yard stick, but the native buyer checks the length and width by the most primitive measure, that of the human form, and remeasures his purchase in lengths from the closed fist to the elbow, the "cubit" of his forbears when they bought the Athenian cloths from the Carthaginian traders, or traded in cotton cloths with the Songhois.

The loom in use to-day on the upper Gambia is that of Ancient Egypt, as preserved in our European museums. The "Agra bead" of yore adorned the neck of an Egyptian woman 3000 years ago, and is found buried with her as a mummy. To-day the Agra beads may be seen on the ample bosom of a wife or daughter of some big chief, and so highly prized are they that the writer

THE GAMBIA

once stumbled upon an illicit factory for the making of imitations. False or real, they are regarded as No. 1 Gri-gri (or charm), which, being interpreted, meaneth a powerful talisman against all the ills that flesh is heir to. The profile of the lady wearing it, especially if she be the daughter of the erstwhile Royal House of the "Jais (or "Jies, as spelt in Gambia), is that of an Egyptian woman from the friezes in the British Museum. The nose is straight and slightly aquiline, forehead high, mouth small and well formed, while the hair is dressed in small plaits and brushed hard back to fall over the back of the head, where it is cut square across at the nape of the neck or about that level.

It has always appeared a mystery to the writer that the learned men who have discussed the ethnography of Senegambia have not been struck with this remarkable likeness of the Jollofs to the Eastern African races in the Nile Valley. Nubians they may be, but not Negroes, excepting with those who confuse all the marked divisions of African races under the one term "Negro."

One might multiply evidences of the touch of the ancient East on the farthest West, and they would all tend to show that the ever-pulsing tide of emigration from the steppes of Asia toward the setting sun reached the Atlantic Ocean during the eleventh and twelfth centuries by the valleys of the Senegal and Gambia.

In this emigration the great waterway of the Gambia, navigable for four hundred miles to the sea, played the part of the last link in the great road of nations from east to west across the continent of Africa, and the last stage of the great trek from the western shores of the Pacific to the eastern shores of the Atlantic, which has been going on steadily century after century since the Sumerians first arrived in the valley of the Euphrates about seven thousand years ago and left their records in clay to tell the tale.

THE RIVER GAMBIA

But, it may be asked, why the Gambia more than any other of the great rivers which, rising practically within the same distance of the valley of the Niger, might have been chosen as the waterway to the Atlantic ?

The answer is that the Gambia is the only river of this great series that is open into the heart of the country. All the other rivers have a dangerous bar with many sands and shoals on which the mighty rollers of the Atlantic break with forbidding violence.

The Phœnicians or Carthaginians could have sailed or rowed 250 miles up its waters without difficulty, could have replenished their stores of grain and water from its fertile banks, flooded for four months in the year, and thus familiar to their ideas of agriculture, and could have replenished their wastage of sailors from the stalwarts with whom they traded. As for the Songhois, what to them could be more grateful than a valley with identical natural conditions to that they had left behind them ? And so we leave them for the present to dream that they have found a land where they can rest undisturbed, and turn another page of the history of peoples that made the history of Senegambia before the intrusion of the European races.

CHAPTER III

1000-1300

The Arabians, or Mohammedans, invade the valleys of Senegal, Gambia and Niger—The Mandingos.

AFTER the Songhois or Egyptians came the Arabians.

The empire of the Songhois grew in power and subjugated the surrounding Negro Kingdoms down the valley of the Niger as well as on the western slope to the Atlantic, until the eleventh century, by which epoch the tide of Arabian and Mohammedan invasion again caught them up. With their experience of desert travelling, the Sahara offered but few dangers or obstacles to the Arabs, and especially so when there was the goal ahead of carrying the banner of the crescent into a country of the reputed wealth of Jenne; so that the eleventh century saw the valley of the upper Niger overrun by the Mohammedan invaders, and eventually the Songhois, who had crossed Africa from the Nile Valley sooner than accept Islam in exchange for their ancient gods, found themselves again confronted with the choice of the Koran or the scimitar, and in the year 1010, Dia Soboi (the sixteenth king from Dia Alliman, the leader of the first exodus), with the leaders of the nation, accepted Islamism, and a large proportion of the people followed their leaders.

However, history repeated itself once more, and the pressure from the east had the similar result with the Songhois of the eleventh century as with their forefathers, in a displacement of those faithful to the ancient gods, driving them farther west, while the valleys of the Gambia and Senegal received the overflow of the malcontents

THE ARABIANS

with the newly-established church of their home on the Niger.

Under the protection of their parent State, the colonies on the Gambia increased in power and spread to the north of the Senegal until they touched the Moorish boundaries.

They founded a large city called Gualata, and became the middlemen for all the trade between Marrakesh and Jenne. The ancient state of Gualata was near the Tropic of Cancer, about five hundred miles east of the Rio del Ouro, and the same distance from both Morocco on the north and the Gambia on the south. Leyden says of this outpost of the Jenne Empire: "To the north of Guinea was Gualata, probably Walet, which is represented to have been at one time the centre of Mohammedan power in Africa, and the chief resort of the Barbary merchants. But after the foundation of Timbuctoo, the happier situation of that city enabled it to carry off all this trade, and Gualata ended, like all the neighbouring kingdoms, in becoming tributary to Izchia." Izchia, or Askia the Great, according to M. Dubois, was the best general and wisest minister of Sunni Ali, the last but one of the Second Dynasty of the Songhoi Empire. He usurped the throne in 1494, soon after the accession of Sunni Barro, and in contrast to the perceptive attitude of the Songhoi Kings of the true line, he showed at once a fiery zeal for Islam, made a pilgrimage to Mecca, strengthened his position by obeisance to the Khalif Abassid, and was solemnly appointed the representative of the Sultan in Soudan.

To return to the chronological course of events that affected the history of the Gambia.

Dr. Leyden gives the date of the founding of Timbuctoo by the Arabian conquerors of the Niger Valley as 610 of the Hegira, or 1215 of the Christian Era. Owing to the continuous pressure of the Mohammedans from east to

THE GAMBIA

west, and from the littoral of the Mediterranean southward, new routes were found across the desert, while some came down the Atlantic coast, conquering the Azanaghi and other Lybian tribes, and eventually reaching the valley of the Niger by way of the Senegal and Gambia. Timbuctoo, with its advanced position farthest north on the great bend of the Niger, then began to rival Jenne in commerce and importance. Although nominally a Mohammedan State, neither kings nor people showed that fierce desire to convert or slay their neighbours that is enjoined by the Koran, so that they lived peaceably in possession of their territories until about the beginning of the fourteenth century. There appeared to be as little difficulty in those days in finding a "*casus belli*" with one's neighbours as in the present, especially so when the neighbour was rich and the attack could be made under the cloak of religion.

As stated above, Jenne was bounded on the west by the Empire of Melli, or Mading, which naturally fell under its powerful sway in the early days of the Songhoi Empire, but later had become a powerful vassal state, and, moreover, had been the first to adopt the tenets of Islam. The Mandingos may be regarded as the Hill tribes of the three valleys, the Niger, Gambia and Senegal, and owing to the difficult nature of their country, their vassalage was probably only nominal for the sake of commercial relations, their true position being that of a buffer state between the valleys, or as holding the balance of power between them.

They were, and are still, a warlike race, and from their appearance, habits, and wandering predatory life, would appear to have a strong mixture of blood with the Tuaregs or other desert tribes, although allied to the Bantu from their original stock. They are the great travelling middlemen of North-West Africa, and their language is the medium of communication throughout that region.

THE MANDINGOS

The Mandingos, taking advantage of a diversion made towards Timbuctoo by Mossi, a kingdom to the south within the bend of the Niger, overran the territories of Jenne, and converted their former masters into vassals (A.D. 1329) (Dubois).

Although they did not remain masters of Jenne in the Niger Valley for more than about twenty-five years, they acquired a predominance in the valley of the Gambia which lasted to the nineteenth century, and is still in existence under British and French protection. And thus we find to-day the Mandingos as the dominant race on the south of the Gambia, and the Jollofs, Oullofs, Wallofs, with intrusions of Mandingos, Serakolis, Toucoulours and other indigenous eastern races on the north bank between the Gambia and the Senegal.

When later on that inhuman traffic in the lives of our fellow-creatures commenced to smirch the European nations, it was the Mandingos that became the slave drivers and agents for the Portuguese, while the Gambia, on the ancient caravan route, became an important link in the great slave route on which thousands of unfortunates were driven in chains by Mandingo and Arabian traders, armed with whips made like the leathern cat, with the difference that the thongs were of twisted square iron about a quarter of an inch in diameter.

But I am trenching upon more modern history, and, moreover, have said enough to support the suggestion that the history of the Gambia, although hitherto unwritten, is contemporary with that of our own, if not more ancient, and that the Phoenicians and other ancients who traded north for copper and tin to the British Isles, also traded south to the Gambia for their gold and ivory, as recorded in the "*Periplus of Scylax*," and referred to by more modern authors.

And, following the ancient mariners, it has been shown that the valley of the Gambia and its indigenous

THE GAMBIA

racés were subjected to incursions and alarms by nations and peoples whose origin was the far east of the continent, or the western shores of Asia, who brought with them the civilization and arts of Arabia and the valley of the Nile.

Lastly, the same wave of religious fanaticism which swept from east to west on the Northern Littoral, and conquered and held sway over the South of Europe, also swept over the upper Niger, while its reflex surmounted the heights of Fouta Jallon and poured down the valleys of the Senegal and Gambia until it reached the Atlantic Ocean.

CHAPTER IV

1300-1500

Advent of the Norman explorers and the Portuguese—Cada Mosto and Pedro Vaz.

HAVING arrived at the fourteenth century overland, we now commence to turn again the pages of the overseas history, at that epoch when the maritime nations of Western Europe turned their attention to the exploration and discovery of other continents.

Dr. Leyden and many other authorities commence this phase with the advent of the Portuguese on the West Coast of Africa in the fifteenth century ; but in Astley's Collection of Voyages, information drawn from French sources tends to prove that the French were the first discoverers, and that before the Portuguese had rounded Cape Verde the merchants of Rouen and Dieppe had carried out several successful trading voyages down the coast, at least as far as Cape Coast Castle.

Burton (afterwards Sir Richard), in his " Wanderings in West Africa," deals at length with this question.

He points out that the Portuguese claimed and secured the whole honour of being the first voyagers down the African coast, but adds, that Père Labat, the sailor Villaud de Belfond, and many other writers of whom Barbot is perhaps the most known, claim for the French exclusively the honour of being the first explorers of this coast. According to them a company of Dieppe merchants, in the reign of Charles V., between 1364 and 1413 (nearly a century before the Portuguese entered upon their grand career of discovery), sent expeditions to the Gold

THE GAMBIA

Coast, which founded commercial colonies at Goree and Cape Verde, at Sestro, Paris, now Grand Sestros (Grand Sess), at Petit Dieppe near Grand Bassam, on the mouth of the St. John's River, and at the Bay of France, now Rio Fresco (Rufisque).

This information is repeated in the "Mémoire sur le Commerce Maritime de Rouen," by Ernest de Treville, who states the date of departure as November, 1364, and the number of vessels as two of one hundred tons each. The history is continuous, and in 1382 the merchants of Dieppe and Rouen sent three exploring ships, of which one, *The Virgin*, reached Commenda and Mina, so-called from its gold-mines, from which the blacks brought them large supplies of the precious metal. In 1383, other authorities say 1386, they built a strong factory and left a garrison of ten or twelve men.

Even in Barbot's time, 1700, one of the El Mina castles was called Bastion de France, and there was an old inscription beginning with M.C.C.C. : — and the rest defaced.

In official papers which deal with the early days of the French settlements on the West Coast of Africa (Le Senegal—1907—M. Oliver), statement is made that the mariners of Dieppe and Rouen in the fourteenth century, after having rounded Cape Verde, cast anchor in a bay which was still called the Bay of France when Villault de Bellefond arrived there in 1666. This bay was known afterwards to the Portuguese as the Bay of Rio Fresco (now Rufisque).

During the reign of Charles V., 1364, historical documents mention the annual exploring expeditions of these merchant adventurers on the coast of Guinea, and record the establishment of "Loges" to facilitate their trade with the natives. As far as can be ascertained these are probably the first traders' houses, and consequently the first landlord settlements established in West Africa,



MCCARTHY ISLAND AND TOWN.



GUENOTTO, ABOVE BARRA KUNDA. END OF TIDAL WATERS

FRENCH TRADERS

and were the forerunners of the immense establishments of to-day, all of them devoted to the worship of the great god Trade, whose "shibboleth" is "Peaceful Penetration" supported by quick-firing guns, and whose worship, speaking generally, has resulted in putting many of the penetrated at peace for ever.

The earliest actual record of these French voyages is a deed of association mentioned and quoted by Père Labat in his "*Nouvelle Relation de l'Afrique Occidentale*," which was drawn up between the merchants of Dieppe and Rouen to continue the trading to the West Coast of Africa, and in which they agreed to reinforce the stations of Sanaga (Senegal), Rio Fresco (Rufisque), and Gambia (Gambia).

By the year 1382 these enterprising pioneers had extended their operations past Sierra Leone to Le Mina del Ore or Del Mina (Elmina), Acra (Accra), and Kormantin. There is no record of their imports to France available, but it may be presumed that, as in the latter voyages, gold and ivory formed the most valuable part of their cargoes, if not the most bulky, with probably a kidnapped boy or two to do the rough work in the galley for the voyage.

Galbeny says the Dieppe merchants discovered the River Gambia in 1390.

The death of Charles VI. was followed by civil war in France, 1392. The Dukes of Normandy took a leading part, which necessitated the borrowing of large sums of money from their loyal subjects, the merchants of Rouen and Dieppe, and also led to the conscription of all available able-bodied subjects; and who so hardy and fit for fighting as the mariners whose occupation was to fight the elements daily in their voyages "down the coast," and occasionally fight for their lives in getting clear of the gentle African with their loot or "trade"?

And West Africa languished for their fire-water,

THE GAMBIA

fire-sticks, and the nautical way they had with them, while the first West African Trading Company fell into bankruptcy and decay in France, and also, like many of their successors during the last and present century, into disrepute for broken promises in West Africa.

So that it was the gallant French that led the way in Mediæval time to West Africa, and were the first to recognize the geographical value of the River Gambia as a first-class waterway and a highway for their trading craft, and for five centuries it has been the "Heart's Desire" of the French to acquire possession of the Gambia.

There appears to be a blank as far as the French explorers are concerned with West Africa for the first half of the fifteenth century, but the Portuguese now appear on the scene to open that magnificent page of history and maritime adventure in which Henry the Navigator took the part of patron, and partner in the profits of the enterprise.

In 1415 two vessels were fitted out and reached Cape Bojador, sixty leagues southward of Cape Non, until then the farthest south of the Portuguese. In the account of this and other attempts to penetrate farther south, De Barros the Portuguese chronicler, makes no reference to the earlier French voyages, and Astley, in his "Voyages and Travels," although recounting from Père Labat the voyages of the Norman merchants in the previous century, says, in his preface to the Portuguese Explorations, "They first set on foot the navigation of the ocean, and put it in the heads of other nations to go on the discovery of distant regions."

However, the Portuguese were baffled by the currents off Cape Bojador, and as they were essentially "coasters," did not resort to the more modern expedient of "a stretch off the land," and so returned.

After several other failures Prince Henry chose two

PRINCE HENRY OF PORTUGAL

gentlemen of his household with orders to pass that point, and they, being driven off the land by a storm, incidentally discovered Madeira, 1418. It was not until 1432 that Cape Bojador was doubled by Gilianez, "which action," De Barros says, "was at that time in the common opinion looked upon not inferior to the Labours of Hercules."

It was at this epoch (Astley gives 1432 as the date) that Prince Henry obtained from the Pope what is called in the records a "Perpetual Donation" of all discoveries made between Cape Bojador and the East Indies, together with a plenary absolution for all souls that should perish in the undertakings—a tall order from both a worldly and spiritual point of view, especially from the latter, when one comes to read of the doings of the Portuguese adventurers thus plenarily absolved.

However, they went softly, softly, at first, and their chief exploits as recounted appear to have been directed towards chasing and catching "Blackamoors" or "Black Moors" about Cape Blanco. Antonis Gonzalez was knighted by Tristan Nunez, of whom more anon, for his success in that pursuit, having captured a camel driver and a woman who did not resist, and the place was named the Knight's Port (Puerto del Cavallero).

Gonzalez also took the first African gold as ransom for two chiefs.

These were the first Africans taken in slavery by Europeans, 1440, and the Pope's plenary absolution bears the weight of the initiation of the traffic in human beings which ensued for over 350 years, while some of the first cargo of slaves were accepted by the Pope as a present, who thus became "particeps criminis" in slavery.

Tristan Nunez reached the Gambia in 1447, and passed on to the "Rio Grande," where he was surprised and killed by the Floops; but it was not until Cada Mosto's time that any exploration was made up the river. Once

THE GAMBIA

acquainted with the magnificent waterway, however, the Portuguese penetrated into the interior rapidly, building forts and trading stations as they went. Dr. Leyden says: "But few are aware of the vast exertions they made to penetrate into the interior, and with such success as to reach farther in every direction than has been attained by any of the moderns, with the sole exception of Park and Brown."

He then gives copious extracts from the Portuguese chroniclers, and in quoting their records, says: "Some share of empty boasting may be suspected; but the great Portuguese population which the English and French found along the banks of the Senegal and Gambia, clearly attest the substantial truth of the narration.

"The French even, in penetrating into Bamboak (Bambuk), found a mixture of Portuguese words in the language of that country, which confirmed the statement of the natives that it had once been invaded and conquered by the Portuguese."

The original quest of the Portuguese was to discover the kingdom of the mythical Prester John, but the ivory, gold, and slaves brought down from the interior of the Senegal and Gambia excited the ambition of settlement and conquest.

Dr. Leyden also refers to the conquest of the Bambuk by the Portuguese, as following upon that of a Manding warrior called Abba Manko, in A.D. 1100, and places the Portuguese conquest at the commencement of the ninth century of the Hegira, but they did not reach the Gambia until 1447, about 850.

According to the traditions of the Bamboukans, "The Portuguese entirely overran and conquered Bam-bouk, but giving themselves up to indolence and luxury, were soon so reduced that the natives rose, and in a single day cut them off entirely."

The Norman merchant adventurers, having renewed

A VENETIAN ADVENTURER

their fortunes about 1450, resumed their voyages to West Africa, and found their trading stations, one of which was on the Gambia as recorded above under A.D. 1365, occupied by the Portuguese, who had settled at Bintam in the entrance to the river "St. Grigou," as named by them, a large tributary of the river Gambia, which enters the main stream about twenty-five miles above Bathurst, and is now known as Vintang Creek.

In 1455 a visit was made to the Gambia by Cada Mosto, a Venetian gentleman who undertook a voyage under the patronage of Prince Henry of Portugal. Cada Mosto was supplied with a new caravel of ninety tons, commanded by an experienced voyager named Vincent Diaz of Lagos, and sailed for Ethiopia, as he calls the West Coast, on March 25. After calling at Porto Santo, Madeira, and some of the Canary Islands, he reached the mouth of the Senegal (which the Carthaginians called Stachiris, or Darat).

From the Senegal he went to a country he calls Budomel, "about 800 miles farther (which is probably 80 miles), the country between being all low land and without mountains." As he rounds Cape Verde, "Arsinarium" of the Carthaginians after this visit, and moreover returns to the Senegal by land on horseback, there appears to be an error of distance in the text. Having heard of the Gambia before leaving Portugal as a country from which large quantities of gold were carried into Morocco and Spain, he determined to visit it in order, as he says, "that near it they should discover some rich land, where at once they might make their fortunes, by stumbling over heaps of gold or other precious things." In rounding Cape Verde Cada Mosto joined company with two other caravels, one under the command of Antonio Uso di Mare, a Genoese adventurer, and the other belonging to Prince Henry's navy. Finding that they all held the same views of making their fortunes as

THE GAMBIA

rapidly as possible, they joined forces, passed the Cape, and sailed south to the Gambia. Their description of the mouth of the river is fairly accurate, and after sending the smallest caravel in as a scout they sailed in, and were soon attacked by a fleet of "Almadias," as the chronicler calls the dug-out war canoe.

The first impression of the Gambians was wonder and admiration at the size of the White Man's canoe, but finding that the other two vessels were bearing down upon them, they attacked the leading vessel and discharged a shower of poisoned arrows. After a fight in which the guns and crossbows made sad havoc, they came to a parley through an interpreter on Cada Mosto's caravel. The Gambians were asked "Why they attacked strangers who came to trade with them as they had already done with the negroes of Senegal?" The answer was "That they had heard all about them, and that the Senegalese must needs be very wicked men for desiring to have any friendship with them, for they themselves were well assured that Christians were man-eaters, and bought negroes for no other use than to devour them, therefore they would have no manner of correspondence with them, but would endeavour to kill them all and make a present of their effects to their lord, who lived about three days distant." It was probably the Floops of the south bank that repelled the invasion, as the Jollofs were well known to Cada Mosto, and, moreover, he describes the dress of the enemy which serves to identify them. After this warm reception the captains wished to sail up the river to try and find some people more amenable to reason, that is to say, some who would allow themselves to be kidnapped without fighting; but the crews of the caravel had a wholesome fear of the poisoned arrows, and had seen enough of the River Gambia, so they unanimously opposed this scheme, saying that they had done enough for one

CADA MOSTO'S SECOND VOYAGE

voyage: "Whereupon, knowing that seamen are a headstrong, obstinate people, and to prevent scandal, they came into their measures, and next day sailed for Cape Verde on their return to Spain."

And so ended Cada Mosto's first visit to the Gambia.

"Cada Mosto could say little or nothing concerning the condition of the country of Gambia, having been obliged to return to Spain without proceeding any farther; partly through the intractableness of the natives, who are a fierce, wild people, especially those on the sea-coast, and partly through the perverseness of the sailors, who had refused to follow them. Next year, the above-mentioned Genoese gentlemen and he jointly fitted out two caravels in order to return to that river." Thus far "Astley's Voyages," on Cada Mosto's second voyage to the Gambia, which was the main objective of the expedition. Prince Henry added one of his own vessels to the fleet, and on the voyage, after passing Cape Blanco, they were blown off the coast by a sou'-west gale which made them steer west by north for two days and nights, and on the third day they descried land and discovered the Cape Verde Islands, calling the first discovered Bona Vista, which was uninhabited, at which they watered and found large quantities of pigeons, tortoises, some other fresh provisions, and salt, with which they revictualled their caravels and sailed on.

Striking the coast between the Senegal and Cape Verde at a place called "Two Palms," they coasted until they came once more to the mouth of the River Gambia, which they entered without opposition from the negroes, who observed them from a respectful distance, and sailed up the river.

"About ten miles from the mouth they cast anchor on a Sunday morn at an island in the shape of a smoothing iron, where one of the sailors, who had died of fever, was buried, and as his name was Andrew, being well-beloved,

THE GAMBIA

they gave the island the name of St. Andrew, which it goes by."

Thus was James Island first consecrated to the European race by the first victim of malarial fever, for although, as the translator remarks, the distance is not exact, there is no other island in the mouth of the river which will agree with the description, and, moreover, none of the distances of the ancient rovers on the coast are exact when compared with the data of modern navigators.

Cada Mosto sailed forty miles up the river and succeeded in establishing communications with one Batti Mansa, whose town is not definable by the data given, but was probably at Tankula, or Tankarow, as Moore calls it later, and in any case this was the site of the first trading by the Portuguese. Batti Mansa was under Forofangoli, who was the chief lord of the south bank, and lived ten days' journey to the southward. Forofangoli in his turn was tributary to the King of Melli, called by Cada Mosto the great Emperor of the negroes.

Melli was at that time a powerful independent kingdom lying between the valleys of the Niger and those of the Senegal and the Gambia. It was this kingdom that took Askia the Great, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, twelve years to subdue. The southern part, called Mading, on the eastern slopes of the Fouta Jallon Plateau, was never thoroughly subdued, and from this country the Mandingos have more or less always held sway over the valley of the Gambia.

Foro, or more likely "Fodi"-Fangoli, was probably a king of the Mandingos and a forerunner of numbers of other Fodis who have from time to time held sway by force of arms in the valley of the Gambia down to Fodi Kabba and Fodi Sila, of the end of the last century. The affix "Mansa," a chief, after the name of the man or

PAPAL MONOPOLY

town marks the fact that the country where Cada Mosto anchored was then under Mandingos' control.

The caravels stayed several days at Batti Mansa's town, but many of their people began to sicken with acute fevers, which forced them to end their visit and put out to sea. They sailed still south and put into the Kazamansa, discovered Cape Roxo, and finished at the Rio Grande, which had been visited by Tristan Nunez in 1447.

Cada Mosto's observation of the manners and customs of the people of the Gambia are extremely interesting when compared with those of the later explorers, but they tend to show that three hundred years made no great change in their civilization from Cada Mosto in 1455 to Francis Moore in 1735, excepting perhaps the doubtful changes in drinks and cotton cloths from their native products to those of the Europeans.

During the remainder of the fifteenth century the Portuguese and French were keen in their rivalry for the trade of the West Coast, and as the former claimed a monopoly under the Papal Bull, the operations of the latter were regarded as piratical. In those days the Popes arrogated to themselves the powers, ascribed by the Scripture to Satan, of giving away the kingdoms of the earth to their faithful followers, and even disposed of, in that sweeping manner, the two continents of Africa and America with parts of Asia and a few other similarly trifling divisions of the earth's surface, during the successive periods of maritime exploration by Spain or Portugal, their most devoted adherents among the nations of Europe. It was no doubt the fear of excommunication that kept our own mariners of that age from contesting the rights of the Portuguese to this monopoly, and, in fact, there is a record in Astley's "Voyages" that one John Tintam, with William Fabian, did fit out an expedition in 1481, when Edward IV. was on the throne

THE GAMBIA

of England, the objective of which was to have a cut in for a share of the supposed fabulous profits of the trade in gold and slaves.

Henry the Navigator died in 1463, but his mantle as an explorer fell on the shoulders of worthy successors in the kings of Portugal, and John II., by means of an embassy and diplomatic representations, no doubt fortified by threats of a punishment in the next world on the part of the Papal Nuncio at the English Court, so influenced the King of England that permission to sail was withheld, although the ships were provisioned in readiness to start on the next tide. The loss of that tide meant the loss of a century as far as the Royal permission was concerned, as there were no means of stopping the ships once they had sailed, and it was only in 1588 that the first charter was given by the English Crown to trade upon the West Coast, although an earlier one in 1583 was given by Queen Elizabeth to trade to the North Coast.

The Portuguese had made their maritime base on the Island of Arguin (the Cerne of the Carthaginians), and their penetration of Senegambia was facilitated by a visit made to that island by one called Bemoys, a chief of the Jollofs, who occupied the territory between the Senegal and the Gambia. He solicited the help of the Portuguese to reinstate him on the throne of his fathers, from which elevation he held himself to have been unjustly deposed. Bemoys was welcomed, promised aid, and sent to Portugal to interview the King.

At Lisbon, also, he was treated with all honour, converted, and at a private interview with the King and Queen painted the glories of his own lands, as well as those of Timbuctoo and Jenne, in glowing colours, adding, that far to the east of these countries there existed a people who were neither Moors nor Gentiles; but who, in many of their customs, strongly resembled the Christian nation that he now saw around him.



A RIVER VIEW AND A FERRY CANOE



VIEW OF RIVER LOOKING DOWN FROM KOSSOUL

PORTUGUESE EXPEDITION IN 1489

The mythical monarch, Prester John, was thus given a kingdom in Central Africa.

Bemoys, after baptism, was raised to the nobility, and did homage to the King for all the lands which he should acquire by his aid.

A powerful fleet was fitted out, which was to establish Bemoys on his throne as vassal to Portugal, and afterwards penetrate to the kingdom of Prester John from that coign of vantage. They reached the coast safely in 1489, but trouble arose when the Prince found that the Portuguese were more concerned in fortifying their own position in Senegambia than in re-establishing him on his ancient throne, and in the course of a quarrel, Pedro Vaz, the commander of the Portuguese expedition, stabbed his African ally to the heart.

The armament of Pedro Vaz consisted of twenty caravels, well found with munitions of war as well as materials with which to build forts, while the military elements were equally strong. The fame of such an army soon spread up the rivers and excited both fear and hope in the minds of the ruling chiefs, so that they sent embassies with presents to propitiate the Portuguese and elicit their help in their inter-tribal wars. Mandi Mansa, King of the Mandingos, at the head of the Gambia, and Temala, King of the Foulahs, in Fouta, south of the river, are mentioned in these records.

The first entered into alliance with the Portuguese, but the latter gathered together a great army and invaded the territories of the Jollofs and other peoples on the north bank of the Gambia. Leyden closes this part of the narration by saying, "Although, however, Temala is said to have done much injury to the King's allies in this part of Africa, his officer does not seem to have ventured to embark in hostilities against him, but even carried on an amicable intercourse by message and embassy." When it is remembered that, in addition to

THE GAMBIA

harrying the King's allies, the Foulahs were Moham-medans and the Portuguese Christians, we must seek for some strong makeweight against these injuries, and what so heavy in this connection as gold, with which the lands of this turbulent chief abounded? And thus the Portuguese commenced the peaceful penetration of the Gambia in the search for that commodity which has been the desire of individuals as well as nations for all time, the search for which has been the "ignis fatuus" to lead them to travel and explore the most inaccessible parts of the world's surface, risking even life in the pursuit, but, on the other hand, the finding of which in payable quantities has resulted in the most rapid progress of colonization of the surface of the globe during the latter half of the nineteenth century that the world's history has ever known.

CHAPTER V

1500—1600

Leo Africanus, the riches of Timbuctoo—Advent of the English to the West Coast—Sir John Hawkins and Slavery—Decline of Portuguese Power—The return of the French—Invasion of the Niger Valley by the Moors.

LEO AFRICANUS, who flourished as a traveller, geographer and author in the beginning of the sixteenth century, visited Timbuctoo in the train of his uncle, an ambassador from the Court of Fez to Timbuctoo, the throne of which was then occupied by Askia the Great, who reigned from 1494 to 1529.

Leo, who was one of the greatest travellers of the century, brought away with him a fund of information about this part of West Africa. His work was written first in Arabic, afterwards in Latin, and eventually translated into English in 1600 (Purchas, Vol. II. init.).

His description of the riches of the country in gold, ivory and slaves was sufficient to fire every adventurous soul in Europe. The King of Timbuctoo and his ministers were decorated with gold ornaments in profusion, while one lump used as a stool or throne weighed 1300 ounces. These riches were collected from the Foulahs and Bambarras. It will be seen later on that Bambarras is the Vangara, Wangara, or Guangara of other writers.

Leo was taken prisoner on a voyage by a Corsair and brought to Rome, 1507, where he studied Italian, translated the Arabic account of his travels, and was converted to the Roman Catholic religion.

He became a *protégé* of Pope Leo the Xth, who was his sponsor at baptism, and from whom he took the

THE GAMBIA

Christian name of John (Giovanni de Medici). It was probably owing to his accounts of slavery in West Africa, that Leo was induced to promulgate a bill forbidding the sale of human beings. Charles V. also issued a prohibition in 1542, and Queen Elizabeth is said to have roundly rated Hawkins on his first cargo of human flesh.

The Portuguese consolidated their power on the Senegal and Gambia, especially on the latter, and by means of that waterway penetrated far into the interior, establishing settlements, and as stated above, the French found some Portuguese words as far inland as Bambouk, on the east of the Faleme, some four hundred miles from the coast in a direct line.

The stations on the Gambia in addition to Bintam (or Vintang) were Tankula (or Tankural), Kassan and Pisania. "Beotam" was probably named after Tristan Nunez, who called the Gambia "Rio Grande" on his first visit, and it is possible that the "Small River" in which he was killed off the Rio Grande was the Vintang Creek.

At Tankula there was a church or mission station, and the ruins are still traceable, while the natives have the tradition that the bell can still be heard in the woods.

The middle of the century saw both the English and French in competition, and often in conflict, with Portugal for the commerce of the Gambia, and the earliest mention of an authorized English expedition is that of Captain Windham, with a Portuguese lieutenant called Antonio Anez Pintadom. They made a successful voyage to Guinea, and returned with 150 pounds of gold. Windham had already made voyages in 1551 and 1552 to the coast of Morocco and Santa Cruz, but had not reached the West Coast.

They were followed by another expedition in command of Captain John Lok, who returned with four hundred pounds of gold, a quantity of ivory, and a general cargo of what the Yankees term "Notions," in which was

THE SLAVE TRADE

included a parcel of 250 elephants (tusks, we must presume).

A regular service of trading vessels grew out of these successful ventures, and Captain William Towerson made several yearly voyages to and fro from Guinea with success.

We now come to that epoch, 1562, when the Christian nations, in pursuit of labourers for their plantations in the New World, slipped from grace and followed the lead of the Portuguese, who probably copied the Arabians with whom they had come in contact, in buying and selling human beings. The first cargo of slaves was shipped by Gilianez in 1442, who exchanged some Moorish captives for slaves and gold, but Sir John Hawkins has the discredit of introducing this new form of money-making under our own flag, by freighting his three ships with three hundred natives, and landing the survivors at St. Domingo. Once introduced, the traffic in so-called "slaves," but in freemen of the country that God had given them, went on merrily for about two centuries, and as a contemporary writer quaintly remarks in connection with this new departure by Sir John Hawkins, "Several other private adventurers followed, and as every one seemed to be doing remarkably well, the nation as a whole became interested."

The Gambia is not yet directly mentioned in these earliest voyages, but when its unparalleled advantages as a harbour of refuge compared with the mouths of other rivers north and south on that part of the coast, together with its facilities for trade (with the Portuguese already established and acting as middlemen for both French and English adventurers), is taken into consideration, there can be very little doubt that the Gambia was a favourite port of call for the slavers.

In the still waters behind the island of St. Mary, beaching and scrubbing of vessels of shallow draft has

THE GAMBIA

been carried on from time immemorial, while the wrecks of all time strew the shallow waters of Half Die near at hand. About ten miles distant along the southern shore at Beretto, near the mouth of Lamin Creek, there is the carenage of the old French adventurers, in use up to the present time for heaving down vessels of heavy draft, while from Bathurst to Dog Island (formerly Charles Island, or Dago Id), and thence across to the south bank, there are fifty square miles of still water, protected from the ocean and only occasionally ruffled in the tornado season, that would afford protection to the British Navy.

The only land-locked harbour on the coast for one thousand miles with deep water on the bar, the Gambia has played in centuries past, and will continue to play, an important part in the safe navigation of the North-West Coast of Africa.

War is a recurrent factor in the history of the world, and although we are at peace and living in amity with our dear neighbours on the coast, the day may not be far distant when the Port of Gambia, only ninety miles distant from the French capital and its great harbour, at present basking in the sunshine of peaceful commerce, but ready for war and protected by fortifications which are said to be a little Gibraltar in strength, may again be a harbour worth defending, and will again play that leading part in West African history from which it has been deposed by the enterprise of the French and the supine attitude of our own successive Governments.

Towards the middle of the sixteenth century the Portuguese power on the coast commenced its decline to make way for the French and English, and in 1580 the annexation of Portugal to Spain under Philip II. dealt the death-blow to Portuguese maritime enterprise, as that monarch had his hands full of wars at home.

The French had displaced the Portuguese on the

ENGLISH TRADERS

Senegal, while on the Gambia they were still numerous, but, as stated above, had commenced to act for others instead of being the principals.

With the decadence, moreover, of Portugal, both England and France ceased to regard the Portuguese Papal monopoly as valid, and in 1585 Queen Elizabeth granted the first patent given under the English flag by which the realm accepted the responsibility of the protection of its subjects in West Africa.

The first patent was given to trade to Morocco, but in 1588 another patent was issued to certain merchants of Exeter to trade to Senegal and Gambia, and in 1591 an expedition sailed to exploit these two rivers. Dr. Leyden and other writers give the names of the leaders as Richard Ranolds and Thomas Basset, but no further information, excepting that the Portuguese were on the Gambia in great numbers, and, resenting what they probably regarded as an intrusion on the established rights, they conspired to seize the vessel and massacre the crew. The proposed *solvée*, however, did not take place, owing to a premature discovery of the plot. The history goes on to say that our methods of trading gave the greatest satisfaction to the natives, who assured the English that "one bar of iron would be more welcome than forty Portugals."

The French also resumed activity in West Africa about the end of the sixteenth century, and under the second Henry the expedition of Jean de Beithencourt reawakened interest in the trade to Gambia and Senegal, with the result that very soon only one Portuguese remained on the Senegal as a trader, and he was an agent for the French.

The French merchants also approached their Government for protection on the Coast of Guinea, and help against the Portuguese and English who had usurped their stations on the Senegal and Gambia, with the

THE GAMBIA

favourable result that a fleet of five vessels was fitted out at Dieppe and visited both of the rivers about 1590.

This formidable naval demonstration was probably due to the issue of the English charters above mentioned, but Queen Elizabeth stood the shock of the Spanish Armada in 1598, and five ships were not likely to intimidate her, so she issued another charter for extension to the Coast of Guinea.

In 1591 occurred the Moorish invasion of the Valley of the Niger. The Moors chose the direct desert route, so that their march to Timbuctoo did not directly affect the peace of Senegambia; but, on the other hand, the fall of the Songhois warriors before the muskets and powder of the Moorish troops at the Battle of Toundib, their first introduction to the "fire-stick," was only the opening of the tragedy in which the ancient empire, welded together by Askia the Great and well preserved by his successors, was broken into its constituent parts once more, and became Emirates ruled from Marrakesh.

CHAPTER VI

1600-1630

Our Merchant Adventurers—First English Charter and Company—Thompson, Jobson, Buckar Sano—Compagnie Normande, first French Company.

THE opening of the seventeenth century does not appear to have added much to the scroll of fame as far as the valley of the Gambia is concerned, and the first entry that I find in my notes refers to a charter to a "Company of Merchant Adventurers," granted by James I., who succeeded our Virgin Queen Elizabeth, in 1603.

The charter was in favour of Sir Robert Rich and others, and it will be remembered that the travels of Leo, with its glowing accounts of the wealth of Timbuctoo, had been translated into English before this date. Dr. Leyden gives extracts from a private letter written by a merchant of Morocco to his friend in London, dated 1594, which tells of the conquest of Timbuctoo and Gago by the Moors, giving details of the wealth that the invading army brought back with them. "Thirty mules laden with gold" came with the first company, while the yearly rent of tribute of the conquered country is fixed at "60 quintals of gold by the yeere," and concludes this tale of wealth by writing: "The report is that Mahomet bringeth with him such an infinite treasure, as I never heard of; it doth appear that they have more Gold than any part of the World beside. The King of Marocco is like to be the greatest prince in the world for money, if he keepe this country" (Hakluyt, III. 6, 7).

Timbuctoo *via* the Gambia was the goal aimed at by

THE GAMBIA

the Company of Merchant Adventurers with Sir Robert Rich, and they fitted out the *Catherine*, gave command to George Thompson, formerly a Barbary merchant, and freighted her with about £2000 worth of trade.

Thompson's instructions were to sail up the Gambia as far as possible in the *Catherine*, and then continue in boats until he reached Timbuctoo, or the region of gold. It should be noted that the geographers of Europe still regarded the Gambia as one of the mouths of the Niger.

Thompson reached the Gambia safely, took his ship 130 miles up the river to Kassan, where the Portuguese still retained a station, and leaving her in charge of the mate, with part of the ship's company, proceeded to carry out the remainder of his instructions.

While he was away the Portuguese obtained entrance to the *Catherine* and massacred the crew, while at the same time they incited the King of Yani (Niani) to murder Thompson and the rest of the crew with him. Thompson, however, was in Wuli, a hostile state to Yani higher up the river, and the Feramba or chief of his locality, Fath Tenda, armed in his defence, so the attempt failed.

Thompson made a settlement at Fath Tenda, about 240 miles from the mouth of the river, which may be the "Fort on the Gambia" mentioned by historians in 1618, and confused with Fort James, built in 1664—from which he sent messages to the company in England, reporting the loss of his ship, and asking for reinforcements.

The company thereupon sent out the sloop *St. John*, of fifty tons, which arrived in the rainy season, having already lost several of her men. Thompson, therefore, sent her back to England for further assistance, promising to ascend the river with his present forces, and thus prepare the way for a great success.

The company responded cheerfully, and sent forth

FIRST ENGLISH CHARTER AND COMPANY

the *Ston*, of 200 tons, and the *St. John* again, as tender to the larger ship.

Authorities differ as to the date of sailing of this expedition, but it is more likely that, in the urgency of their affairs in West Africa, October, 1619, was the date.

Under the command of Captain Richard Jobson the ships reached the Gambia safely, but only to find that Thompson had been killed by one of his company in a quarrel. Thompson had, however, ascended the river as far as Tenda, 25 or 30 leagues above Barra-Kunda, and had there found the town of the great trader of those regions known as Buckar Sano. "Tenda," in Mandingo, is "a wharf," and without another name it is difficult of determination; by the distance, however, Thompson penetrated to about the junction of the Nerico, nearly 100 miles above Barra-Kunda, and 400 miles from the river mouth.

It should be noted, however, that the distances given in these ancient records do not agree with the actual measurements now that the river has been surveyed beyond the farthest point of the old voyages; but the modern distances will be adhered to in recording the efforts of the ancient mariners to penetrate into the interior. It may also be remarked that actual distances pulling against a two to three knot stream always seem longer than in still water, and twice the distance of descending the same stream, so that on a time scale, the up-stream voyage, unless averaged with the down-stream, is generally overestimated.

Besides, there were no observations to check the distances or the imagination of the strugglers against an unknown rapidity of current.

Jobson, being informed of the fate of Thompson, signalized his arrival upon the scene by seizing the boat and other worldly effects of the ringleader of the attack upon the *Catherine*—one called Hector Nunez, probably

THE GAMBIA

a descendant of the Tristan of that name, who first established the Portuguese settlements. On his arrival at Kassan, the scene of the massacre, all the Portuguese had fled, after trying to bribe the Alkali (Alcadi) to murder Jobson and his men also. The Portuguese at other ports expressed the greatest horror of the action of their countrymen in this affair, but it is probable that part of their apparent disapproval was due to the character of Jobson and his energetic action with regard to Hector.

Captain Jobson, having established the prestige of his flag after the manner of British sailors in those days, sailed gaily up the river to Jera Kunda, where he picked up two of Thompson's men and continued on to Oranto, from which he departed for the higher river on January 1, New Year's Day, 1621, according to Leyden.

They passed Barra-Kunda, and took on a local crew of a "Marabut and two negroes," and amidst all sorts of dangers and difficulties of shoals, "deserts replenished (*sic*) with wild beasts, rivers swarming with crocodiles—twenty to the bunch, like bananas—thirty feet long," they eventually reached Tenda on the 26th, and on February 1 they received a visit from the great Buckar Sano, who was "immediately regaled with brandy," which resulted in his lying dead drunk all night on board.

Apparently, both host and guest gained experience, as the latter is said to have guarded against a "similar irregularity," and on his recovery, proved to be a very courteous and reasonable person. Jobson stayed some days at Tenda (which he named St. John's Mart), a wharf and town near the mouth of the Nerico, now abandoned. He was visited by the King of Jallacotta, a town still in existence about ten miles above the Nerico.

Here Jobson met traders from Timbuctoo and Gago, and also made the acquaintance of the Bassaris or Kunyadis. He says, "On the opposite bank (left bank)



FATA TENDA FROM UP RIVER—RIVER 300 YARDS WIDE



RIVER VIEW BLACKSMITH HILL—IRONSTONE CLIFFS.

JOBSON AND BUCKAR SANO

there appeared about five hundred men and women, clothed only with skins of beasts girt round them, the tails hanging as from beasts." In 1898, and again in 1908, the writer made the acquaintance of these tribes, but Jobson must have seen them *en fête*, as to-day their robing is that of Adam before the fall, the only incumbrances being a cutlass sheathed in animal skin and suspended by twisted gut, together with a small conical-shaped cover of plaited matting worn by the men only, either for ornament or for a religious observance, over their Phallic member, and secured around their loins by the same sort of "tie-tie" as the cutlass. Naked and yet unashamed, the true descendants of a Golden Age, they thus walked among the flowing robes of the Marabouts.

Captain Jobson, to his honour, declined to buy slaves. He was after material gold, and some of this he got from these people, in addition to ivory and hides, the latter of which were too heavy to carry, and having, as he thought, brought his company into touch with the riches of Timbuctoo, he returned to Barra-Kunda in five days, which is about correct as a time scale for down river from the Nerico to that port.

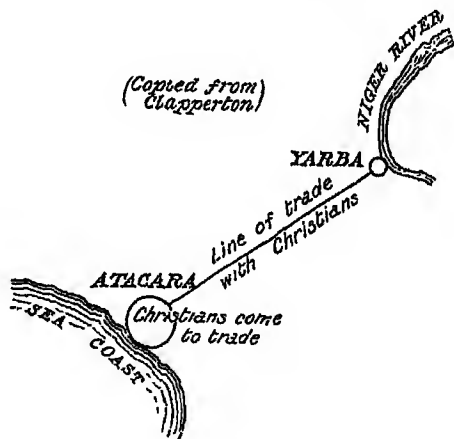
He mentions a visit to Settico (Sutuko), near Fath Tenda, which still exists, and says that it is the largest town he had seen. It is a small town, and Jobson did not wander far from the river and his ships in those days.

Leyden remarks that Fath Tenda is the highest point to which the Portuguese carried their trade, but I am inclined to the view that Yarbu-Tenda was their highest point on the river, not Fath Tenda, the port of Settico. Yarbu, or Jabu in Mandingo, means "a stranger," and where ports on the river are not named after their inland towns, they apparently are named after some peculiarity or natural feature. Yarbu-Tenda is the highest point

THE GAMBIA

for vessels of ten-feet draft, as the river shoals to six feet above that port. Who were the strangers after whom the wharf was named? A black man in a dug-out would not be classed as a stranger, and therefore the godfather came of a foreign race, and brought his boat to this wharf. This would point to the Portuguese, who were the first to penetrate so far into the interior. Babu, Yabu, Jabu, are all variants on Barba—a beard. The beard was the marked distinction with a more or less beardless race, so “Tobabu” is the name for all white men up to this day, as they are usually unshaven in the Bush.

In the map of Central Africa, made by the scribe of the Sultan Bello, and given to Clapperton, in 1823, there



is a similar port on the Niger called Yarba, “The Port of the Christians or Strangers.”

Jobson continued his voyage down river and found his ship all right, but his crew sadly diminished by sickness, and with the remnant thereof he sailed for the open sea and returned to England.

In 1626, according to French records, the *Compagnie Normand*, formed by the merchants of Dieppe and Rouen,

FIRST FRENCH COMPANY

founded an establishment on an island at the mouth of the Senegal river which in due time grew into the town of St. Louis, the capital of the Senegal Province to-day, but until the twentieth century the capital of the French possessions in West Africa.

About this time, also, according to the same authority, St. James Island in the Gambia was bought and occupied by the English, so that the two great nations that have consistently worked towards the advancement of Africa acquired their first "*pied à terre*" in the same year close upon three hundred years ago. They have seen the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the Danish come and go, leaving no trace of Empire behind them, and their now formidable rival in colonization, the German, make his first essay in African colonial enterprise in Angra-Pequena, and later acquire such predominance in Africa as to be able to practically tear up a treaty made by us with the Congo Free State—that is, so far as to the exclusion of the clause by which Great Britain could gain the right of way from the Cape to Cairo—and later still, they have seen Germany force the other European nations into a conference on the Moroccan question, in which the only tangible German interest was that of some mineral leases or rights, said to be held by Germans. It gives us and others to think, whether we are also decadent with our party fights of the greatest acerbity at home, and our meekness when confronted with a national question abroad, in which we have to deal with younger and more progressive Empires.

CHAPTER VII

1630-1723

Second, Third, and Fourth Charter—War with Holland—Crown Subsidy granted
—Compagnie du Senegal—De Brue—Mutiny of Gambia Castle.

THE French still traded to the Gambia, where the Portuguese acted as commission agents for all comers—English, French, and Dutch. The maritime power of Holland was then in the ascendant, and their traders were established at several stations along the coast.

In 1638, the same year that St. Louis was founded, and Senegal became a French Colony, acknowledged by the French Crown, Charles I. gave the third English Charter to Sir Nicholas Crisp and others, under the style of The African Company, to trade to West Africa. These succeeded to the Merchant Adventurers, apparently after Captain Jobson's return with but little loot from the upper Gambia and without tapping the riches of Timbuctoo.

The Third Charter was confirmed by Cromwell in 1651, but in the name of Rowland Wilson, who was probably on the Parliamentary side, while the former's chartees were fighting with the Royalists.

During our Civil Wars, the Danes and Dutch took advantage of the troubles in England, and seized the ships and stores of merchandise on the seas and on the coast to the value stated of £300,000, and there ended the Third Company.

In 1660 came the Restoration, and Charles II., apparently feeling secure in sea power, granted an

2ND, 3RD, AND 4TH TRADING CHARTERS

extensive Fourth Charter to The Company of Royal Adventurers, to trade to the African Coast, and a contract to supply the plantations in America with three thousand slaves annually.

James, Duke of York, was a shareholder in this new flotation, to which rights were granted of a monopoly of trade from the Straits of Gibraltar to the Cape of Good Hope, with a time limit of one thousand years. It is unnecessary to add that this instrument is still running with regard to the period of time, but a glance at the map of West Africa in the twentieth century will show that the Royal Adventurers failed to maintain their monopoly.

In 1664, the *Compagnie Normand* was transferred to the *Compagnie des Indes Occidentale*.

The fort on James Island, apparently occupied by us in 1620, appears to have been constructed about this date, and named after the Royal Leader of the Adventurers by Captain, afterwards Sir Robert, Holmes, and about the same time Parliament addressed Charles II., praying that the insolence of the Dutch might be chastised, as they were endeavouring to suppress the English trade on the coast, and had up to the date of the memorial seized over twenty English ships. The advantage of having a Royal Leader was made manifest, as the result was a grant of ten thousand pounds from the Treasury, which in the present day would not be regarded as an excessive war loan, but which was continued annually, and, moreover, had the effect of marking the Crown's assumption of responsibility for the safety of commerce on the coast. This petition led to the war with Holland, which began in West Africa in 1665, extended to Europe in 1666, and ended in 1667 by the Treaty of Breda, by the Third Article of which each combatant gave up all territory and ports conquered during the war.

Despite the title of "Royal," the help of Parliament,

THE GAMBIA

and the prestige given by their ducal shareholder, the Royal Adventurers failed to pay dividends, and on September 17, 1672, the Royal African Company took over the business of the Royal Company of Adventurers and the unexpired term of their charter for one thousand years.

This year also saw the transfer of the Second French Company. In 1664, the original *Compagnie Normand* had sold its establishments and rights to the Third Company, the *Compagnie des Indes Occidentales*, to which Colbert, the all-powerful Minister of Louis XIV., had given an exclusive right to the commerce on all the shores of the Atlantic from Canada to the Cape of Good Hope. This was a truly Papal gift ; but, as other nations took no notice of the monopoly, the Company had to fight for its share of commerce just the same, and after the failure of the celebrated Mississippi Company, it went into liquidation, and its rights in West Africa passed to the *Compagnie du Senegal* in 1672.

In 1679, the *Compagnie du Senegal*, having to compete with the English and Dutch, already firmly established, entered into exclusive commercial treaties with all the chiefs on the coast, from Cape Verde to the Gambia River. Hitherto all nations had equal rights on the coast, if they were strong enough to maintain them, so the *Compagnie du Senegal* were the initiators of that policy which commenced by protection of native territories in exchange for trade, and ended in conquest.

It follows that we may regard the Gambia as a British settlement in Africa subsidized by the Crown from 1665, and although the territory actually occupied was a small rocky island fortified with eight small guns, it flew the flag of the nation, and was the first piece of Africa to hoist the Union Jack.

The actual territory of the colony proper has been largely increased since the day when Fort James

COMPAGNIE DU SENEGAL

represented the total land possession of Great Britain in Africa, but the sphere over which that little fort held sway has sadly decreased since the seventeenth century, when the Royal Adventurers traded with English merchandise, made treaties with the native kings, broke them when expedient, made peace or war according to their own sweet will, and, when time hung heavily on their hands, even fitted out naval and military expeditions to harry their rivals in the "peaceful penetration of Africa."

Their territories are under another flag, Fort James is a ruin on a desert island, and "*Rivus sed preterea nihil*" may be "*writ large*" as their epitaph upon the map of West Africa.

As a natural sequence to their treaties with the chiefs for exclusive trade, two years afterwards (1681) the Compagnie du Senegal laid claim to the whole of the coast from Cape Blanco to Sierra Leone, making special mention of the settlements on the Gambia. This did not add to the peace of nations occupied, or interested, in the trade to the coast, and had the effect of causing excursions and alarms, the echoes of which at times reached Europe.

Having to fight against both England and Holland to maintain their claims, in 1696 the Compagnie du Senegal also had to give way, and, in 1696, a new undertaking called the Compagnie Royale du Senegal took over the wreckage.

The new company had for a director one of the best men that have ever given their energy to Africa, in M. Andre de Brue, who arrived in the Senegal in 1687, and by his personal energy and direction firmly established the foundations of the French Colonial Empire in West Africa.

Our two nations were gradually entering upon those strained relations that filled the eighteenth century with

THE GAMBIA

war, and the new Compagnie had the full support of the French Government.

The effect of this new state of affairs was soon felt, for in 1695 Comte de Gennes sailed into the Gambia on July 22, flying English colours, anchored close to the Fort James, surrounded it with boats to cut off communication with the mainland, and commenced to bombard it.

He only commenced, for Hanbury, the English Governor of the Royal African Company, capitulated on the second shot, although the first and second fell short, and asked for terms. On the island was a garrison of sixty to seventy whites, and as many half-castes and free negroes; the armament consisted of sixty to seventy guns of all sizes.

M. Frozer, who came with de Gennes, describes it fully, and says that the only weakness was the lack of a bomb-proof water-cistern, and a similar protection to the magazine. The latter need speaks strongly for the careless building of the fort, and it appears from the context that an English deserter told de Gennes in Goree of this slackness in preparation against an attack.

De Gennes had four sloops and two bomb vessels, and Frozer adds that the place was impregnable save for the two defects mentioned in his account.

The fort was demolished by undermining the walls, the guns were spiked and otherwise disabled, and our first piece of territory in Africa was formally taken possession of by the Sieur Bourguignon, the Director-General of the Compagnie Royale, and flew the French flag until the Peace of Ryswick, in 1697.

During the French occupation, De Brue established the Station of Albreda on the mainland opposite James Island, and that of Geregia (or Jeregia) up the Vintang Creek; sent a barque to trade up the Gambia as far as Joar (Ballangar); entered into treaties which

BOMBARDMENT OF FORT JAMES

cancelled the English treaties with the paramount chiefs, and gave other evidence that he had come to stay.

The King of Fogni alone was hostile to the French because they had burnt two English sloops after the capitulation of Fort James in which he had some interest, probably slaves not yet paid for ; so Bintam (Vintang), the chief town of the incensed monarch, was left severely alone, although, as before stated, it was one of the earliest stations of the Portuguese, and commanded the mouth of the Vintang Creek, or River.

The French made themselves masters of the trade until the Peace of Ryswick, in 1697, when the demolished fort and James Island were handed over to the Royal African Company. They sent out a new Governor—Mr. Corker—who arrived early in 1699, and took energetic measures to retrieve the misfortunes by establishing new factories up the Gambia and on the coast at Guala (Joal) and Portodualo (Portudal).

Guala is the ancient Ulil at the mouth of the Saloum River, from which the valley of the Gambia and that of the Niger were formerly supplied with salt, as before mentioned. The monopoly of this necessary of life gave the King of Barsally (in later days called Barra or Ba Saloum) immense power, as water-borne to Tenda, and thence across to the Niger, his trade competed successfully with the salt from the mines at Thegazza, thirty days' desert travelling from Jenne or Timbuctoo.

Portudal is farther north, close to Goree, the headquarters of the French naval power on the coast, so that Governor Corker was trailing the tail of his coat in the way of reprisals.

Meanwhile, the French retained trading rights at Albreda, and their factories were undisturbed at other stations ; but Governor Corker dealt with these by establishing a duty of ten per cent. on all merchandise entering the river in foreign bottoms, and enforcing these

THE GAMBIA

dues by stopping all vessels at the fort, and firing upon those that endeavoured to sail up the river without his passport.

The narrator, Père Labat, who edited De Brue's journals for us, quaintly adds, "In a word, he showed great enmity to the French."

The Gambia thus from a close preserve became a free port, and commerce was open to all nations subject to the payment of the customs due; but Governor Corker soon found that he had made an error, as the foreign traders undersold him in spite of the duty.

He therefore wrote home that it would be better to repair Fort William and Mary, as the fort appears to have been re-named, and revert to the policy of "Gambia for the British alone."

He also sent an officer to the Sieur de Brue about the end of 1699, proposing a concordat for trading purposes under a lengthy memorandum, to which De Brue replied by the same officer, that "Before the war the English were confined to the Gambia, and had no trading stations on the coast, which was French, and as by the Treaty of Ryswick each nation retired to their own possessions, the English had no right to trade at Joal or Portudal."

On February 10, 1700, Sieur de Brue paid a visit of courtesy to Governor Corker in the *Princess*, of thirty-two guns, but, owing to want of telegraphic communications in those days, Corker was not at home, being absent at Cacheo, a station south of the Gambia, at the mouth of the river of that name.

Brue inspected the factories at Albreda, Geregia, and sailed out again to Bissao, where he captured a Dutch ship, which he found trespassing on the French self-constituted monopoly, and returned to the Gambia in April. He saluted the flag (or the fort) with nine guns, and the fort returned gun for gun. With much courtesy, De Brue sent an officer to the fort to learn when Governor



SEA HORSE ISLAND—MANGROVES.



DASALAMI CLIFFS OF IRONSTONE.

ANDRE DE BRUE

Corker would receive him, and Corker replied, with equal ceremony, that he would be pleased to wait upon him as soon as the gout would permit him.

Whereupon, De Brue landed at the fort, and was received at the landing-place by the lieutenant of the fort and seven captains of the ships anchored in the river. All the ships hoisted their colours, while, inside the gate, the garrison was drawn up with the drums beating "to arms," and De Brue was there received by Governor Corker in full uniform and slippers on account of the said gout. There was much interchange of courtesy, plenty of eating and drinking on that day, and also when Corker returned the visit at Albreda; but, apparently, little was done towards settling the points in dispute between the two companies.

De Brue also visited Bintam, 1700 (Vintang), and gives a spirited account of the town and its inhabitants, chiefly Portuguese and half-castes from the mixture with the Floops.

There was a large church, and other stone buildings, while the Portuguese dons walked about in their "habits of ceremony," which consisted of sombreros, long, black cloaks, "long spaldos" thrust up behind as they walked, poniards big enough for swords, sweeping long mustachios and long chaplets of beads." All this in Africa, under a burning sun, must have formed a striking picture.

De Brue ascended the Vintang as far as Patchari, where he was regaled at a Gargantuan feast, of which the "pièces de resistance" were a sheep, an ox, and a quarter of seahorse.

He also recounts two amusing adventures: the first with a half-caste Portuguese lady, decked out with gold and jewels, who desired to become the Maintenon of France in Africa, but failed to conquer after having stooped; and the other with a *soi-disant* invisible man prophet, who failed to prophesy, and, as De Brue found,

THE GAMBIA

on beating the hanging gown where the prophet said he was not, failed to disappear, but, on the contrary, appeared, and cursed roundly.

Governor Pinder succeeded Corker, and, finding himself unable to cope with the French and Dutch with armed merchantmen alone, asked for a ship-of-war to be stationed in the Gambia and on the coast. The *Rochester*, of fifty guns, arrived on March 12, 1701, in answer to this request, and this reinforcement emboldened Pinder to demand the return of several vessels that had been seized by De Brue in the *Princess*. Not receiving an answer, he sent Captain Mayne in the *Rochester* to Goree to demand the answer.

Mayne sent a white flag on shore to demand whether France and England were at war, and, if not, he invited De Brue to salute his flag. De Brue declined to fire first, but said that he did not object to firing gun for gun if the *Rochester* fired the first gun, and added in the letter that he would not give up the ships in question, as they had been adjudged lawful prizes.

As neither would fire first, they never fired at all, and the captain, emulating that "good old Duke of York, who had ten thousand men," sailed the good ship *Rochester* back again with De Brue's answer.

It will be seen that the cradle of our African Empire, around which all our power was centred, was rudely shaken at times, as in 1702 war broke out in Europe, and echoed down the coast so that Fort James was stormed again and taken by the Sieur La Roque, who, having accompanied De Gennes in 1695, knew the weak points in the position, although, after the Peace of Ryswick, the Royal Company had restored the fortifications and mounted fresh guns. No details are given of this fight between the *Mutine*, Captain La Roque; the *Hermione*, Captain de St. Vaudrille; and Fort St. James, but the ransom is given as 100,000 crowns, and the victors carried

ENGLISH *v.* FRENCH

off 250 slaves, while La Roque was killed in course of the fight.

In 1703 the fort was again plundered by a French privateer, Henri Baton, in the brigantine *Fanfaron*.

After this reverse, the company's resources were so low that mediation was resorted to, and an agreement was signed in London on June 8, 1705, the chief clause of which was that the two Royal Companies, French and English, should be at peace with each other, and, moreover, render mutual assistance against other nations, or the natives, in any time of storm or stress on the coast of Africa.

Apparently, this peace did not last long, nor must it be taken for granted that the aggression was always on the part of the French, for, if the history of the Island of Goree could be interpolated, it would be seen that the "Top Dog" for the time being was the nation that had last received reinforcements from Europe.

When the English had a squadron in the Gambia, and time hung heavily on their hands, they would sail for Goree by night, and appear in the morning as a surprise packet in time to attend the Grand Levée of the French Commandant, and salute him with a few guns. And when the French squadron lacked excitement, they would make a naval demonstration in the mouth of the Gambia.

In 1709 this again took the form of an attack, and the fort was plundered by M. Parent, who sailed away loaded with slaves in default of a money ransom; and in the same year an English pirate obtained possession by treachery, and succeeded in finding £2000 in bars of gold.

In order to guard against similar enterprises in the future, the Royal Company obtained from the Government the services of a company of soldiers, and sent them out in the *Gambra Castle*, to hold the fort and

THE GAMBIA

endeavour to keep the flag flying. But the roll of misfortune was not yet complete.

One Major Massey was in command of the troops, and it appears that on the voyage there had been a quarrel between Lowther, the mate of the ship, and his captain, in which Major Massey had taken sides with the junior officer.

Massey took umbrage at the form of reception given to him by the Governor of the fort and the company, so the two malcontents agreed to avenge their wrongs by mutiny.

The sailors of the *Gambra Castle* were seduced by Lowther, and the Major likewise persuaded his men to join the mutineers instead of turning their bayonets upon the sailors. Together they landed and seized the fort, dismounted the guns that could be brought to bear upon the *Gambra Castle*, and, having mounted guard over the loyal servants of the Company until the fort and stores were ransacked of all valuables, as well as provisions for their suddenly arranged voyage, they set sail for the open sea, and commenced a series of piratical attacks on the vessels trading between the West Indies and Africa for slaves, gold and ivory, etc.

The French at this period kept a considerable force at Albreda, partly for protection against any sudden neighbourly attentions on our part, but more as a defence against the extortions of the King of Barra (Barsally or Ba Saloum), to whom they had denied the royal dues for entering the river, and whose house flag they declined to salute. They eventually withdrew their traders in 1717, and established a new station at Bintam (Vintang), entering into treaty with the King of Fogni, their former enemy, for peaceful occupation.

The King of Barra was a truculent monarch of the Mandingo tribe, and the honours, privileges, and dues that he claimed have been paid to his successors down to

THE KING OF BARRA

the present day, but latterly in the form of a lump sum paid annually by the British Government. At the period in question, he demanded a salute from all ships entering and leaving the river as they passed a clump of trees on Barra Point, known as the King of Barra's Pavilion, owing to their graceful form, and a contribution to his royal purse, which took the form of so many "bars," according to the tonnage of the vessel. "Bar" was originally a bar of iron, about 2 inches by $\frac{1}{4}$ inch by 6 feet long, but in time it came to be used as expressing an equivalent quantity of any other commodity, even of gold and silver coinage.

Père Labat writes rather ill-naturedly of the King of Barra and ourselves at this time, saying, "The English, who treat with arrogance nations much superior to the negroes, have stooped to salute this landmark called the Pavilion of the King of Barra, which has so exalted this petty negro prince that he exacts this from all ships." Of course, as the King of Barra was the most powerful ruler in the valley, and our ancient ally throughout those troublous times, we naturally observed the practice, and kept up his prestige.

Returning for a moment to the mutineers of the *Gambra Castle*, they were captured in Barbados and duly punished. Massey alone was sent to England, where he was hanged on his own confession.

CHAPTER VIII

1723-1730

Captain Stibbs—The Thurd Attempt to penetrate to Timbuctoo.

WE now come to another attempt to penetrate into the heart of Africa by means of the river and the valley of the Gambia.

Captain Bartholomew Stibbs arrived in the river on October 7, 1723, in the Royal African Company's ship *Despatch*, with instructions to make another attempt to reach the Eldorado of West Africa. The Duke of Chandos was then director of the company, and finding that the revenues were falling behind, instilled into the shareholders new hope of retrieving their losses by war and pirates, by suggesting that never-failing remedy for poverty, of collecting gold in its native state instead of acquiring it by commerce. Captain Stibbs saluted the fort with five guns, and found that the governor, to whom he was accredited, had been dead for six months, and that his successor was up the river at Joar (Ballangar). As the authority of the governor was necessary to purchase canoes for the upper river work, as well as to obtain natives to work them, Stibbs sent urgent messages to Governor Willy, but received no reply until the 31st, when "the company's pinnace brought down the corpse of Mr. Willy." Mr. Willy having been buried with due honours on the "North Bastion, where several governors lie," Stibbs writes: "The fort fired sixteen guns minutely, and I ten afterwards from my ship." "Mr. Orfeur succeeded Mr. Willy, and on November 1, at noon, the flag was hoisted to mast-head and saluted with

ATTEMPT TO REACH TIMBUCTOO

nine guns to the new governor's health, and I fired five from my ship." "On the 2nd, in the morning, a canoe brought down the body of Dr. Hugh Cassal. He died yesterday on board the brigantine *Advice*, Captain Rodwell, on his way down from Joar. His body was soon after sent over to Gillifree to be interred, the fort firing four guns."

"At noon the corpse of Lieutenant Macswain was brought down, and he was buried in the evening on the East Bastion, the fort firing six guns."

Captain Stibbs thus received the answer to his demand for the reason of delay in furnishing him with material and men, and also an insight into the difficulties of the task that awaited him up the river. Yet he did not flinch, although his mate died on November 17, and the above quotations, pathetic in their simplicity of language, give to us in the twentieth century some idea of the conditions of life in which our forbears tenaciously held on to our oversea dominions in spite of everything.

Mr. Orfeur succeeded to the vacant governorship, and being of an energetic turn of mind, a rare thing after a year or two of the African climate, soon gave Stibbs a start up the river with five canoes and a miscellaneous party of fifteen Europeans, thirty Africans, and several women and boys to do the cooking. Leaving James Island on December 26, he negotiated the Barra-Kunda Rapids on January 6, 1724, and in spite of the entreaties of his "Linguister" and black auxiliaries, continued on for fifteen days pulling, pushing, poling and sweating over the shoals and rapids which should have brought him to the "Tenda" of Jobson. Finding it impossible to ascend farther without leaving the boats behind and taking to the land, and, moreover, finding that the river was falling rapidly, he wisely returned to the river below Barra-Kunda Falls while there was sufficient water to float his fleet of canoes and boats.

THE GAMBIA

In his journal, Stibbs gives strong expression to his natural disappointment at finding no mighty channel that was to lead him through many kingdoms to Timbuctoo; and although he found the river 150 yards wide at his farthest point, he declared that he was convinced that the sources of the river were not so far into the country as the geographers supposed. He adds that it nowhere bore the name of the Niger, it did not come out of any lake that he could hear of, and that it had no connection with the Senegal or any other great river. The natives told him that the headwaters were twelve days' land journey (say 240 miles) from Barra-Kunda, and that there it was merely a rivulet across which the fowls could walk.

Francis Moore was factor and writer to the company from 1730 to 1735, and his book, which is a valuable and trustworthy record of that period, endeavoured afterwards to show that (according to the writing of Herodotus, Leo Africanus, and Edrisi, who all held that the Gambia was a branch of the Nile, Niger-Nile or Niger, by which titles the river system of Central Africa was known to these authorities) he, Stibbs, must be mistaken in his facts and his deductions; but the hardy mariner stuck to his guns, and although not deeply read in the ancient authorities, steadily asserted the plain facts of his discoveries and effectually disposed of the Gambia as a highway to Timbuctoo and its riches.

In 1726 the Royal African Company began to solicit more effective State aid, and addressed a memorial to the Lords Commissioners of Trade and Plantations, representing the State of Fort James as fully equipped, in the following terms:—

“James Fort and the island in the river Gambia, on the north coast. The island walled all round, out-works, small arms with stores, etc., formerly mounted with ninety small guns, now with thirty-eight great guns,

ROYAL AFRICAN COMPANY

with several warehouses, with rooms for the governor, factors, writers, officers, artificers, soldiers and castle slaves ; magazines and storehouses with a negro-house for two hundred negroes." The other possessions of the company were also set forth in due order and extended from Gillifree on the main land opposite James Island to Fath Tenda on the upper river, including also Vintang and Geregia in the Vintang Creek.

In due course their prayer was heard, and on March 26, 1730, the House of Commons passed Resolutions 1, 2, 3 and 4, also advising that Parliament should grant an allowance annually towards the protection of the possessions in West Africa.

Resolution 1.—Laid down, That the trade to Africa should be free.

Resolution 2.—That the trade should not be chargeable with duty for forts and protection.

Resolution 3.—That it was necessary to maintain the British forts and settlements ; and

Resolution 4.—That Parliament should grant an allowance for that purpose.

From 1730 to 1735 the history of the Royal African Company is recorded by Francis Moore, who was appointed a writer to the company, and sailed for the Gambia on September 10, 1730.

Moore was an observant chronicler, and likewise a student of the ancient history and geography of that part of Africa ; but with the exception of his description of the river and the island and Fort James, his book is a compilation of the arrivals and departures of ships and individuals, and the private concerns of the company and himself, so that most of it can hardly be classed as history ; and especially so, because his five years of service were both peaceful and without change as far as the political or national status of the settlements are concerned.

CHAPTER IX

1730-1786

Frances Moore—Slave Trade free—Treaty of Versailles—Colberry—Albreda.

MOORE dedicates his journal to the Duke of Montagu with the usual flowery style of the authors of his time, a period in which they had to depend more upon the benevolence of their patrons than the sale of their books to the reading public.

Following upon his Preface, quoted elsewhere, is a scholarly "Letter to the Publisher," which sums up all the classical knowledge on the subject, and 'is freely interspersed with quotations from ancient authors and Leo Africanus.

Moore sailed on September 10, 1730, but was driven back by adverse weather to the Downs, whence they sailed again on the 16th, and again encountering heavy weather in the Bay of Biscay, put into Cadiz for refuge on October 7; leaving on the 13th, they made Palma in the Canary Islands on the 25th. On November 2 they crossed the Tropic of Cancer off Cape Blanco, on the 6th they made the mouth of the Senegal, the 7th, Cape Verde, and on the 9th came to an anchor in the mouth of the Gambia after a voyage of two calendar months.

His first impressions of the country are well worth reading, and the following extracts will picture the state and condition of the infant settlement which was the beginning of our African Empire.

"James Island lies almost in the middle of the river

JAMES ISLAND

Gambia, which is here at least seven miles wide. It belongs to the Royal African Company of England, who pay a small annual tribute to the King of Barraah for the same. It lies three miles from the nearest shore, and about ten leagues from the river's mouth.

"At low water it is about three-quarters of a mile in circumference, upon which there is a square fort of stone, regularly built, with four bastions; upon each are seven cannon well mounted, which command the river all round. Under the walls of the fort, facing towards the sea, are two round batteries; on each of them are four large cannon well mounted, and between those are nine small guns mounted for salutes."

A plan is also given, showing the two round batteries as outworks on the water's edge; with a square fort and a polygonal bastion at each corner.

An elevation of the north view shows the castellated walls with the aforesaid guns peeping out of the embrasure, and a castellated tower from which floats an immense Union Jack.

The following quotation shows the political aspect of affairs in the Gambia Settlement in 1730-35. Moore says: "The fort is called 'James Fort,' and is the chief settlement that the Royal African Company have in this river. This fort keeps the right of trading to the River Gambia for the company, and consequently for the subjects of England. Were this once in the hands of the French, who, I am very well informed, in the year 1719, would have purchased it for the Mississippi Company, could they have obtained leave for so doing, they would then exclude not only the company, but all other nations from trading hither, as they already have from the coast of Senegal, where they maintain an exclusive trade by force, and take all ships.

"This they justify by two forts which they possess on the coast of Senegal. The Royal African Company

THE GAMBIA

of England had formerly an exclusive trade here ; but for the encouragement of the plantations in America, the parliament thinking fit that all his Majesty's people should enjoy the liberty of trade to Africa, for the company's right, and in equity to them, who are at the charge of maintaining the forts for the benefit of others, did first grant them 10 per cent. on all separate ships that should trade to the coast, and since that ceased, have for some years past granted to the company £10,000 each year for the maintenance of their forts.

“ This is a very advantageous bargain to the nation ; for as these forts are necessary to be kept up as marks of the British possessions in Africa, if the company did not maintain them, the Crown would be obliged to do it, or let them fall into the hands of foreigners, and it would cost the king to maintain them with the garrisons and governors under his Majesty's Commissions three or four times as much as it does now. By this agreement, besides a free trade, the separate traders have had their ships often assisted, their cargoes taken off at good prices, and have reaped several other advantages, as well as the public. And the increase of duties, that arises from the increase that these advantages have made in the American, as well as in the African trade, more than makes up to the public, the money that is given by them for this purpose.”

Moore also gives a complete list of the division of the Gambia Valley into kingdoms, and indulges in conjecture as to the supposed connection between the Nile Niger and the Senegal, Gambia and Casamance.

In 1732 Mr. Harrison was sent up by the company with some small sloops built specially and sent out from home for navigating the upper river on a shallow draft. He only went as far as Fath Tenda, however, and sent his second in command, John Leach, to do the exploring farther inland. This expedition only reached Barra-



THE RIVER AT KOSSEMA



GREY RIVER CAMP—JUNCTION WITH GAMBIA THE FIRST SAILING VESSEL ON THE GREY RIVER.

SLAVE TRADING

Kunda Falls, without adding much to the sum of general knowledge.

More interesting is Moore's account of the currency for trading in slaves and produce. "A barr is a denomination given to a certain quantity of goods of any kind, which quantity was of equal value among the natives to a barr of iron, when this river was first traded to." (The barr of iron was 6 feet long by 2 in. by $\frac{1}{4}$ in.) Thus, a pound of fringe is a barr, two pounds of gunpowder is a barr, an ounce of silver is about a barr, and a hundred gun flints is a barr, and each species of trading goods has a quantity in it called a barr; therefore, their way of reckoning is by barrs, or crowns, one of which does not amount sometimes to above one shilling sterling; but that happens according to the goods which they are in want of, sometimes cheap, sometimes dear. These five articles, viz. spread eagle dollars, crystal beads, iron barrs, brass pans, and arrangoes, are called the heads of the goods, because they are dearest. When you agree with the merchants for slaves, you will always agree how many of the heads of the goods you shall give him upon each slave, which is three or four, if the slaves are worth forty or fifty; but when slaves are dearer, as they oftentimes are, at eighty barrs per head, then you must give *five and sometimes six of the heads upon each slave*; and there is an assortment made of the goods, by barrs of different species, which come out to the price of the slaves. The men and women used to be much dearer than the boys and girls; but there have been so many vessels in the river of late years, for young slaves, to carry to Cadiz and Lisbon, that there is scarce any difference between the prices of young slaves and grown ones."

The chief trade of the Gambia in Moore's time was in gold, slaves, elephants' teeth, and beeswax. The merchants in these commodities were still Mandingos, who were always the middlemen between the valley of

THE GAMBIA

the Niger and that of Gambia. Their method of bringing their goods to market is described by Moore.

"The same merchants bring down elephants' teeth, and in some years slaves to the amount of two thousand, most of which they say are prisoners taken in war. They buy them from the different princes who take them; many of them are Bumbrongs and Petcharies, nations who each of them have a different language, and are brought from a vast way inland.

"Their way of bringing them is, tying them by the neck with leather thongs, at about a yard distant from each other, thirty or forty in a string, having generally a bundle of corn, or an elephant's tooth upon each of their heads. On their way from the mountains they travel through very great woods, where they cannot for some days get water, so they carry in skin-bags enough to support them for that time.

"Besides the slaves that the merchants bring down, there are many brought along the river. These are taken in war as the former are, or else men condemned for crimes, or else people stolen, which is very frequent. The company's servants never buy any of the last, if they suspect it, without sending for the Alcade, or chief men of the place, and consulting with them about the matter. Since this slave trade has been used, all punishments are changed into slavery; there being an advantage on such condemnations, they strain for crimes very hard in order to get the benefit of selling the criminal. Not only murder, theft and adultery are punished by selling the criminal for a slave, but every trifling crime is punished in the same manner.

"There was a man brought to me in Tomany, to be sold for having stolen a tobacco-pipe. I sent for the Alcade, and with much ado persuaded the aggrieved party to accept of a composition, and leave the man go free."

SLAVERY AS A PUNISHMENT

There is also a paragraph which throws some light on the question of domestic slavery, a question about which there has been much misunderstanding in later days.

“Several of the natives have many slaves born in their families. There is a whole village near Brucoe of two hundred people, who are all the wives, slaves or children of one man. And though in some parts of Africa they sell slaves born in the family, yet in the river Gambia they think it a very wicked thing ; and I never heard of but one that ever sold a family slave, except for such crimes as would have made them to be sold had they been free. If there are many family slaves, and one of them commits a crime, the master cannot sell him without the joint consent of the rest, for if he does, they will all run away, and be protected by the next kingdom, to which they fly.

“The slaves sold in the river, besides those brought by the merchants, may amount in a year to about one thousand, more or less, according to the wars upon the river.”

Here is also a picture of the treatment of these unfortunates while in captivity awaiting shipment.

“About midnight our ensign was called down by the sentinels, who were on duty, in order to prevent the slaves from making their escape, they having got an iron bar out of the slave house window ; but it was then too small for a man to get out at, so they were taken and secured in another place for that night, and on the next day the ringleader of them being found out, and proving to be an old offender, he was ordered one hundred lashes.” A hundred lashes for endeavouring to regain that freedom which had unjustly been taken away by men who, according to other parts of the narrative, oft knelt and prayed. The self-gratulation for the discriminate dealing in slaves on the part of the company’s agents and factors can only be ascribed to the purblindness that seemed to

THE GAMBIA

affect the whole civilized world for over two centuries ; and the whole description of the conditions of life for the native population into whose lands we intruded is a lurid picture thrown upon the background of the professed Christianity of the European nations engaged in the horrid traffic.

Moore's description of the old Portuguese settlement of Tancrowall and the French settlement of Albreda, with the other centres of trade on the river in his time, is interesting.

"Tancrowall is divided into two parts, one for the Portuguese and the other for the Mandingoes ; the former living always in square large houses, the latter in round huts, made of a good fat, binding clay, which soon hardens, about twenty feet diameter, and about eight feet high ; over them is a covering like a beehive, made either of straw or palmetto leaves, so well fitted that the rain cannot penetrate them, nor the heat of the sun strike through them. They very much resemble some ice-houses I have seen in England."

It might be observed here that the house building in the Gambia valley has not changed from the time of the earliest records up to the present day, either in the materials or the style of architecture. Grass is used for thatch, and bamboo matting for the walls, where good clay is not obtainable ; but the type is the same—a square house for the European, and a round house for the native, is still the rule away from Bathurst. This is another instance of the fixed ideas of the African mind, which changes not even after five centuries of living cheek by jowl with civilized races ; for if any curious inquirer puts the question why they do not live in square houses, the answer will be, "Dat be white man fashion."

To continue : "The town of Tancrowall is the residence of a priest who is yearly sent over from St. Jago. Here is also a church where during the priest's stay is

ALBRED A

Mass almost every day. Here are a great many Portuguese, who have amongst them several canoes, which they send up the river to trade once or twice a year ; by which means they have made this town a place of great resort, and the richest in the whole river. It is pleasantly situated by the water-side, about half a mile in length, with a woody hill behind that runs some miles along the river-side about half a mile from it ; between is pleasant walking in the dry season." The glories of Tancrowall have departed, the foundations of the chapel can perhaps be found, and the town consists of a few beehive huts ; sometimes, according to legend, the bell is heard calling the ghosts of the departed to Mass once more ; but the sound comes from far away in the forest, and is said by the Ju-ju priests to portend misfortune, unless the Ju-ju is propitiated with gifts. It is probably rung by them whenever their church fund is running low water.

Albreda, the French headquarters on the Gambia, is also described. " Albreda is a pretty large town on the river-side on the north, about a mile or two below James Fort, near which the French West India Company (also called the Mississippi Company) have a settlement consisting of a factor, two writers, and four or five other white men.

" They have two or three very handsome houses built of clay, like unto the Portuguese houses, with walls about ten feet high, covered with thatch, being supported by strong Forkillas, and a space left between walls and the roof to let in the air. They are very neat and well furnished, and drive a considerable trade, but are much hindered by the English not allowing them to give above forty barrs per head for slaves."

It will be remembered that Albreda was first established by the Sieur de Brue, in 1698, after Fort James had been taken by the Comte de Gennes, and before it was

THE GAMBIA

restored to us under the terms of the Peace of Ryswick, although that treaty is dated 1697.

The opposition of the King of Barra, as stated before, drove the French to abandon Albreda; but in 1724, according to Moore, they reoccupied it under a working arrangement with the English.

Moore says: "In the year 1724 there was a contract made between the French agents at Goree and the English at James Fort that the French should settle a factory in the river Gambia below James Fort in order to make what trade they could; and although the English company's stock was then at lowest ebb, and not that only, but it is very probable that the French were resolved to settle there either with or without leave, yet it is to be observed that the Royal African Company, in lieu of the French having a single settlement in the Gambia, obtained leave for to send vessels when they pleased, to trade both at Joally and Portodally, two places near Goree, which produce great trade, and which the French are at a great deal of pains, as well as cost, to engross to themselves: by which means, notwithstanding the articles, our voyages there often miscarry.

"This factory of theirs at Albreda is not within reach of our cannon: whenever they want to go up the river above James Fort for wood, or anything else which they cannot so well be provided with below, they are obliged to ask leave of our governor, who seldom or never denies them, but puts a man on board to see that they do not make any trade; neither are they allowed to go above Elephants Island, which is about thirty leagues above Fort James." 1734.

Moore mentions the return of Job ben Solomon, and gives a short account of his adventures. He was a Fulah and a native of Fouta Toro, and having crossed the river from Joar against his father's instructions, on his way to do a little trading in human flesh for his father, he was

A SLAVE TRADER ENSLAVED

caught in Jarra by some Mandingos, his head shaved to look like a prisoner of war, and was sold to the same ship, the *Arabella*, Captain Pyke, where he had endeavoured to sell his slaves, but could not agree as to the price. He was landed in Maryland in America, and attracted attention by his education in Arabic and religious exercises, so that eventually he was sent to England, made a great fuss of by people in high places, and in due time returned to his native Gambia.

It shows the callous attitude of our own nation towards slavery that nothing is said of the coffer of slaves which Job, the son of Solomon, had sold like cattle just before he had the same measure meted out to him, which, looked at impartially, was retributive justice swiftly applied ; on the other hand, he was fêted and made much of by the company's servants and the people of Joar as one who had risen from the dead, because he was " the only man, except one, who was ever known to return from slavery." All the time the company was shipping thousands on the same route, that, dragged away from their homes and country, would never return.

When we compare those days with these, and think of how these territories were fought for, won, and retained in spite of war, piracy, mutiny, sickness and death ; when we think of the consistent allegiance of the descendants of those races of the Gambia Valley who then, and for three hundred years, have trusted the British before all nations, we are aghast at the complacent attitude of our Government towards a proposition to barter away the remainder of these territories and the nationality of the inhabitants. Since 1876 pieces of the Gambia Valley have been traded away by a few gentlemen sitting in Paris and London, conventional boundaries agreed upon without the slightest knowledge of or care for tribal, family, or natural divisions of the land, bringing about war between the natives themselves as well as

THE GAMBIA

with their so-called protectors, and dividing house against house, and parent against children, for the partition of the farms surrounding towns and villages cut in two by the conventional lines.

We may have resented Napoleon's gibe at the Nation of Shopkeepers, for then we were prepared to fight anywhere and for anything affecting our national honour, but without the bloodstains of the Congo, or the horrors of the slave trade, in the nineteenth century of the Christian Era we have bought and sold human beings, their lands and possessions, their affectionate allegiance and loyalty, and prostrate at the feet of the idol of trade we are still bartering away our proud title of "protectors of the weak or oppressed," and with it our national honour.

In 1735 Moore left the Gambia, and we lose our keen observer and careful chronicler as far as the historical part of this work is concerned, although in other chapters on the Natural History and Ethnography of the country he was at that time the leading authority, and is copiously quoted by Astley and other chroniclers, whose good example will be followed anon.

In 1744 the Royal Company appeared to have fallen upon evil days, for of all their stations and factories there was left to them only Fort James, which they held until 1749, when they sent a petition to Parliament in the reign of George II., with the result that two Acts were passed to endeavour to relieve their distress. By the first, the slave trade was to be free to all British subjects on payment of a fee for a licence of forty shillings, and by the second, the amount of compensation to be paid to the company for this concession from the terms of their Charter was laid down by the Government.

In 1752 the Royal African Company came to the end of its tether financially, and was dissolved. A new company was formed under the terms of the Acts of

SENEGAL

Parliament of 1749, called "The Company of Merchants trading to Africa," and in the schedule of properties held by the company upon the African Coast, the list includes eight forts and James Island, making nine in all.

The Seven Years' War broke out in 1757, and in 1760 we were in possession of Senegal, which became headquarters for the time, so that Gambia lost its importance as the nearest possession in Africa to England, and became more or less subsidiary to the larger colony, which, under the terms of the Peace of 1763, we retained until 1779. France made an effort to resume control of her colony, and MM. Vaudreuil and de Lausan succeeded in regaining possession of the Senegal River, while we still held Goree. In 1783, by the Treaty of Versailles, the whole of the ancient colony of Senegal and Goree were once more handed over to France, together with their old settlement of Albreda in the Gambia. As a *quid pro quo* for the latter the British retained the settlement at Portendic, with all the former exclusive rights as to the gum trade. By this arrangement the Gambia became once more the nearest outpost of Africa, and regained a large proportion of its importance and trade, and, moreover, was again handed over to the company for administration.

M. Golberry, who served for some years in the French service about 1786, says that the respective rights of the French and English on the Gambia River were laid down under the Treaty of 1783, much to the disadvantage of the former, forasmuch as after the destruction of the English forts on the African Coast in 1779 by M. de Pontdeveze, the French enjoyed the right of navigating any part of the river, after the treaty they were confined to the mouth of the river below James Island.

On the other hand, the English, taking advantage of their monopoly of the river above Fort James, once more established a great number of factories on its banks.

THE GAMBIA

He adds that the value of their commerce might be estimated at six millions French, about £240,000.

In 1786 also, Albreda, which, like all other trading stations, had been abandoned during the war, was re-established.

M. Golberry cannot be regarded as an impartial historian, in fact, he was strongly biassed, for the Treaty which guaranteed to us the Gambia, with the exception of an enclave at Albreda, gave back to France for a time the whole of her colony of the Senegal; and whereas the Gambia had not been effectively occupied by the French, St. Louis and the Senegal, as well as Goree, had been actually governed and administered by our general commanding.

For years, moreover, Albreda was only an enclave for the purposes of trading according to the spirit of the Treaty; but Golberry gives a long description of the ceremony of making a favoured Nation Treaty, which they attended under armed escort from the corvette *La Blonde*, with the King of Barra, without our assistance; and where, formerly, the concession was 300 by 400 yards, in the result they obtained a slight increase of this area, which, "by favour of the augmentations granted by Ali Sonko," was eighty fathoms long by about the same width, 480 by 480, a diplomatic victory which did not result in a large addition to the French Colonies in Africa.



DOWN-RIVER VIEW FROM KOSSEMA.



BATHURST FROM THE RIVER—LASTWARD FACE.

CHAPTER X

1788-1800

The African Society—Major Houghton—Mungo Park from the Gambia to the Niger.

THIS year, 1788, saw the forming of the African Society, under the presidency of Sir Joseph Banks, and where heretofore the voyages to Africa had all been made with a view of personal profit, either for individuals or commercial companies, a new era dawned on West Africa, and under the fostering care of the society, men of a different stamp landed on its shores and beat their great hearts out against its dangers of climate, sickness, or sudden death at the hands of the people they had come to serve. Men of our race, imbued with the energy of the northern nations, and trained in scientific observation, the true missionaries of civilization, are buried on its shores or in the depths of its forests, some of them with their work unfinished, and the result of their endeavours lost to science. Others took their places, and since 1790, when Ledyard and Lucas commenced to penetrate Africa from the north, and Major Houghton ascended the Gambia on his way to Timbuctoo and the Niger Valley, we have never lacked men actuated by the highest ideals to take their place in the fighting line of the extension of geographical and scientific knowledge in Africa.

Major Houghton's objective (1791) was Timbuctoo, that mysterious city which had floated down on the haze of history as replete with wealth and wonders as yet unknown to the European records. The African Society had profited by the information gained by Lucas in his

THE GAMBIA

attempt to reach Timbuctoo from the north by way of Mesurata, as well as by the records of former travellers in the valley of the Gambia from Jobson to Francis Moore, and chose the latter route for the new endeavour to reach Timbuctoo. They also chose a gallant man, and one that in his career had served both in Morocco and in Goree, two elements, or factors, towards success that could hardly be overestimated, as it was with a knowledge of both the races he was to meet, Arabs and negroes, that he set out on his journey. He made his first stage with the kindly slave-trader, Dr. Laidley, at Pisania, now known as Karantaba, on the route by which traffic and trade from the populous and wealthy towns in the valley of the Kunchau Creek reached the river-bank. Walla, or Walli, is mentioned by Dr. Leyden as bounding Wuli on the west, and the town of Wallikunda is still a central trading town for the Kunchau district.

From Pisania Houghton passed without adventure to Medina, the border town of Wuli, and the residence of the so-called king, who gave him a warm reception and plenty of good advice, which was probably a warning to keep to the south and avoid the Arab races. He reached Bambouk, and was again well received, possibly due to his having with him a large amount of trade. From Bambouk he struck north, possibly by compulsion, as he knew enough of the Moors to fear them if he happened to be in their power.

His servants deserted on the boundaries of Ludamar, at Simbing, from which town Dr. Laidley received his last letter, saying that he was in good health, but he had been robbed of all his goods. Without power of defence, or goods to bribe with, he became a person of no consequence, and the prey of any small chief that chose to constrain him, so that the end soon came, either by murder, sickness, or starvation, and his remains were pointed out to his successor, Mungo Park, four years

MAJOR HOUGHTON

afterwards, when he himself was undergoing the same compulsion to travel north out of the comparatively kindly negro countries, into those of the rapacious, malignant, and fanatical Arabian tribes occupying the fringe of arable land between the Senegal River and the Sahara Desert.

This handing a stranger on from petty chiefs to their head chief is a system which still continues. Having delayed the traveller as long as possible in order to extract many presents and bribes for safe conduct, a guide is given to the traveller to take him to the next town of importance, where the same system of pillage is carried on, until an order comes from the king of the country to send the stranger to the capital town. Here again the king is tributary to another king, and is compelled to forward the traveller on to his suzerain.

The amount of presents demanded increase in the ratio of the self-importance of the chief, so that the end is the same, the traveller is deprived of all his goods, and is dependent upon the chief for subsistence. Amongst the tolerant negroes food is forthcoming, as a rule, but when the fanaticism of the Arab is added to the natural suspicion and fear of the stranger, there is little hope of either going on or going back, and the end comes swiftly on some trivial excuse to prevent the traveller from exacting revenge or restitution of his goods in the future through the medium of a known or unknown power. So with Major Houghton, on refusing to be drawn farther into the desert to Tisheet by his Moorish persecutors, he was plundered and left to perish, or more probably murdered in view of the proverb that dead men tell no tales.

Mungo Park (1795) then took up the task for the African Association, and literally followed in the footsteps of Major Houghton.

Sailing on May 22, he arrived at Gillifree, the English

THE GAMBIA

settlement on the north bank opposite James Island, on June 21. There is a legend in the Gambia that Mungo Park first landed in Africa on St. Mary's Island, about two miles from Bathurst, and after the establishment of the settlement of Bathurst a masonry monument was erected to mark the spot. Some stones are still pointed out as the ruins of this monument ; but no record appears in his narrative as it comes down to us from the compilers.

From Gillifree, Mungo Park travelled in the vessel that brought him out, touching at several places on the voyage up the river, and arrived at Pisanía at the beginning of the rainy season.

Dr. Laidley, who had started Houghton on his travels, received him warmly. Park occupied the five months waiting for the travelling season, in learning Mandingo and any other languages within touch ; in catching malarial fever by exposure in his pursuit of knowledge of the natural products of the country ; and in acquiring information about the people and the countries he was to pass through. He finally set out through Walli and across the Kunchau Creek on December 2. He arrived at Medina, and was received by the same old chief that had given Major Houghton hospitality and good advice, who also furnished him with guides to the frontier of the Wuli kingdom with that of Bondou. From thence his progress was similar to that of Houghton, he was robbed by the same petty chiefs, handed on to the same overchiefs, and forced northward to cross the Senegal at Kayes, and pass through Kasson into the Kingdom of Kaarta, where one Daisy was king. Probably aware of his danger, he endeavoured to persuade Daisy to give him a guide through Bambarra to the southward, but Daisy, although he treated Park kindly, said that he was at war with Bambarra, and could not be responsible for his death by sending him there, so with much misgiving

ADVENTURES OF MUNGO PARK

Park took the route through Ludamar, where he fell a prey to Ali, whose surname should have been "Baba" of Forty Thieves renown.

Until July he was buffeted about from pillar to post, suffered the greatest hardships and indignities possible at the hands of the Arabs, and eventually became so poor, weak and negligible as to be allowed to escape southward. Once out of Ludamar, his fortunes mended the farther he travelled among the negroes, and even the Foulahs pitied him and gave him food, so that eventually he arrived on the Niger at Sego. In spite of all obstacles, Park succeeded in descending the Niger for some distance toward Timbuctoo, but at last the suspicions of Mansong, the King of Sego, fomented by the Moors around him, forced him to the conclusion that he had better try and return instead of penetrating further into the heart of Africa.

He left in August, in the middle of the rains, and experienced as much difficulty returning west as he had suffered going east; but as he progressed into the Mandingo country, he received more kindness and hospitality, although penniless and destitute of anything to give in return. Arriving at Kamaliah, a small town on the Ba Lee River, tributary to the Senegal, he found a Good Samaritan in the person of one Karfa Taura, a Marabout or Bushreen, as Park calls them, who, finding that throughout all his vicissitudes Park had preserved his Prayer-book, took him in and kept him until the following dry season, and when he had collected a coffle of slaves for sale, started for the Gambia, where he safely delivered Mungo Park to Dr. Laidley, on June 10, 1797, receiving to his surprise double the promised reward of the price of one prime slave. From Gambia Mungo Park went to Goree, and finding no better opportunity, worked his passage as ship's surgeon in a Yankee slaver to Antigua, from which West India Port he sailed for

THE GAMBIA

England, and arrived at Falmouth on December 22, 1797.

As he had sailed from Portsmouth on May 22, 1795, Park had put in two years and seven months of as strenuous a life as has fallen to most men on this spinning sphere, and throughout his voyages and travels one can see that it was his implicit trust in the Almighty, without whose consent not one sparrow may fall, that brought him safely through all his troubles.

Mungo Park's voyage was the most important in its results that had been made in Senegambia and the Niger Valley, and thus the Gambia and the Upper Niger became British by right of prior exploration by the efforts of Major Houghton and Mungo Park, both of whom sealed the gift to their native land not only by their work, but by their blood when, later on, Mungo Park, on his second expedition, was killed in descending the Niger at the Falls of Bussa.

Thus, at the end of the eighteenth century, the valley of the Gambia once more formed the link between the Atlantic and the valley of the Niger, for our nation, as it had for centuries past for other world empires, while they lasted.

CHAPTER XI

1800-1870

Colonies transferred from Home to War Office—Mungo Park's Second Expedition and last—Treaty of Paris—Bathurst founded—Mollien discovers sources of Gambia, Senegal and Rio Grande—Last of the African Companies—Gambia and Sierra Leone Crown Colonies—Albreda ceded—Baddibu War—Sir Richard Burton.

WE now turn the first page of the nineteenth century, in the first year of which the colonies with their administration were transferred from the Home Office to the War Office, and Lord Hobart became Secretary of War and for the Colonies.

Mungo Park's second expedition was undertaken at the request of the Government, and George III., the patron and employer of Captain Cook, was also induced to forward the scheme with his Royal patronage.

Owing to the wars with France, however, although the scheme was formulated by Mungo Park in 1801, it was not until 1804 that he was desired by Lord Camden, the Colonial Secretary of the day, to complete his arrangements. He sailed from Portsmouth in the transport *Crescent* on January 30, 1805, and arrived at Goree, then in our possession, on March 28. The Gambia was again to be the route to the Niger; but with a force and equipment that would serve to overawe, or overcome, any opposition on the part of his old enemies. He reckoned, however, without "general rains," and tried to force his way across the swollen headwaters of the Senegal, after having followed the north bank of the Gambia eastward until the valley turned south to the Fouta Jallon Mountains.

Leaving Pisanía on May 4, 1805, he hoped to reach

THE GAMBIA

the Niger about the middle of June in time to take advantage of a high river for his voyage downwards, but the rains had already commenced in the hills, the streams were flooded, and near the Falémé they encountered their first tornado, heralding the arrival of the rainy season in the valleys. The party was about forty strong, in soldiers, sailors, and artificers, besides cooks and camp followers, a veritable army for the purpose, with many asses for transport; but the climate rapidly reduced their numbers, while as his force weakened the natives' chiefs commenced to harry them, stealing arms, ammunition, and provisions.

Mungo Park arrived on the Niger with but seven men, including his brother-in-law, Anderson, the doctor of the expedition, all of them suffering from fever malaria, etc., but undaunted in his hope and desire. After laborious work and negotiations with his old friend, Mansong of Sego, Mungo Park found himself afloat on the Niger in August. The result of his expedition is well known, and passes out of the History of the Gambia to that of the Niger.

In the year 1807 the slave trade was abolished by the Government of Great Britain. This was the result of a strong regeneration of the Ethics of Humanity in the nations of Europe professing Christianity, which in our own case had been slowly working to the surface during twenty to twenty-five years.

In the actual purification under the insistent efforts of Wilberforce and his party, it should be recorded that we only followed the lead of some of the American States, notably that of Virginia, where a law had been passed thirty years before our own Act, forbidding the introduction of any more African slaves.

Once convinced of our sinful ways, the repentance was sincere, and the Settlement of Sierra Leone, and afterwards that of the Gambia, received many thousands

MAGNITUDE OF THE SLAVE TRADE

of our repatriated negroes, intercepted by our men-of-war in craft belonging to other nations, as well as some under our own flag.

The new departure affected the financial position of the Gambia seriously, as hitherto, nothing had been done in the direction of fostering the trade in natural products, such as wax, rubber, or ground-nuts, which were to form the staple products later on, so that the African company was practically ruined, and Government had to come to its assistance by increasing the annual subsidy to £23,000.

As a guide to the magnitude of the slave trade carried on by us in our degenerate days, statistics show that between 1680 and 1786, a little over one hundred years, 2,130,000 human beings were exported from our own settlements in West Africa. As none but the young or strong, potential fathers and mothers of their race, were worth their freight across the Atlantic, we as a nation are responsible for a large proportion of the depopulation of the West Coast of Africa, and with Lady Macbeth, we might well exclaim, "Will these small hands ne'er be clean?"

By the Treaty of Paris, 1814, which ended the War of Independence with our American Colonies, and also with France, we evacuated Goree, and the Gambia once more assumed new importance as our nearest harbour and colony on the West African Coast.

It therefore became necessary to rebuild our forts and make other arrangements to accommodate the troops and other establishments necessary to the influx of officials from Goree.

At first it was intended to rebuild Fort James, but the lack of room on the island formed an objection to this as a permanent capital, and Colonel Brereton, who was in command (1816), chose the sandy spit at the extreme point of St. Mary's Island, probably more from

THE GAMBIA

a strategic point of view than a sanitary one, as it was simply a high sandy beach thrown up by the Atlantic waves, with a mangrove swamp behind it, but commanded the Fanway entrance to the river above.

The houses, barracks, stores, factories, forts and other buildings were built round the crescent-shaped sandbank, and gradually the land behind—which was below high-water level—was partly reclaimed. The town was drained with tidal sluice to prevent the flooding of the town by sea-water; of course this came afterwards, and even in the early nineties of last century one could catch small crocodiles and shoot snipe in the compound of Government House during the rainy season.

The new capital was called "Leopold," but the name was afterwards changed to Bathurst by Sir Charles McCarthy, under whom the town was designed, and the batteries were laid out on Barra Point, Fort St. Mary, and in Bathurst for the purposes of defence.

McCarthy Square and McCarthy's Island, formerly Lemain, commemorate this connection between one of the best governors England ever supplied to West Africa and the Gambia.

As to commerce, the British merchants in Senegal were forced to leave when the Treaty was ratified, and with some French traders who preferred the British flag to trade under, emigrated to St. Mary's Island, and built there factories and houses in such a permanent form that some of them are still in existence.

This influx marked a return to that prosperity in the colony which had languished during our occupation of Senegal.

In 1818, Gustave Mollien discovered the sources of the Gambia, the Senegal, and the most northern tributary of the Niger.

His description of the cradle of the Gambia is given in the chapter on geography, so that it is only necessary to

GUSTAVE MOLLIEEN

refer to it here as a historical event which set at rest many theories on the question of the sources of these rivers, and reduced their topography to a perfectly natural system.

Mollien had served his apprenticeship in West Africa before he undertook the quest of the sources, as he was one of the ship's company of *The Medusa*, wrecked at Cape Blanco in 1816, and made the journey from there to Senegal overland on foot.

He returned to France in 1817, and solicited permission to undertake the exploration of the Senegal and Gambia, having a full dose of that nostalgia which all men suffer from, once they have breathed the air of spaces unlimited in the interior of Africa, and suffered the hardships thereof, receiving in return from the Genii that uplifting of spirit by which one feels that he is a man, dependent upon his own forces for life and the success of his quest, not an ant in an overcrowded ant-hill in some European city.

In his expedition Mollien travelled alone, as Park also did on his first expedition, and there was a distinct similarity in the two men, that of suffering hardship and danger without murmuring, so long as they were moving towards their goal, and both of them are worthy of a niche in the monument, yet to be built, of the men who made West Africa.

Mollien returned to the coast by way of the Rio Geba, being too weak and worn out to travel back overland, as he desired to do. He received every kindness from the Portuguese officials in the Bissagios, and was well nursed and fitted out at Bissao, the capital of the Portuguese colony. Finally, he was given a passage to Goree, from which he travelled overland to St. Louis, from whence he returned safely to France, landing at Havre in March, 1819.

In 1822 the last of the African companies disappeared, and its possessions were taken over by the British Crown,

THE GAMBIA

becoming Crown Colonies. Sierra Leone was chosen as the seat of Government, and annexed by Act of Parliament with a jurisdiction including the Gold Coast, Cape Coast Castle, the Gambia, and all other British Settlements.

In 1823 McCarthy Island was acquired by purchase as an outpost, 160 miles up the Gambia. A Government House was built, with barracks for a company of soldiers in order to hold possession of our island, for although trading could be carried on without military protection, as soon as we commenced to acquire territory and take permanent possession of our acquisitions the opposition of the native tribes became serious.

The old records of McCarthy show wars and rumours of wars galore, with night alarms, and enough excitement to satisfy the most energetic soldier seeking for "a show," and when it is realized that the island was ten to twelve days from support of headquarters, and surrounded by warlike tribes, all of whom, although welcoming the white man to their lands as a commercial asset, saw in his acquisition and fortification of any part of it, the first step towards their total dispossession. And who can blame them for a continuous and energetic display of spirit in defence of their native land, considering that we ourselves deem patriotism one of the highest virtues of mankind?

After McCarthy came, was ceded (1826) what is still known as the Ceded Mile, a strip of territory one mile wide, at the mouth of the river on the north or right bank, opposite to Bathurst, and stretching from the ocean inland as far as the eastern boundary of the Kingdom of Barra. St. Mary's Island, occupied up to then on paying rent to the King of Barra, who claimed it as a conquest from the Banyons, was annexed and became British territory, and so on until 1855, when the Crown had acquired by purchase, pressure, or treaty the whole of Kommo and the Ceded Mile extending from the mouth of the Yakadoo



St. Mary's Island.

BATHURST FROM UP RIVER WITH STEAMER ENTERING HARBOUR.

Bura Point.



BATHURST. VIEW OF WELLINGTON STREET AND WHARVES.

CROWN COLONIES

Creek on the sea coast to the mouth of the Jakanda Creek eastwards up the river.

In 1827 also commenced our crab-like movement in endeavouring to withdraw from West Africa. Governors of settlements were instructed to warn the merchants to provide for their own safety, and after due time scuttle out of West Africa.

In 1830 the Gambia received its first Lieutenant-Governor in the person of George Rendall, Esquire, and the following year, probably due to the initiative of the new authority, a department for liberated slaves was established at McCarthy. This was a bold step in the policy of the colony, as next to the acquisition of land by the white man, the interference with slavery was the most fruitful "casus belli," and affording a refuge for runaway slaves in the heart of a country that regarded slaves as private chattels, appeared to be a declaration of war against the whole of the upper river.

It may be something to our credit, as against the overwhelming debit, that this institution remained in force, and McCarthy became the Mecca to which all actual slaves turned and ran, if opportunity occurred, throughout the nineteenth century. There is no slavery in the valley of the Gambia in our territory, except what is called erroneously "domestic slavery," which has existed for all time, and which in the first communities of the world was called patriarchal rule.

Slavery is a misnomer applied to this condition, because, owing to the use of the word for the infamous trade of human beings dragged from their homes, sold like cattle, and ill-treated by their owners, the word has come to mean conditions similar to those of the negroes under the brutal overseer Legree, in "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

In 1832 the cultivation of the ground-nut, or, as the French call it, "l'arachide," commenced to attract attention in the colony.

THE GAMBIA

It had been grown for food for years before, having probably been introduced into the valley from America by repatriated slaves *via* Sierra Leone. The trade did not assume grand proportions at first, but in 1860 the valley exported 10,000 tons, while Senegal, to which the new oil product had also been carried, exported 1500 tons. The industry flagged at times for want of labour, as in addition to the depopulation of the valley by slave traders for centuries the intertribal wars were still in full swing, and no man planted unless he knew that he would gather the crop. Cultivation of the ground-nut now forms the only industry worth recording for the whole of the colony, and the export amounts to about 50,000 tons per annum, this with an area of 4000 square miles is about only twelve tons per mile of area, this again means twelve acres to the square mile under cultivation for ground-nuts, or even less, for a large proportion of the quantity exported comes from across the borders in French country, but at least one-fourth of the area of the colony consists of land available for ground-nuts.

The more modern history of the colony is now bound up with that of the other West African possessions in blue books and annual reports, and has been fully dealt with by other writers.*

It is therefore only necessary to skim lightly over the next fifty years, only noting those events and political changes with the further explorations of the valley which link the past history with that of the commencement of our decadence in North-West Africa.

In 1843 the Gambia was elevated to the position of a separate colony under Governor Henry Froude Seagram, whose tenure of office was marked by the introduction of

* Titles and Authors :—

"Annual Reports to the Secretary of State for the Colonies."

"Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. iii., "West Africa." By Sir Charles P. Lucas. Oxford, 1900.

"The Gambia Colony and Protectorate Guide Book," by F. B. Archer, Esq.

ALBRED A CEDED

the first steamer on the river, the *Wilberforce*. Governor Seagram also took in hand a survey of the river above McCarthy, a continuation of the work of Lieutenant Owen, R.N., in 1826, whose chart is still the only Admiralty survey of the river, and had to be used by the delimitation commissioners from 1891 to 1900 as the "most recent survey."

Governor MacDonald, who succeeded Governor Seagram, undertook an exploration of the upper river above Barra-Kunda in 1848, in the ss. *Dover*, which had succeeded the *Albert*, one of the three steamers used in Captain Trotter's expedition in Nigeria, and which in its turn had taken the place of the *Wilberforce*. Their wrecks all lie on the shoals at Half Die, the "Rotten Row" of the Gambia.

Governor MacDonald left the river at Barra-Kunda and proceeded on foot along the north bank, an extremely plucky proceeding in those days. He reached Tenda and the Nerico River, the scene of Jobson's adventures in 1620.

In 1852 an energetic administrator was appointed in Colonel Luke O'Connor, who succeeded Governor MacDonald. He extended the boundaries of the colony to Combo, but his memory is also associated with efforts in the direction of improved sanitation in Bathurst, and is recorded in stone by the hospital, market, and the improved drainage of the town, all of which remain to testify to a clear view of the requirements of the population of the Gambia.

In 1857 the vexed question of the exchange of Albreda, which the French still held in the Gambia, for Portendic, which we held nominally, although the gum trade had been tapped and diverted to the Senegal for years past, was finally settled, and the Gambia once more became wholly British.

The year 1860 was marked in the history of the

THE GAMBIA

colony by a serious war with the Baddibu people, who were incited and led by the Mandingos to resist the authorities. Fortunately, in those days we always had a squadron of men-of-war patrolling the coast, and available at any point in a short time. H.M.S. *Torch* and *Falcon* steamed up the river and landed 400 sailors and marines, 800 troops of the 1st and 2nd West India Regiment, borrowed from headquarters at Sierra Leone, and 600 Gambia Militia, quite a little army for West Africa, and led by H.E. the governor in person.

They took Suarakunda, the King's Town, three miles up the large creek of that name, and as in more civilized countries when the capital falls, or is "broken," in African parlance, the war is over, and the victor dictates terms over the ruins. The whole question at first was the non-payment of a debt to the largest English firm in Bathurst, in consequence of which certain seizures and reprisals took place, followed by the serious offence on the part of the Mandingos and their followers of plundering schooners engaged in peaceful trading. The people, led by their Mandingo chiefs, fought bravely and lost heavily, but what can that do against shells from howitzers and other arms of precision that we bring to bear on our side of the quarrel?

There was one governor of the Gambia who recognized that the fighting was not fair in these affairs, and, having a difference with the King of Barra, took his available forces across the river and paraded in front of Barranding, the chief town. He then summoned the town to surrender quite in accordance with the rules of chivalry in the Middle Ages, which being refused, he then challenged the king to single combat with swords in order to determine the quarrel without more loss of life than one of the two combatants.

This also being refused he took the town by assault, leading his troops in person, and was first inside the

SIR RICHARD BURTON

stockade, on which the natives capitulated, for "Mansa Banju" was too strong.

So is the story told in Gambia, and the official records show that the Secretary of State at that time strongly disapproved of the gallant governor's idea of a fair fight with the African.

Burton (afterwards Sir Richard) visited the Gambia in 1861, and gives a pen picture of the conditions of life in the ancient colony. To him it appeared like a small European watering-place with a population of 5000 souls; presumably from the sea, as the native town behind is purely African in appearance.

Bathurst had a garrison of three companies of the 2nd West India Regiment distributed as follows: Bathurst, 212; McCarthy, 41; Cape St. Mary, 34; and Fort Bullen on Barra Point, 17; and from Burton's remarks about the unhealthiness of the settlement at that period, it may be fairly presumed that some of the men of the three companies were on the sick list.

There were two chapels; two missionaries of the Wesleyan persuasion, and a large school, subsidized by the Government by a grant of £100 a year. The civil establishment of Governor and about sixteen others is given as £5375 for that year.

In 1866 the Gambia once more became part of the West African Settlements and was reunited to Sierra Leone, being governed by administrators under the governor of that colony.

CHAPTER XII

1870-1904

Cession of the Gambia raised—Activity of the French and Germans in Africa—
Governor Gouldsbury—Cession of the Gambia Valley—Conclusion, Part I.

IN 1870 the ghost that has stalked for forty years between the Gambia and permanent prosperity was raised by the French Government in proposing the purchase or transfer of the colony to their territory of the Senegal. The Franco-German War interrupted the peace of Europe in that year, however, and France had her hands full in defending her territories in that continent.

In 1876 the question was raised again, and a definite offer made of the stretch of coast between the Rio Pongo and the Gaboon. There was a strong opposition in Parliament against any cession of British territory, chiefly on the part of those societies that watch over the native races in our colonial possessions, and the matter was dropped for the time being. We were still under the blight of the Report of the Select Committee of 1865, and the retrograde policy adopted by the Crown on their findings, so that although by treaties with France, by right of discovery and exploration from Jobson's time to that of Governor MacDonald, and by effectual occupation on the part of the successive companies of merchant adventurers from the time of Queen Elizabeth to 1821, when the Crown became vested in all these rights, there were no steps taken to secure the valley and the Hinterland of the Gambia.

Meanwhile, France, recovering from her struggle with

FRENCH AND GERMAN ACTIVITY

Germany, irritated by the attitude of England during the war, and probably instigated thereto by the great master of international friction, Bismarck, commenced to honeycomb our African Protectorates and spheres of interest by every means in her power. It is not impossible that Germany directed this policy, as her own aggressive action in West and East Africa dates from about the same period. To suggest to France that she might recoup herself for Alsace and Lorraine in West Africa without hindrance from Germany, and that, moreover, their joint action in "colonial expansion" was the most powerful weapon at hand for checking the extension and prosperity of the British Empire, was a flower-strewn path of policy for Germany, and perhaps, when the scramble for Africa was over, the French nation would have forgotten the little corner of Europe in the millions of square miles in Africa. So Germany acquired her possessions in East and West Africa, part of New Guinea, part of Samoa, and other islands in the Pacific Ocean, and endeavoured to throw a belt of territory across South Africa from Angra-Pequena, but was frustrated by the energetic and progressive policy of Cecil Rhodes, Dr. Jameson and other South African statesmen.

France meanwhile turned her attention to the linking up of her coastal possessions in West Africa by going round the backway through the Soudan and cutting off the Hinterland of her then enemy, picked up a trifle on the East Coast in Madagascar, and endeavoured to throw a belt of French grey across from the Congo to Abyssinia, but was defeated by Kitchener's firm attitude at Fashoda.

England's attitude towards this new departure on the part of her rivals was a complacent one at first, partly because she was sympathetic in the reverses of France in Europe, and raised no objection to the acquisition of more African territory if it would console her for her lost provinces, and partly because we were still

THE GAMBIA

in the dry-rot period of "No further colonial expansion, especially in West Africa."

We were awakened, however, by the appearance of advance parties of exploration, and exploitation, in several places reserved to our sphere of interest by treaties with the French, one of which was the valley of the Gambia. As a matter of fact, the position was given clean away by Lord Carnarvon's warning in 1877 that British¹ merchants and traders must not expect protection above McCarthy.

When, however, the French in their wars of occupation burnt villages and "broke" towns within three miles of the actual bank of the river, and chased their native enemies across the river itself, France was politely informed that although dormant at present, still in our dreams we² had always regarded the valley of the Gambia as ours by right of discovery, exploration, possession for three³ hundred years, and treaties with herself, the breach of which would affect much more important issues to them than that of the Gambia.

France replied: "Really, we thought that you had abandoned the Gambia, and our work of peaceful penetration by 'postes et drapeaux' has already absorbed the valley of 'La Haute Gambie.'"

The next step on our part was the dispatch of an expedition under Governor Goulsbury in 1881, through the valley of the Gambia to ascertain its value from a commercial point of view. It should be noted that the obligations already resting upon us of protection and overlordship for the owners of the land was not the first consideration, and with a nation prone to regard its colonial possessions from a purely commercial point of view, the lack of a prospective profit is likely enough to outweigh any sentimental considerations as to the observation of pledges and promises.

Of the river above Yarbu Tenda, Governor Gouldsbury

GOVERNOR GOULDSBURY

wrote : " Indeed, the eye sought in vain for homestead or hamlet, for clearing or cultivation or other sign of human occupancy of the land, but met with instead the sadness of what it is no hyperbole to call the ' abomination of desolation ' which reigned over the scene."

With the Government the report of the " Man on the spot " appeared to decide the question of any commercial value in the upper valley, but the factors of depopulation by slave catching, by intertribal wars, and by the migration of the survivors should have been taken into consideration. As a matter of fact, many hundred tons of ground-nuts, the staple product of Senegambia, are now coming down the Gambia from the country on which the report above quoted was made.

However, when the question was again raised between France and England in 1887, the net result was the withdrawal of our claim to the watershed of the Gambia, and the retention of the navigable waters thereof. It has been said that but for the efforts of the philanthropic societies, anti-slavery and aborigines protection, the river itself would have passed from us at this period.

Their contention was not for territory, but for the highway that could be patrolled by us for the protection of the native, because the French methods at that time did not meet with their approval, and a strip of territory under our flag would serve as the cities of refuge did of old. All honour to them, for without their help our nation would have crowned their injuries to the people of the Gambia, extending through centuries of slave-trading, by selling even their river when it had ceased to be of value commercially.

The boundary agreement which was signed in 1889 restricted the British territory to a narrow strip, ten kilometres wide, on each bank as far inland as Yambu-Tenda, where the end was rounded off by a circle of the same radius struck from the centre of the village of that name

THE GAMBIA

until it intersected the river on both banks. Our complacency at that period is well portrayed by our adoption of the French kilomètre in place of the English mile, as a measure with which to define the remnant of territory left to us. Had the mile been adopted the territory would have been largely increased to sixteen kilometres in width, while for the purposes in view the geographical mile was the correct technical unit of measurement, which would have given a width of 18.50 kilometres or $11\frac{1}{2}$ standard English miles from the river-bank, and would have included practically all the arable lands within carrying distance by heading, belonging naturally to the river-bank.

It is allowed that no one could have anticipated the actual delimitation of the territories of two great nations by a series of curves struck from the bank of a river then unsurveyed, so that the boundary agreed upon must have been regarded as purely conventional; but those were the days of pin-pricks, and France, having succeeded so far in her encroachments, now insisted upon actual delimitation, which was commenced in 1891, and finished in 1899. To England it should be humiliating to see on the maps of West Africa the last remnant of the great valley, like a red snake in its contortions, dying in the immense desert of French grey, and reflect that only thirty years ago her sphere of interest stretched from the Atlantic to and down the valley of the Niger. There was method at first in the delimitation, and the two parties agreed upon parallels of latitude and natural boundaries for about sixty miles inland, but even these cut through territories and kingdoms older than our own civilization, dividing tribes, towns, and farm lands, and unhinging the whole of the country through which the boundaries passed. With this actual marking France was satisfied for a time, and might have rested on her laurels until now, had it not been for the action of an



ST JAMES' ISLAND OUR FIRST "FIELD & FERRY" ON THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA—1620



ALBRIDA—OPPOSITE ST JAMES' ISLAND THE FIRST FRENCH SETTLEMENT ON THE GAMBIA

THE HINTERLAND

administrator, suffering from an attack of *trop de zèle* in regard to towns, the position of which, with regard to the conventional curves, was doubtful. He pulled down the French flag at a town called Panshang, and hoisted his own in its place. This flag incident was cabled all over the world, and by publicity became a weapon to hand with the French Government, who took advantage of it and forced us to continue the delimitation along the curves, with the result that Panshang was found to be in French territory.

Every effort was made to continue the delimitation with straight lines of a give-and-take nature, but we were made to drain the cup to the dregs, with the result that since the boundary was completed in 1899, owing to the nomadic habits of the natives, the remarking and definition of new points on this absurd international boundary between two great nations has been continuous.

Retrogression in our African territories ceased for a time in 1895, when that bright particular star arose in our political firmament, whose mission it was to teach, and by whose intuition and luminous guidance the bulk of the British nation has been taught, to think imperially and to regard our colonial possessions as gems in the Imperial Diadem, adding both to the lustre thereof and to the solidarity of the British Empire.

Like unto his namesake under the Pharaohs, the great colonial secretary foresaw possibilities in the future which have since been realized by the rapid extension of gold mining, agriculture, and the consequent increased trade with Great Britain and commercial importance of our West African colonies. He therefore threw the whole weight of his influence into the scale, and initiated a progressive policy of light railways and expansion in every direction.

His coming was too late to save the Hinterland of the Gambia, Sierra Leone, Lagos, and other West African

THE GAMBIA

possessions from the disastrous policy of his predecessors, and was only just in time to say, "Thus far and no farther" on the banks of the Niger and the Nile.

To return to the Gambia and its own retrogressive movement, in the history of our West African possessions.

For many years past the valley of the Gambia has been the "Heart's desire" of our neighbours the French, with whom we have other "palaver," to use our typical African word, notably in the Newfoundland Fisheries question, also dating from 1818, when the Treaty of Paris was supposed to secure our rights in the valley of the Gambia.

In 1894, or whenever the question of the Newfoundland Fisheries has been revived, discussed, and buried again by England and France, the ghost of the cession of the Gambia to France has also stalked across the political stage. But why?

The Gambian, European or native, may fairly ask the British Government: "What is Hecuba to him, or he to Hecuba?"

The Mandingo, Jolloff, Fulah, or Jolah tilling his fields or tending his flocks under the protection of the British flag, collecting his increase in cotton, corn, ground-nuts, or cattle, thinks that as he has sown so will he reap, dreaming that the question of sovereignty over his country has long ago been set at rest.

The European merchant, whose capital is invested in real property, steamers, cutters, lighters and other facilities for trading under the British flag in the Gambia, views with disquiet the continuous tinkering with the International boundary, and invests no more capital in increasing his stores or working plant.

Both European and native ask why they should pay the price for the purchase of fishing rights in another colony in North America, with which they have nothing in common save the joint allegiance to the British Crown,

CESSION OF THE GAMBIA VALLEY

and question the ethical right of the British Government to barter away their land or their liberty.

France, however, has a continuous colonial policy, which is decidedly progressive, if not aggressive, while ours is passive, when not retrogressive, in West Africa. One objective in the policy of France is the ultimate possession of the magnificent waterway of the Gambia which leads to what is now her Hinterland in Senegambia.

To those who have followed the question and marked the successive steps towards that objective, there is very little doubt but that her dream will be realized. In 1904, when the two nations fell into each other's arms for mutual protection against the common enemy to their peace of mind, France was given another slice of the already attenuated territory by cutting off Yarbu-Tenda with its "terrain." This has not been delimited, however, as the agreement had the alternative of another port suitable for ocean-going vessels, and the difficulties to the navigation of the upper river will probably influence the French Government to choose their port about Nianija Creek or Nianimaru, where the new railway from Thiess to Kayes on the Senegal sweeps along the Anglo-French boundary within a few miles of the river.

With a port on the lower river accessible at all seasons of the year, and a comparatively short line tapping the Thiess, or Dakar, to Kayes trunk line, France will attain to all she desires, for the present.

A railway line forms an excellent tariff wall, as for the purpose in view every employee from the station master to the linesmen becomes a customs officer. At present it is estimated that the greater part of the ground-nut crop comes from the north bank, and that, taken as an average, one-third of this crop comes across the boundary from French territory. Moreover, at present, goods of English manufacture and importation

THE GAMBIA

are brought on the banks of the river and carried duty free through French Senegambia to the Senegal, and sweep through an immense area to Kayes and Bondou.

On these factors depend at least one-third of the revenue of our colony, and with a railway sweeping the north bank of the river on the French side, these sources of revenue from production, exports, and imports must cease or be greatly diminished, as the ground-nuts will be stopped at the railway and come to the French port for export without paying English duty, while the English manufactures and imports for sale in the interior, north of the Gambia, will be stopped in the railway, unless landed at the French port and subjected to tariff charges.

The money for this railway has been voted, and the line is under construction, so that in the near future we shall see our trade diminishing, owing to the diversion of both ground-nuts and merchandise, in addition to which we shall be subject to the evils of conflicting tariffs in the Gambia, an increased customs staff to collect a decreasing revenue, and a dual control of our own waterway.

The Gambia has weathered many a storm since the sixteenth century, but the end is near; for as she sinks in commercial prosperity the colony will diminish in importance from the home point of view, and will be found a convenient make-weight in the next arrangement of conflicting claims between England and France. The dream of France is perfectly legitimate; from the time of De Brue she has set her heart's desire on the acquisition of the Gambia as a waterway leading to the riches of Bambouk, and afterwards on to the Niger, because, owing to its shallow bar, the Senegal was useless in that direction for the greater part of the year.

And yet the valley of the Gambia is a noble heritage, and it is sad to see it slipping from our hands as the

A NOBLE HERITAGE

ancient family estates slip from the possession of a spendthrift heir.

From the glorious reign of Queen Elizabeth down the long line of kings and queens to the more glorious reign of Queen Victoria, the valley of the Gambia has been handed down by men of undaunted courage and energy, true sons of Britain, as an heritage to their country, and this we are gradually bartering away for "a mess of pottage," or, more correctly, of cod-fish.

Yet such was the trust of the natives of the valley in Great Britain that in 1898 messengers from inland tribes, whose lands were three days' journey to the eastward, arrived at Yarbu-Tenda, bearing presents and a message from their people. "They had waited a long time for the 'mark' to be made, and were glad thatt he 'Ingliss' had come. They had always been English since Mansa Banjou (the Governor of Bathurst) came to them with the 'Book' which they had signed" (literally, "made the Book"). (See appendix at the end of the chapter.)

By the Anglo-French Convention of 1887, their lands had already passed from under our flag and protection without their knowledge or consent, in spite of their faith in us, and in face of their treaty with us, which, at least on their part, had been carefully observed, and the written promise preserved. Their messengers returned with the sad news to them, "that the mark had been made at Yarbu-Tenda." In 1904, again, even that port, with about thirty miles of river, was ceded, again for fishing rights in Newfoundland.

Portuguese, Dutch, English, French, is this to be the historical roll-call of dominant races in North-West Africa? The first two have gone the way of all nations and empires. Are we, too, decadent?

That much-boasted drum, whose roll, following the rising sun, is said to be heard all round the world, will cease to be echoed by the ironstone cliffs of the valley

THE GAMBIA

of the Gambia, where its beat has reverberated since the sixteenth century. The sun of empire is setting on that corner of Greater Britain, not in red glory, but against a sky clouded for centuries by the barter of human flesh and blood, partly lightened since the nineteenth century by our own redemption, but again sullied by the barter of the lands and liberties of our West African fellow-subjects, to whom, since the abolition of slavery, the British flag has been a shield and a protection, while the name of "Ingliss" has been a native synonym for Right and Justice.

And so it was with the "Ingliss," in simple faith and trust, that the inhabitants of the valley of the Gambia entered into those treaties signed by successive British governors on behalf of the nation, the latest of which on the upper river ended with the phrase, "And this agreement shall stand for ever."

Treaty between

for and on behalf of Her Most Gracious Majesty Victoria, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, Empress of India, &c., &c., and

I. There shall be peace and friendship between the subjects of the Queen of England, and the people, subjects of the

II. The lives and property of liberated Africans and all others, subjects of the Queen of England, shall be inviolate, while residing in the country of

III. The Chief aforesaid does hereby recognize and acknowledge the rights of the subjects of the Queen of England to free and unrestricted intercourse for trade and commerce, and for all other legitimate purposes, in and throughout the countries adjacent to and bordering on the ; and the Chief aforesaid does hereby, on his own part, confirm, guarantee, and assure to the subjects of the Queen of England this right of free and unrestricted intercourse so far as his own territory extends.

IV. The subjects of the Queen of England are strictly prohibited from engaging either directly or indirectly in any war or quarrel which may break out between the said Chief and any other Chief, or

TREATY OBLIGATIONS

in any dispute which may arise between him and his people or subjects, and they are strictly prohibited from aiding or assisting in the prosecution of any such war or quarrel by furnishing them either with powder or muskets, or with any other description of warlike stores whatever.

V. The paths shall be kept open through the country to other countries, so that English traders may carry goods through the said country to sell them elsewhere, and the traders of other countries may bring their goods or produce through the said country to trade with the English people freely and without molestation.

VI. The Queen of England, out of friendship for the Chief of and because the Chief of _____ has made this Agreement, gives him the following Articles :—

and the Chief of _____ hereby acknowledges he has received those Articles.

And so we

and

have made this Agreement

and have signed it at

this

day of

and this Agreement shall stand for ever.

(Signatures).

(Witnesses).

Extracted from [C—3065] 1881. GAMBIA.

Correspondence relating to Governor Gouldsbury's Expedition to the Upper Gambia, January to April, 1881.

PART II

**GEOGRAPHICAL, GEOLOGICAL, AND
ETHNICAL**

CHAPTER I

The Geography of the River Gambia from its sources in the Fouta Jallon Mountains to its mouth in the Atlantic Ocean.

THE River Gambia takes its rise in a series of valleys or gorges on the northern slope of the Fouta Jallon Plateau, lying about twelve miles to the north-west of the town of Labé, in latitude $11^{\circ} 20'$ N., and longitude from $11^{\circ} 55'$ to $12^{\circ} 5'$ W. The sources of the Gambia, Rio Grande, and of the Senegal River were discovered by Gustave Mollien in 1818, and, as far as available records go, it would seem that no explorer has visited the actual sources since. The information we possess is therefore drawn from his book published in 1820, and entitled "Travels in the Interior of Africa." Mollien was an intrepid man, after the type of Mungo Park, Livingstone, and Thompson, rather than that of some of our later explorers. In his wanderings across the Bondou Desert and up the valley of the Gambia, every hour of travel was replete with interest, but also full of danger from the vicissitudes inseparable from travelling in an unknown country; the uncertainty of health; from scarcity of food and water (excepting at the villages, where the suspicion and cupidity of the natives added fresh difficulties, so that habitations were to be avoided, or passed in the night); or from sudden death at the hands of the truculent chiefs of the country, or the Mohammedan priests, on account of religious intolerance, or for the purpose of acquiring even the modest stores with which he travelled—carried by one

THE GAMBIA

donkey and one horse, which, with their loads, comprised the whole of his equipment for a task not without danger, even with the facilities for travel in the present day.

Mollien had no company of soldiers with quick-firing guns and magazine rifles to ensure his personal safety; but his success was entirely due to the "brave heart within," and the nature of the man who could suffer all things, enduring to the end. At times the end was so near as to accustom him to look death in the face without fear day after day. No violence, no bloodshed, but an iron resolution to put up with everything for the acquirement of knowledge and the fulfilment of his quest.

Such men are the true knights of the Holy Grail in our days, and deserve remembrance in the hearts of their nation when those who have slain thousands of their fellow-creatures in Africa are forgiven, or forgotten.

EXTRACTS FROM MOLLIEŒ.

"April 12th.—We have not been able to sleep quietly, for we were in constant alarm. In the morning, after making my guide eat a hearty breakfast to keep him in spirits, we pursued a western direction, taking bye-paths in the lofty mountains called Badet; we at length arrived at the summit of one of those heights; it was entirely bare, so that we could discover below us, two thickets, the one concealing from view the sources of the Gambia (in Poula, Dinan), the other those of the Rio Grande (in Poula, Comba). The joy I felt at this sight could not be disturbed at the reflection of Ali, who the moment we perceived the two rivers said to me: 'I fear they will murder thee, if they learn that thou art going to the sources; nevertheless, since thou wilt have it so we will proceed towards them as if we were hunting, and Boukari on his side shall go to the neighbouring village.' The Poulas of Fouta Jallon call this village the sources. Satisfied with this arrangement, I, however, prepared to resist any attack and loaded my guns.

"It would be difficult to describe the uneasiness of Ali; he looked behind him at every moment; but his anxiety to fulfil his promises made him forget the dangers which threatened us, and the mere idea of which chilled him with horror. Continuing in a western direction we rapidly descended the ferruginous mountain, the summit of which

SOURCES OF THE GAMBIA AND RIO GRANDE

we had been traversing since sunrise, and arrived in a beautiful valley.

"On the right and left appeared small villages; the ground was covered with high and thick dry grass, not a stone was to be seen on it; two thickets, which shaded the sources, the object of my research, rose in the midst of this plain, which drought had despoiled of its verdure.

"When I entered that which covers the source of the Rio Grande, I was seized with a feeling of awe, as if I was approaching one of the sacred springs where Paganism placed the residence of its Divinities.

"Trees, coeval with the river, render it invisible to the eyes of those who do not penetrate into this wood; its source gushes from the bosom of the earth, and runs north-north-east, passing over rocks.

"At the moment when I saw the Rio Grande, it slowly rolled along its turbid waters; at about three hundred paces from the source they were clearer, and fit to drink. Ali informed me that in the rainy season two ravines hollowed in the neighbouring hill, but then dry, and which terminate at the source, conduct thither two torrents which increase its current; at some leagues distant from the place where it springs from the ground, and beyond the valley, the Rio Grande changes the direction of its course, and runs to the west.

"Proceeding south-south-east in the same meadow, Ali suddenly stamped upon the ground, and the earth echoed in a frightful manner.

"'Underneath,' said he, 'are the reservoirs of the two rivers; the noise thou hearest proceeds from their being empty.'

"After walking about thirteen hundred paces, we reached the wood which concealed the source of the Gambia. I forced my way through the thorny bushes which grew between the trees, and obtained a sight of it. This spring, like the other, was not abundant; it issues from beneath a kind of arch in the middle of the wood and forms two branches, one running south-south-west stops at a little distance, on account of the equality of the ground which does not allow it to go any farther, even in the rainy season; the other runs down a gentle declivity and takes a south-south-east direction. At its exit from the wood, and even six hundred paces farther, it is only three feet broad. After ascertaining so important a point as the relative position of the sources of the Gambia and Rio Grande at so short a distance from each other, I hastened to rejoin Boukari, who awaited us with an impatience mingled with uneasiness; we rejoiced together at not having met with any unpleasant adventure; in fact, we had only seen a number of oxen roving without herdsmen, in the meadows contiguous of the sources of these two rivers.

"The valley in which they are situated forms a kind of funnel

THE GAMBIA

having no other outlets than the two defiles by which the rivers run off ; man has never dared to use the axe in the woods which overshadow these two springs, because the natives believe them to be inhabited by spirits ; their respect for these places is carried to such a pitch, that they are careful not to enter them, and if any one had seen me penetrate within them, I should infallibly have been put to death.

" From the situation of these two sources, in a basin, between high mountains, covered with ferruginous stones and cinders, and almost destitute of verdure, I am led to conjecture that they occupy the crater of an extinct volcano. The ground which resounded under my feet, probably covers one of the abysses whence the fiery eruptions issued.

" Fearful of awakening the suspicions of the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, we quickly left the village where we had halted, and marching to the south soon arrived on the banks of the Gambia, which are adorned with trees of the greatest beauty ; on both sides the soil, of alluvial formation, is astonishingly fertile.

" We saw fields of rice and tobacco which promised an abundant crop ; its numerous windings obliged us to ford it several times to avoid lengthening our journey too much. I had witnessed, I may say, its progressive increase from its source ever since I left it.

" At the spot where I crossed it for the last time it was twenty feet wide, and its current scarcely perceptible ; its bed was formed of granitoid diabase. On quitting its banks we ascended the mountains which surrounded us ; their sides were enamelled with flowers of the purest white, which exhaled a perfume similar to the blossom of the orange tree."

Mollien then left the valley of the Gambia and, proceeding in a south-easterly direction on the 14th, crossed the Domba flowing to the east and discharging its waters into the Faleme, so that he was practically on the watershed of all the rivers running north from the Fouta Jallon Plateau. On the 17th he visited the main source of the Faleme, called " Thene " by the Poulas, and continued round the plateau, crossing the sources of the Senegal until he discovered the main branch called " Baleo " (black river) in the Poula, and " Bafing " in Mandingo, which both have the same meaning ; it is also called Foura, which, however, only means " the river."



THE END OF STEAMER NAVIGATION IN FLOODS SEASON FROM ABOVE THE BARRAGE.



MOUTH OF THE NERICO RIVER JUNCTION WITH THE GAMBIA.

FOUTA JALLON PLATEAU

It will be seen from the above extracts that the Gambia and the Rio Grande, known to the natives as the Ba Diman and the Ba Comba respectively, take their rise close to each other, the former running in a northerly direction, while the latter trends towards the west, which would tend to show that the hill on which Mollien stood formed part of the north-western watershed of the Fouta Jallon Plateau.

The average height of this plateau is given elsewhere as 2500 feet, and Mollien saw the sources below him from the summit of the peak of Badet. He was not equipped with instruments for determination of the elevation of the sources above sea-level, but taking as a guide the complete observations of M. Dubois in the Niger Valley, and the height of the other streams, the tributaries of the Senegal and Niger, at their sources on the eastern watershed of the plateau, one is led to conclude that the sources of the Gambia are not over 1000 feet above the sea-level.

Issuing from its dark birthplace in caves which extend far into the mountain under the plateau, and after passing through the reedy lake or pool surrounded by the sacred grove, the Gambia commences its journey to the Atlantic, and as yet in no haste to arrive, meanders through a fertile valley under cultivation in the dry season, and planted with tobacco, rice and other crops of food plants.

Its watershed then commences to be defined between those of the Rio Grande on the west and the Faleme on the east. The spur of the main system dividing the Gambia from the Rio Grande is known lower down as the Tenda Range, and it gives rise to some of the shorter rivers which flow into the sea between the mouth of the Rio Grande and that of the Gambia, notably the Casamance. A subsidiary range also forms the watershed between the headwaters of the Casamance and that of the Grey River,

THE GAMBIA

or Kolountou, which is a tributary of the Gambia, running parallel to it as it descends the slopes of the plateau, and joining it about sixty miles below the Nerico, and 340 miles from the sea by river-bed, after the main stream has settled down at practically sea-level to a westerly course in the main valley.

From its source near Labé, the Gambia maintains a general course a little west of north for about one hundred miles, in a direct line, but probably two hundred by river-bed, as it finds its way down the side of the plateau land in a valley filled with its own ancient fluvial depositions, receiving seven tributaries on its right bank, and two on the left. The more important of these are the Daguiri, the Medina, and the Niokolokoba from the east, and the Tokio and Termessou from the west.

The former comes from the watershed of the Faleme with the Gambia, while the latter fall upon the slopes of the Tenda Range divide between the main branch and the watershed of the Casamance and Grey Rivers mentioned above. The width of the Gambia between its flood banks is 150 to 175 yards at the junction with the Niokolokoba, which is twenty to thirty yards wide. After receiving the waters of the Niokolokoba the stream changes its general direction towards the north-west for another seventy miles direct distance to the junction with the Nerico, coming from the north-east, where its waters were said by the natives to join those of the Senegal in flood times. The survey for the railway in French territory from Thiess to Kayes has lately passed through this country, and the supposed connection is found to be one of those myths first told by the inhabitants of the interior to those of the coast which live through centuries, but are killed at the first touch of scientific men with their instruments of precision.

The myth itself is, however, interesting, as the valley of the Nerico is the only link in the levels of the country

THE UPPER GAMBIA

where it is possible for the waters of the Senegal and Gambia to join, and the large swamps which occupy the land on either side of the river, with the long reedy lake, from which it takes its life as a river, was confused with the Lake Maberia, often mentioned in ancient history as the source of the Niger (or Nile, as it was then called), the Senegal, and the Gambia.

It was this mythical connection that led the early explorers to endeavour to reach Timbuctoo with its fabulous riches by way of the Gambia River.

As to the towns, or villages, in the valley of the upper Gambia, between the source and its junction with the Nerico, they are few and far between. The upper part on the slopes of the Fouta Jallon Plateau is dotted with small villages, but the middle section is taken up by the Tenda or Jallorka Desert for many miles on the right bank, while the Tenda ranges lie close to the river on the left bank. About fifty miles by river above the junction of the Nerico on the right bank is the country of Bady with its town of the same name ten miles inland, with a population of about 4000 in 1906, while on the left the town of Damatang occupies the centre of the plateau lands at the foot of the Tenda range of hills between the Gambia and the Grey or Kolonntou River.

The Bady people are mostly Mandingos and Sera Wulis (or Sera Kolis), and formerly subsisted by trading and demanding toll, under the plea of protection, from the caravans of merchants and slave traders on their way from the Niger Valley to Yarbu-Tenda, the highest wharf on the river for the ocean-going vessels of a hundred years ago. Their life of half mendicancy, half robbery, still continued after slavery was abolished, but French occupation of their country has forced them to gentler ways of livelihood.

Even now they cultivate only the barest necessities in the way of corn, and at times when the crops are late,

THE GAMBIA

or bad, revert to the woods and forests, subsisting on roots, leaves; and fruits, in common with the dog-faced baboons and their neighbours the Bassaris.

The Bassaris occupy the country between the Tenda range and the river on the left bank.

These build no houses and thus are troubled by no household duties, they cultivate no land, which saves them from the slings of fortune in the matter of bad crops, but live solely on what Nature affords from forest and stream. Their only requirement from civilization is salt, and even of this they find a substitute in water strained through wood ashes, which affords them a saline taste to their roots and fruits. They toil not, neither do they spin, but in sharp contrast to the Bady people they rob nobody.

They occupy the left bank of the river and are akin to the Kunyadis, who live in the country around Damatang. The Kunyadis and Bassaris go without clothes, or wear only the skins of animals roughly cured.

They are sometimes seen in the towns in Kantora, where dress is more formal, to which they travel in search of salt. Their hosts generally lend them a pair of breeches with which to preserve the decencies while living in a Mohammedan town, escorting them on their departure for some distance to retrieve the garments. They are harmless, simple people, and neither kill nor wrong others; in fact, they live the life of our first parents in modes and morals, although their country with its mixture of mountain and desert, extreme heat and torrential rains, can hardly be regarded as the Eden of the Scriptures. Although they do not cultivate the ground, they collect great quantities of honey and wax in the forests, with rubber and any other product exchangeable for salt, hunt for food or sport, bartering the skins of animals for the same necessary condiment to their food and towards preserving a healthy condition, and otherwise

THE "SIMPLE LIFE"

lead the "simple life," so much talked about and so little followed in our more civilized communities.

The flood bed of the river at the crossing from Bady to Damatang is 175 yards wide. This crossing is known as the upper Bady wharf.

At the lower wharf, fifteen miles down river, the bed is 250 yards in width, but dry in March and April. The bed is occupied at this point by a burrage of rocky ledges, over which the waters pour in the rainy season, but when the river is low the whole of the water passes through a channel on the left bank about twenty yards wide, with a current of five to six miles an hour.

Below Bady on the right bank is Jallacotta, a town and people similar to their neighbours the Badyuns, and who also lived on plunder and intimidation in the olden times, but being nearer in touch with civilization, both from the Nerico and the Gambia, they have already adopted a more honest life of industry and cultivation, to be rewarded, perhaps next year, by the establishment of a factory at their wharf, with a shop, which is the great desire of all the native towns in the interior of West Africa.

It was about Bady and Jallacotta that Thompson and Jobson, with other searchers for the waterway to Timbuctoo, found out the errors in the reports circulated on the coast as to the Gambia and the Niger being branches of the same river. Jobson apparently reached Bady, but his fellow-explorers only attained to Tenda, which is the country below Jallacotta. The Tenda Hill referred to in the account of their travels appears to be the sharp isolated bluff, about one hundred feet high, at the junction of the Nerico. From this point upwards the Gambia is a succession of shallow rapids and pools which effectually stopped further progress in their heavy boats.

The Nerico divides the Jallacotta lands from the Tenda lands, and the line of towns of the trade route

THE GAMBIA

continuing down the valley. Flourishing on the proceeds of their duties and commission as middlemen, the towns were close together of yore, but to-day only a few remain.

The Gambia is two hundred yards wide at the junction of the Nerico, which latter is about fifty yards between its flood banks.

It was at Tenda wharf that Jobson met the great trader Bukar Sano and visited the king of the country in his company, as told under the historical chapters of this work.

Here, also, the inhabitants of Damatang, hearing of Jobson's arrival, flocked down to the river-bank on their own side, dressed in the skins of animals, with the tails left on for ornament or use. Finding, however, that there was no salt on the boats, a mineral they prize above the gold, which is found in their country in small quantities, they returned without crossing. Jobson appears, however, to have crossed over in his boat, as he describes their shyness, their dress, and the difference between them and the tribes on the right bank. The Damatang country occupies the whole stretch of river from above Bady down to the Grey River, a frontage of over one hundred miles, with a breadth across from the Gambia to the upper waters of the Grey River of about fifty miles.

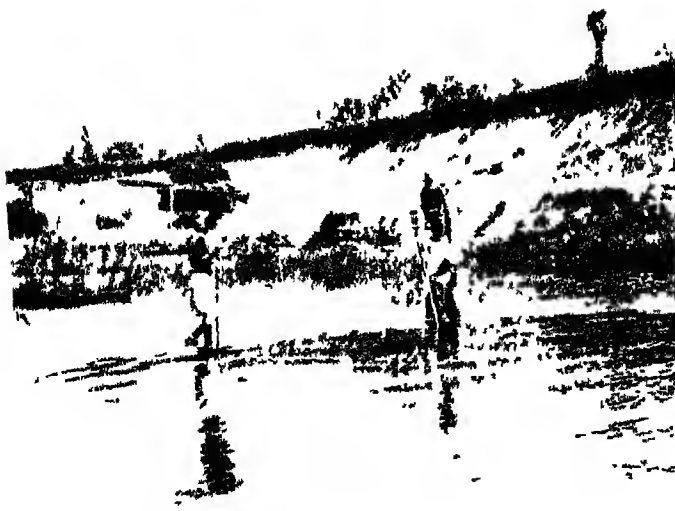
The junction of the Grey River is sixty miles below that of the Nerico by water.

Damatang is one of the most fertile spots in the whole valley, but at present there is no commerce, no canoes on the rivers, and what little trading there is to be done is carried on at Yarbu-Tenda.

The ancient kingdom of Kantora, occupied the left bank of the Gambia River from the Grey River down to the Seimo River, and bounds with the Kingdom of Tomany. On the right bank the Tenda lands stretched to the Niaule, or Niaulico, as it is called on the ancient maps, which forms the eastern boundary of the at one time



"LEONDA HILL" (MARKED CLIFF FEATURES) NEAR THE NERICO RIVER



FORDING THE GREY RIVER TWELVE MILES FROM JUNCTION

SUB-DIVISION OF TERRITORIES

powerful Kingdom of Wuli, on the inland borders of which the troubles of Mungo Park commenced on his first journey.

The countries of Wuli and Kantora occupy the right and left banks of the river respectively for about one hundred miles by river and about fifty miles in longitude, the former as far as Medina wharf, ten miles below Fath Tenda, while the latter stops at the Seimo River, which, coming from the south and the watershed of the Casamance, enters the Gambia just above Perai wharf, seven miles above Fath Tenda.

Although the ancient names of the old kingdoms are still preserved in places, the territories are now known under different names, being subdivided into smaller countries ruled by chiefs who are appointed by the English and French Governments.

Returning to the right bank : from Tenda a line of towns on the old trade route from the Niger continues through Wuli to Netebulu and Sine, standing back two to three miles from the river-bank on the plateau land beyond the edge of the ancient valley, partly because the land between that and the present river-bank, in common with the whole of the upper part of the ancient valley, becomes a sea from flood waters every year, and partly for strategical purposes in war, as the main town on the high bank of the river would be an easier prey to an enemy approaching by water.

The up or inland towns are served for water communication by wharf towns on the bank of the river, sometimes of the same name, but carrying the affix of "Tenda," the Mandingo word for a landing-place. The wharves of all the principal towns are now occupied by the factories of the different trading companies operating in the colony for the sale of European goods and the purchase of ground-nuts, the staple and, moreover, practically the only industry the colony possesses.

THE GAMBIA

There are one or two minor articles of trade, such as hides and wax, but they add very little to the exports to-day, and formerly a quantity of rubber was collected and exported, but this industry depended on the natural product of the *Landolphia* vines in the forests, and as these were ruthlessly cut down without an effort to replant, the revenues of the colony to-day depend almost entirely on the cultivation by the native of the *Irachis hypogæa*, or ground-nut. The branch factories at the wharf towns for the purchase of this product have gradually spread up the river to Guenotto, the wharf town of Netebulu, Sine, and the neighbouring towns.

Between these factories wharf towns have grown here and there also on the bank of the river above normal flood-level, and are occupied during the trade season by native traders and small communities from the "up-towns," as the inland towns are locally called.

Guenotto is situated on what appears to be a cliff forty feet high in the dry season, but when the river is full in flood the factories on the plain above are only ten to fifteen feet above the water-level. Netebulu, the most important of its up-towns, is the end of the chain of villages referred to above on the northern branch of the great trade route from the Niger to the navigable waters of the Gambia. This is the road followed by Mungo Park on his return from his first journey to the Niger, as well as on his outward journey with the second expedition.

This road touches bends in the river-bank in places in order to obtain water for men and animals, and on nearing the great bend to the north, which would take the traveller to Netebulu, there is the choice of crossing the river to Kokun on the south bank, and so arriving at Yarbu-Tenda, the great port on the Kantora side.

Some caravans would do this in order to escape the extortions of the chief of Netebulu, who, although the

TRADING STATIONS

last robber on the road to water carriage, was anything but the least. It was a clear case of Scylla and Charybdis, as the Kantora chief at Sunkunda would extort as much as was possible, but the competition was for the good of the caravans when strong enough to choose. In the work of delimitation of the Anglo-French boundary in 1895-6, this rivalry still existed, and many were the palavers between the English and French chiefs about stopping a caravan and diverting it to their own wharf in order to profit in slaves, ivory, or cattle as a toll for protection, shipping, or ferrying.

Sanjang of Netebulu was a powerful chief at that time, and the country was still smouldering with war, but according to the opinions of a majority of his people he did not exercise his power in a way which we regard as proper for a patriarchial chief. This led to his deposition soon after our French friends got into touch with his methods of administering abstract justice to his people.

Netebulu and its wharf Guenotto were the best markets on the river for ivory, and, in fact, the district is still the best producer of that sort of trade, but the monopoly exercised by its chiefs is broken, and part of the produce goes to Kossoun or to Fath Tenda lower down the river. At Guenotto, also, one can purchase the skins of lions, leopards, and other large fauna of the valley, including the giraffe, the general rate for the last being fourpence to sixpence per pound, about the same as for those of cattle.

The large fauna are mostly killed in the country between the Bondou Desert and the Nerico stretching north to the Senegal, which is an excellent hunting ground for large animals.

Barra-Kunda "Falls," so called just below Guenotto, is now only a rapid running over a bar of submerged rocks which stretch across the river from the left bank

THE GAMBIA

continuously, until about twenty feet from the right bank, where a channel occurs capable of taking about four feet draught at high water in the dry season, when the influence of the tide slackens the sluice which runs through the pass. The north bank rises from the deep water as a cliff composed of a quartz pebble conglomerate to the height of ten to twelve feet. The cliff is bared on the plateau-like surface, showing its conformation for about two hundred yards up-stream. The dip of the formation is-up stream, and it disappears under the high alluvial bank at Guenotto above mentioned.

From its appearance to-day it might have been a more formidable obstacle to navigation three hundred years ago, but it is probable that its terrors were exaggerated to the Portuguese by the natives lower down the river, in order to secure the profits of middlemen in trade and barter.

Guenotto is 280 miles from the sea, and the highest point on the river where one meets with European houses with galvanized iron roofs, and a hearty welcome with hospitality when hunting or exploring on the river above Barra-Kunda Falls. Between this and the Niaulico there are no tributaries to the river of any importance, but numerous creeks which drain the swamps and lakes of the ancient valley in the dry season, for although full to overflowing between July and October, the prodigious radiation from the intense heat, and the soakage through the porous formation of which their bed is composed, together with their drainage to a lower level by the small creeks at the commencement of the dry season in November and December, leaves the greater part of the swamps bordering the river a dry bed of reeds. As a natural result of the causes stated, the swamps are being gradually filled up to the flood-level, and large areas of deep alluvial silt and loam exist, which only require the hand of man to turn the valley of the Gambia into another

THE DRY SEASON

Egypt. The Anglo-French frontier crosses the river at Bananko, four miles below Guenotto, and continues in a circle with ten kilometres' radius struck from Yarbu-Tenda.

The flood bed of the river alters but little between the Nerico and the Grey River, nor between the Grey River and Guenotto.

Of course there is more water in the bed after receiving these large tributaries, but the grade of the whole valley is so slight that the depth is increased over the shallows without alteration of the width between the flood banks. The width ranges from 150 to 200 yards throughout this stretch of over 120 miles from the Nerico to Guenotto, and until March the water fairly covers the width between the banks, although shallow in places; but in April, when the river is at its lowest, sandbanks appear, taking the place of the rocky bars higher up above the Nerico, and which are doubtless caused by the same series of ledges continuing, but submerged by the sand and water in the bed. This conformation limits the possible navigation of the stream to about two feet draught in the dry season as far as the Grey River, and about one foot or one foot six inches above that to the Nerico, and somewhat higher.

Below Guenotto, half a mile, the bar of rocks crosses the river-bed at Barra-Kunda Falls referred to above, but the town of that name appears to have been situated lower down the river. Stibbs, who was sent up by the Royal African Company in 1734, describes the place accurately, and says that "It is not above three leagues above Barra-Kunda (being the first overfall I have met), and is composed of rocks in the following manner."

Then follows the description, which agrees fairly with the conditions to-day.

Passing to the left bank in Kantora, the country between the Grey River and the Seimo shows ruins of towns and other signs of population, but was practically unoccupied in 1895, and even until five years ago, owing

THE GAMBIA

to the continual intertribal wars between Fuladugu and Kantora, in which the first-named generally gained the victory and many slaves.

The remainder of the people sought some more peaceful country to live in, and the land was practically depopulated, but the personal efforts of a young and progressive French administrator, M. René Legrand, are rapidly changing this state of affairs to one of prosperity. Ground-nuts are being planted and towns established along the line of the telegraph from Sine in Wuli to Willingarra in the Casamance. The line crosses the river at Korobamba, twelve miles above Guenotto, and skirts the English frontier.

Another line of villages has appeared on the left bank, parallel to the river from Korobamba towards the Grey River, round which the farms will be planted next year with the staple industry, so that in a few years Kantora will once more be a flourishing and populated area in the valley of the Gambia.

Within the English territory the first port and crossing-place is Koina, five miles above that of Yarbu-Tenda, and probably the site of the old town of Barra-Kunda referred to above. The main road, which now runs parallel to the river throughout this part of the protectorate, crosses from the town of Berif to that of Koina at this ford.

Yarbu-Tenda, five miles below Koina, is the river port of Sunkunda, the capital of Kantora, and of its subsidiary towns.

It is the highest point of steam navigation, or for all craft drawing more than eight feet in the dry season. In the rainy season, when the river is in flood, a steamer drawing eight to ten feet might ascend to the Grey River, or even to the Nerico, as owing to the level nature of the channel there is not a strong stream to contend against, and the river is from twenty to twenty-five feet above the dry-season level, and say two hundred yards broad.



BARRA KUNDA TALIS, WITH CUTTERS WAITING FOR THE HIGH TIDE TO PASS
THE BARRAGE



SS ' MUNGO PARK ' ALONGSIDE AN UP RIVER LOADING WHARF

YARBU-TENDA

It would be necessary, however, to mark certain ledges of the laterite rocks, similar to those at Barra-Kunda Falls, which project into the bed some distance from the high banks. The apparent centre of the stream in the dry season alters its position during the floods, and some of these obstructions to navigation are near the centre in flood time.

The work of transport above Yarbu-Tenda is done at present by cutters of five to six tons burthen, drawing two to three feet loaded.

These are able to pass through the rocky channel at Barra-Kunda throughout the seasons, and the author took a seven-ton cutter, drawing three feet, to the Grey River in February of the current year, 1911.

Yarbu-Tenda, in the sixteenth century, was the trading port of the first explorers of the Gambia, the Portuguese, and has been a place of great importance ever since. The name means the port of wharf of the stranger, that is to say, "foreigner." Portuguese sailors, or really natives with Portuguese descent and names from Cape de Verde Islands and the Portuguese colonies, man the fleets of cutters and steamers on the river up to the present time, and are generically known as "Manjago," probably from the frequent use of the saint's name by their ancestors, just as the French were known as Manweewee (*oui-oui*) from their frequent use of the affirmative, before the native acquired their national name of "Français."

Yarbu-Tenda has always been a name to conjure with in the history of the Gambia since the days when, with much sailing, sweeping, and warping past the Bruku rocks (a bar similar to that at Barra-Kunda), mixed with not a little fighting, the ocean-going vessels of the seventeenth century pushed their way up the 265 miles of tidal river in search of the best market for slaves and trade.

When the trade in human flesh occupied the mercantile

THE GAMBIA

fleets of the European nations, Yarbu-Tenda saw thousands of unfortunate human beings crowded into caravels of fifty to seventy tons, to start on that long journey, the bourne of which was a grave in the Atlantic, or slavery in America.

One would expect to find a large town at Yarbu-Tenda, but owing to the fact that the banks are flooded in the rains and are only tenable during the dry season, there were only a few trading huts on the river-bank until lately, the large towns being three miles inland.

Three years ago the firms in Bathurst built factories on the bank, but they are only depôts for ground-nuts, as the towns of Passi Massi to the north and Sunkunda to the south are the real centres of the trade.

Continuing southwards past Yarbu-Tenda for about two miles, the river strikes one of the ironstone spurs that occur on its banks at more or less regular intervals from the Nerico downwards, and is sharply deflected to the north.

The flourishing port of Kossoun nestles under the cliff with European houses and iron roofs, showing confidence in the permanence of its future as a trading station. The up-towns are Kossoun, Misera, and a large town called Gambissara-Kuta, or new Gambissara, a comparatively new settlement on the Seimo River, the people of which crossed to English territory from their old town in Fuladugu after the boundary was marked through their lands in 1899, when part of the town was found to be in French territory.

The population of Gambissara-Kuta is between 2500 and 3000, and the greater part of it is in French territory, so that history has repeated itself rapidly in Gambissara.

From the cliff of Kossoun the river passes to that of Sami Tenda, a distance of seven miles across the bed of the ancient valley, where it is again diverted in a south-westerly direction to Perai, at the junction of the Seimo

RIVER SCENERY

River. Perai is the first port in Fuladugu, the Seimo forming the boundary between it and Kantora.

The valley of the Seimo from Perai to Gambissara Kuta is practically at flood-level, and in the rainy season a connection is made from the Gambia to the valley of the Casamance.

From Perai, deflected to the northward by the Perai spur, the river again crosses the valley to the port of Fath Tenda, the nearest large port from the sea in Wuli, on English territory. Fath Tenda is an important place dating from the Portuguese epoch, and was the shipping place for slaves and trade on the tidal water of the river from Netebulu and the north-bank towns in the seventeenth century. Fath Tenda is also built on the slope of a cliff, where it joins the high bank of the river, and the spur of which the cliff forms part again diverts the course of the river to the south-west, across the now widening valley.

The view from some of these cliffs is extensive, especially from that of Sami-Tenda. One sees the ancient valley for thirty to forty miles with the cliffs overhanging the present river-bed, which wanders across from cliff to cliff in a zigzag band of brilliant light, while on either side, only interrupted by the spurs, the lagoons and swamps form a border, over a mile wide on each side, parallel to the high banks. In December these are patches of brilliant light with an emerald setting, but as the dry season advances the water in the flood beds dries up, with the exception of the deeper pools and permanent lakes, while the colours of their border change to brown, or black where the reeds have been burnt.

But the course of the river is shown by its heavy fringe of dark green tree foliage, edged on the water side by a lighter fringe of willows and water-side vegetation. It is well worth the climb, although one has to follow the paths made by the hordes of dog-faced baboons, and,

THE GAMBIA

moreover, in the same quadripedal position as the makers thereof. The paths, however, are zigzag, and are not badly graded, which marked feature of intelligence led my Kruboy Toby to remark, "Dem monkey sabby for make road too much, but dey no get cutlash for clear de bush."

The large communities of dog-faced baboons that sleep on these cliffs, descending into the valleys to forage or steal ground-nuts during the day, are quite a feature of travel on the Gambia.

A community may number two hundred to three hundred men, women and children lining the cliffs as the sun goes down, evidently enjoying the cool breeze, and looking down calmly on the cutter or steamer with its striving humans in the river below them. They have been accustomed to see sailing vessels for centuries, some say that Hanno in his ships was their first experience, but the noise of machinery in a steamer generally excites them to a deep "Wahoo" or "Yahoo," in order to warn the sailors that they are on the alert.

Below Fath Tenda, about ten miles, the boundary between Wuli and Upper Niani, or Yany, as it is written in the old maps, is crossed.

Although the peoples are now scattered over the length of the river more or less, in former days one passed from a Sera Wuli or Sera Koli race to a Mandingo race in crossing this boundary. Francis Moore, who wrote in the eighteenth century, seems to confound Yany with Guinee or Jenne, in the Niger Valley, as it was also spelt Ghana.

In those days nothing was known of the old civilization in the Niger Valley excepting by the Mandingo race, who were at one time vassals to Jenne, when that kingdom was at the zenith of its power.

It was this race which carried the Koran, Crescent, and Scimitar down the valley of the Gambia until they reached the Atlantic, and had one of their strongholds at

DUPLICATION OF NAMES

Kulari, on the south bank opposite Fath Tenda (literally "Farm-wharf"), and the farms of Kulari extended to the river at this point. From Kulari the Mandingos crossed the river and conquered the country below Wuli, and even some of the outlying provinces of Wuli, which before the conquest extended to Tuba Kuta Creek, many miles further down the valley.

To these new conquests they gave the name of the kingdom of which they were or had been vassals for centuries, just as to-day a chief builds a town and gives it the name of some important town far away, such as the Arabian names Medina and Dasalami (Dar-es-Salaam), which recur in the Senegambia continually. These are mementos of the conquests of the Mohammedans over the Pagan races, or over the Song-halis, who first spread from Jenne down the valley.

So that Francis Moore's derivation of the name was justified, but his inclusion of the ancient kingdom of Guinee, or Jenne, in the valley of the Gambia, was not so.

Passing from this to the descent of the river, the next wharf or port of any consequence is Bassy, in the ancient Kingdom of Tomany, for Finde-fato, the port of the stronghold of Kulari (where the Mandingos embarked in their war canoes for the conquest of the Niani), on the right bank, has lost its ancient glory. Bassy, on the left bank, is at the point of one of the deepest bends in the river, and, unlike the bends described above, is due to a submerged reef without a frowning cliff above the river. The ironstone hills, however, occur a short distance away from the bank, so that the reef in question may be taken as a lower rock formation of these.

Bassy is one of the most important collecting centres for ground-nuts in Fuladugu, and is the port of a large area of cultivable land.

It has no important up-town, but a large number of villages spread over the arable valley behind it. All

THE GAMBIA

the large firms in Bathurst have branches at this port, and in the season small mountains of ground-nuts are built up in every factory yard awaiting transport to McCarthy for shipment on ocean-going steamers.

From Bassy the river is again deflected north to the junction with Tuba Kuta Creek, where produce from the inland towns on the frontier between Upper Niani and Wuli is shipped; the main portion, however, going to Kanube, a more important place three miles lower down, where there are shops and greater facilities for the haggle and barter so dear to the native mind. A native reckons a day well spent in carrying two shillings' worth of ground-nuts to a wharf ten miles distant, and returning with a mystical profit of a penny, sooner than he would sell to a trader near his town, for time is of no value to him.

Kanube port on the left bank also taps a large portion of the trade of Fuladugu, which absorbed the Kingdom of Tomany in the great trek mentioned elsewhere, and at one time was one of the most important places on the upper river, but owing to some quarrel with the Mandingo chief of Upper Niana on the right bank, the factories have been removed to the left bank, and the trade and produce of the right bank find a wharf lower down, and on the Sandugu River, or Kunchau Creek, as it is now called.

Kanube has its half-dozen tin roofs of European factories, and its ironstone cliff similar to Bassy, but the cliffs are not so strongly marked on the actual bank.

Kossema is the next port serving the immense country of Fuladugu, and is similar to Kanube, six miles above it, drawing a large proportion of the produce from Fuladugu and little from the north bank, while below it there is no place of importance above the Sandugu River, which has its own ports, the chief of which is Walia, from which the produce, once on lighters, goes straight to McCarthy



KANUBE



TOWING CUTTERS UP RIVER.

A NATURAL LOCK

The Kingdom of Jemarrow bounds with that of Tomany at Kossema, and continues on the left bank, but on the right Upper Niani continues to Karantaba, where the Pisania of Mungo Park stood, and from whence he commenced his journeys to the Niger. This port is near the top of a great bend to the northward, which, commencing at Kossema, ends at the Kali Tenda hills. The river being again turned south, passes Monkey Court with more ironstone spurs to Dobo, another important place in olden times, from which, passing over Bruku rocks, the stream divides, three miles below, and encircles McCarthy Island, six miles long and one and a half miles broad. There are no wharves or ports of any importance on this last stretch from Karantaba to McCarthy, but only small landing-places, where the direct road from McCarthy to Karantaba crosses the river.

Bruku rocks are a bar or ledge of ironstone similar to those described above, running from the right bank across the river nearly at right angles to its course, leaving, however, a passage or sluice to the natural dam about thirty yards wide, but deep enough to take a large vessel. Below is a deep pool for nearly a mile, with five to seven fathoms, in which is a whirlpool when the river is high and the current strong. The barrage serves to hold up the level of the river above it; in fact, it is a natural lock without the sluice gates, as the natural channel is not large enough to drain the river above during a tidal period.

The river steamers pass it easily, but the sailing vessels have some difficulty in beating through the passage when the wind is down river and the tide is low.

As a natural effect of this increased speed of the current carrying more silt and sand than it knows what to do with, lower down a shoal was formed which, gradually increasing, gave birth to McCarthy Island, or Lemain Island, as it was called in the eighteenth century.

THE GAMBIA

Below Bruku, known formerly as Pholeys Pass (Fulahs Ford), we pass from Upper to Lower Niana on the right bank.

McCarthy is the property of the English Crown by purchase, and is therefore British soil, as distinct from the native lands or "public lands," as they are euphemistically called in latter-day ordinances, so as to mark a further step in the "peaceful penetration."

The island was purchased from the native chiefs in 1823, and named after one of the best governors that England has ever sent out to Africa. McCarthy Square in Bathurst is also named after Sir Charles McCarthy, and it is to be regretted that recently the name has been altered to Victoria Park. However, old associations die hard in the native mind, and as Bathurst after a hundred years is still called "Banju," its original name, so will "McCarthy Square" remain with the people of the country.

The town of McCarthy is the most important in the colony next to Bathurst, is practically the capital of the upper river and the depôt for all its trade and produce.

It is properly laid out in blocks and streets, the main thoroughfare following the river front, with the cross streets running inland at right angles to it. The site is in the middle of the length of the island facing the right bank of the river, from which there is a continual stream of natives, with their produce, crossing in ferry-boats and returning with their purchase during the ground-nut season. On the opposite side of the island, across the southern branch on the left bank, is Boroba wharf, an important wharf of Fuladugu.

The houses in McCarthy are well built, two-storeyed buildings in stone and brick, especially the factories, some of the walls of which are seventy or eighty years old. Each factory has its own wharf built on Rhun Palm piles, at which the ocean steamers 1500 to 2000 tons burthen

RIVER ISLANDS

load during the season down to twelve feet. This is the maximum draught at present in order to pass the shoals safely at Kai Hai and lower down at Sapu, for, the river having taken to island-making below the successive rocky bars in its bed, the waters are divided over a larger area to surround the islands and lose in depth in consequence.

McCarthy, in olden days, was the city of refuge for the slaves held in bondage on the upper river. Being British soil the runaway slave was free if he touched it, and in so much reverence did they hold the British flag and the British officer, that even when travelling in the protectorate slaves would escape from a neighbouring town and come into the commissioner's camp to hug the flag, or his knees, declaring themselves free. During the work of delimitation this led to troublesome palavers, as with all the good-will in the world one could not raise the country against the commission by freeing slaves indiscriminately. There are no slaves, however, in the Gambia now but domestic slaves, and for these "slaves" is a misnomer, as they are simply members of a clan in a polygamous community by right of birth, and are ruled over by the head of the house as clans are in Scotland.

Opposite the lower end of McCarthy Island is Pangoon Island, which a narrow channel divides from the right bank, and six miles lower down another rocky bar occurs at Jarrume, below which there are shoals with one navigable channel for twelve feet draught. The Kai Hai Islands are a continuation of these shoals, and together they extend for about six miles to Sapu, a wharf in Fuladugu on the left bank, while Lower Niani still continues on the right bank. The hills and cliffs that form the sides of the ancient valleys are now some distance from the actual banks, which are low and more or less under water in the rainy season when the river is in flood.

At Wallikunda (three miles below Sapu) the last

THE GAMBIA

wharf in ancient Jemarrow, and contiguous to Europina, the course of the river bends suddenly to the northward; but the south side of the ancient valley still continues to the eastward, and flood waters cross the bend by ancient waterways, some of which are passable in a boat, and continue east to join the river again about Elephant Island, by the Sofanyama Creek, which runs parallel to the main river in an east-to-west course about ten miles to the south. This bend to the northward embraces the Baboon Islands, with the Kingdom of Europina on the left and that of Lower Niani on the right bank. At the bottom of the islands is Kontu-ur on the right bank, a port which is fast rivalling McCarthy in importance as a depôt for ground-nuts, owing to the fact that the vessels can load there to their full capacity and sea-going draught.

The frontage of Europina on the left bank is a mass of swampy lanes for miles inland from the river; the vegetation is luxurious in all the palm species indigenous to the valley, especially in the "*Vinifera*," from which the Pissava of commerce is manufactured on other parts of the coast.

The low lands are intersected by large tidal creeks which give access to the high land of the towns of Eda, Kununku, Kudang, Sukuta and others, which extend from east to west on a plateau land lying between the Gambia and the Sofanyama Creek. Passing Wassu and Kassan, where Thompson's crew of the *Catherine* were murdered by the Portuguese, the next port is Nianimaru, the chief port of Lower Niani.

This was one of the most important wharves on the river before the building of Kontu-ur, and is likely to be of still greater importance if the French choose it as their "enclave" under the Convention of 1904. It is the nearest to their railway, but it is said that a place called Carrol's Wharf, lower down, is now under consideration.

A MOHAMMEDAN SETTLEMENT

Below Nianimaru are the Deer Islands, another group of shoals just high enough above the water to be called land, while on the right bank we pass from Nianija, with its river of that name which is the frontier of the ancient Kingdom of Saloum, extending from the Niani to the sea in the eighteenth century, and known as Barsally, or Ba Saloum, that is to say, Saloum the Great. On the left bank we have passed from Europina into Niamena at the mouth of the Europina Creek opposite Nianija River, but its towns and wharves are also miles inland at the head of the creeks. Owing to these natural features Niamena was out of the beaten track, and hardly ever visited by white men, and up to 1896 the chiefs still claimed their independence under Moussa Mollah, the King of Fuladugu, and resented any visits or tutelage by Government officers.

They were fiercely religious Mohammedans, being ruled by a war chief and priest in one, so that the Christian was barred from entering their towns, and when there after much palaver, the open Bantaba with guard fires and armed fanatics round it, was hardly a bed of roses.

They have since bowed their heads to the great god, trade, and have factories and wharves to-day, and Kudang Wharf, opposite Deer Island, is their chief port of commerce.

At the bottom of Deer Islands is Carroll's Wharf on the north bank, with a wide road leading up to the town of Nianija on the river of that name.

This is said to be the choice of the French Government as a port under the 1904 agreement ; and if so it is wise, for although it is not so near the surveyed line of their railway (which sweeps south-east from Thiess to make a connection with the Gambia and thence north-east on to Kayes), the soundings, with nothing less than four fathoms, are deep enough to allow a modern man-of-war to ascend the river to this point. In the channel past

THE GAMBIA

Deer Islands, above Carrol's Wharf and approaching Kudang Wharf, the soundings are less than three fathoms.

Below Carrol's Wharf is Kau-ur, or Cower, as it is called by Francis Moore, a wharf of growing importance with the increase of the ground-nut industry, but somewhat overshadowed by Ballangar, five miles lower down.

Ballangar (Joar of the Royal African Company) seems to have been the chief river of Port Saloum for centuries. It was also the chief factory of the Royal African Company up the river. At this point, or even above it, the higher land begins to recede from the river, and the bank is only habitable on the slope of the spurs that penetrate the mangrove swamps from the plateau land behind and come near to the river-bank.

The river, which has been running easterly from Nianimaru, is now deflected by the Ballangar spur to the southward for twenty miles, thus completing three sides of a more or less rectangular figure from Wallikunda, of which the top is about thirty miles, and the two sides twenty miles each, the fourth side having been completed in ancient times by the valley of the Sofanyama, but leaving a large island of higher plateau land in the centre which is now Europina and Niamena.

Going south from Ballangar, Sea-Horse Island is passed at the mouth of several creeks which penetrate the mangrove to the high land and lead to small towns, Dunkuku, Katamina, Pinai, and others.

Sea-Horse Island has apparently been formed by the silt washed down by these creeks, and, like all the others, is just high enough to bear its vegetation above the tidal level. Below this, still on the left bank, the Indea, Dumasangsang, Sofanyama and other tributaries join the river, while on the right bank the Sanjally, Bombale and other smaller creeks swell its waters until at the bottom of the twenty-mile reach, Elephant Island, similar in formation to Sea-Horse Island, but apparently



GOVERNMENT HOUSE MCARTHUR BANIAN GROWING ON
OLD FORT AND BARRACKS



KAU-UR WHARF

HEAD OF THE ESTUARY

of greater age by its forest of large trees, divides the river into two streams, each one-third of a mile in width and with eight to ten fathoms of water.

The river is now clear of islands for the remainder of its course, eighty miles to Bathurst, with the exception of James Island and Dog or Charles Island, as it was called in the eighteenth century, near the ocean, and those that supplement the Island of St. Mary in forming the delta of the river.

At Elephant Island, Niamena ends and Jarra commences at the mouth of the Dumasangsang Creek, a tributary or second mouth of the Sofanyama River, while Baddibu commences and Barsally ends on the right bank about five miles below Elephant Island opposite Bai Creek.

The river is now a mile wide, with soundings of seven and eight fathoms in places, and a working draught of nothing less than five fathoms.

Both banks are wholly given over to mangrove and other salt or brackish water, littoral vegetation, so that, practically speaking and having regard to what was said above about the ancient channel in the valley of the Sofanyama River, Elephant Island may be called the head of the estuary of the Gambia, with the main river coming in from the north, and the smaller branch from the east. Elephant Island forms the delta between the two branches, and probably was formed by their silt and mud ages ago. About ten miles from Bai Creek is Devil's Point, a sharp indentation into the river caused by an ironstone ridge coming in from the north, while opposite to it on the south or left shore is the boundary between Jagra (Jarra) and Caen (Kiang). Toniataba is close to this boundary, and is notable as the former stronghold of Fodi Kabba, who was driven out of it in 1892 by a naval expedition. He took refuge in French country near the Casamance, but did not cease to disturb

THE GAMBIA

the peace of the English territories until finally dealt with by the French in 1901, after the murder of two of our commissioners by his people, who had gradually returned to our side of the boundary. His town of Madina in French territory was bombarded, and Fodi Kabba and his wives were blown up with his magazine, in which they had taken refuge during the bombardment. There are no ports on the river between Elephant Island and Tendebe, where a spur of the plateau land comes in from the south. Between these two points the cutters lie in the river at the mouths of the creeks, and are loaded or discharged by canoes and boats. Tendebe (Big Wharf) is sixty miles from Bathurst and twenty-eight from Elephant Island. It is the port of Kwinella, the chief town of Jarra, and also of Batelling, the chief town of Kiang. Nearly opposite to Tendebe is Katchang Creek, which serves the town and district of Baddibu as a port for lack of any firm land on the right bank. Tendebe is a centre for trade and export for both banks, but regular steam communication has moved the greater portion of the former to Bathurst. Below Tendebe there are three points where the high land reaches through the mangroves, Toubabkolong, "White Man's Well," a small wharf, Jali, and Tankular. The last is about eighteen miles from Tendebe, and is one of the oldest settlements on the river. It was the site of a town with a chapel and other efforts of civilization in the days of the Portuguese.

From Tankular to Muta Point is seven miles, and from Muta Point the river turns from its normal westerly course to the south-west in commencing the big semi-circular curve with a radius of fifteen miles which completes its course to the ocean, between Cape St. Mary and Jinnak Creek. Muta Point is forty miles from Bathurst and ten miles from the mouth of the Vintang Creek, which in itself would be deemed a large river in countries where the features are on a smaller scale than in Africa.

NAVIGABLE CREEKS

Vintang Creek is about eighty miles long, and takes its rise on the north of the watershed of the Casamance River, that is, south of Elephant Island. It was an important feature in the early settlement of the country. The ancient name was Geregia River, and its present name is probably a corruption of Tristan Nunez, the first Portuguese captain who established the settlement at Bintam or Vintang, as it became in the more nasal pronunciation of the French (Francis Moore spells it "Vintain"). The latter, however, called their first settlement on the creek, Geregia (near Kansala), after the ancient or native name. Both settlements took advantage of an ironstone hill, probably for strategic reasons, and for building facilities offered by the rocks.

Opposite to the coast between Muta Point and the mouth of the Vintang Creek there are two large creeks, or tidal inlets, on the right bank navigable for some distance inland. The Suara Kunda Creek, or ancient Colar River, rises in the French territory, and is navigable for vessels of two thousand tons for some distance past the English boundary.

The Jurunku Creek is shorter, but is also navigable for large vessels well into the interior.

Seven miles below Jurunku the right bank changes its direction at Sika Point from south-west to west as far as Lamin Point, opposite to Lamin Creek on the left bank, passing Gillifree, Albreda, and, out in the river two miles from Albreda and one-third of the width of the river, James Island, the first morsel of land to come under our flag in all the continent of Africa. James Island is shorn of its ancient glory now; the island is being gradually washed away, and the vast territory over which its little fort held sway belongs to another nation.

From Lamin Point to Dog Island is another seven miles about north-west, and beyond that the land trends

THE GAMBIA

sharply to the north-east to form one side of the immense curve which ends in Barra Point.

On the left bank, twelve miles from Vintang Creek, and opposite James Island, is Brefet Creek; and from there the rest of the bank right round the curve to St. Mary's Island is a network of tidal waterways and creeks, some of which stretch far inland, and become fresh-water streams above tidal level. The whole of the country on both sides of the river is magnificently watered both for traffic and for use in the villages, each of which can tap a perennial supply by sinking fifteen to twenty feet through the alluvial surface formation.

The curve continues round past Faraba, Madina, and Lamin Creeks, and continuing, ends at Half Die, the up-river shore of the town of Bathurst.

The mouth of the river faces the north, and from Bathurst across to Barra Point is about two miles. These two points form the inner mouth of the river, and behind them is a bay measuring seven to eight miles across each way, being nearly circular, while outside, the coast trends westward seven miles from Bathurst to Cape St. Mary, and north seven miles from Barra Point to Jinnak Creek. Cape St. Mary and Jinnak Creek, or rather Broken Islands at the mouth of the creek, form the outer mouth of the river, and are ten miles apart, the straight line between them lying north-east and south-west. The island of St. Mary stretching across the mouth of the river is the delta, and is probably formed on the last of the ridges of ironstone rock which intersect the river from its source to the Atlantic. The rock is in evidence on the surface both at Cape St. Mary and Barra Point, the former of which shows an ironstone cliff to the seaward face, and the latter ironstone rocks on the sea bottom between them.

Cape St. Mary is in latitude $13^{\circ} 29'$ and longitude $16^{\circ} 40'$, and Jinnak Creek, the northern boundary of our territory, is in latitude $13^{\circ} 36'$ N. and longitude

THE HARBOUR

16° 33' W., the latter lying due north of Barra Point, which in the same way lies due east of Cape St. Mary.

The meaning of these positions, latitude 13° 32' 30" and longitude 16° 36' 30", may be taken as the mouth of the Gambia River.

The total length of the river from the mouth to Bady is 450 miles, and the source at Labé is 150 miles further direct, which may well be taken as 250 by river, although it has only been surveyed for 500 miles. The total length may be taken at 700 miles.

There is no river bar at the mouth, as, owing to the scour produced by the comparatively narrow passage between Bathurst and Barra Point, the silt and sand brought down by the tides and the upland waters are carried far out to sea through a deep channel in the sand shoals.

The Fairway Buoy, eighteen miles from Bathurst, marks the mouth of the channel, which is about three-quarters of a mile wide, with soundings of twenty-eight feet at low water. Outside this point the floor of the Atlantic Ocean resumes its regular grade to seaward.

The shape of the channel from the Fairway Buoy to Bathurst resembles in plan the letter Z inverted, with the bottom bar coming in from the north.

The angles of the channel are marked with buoys about six miles apart. The removal of these buoys and the mining of the channel would make the harbour above Bathurst impregnable for vessels of over twelve feet draught and extremely dangerous for even those below it. The Knoll Buoy, where the channel turns at an acute angle six miles from Bathurst, is also within the range of modern guns with a converging fire from Cape St. Mary and Barra Point, both of which afford the necessary elevation for guns with Hyde's pneumatic mounting. They were fortified up to the middle of the nineteenth century, and the old guns are still *in situ*.

THE GAMBIA

It may therefore be truly said that, even if the continual concessions of territory to our neighbours the French have shorn the Gambia of its ancient glory, the harbour—without its equal on the West African Coast—is a valuable asset to the British Empire on the sea, as a naval base, or safe harbour in times of stress, while in times of peaceful rivalry in trade its three hundred miles of tidal waterway—the natural outlet for the commerce of Senegambia—is a possession of the greatest value to us and an object of envy and desire to our rivals in the West African field of competition.

CHAPTER II

The Geology of the Valley of the Gambia.

IN the chapter on geography the river Gambia has been traced from its fountain down to the sea; from the source of its upland power to the fusion of that power with the Atlantic Ocean.

In this chapter, seeing that the ocean is the source of the power that has in the past laid down the sedimentary series of rocks, and afterwards acted upon them with erosive force to form the valley of to-day and change it to its present conditions, it is proposed to commence at the ocean.

The bird-man's view has supplanted that of the bird's-eye in the twentieth century, and a bird-man hovering above Senegambia would look down upon what in general terms may be described as a plateau land, graded or stepped from the Fouta Jallon Mountains to the Atlantic Ocean on the west, and to the Desert of the Sahara on the north.

The radius of this tract of country is about three hundred miles from a centre on the headwaters of the Gambia and Senegal, and the difference of altitude is from two thousand feet near Labé on the Fouta Jallon Plateau down to sea and Sahara level, which are practically the same.

Through this stepped land, from plateau to plateau, the headwaters of the Senegal, Gambia, Rio Grande and other rivers have ploughed out their channels and valleys down to, say, a distance of three hundred miles from the

THE GAMBIA

ocean, in a direct line, where a more gentle and more or less regular slope of one foot per mile westward and northward ensues to the sea-coast. The 100,000 square miles included in this bird-man's view is Senegambia, in which the valley of the Gambia holds a central position between those of the Senegal and the Rio Grande.

The valleys of all these rivers are ridiculously alike through the lowest plateau land, and this similarity extends to the smaller tributaries that join them below the foothills. This is probably owing to the fact that they are all ploughed out of the same vast area of sedimentary formation, alike in its constituents, and subjected to the same forces over the same stretch of time.

Narrowing the survey down to the valley of the Gambia, the bird-man would see, in plan, a tract of country extending from the sea-coast inland for three hundred miles, the centre of which is occupied by an immense shallow gorge with serrated edges in many places, through which a mighty river meanders backwards and forwards across the bottom lands.

The head of the gorge is the junction of the Nerico and the Ba Dimma, the latter of which is the main stream from the Fouta Jallon Plateau, and together they form the Gambia River, with its bed at practically sea-level. The gorge is the ancient estuary of the Gambia, either ploughed out gradually by sea and flood action during a rising of the land, or during an immense period of time, after the sudden upheaval of the land surface to its present level above the sea. The former hypothesis is probably the nearer to the truth, although many parts of the plateau land, at present, are like nothing so much as the bottom of the sea, in addition to which miniature deserts occur all over the tract of the country survey, such as the Jallonka or Tenda Desert, and that of Bondou. These barren tracts could hardly have persisted had the march of littoral vegetation crossed the area parallel to

GEOLOGICAL FORMATION

the present sea-coast during a lengthened period of time. It may fairly be deduced, however, that the upheaval, gradual or sudden, that robbed the Sahara of its waters, extended over the present field of survey, but that, owing to its position farther south and within the northern limit of regular tropical rainfall, Nature has clothed the valleys where possible with forest and vegetation; these are maintained by natural irrigation with fresh water, leaving only those bellies or sinks full of old sea sand mentioned above, which, owing to their altitude after the upheaval, could not be brought into the general scheme, and therefore must continue as baby Saharas between the luxuriant vegetation of the river watersheds.

The above being granted, it may be taken that the area under examination was raised above sea-level and became dry land at some remote period of time; and that since that period, the bottom of the ancient estuary has been again ploughed out down to sea-level through the sedimentary rocks which were deposited under sea-level before the elevation of the plateau into what may be termed the "Talus" of the Fouta Jallon Plateau and Mountains, which in their turn form the foothills of the Kong Range of Mountains.

The erosion and removal of such enormous quantities can only be ascribed to a torrential and incessant rainfall, or abnormal tidal action, when compared with the present epoch. The latter hypothesis is more probable, as the action of upland waters would have left more sloping sides on the borderland of its field of energy, while the undermining due to the incessant ebb and flow of tidal action on the formations about to be described would result in the abrupt faces and cliffs that fringe the valley to-day, still bearing the marks of the sapping nature of the forces that worked the destruction. Moreover, the ancient estuary was ploughed out below the present sea-level in many places, for between the foot

THE GAMBIA

of the cliffs and the river-bed proper, the greater part of the area is occupied by lakes and swamps, some of the former deeper than the river. These are filled to overflowing in the rainy season by the flood waters bearing silt and mud, thus repairing the ravages of the past by gradually filling the valley with fresh alluvial soil.

The aeroplanist would also mark a series of ridges and isolated hills which appear to have withstood the destructive force of the ocean, although jutting out into the centre of the ancient valley, while on the main plateau these ridges are contained as ranges slightly elevated above the general level, the space between them being occupied by fertile valleys, in which cultivation goes on year after year without artificial fertilization, owing to the yearly inundation, and the silt washed down from the undulating ranges on the plateau lands.

The present river-bed is very crooked within the limits of the ancient valley above what may be termed the present estuarial waters, that is, the comparatively straight run of ninety miles from Bathurst to Elephant Island. This is partly due to the gentle grade of the land for another two hundred miles inland, and partly to the diversion necessary to round the points of the spurs above mentioned. The river thus meanders from side to side of the ancient valley until it reaches the foot of a cliff or the side of a range, the contour of which the waters have to follow across the valley, until they round the point thereof on their journey to the sea.

Taking the general direction and natural fall of the valley as from east to west for the four hundred miles of river-bed from the junction of the Nerico to the sea, the more elevated parts or ridges of the plateau, and their spurs which jut out into the valley, have a general direction from north-west to the south-east, so that the diversions of the present river-bed from a natural course, east and west, may be easily understood.



A TYPICAL IRONSTONE CLIFF



HARRA KLADA CLIFF OF IRONSTONE GRIT

TIDAL ACTION

During the period of erosion the tidal forces at, say, one hundred feet above the present sea-level, at which height the vestiges of their action can be clearly discerned, had a free run from west to east.

The remains of deep channels across the neck of the large bends of the present river, through which a canoe can now pass during the rainy season, confirm this theory.

Where a spur or hill is left in the ancient bed of the valley, and the course of the present river-bed runs past the foot thereof, the work of destruction is still continued in a mild form, as the annual floods of upland waters undermine a fresh portion of the cliffs every year, bringing the rocks above toppling down at intervals, by which agency the hills continue to present an abrupt cliff on the river face for about fifty feet from the top. This is followed by a steep slope, or talus, composed of the débris from above forming the present bank, down to the river-level.

The geological field of the valley of the Gambia is simple in the extreme as far as the formations visible above the river-level are concerned. The ancient valley has been ploughed through a comparatively recent sedimentary deposit about 150 feet thick, formed by the degradation of older rock formations in past ages.

The different layers of the sedimentary rocks are fully exposed on the cliffs, and thus form an easy study, and one that is extremely interesting from the fact that the formation is similar to the plateaux extending over the Senegal and Casamance Valleys, and the wide sheet of fluvial or marine deposits which the natural forces at work in the past have thrown over an immense area on the Atlantic slope of West Africa.

In examining the cliff faces where exposed, and by adits where the solid rock is screened by the talus, one finds that the constituents of the original rocks have been carefully sorted out in the order of their specific

THE GAMBIA

gravity or size ; have been transported without remixing to their present bed, and deposited in layers as nearly horizontal and as regular as a composite cake fresh from the confectioner's hands.

The deepest formation was found by boring through the plateau and in the present river-bed down to about forty feet below sea-level. It consists of an extremely fine siliceous sand, highly crystallized, mixed with magnetite crystals, and enough slime or ooze to constitute a quicksand, sufficiently fluid to well up in the boreholes from eight to ten feet above the level at which it was pierced. The quicksand formation is under pressure, and it was found impossible to pierce it with the boring plant used without tubing the total depth, as on withdrawal of the tool the sand rose immediately to a constant level. Eight bores covering over one hundred miles of valley, three on land and five in the river-bed, met with the same formation, and unfortunately tubes and a driving-plant to overcome the difficulty were not available at the time.

It would appear, therefore, that the bed of quicksand is continuous from the present river-bed to the land bores, one of which was 150 yards inland from the river-bank, and that it probably covers the bed of the ancient estuary.

The conclusion drawn is, that the quicksand formation is the former ocean bed, and that the superincumbent sedimentary deposits were laid down on this bed, under the then ocean-level, to be afterwards ploughed out by tidal action to the same bed in the shape of the ancient estuary after the land was raised, or the sea receded to its present level with regard to the valley.

The superincumbent sedimentary formations are held to be the result of the degradation of granitic, dolomitic and magnesian limestone rocks, which are only to be found *in situ* high up the valley, on the glacis of the main Fouta

BARRAGES

Jallon Plateau, near the source of the Ba Dimma, or main branch of the Gambia River. Fouta Jallon Plateau is also partly composed of ironstone ridges, said to be similar to those in the lower valley. The writer, however, has only penetrated about five hundred miles by river to the foothills of this plateau, but in following the river-bed similar ridges were observed on the banks with steppes of the same formation crossing the water in series which converted the bed into a system of rapids every two or three miles, with deep pools ploughed out of the softer magnesian clay between the rapids.

The same system of barrages, alternating with deep pools, is a marked feature in the bed of the river from the headwaters to the ocean, with the difference that the further down the valley the longer is the distance between the reefs or barrages.

It may be fairly concluded, therefore, that the parent rocks of the sedimentary formations which now cover the Atlantic slope of Senegambia existed formerly on the Fouta Jallon Plateau, unless it may be held that that plateau itself is only the highest level of the same system reaching to the foot of the Kong Mountains, the culminating point of the mountain system of North-West Africa.

In any case, it follows as a logical conclusion that the transport from a higher level, and the methodical arrangement of the layers of the sedimentary formations in their present position, are due to gravitation assisted by flowing water, and not to the scorix and dusts of volcanic action, the latter view being held by some authorities owing to the honeycombed and indurated appearance of some parts of the ironstone sheet that covers the surface of the plateaux and ranges, which they hold to be the result of the rapid cooling of the lava and dust falling into the ocean.

It follows, also, that to complete the sifting and separation by water of the component parts of the parent

THE GAMBIA

rocks into the regular stratification in which they exist to-day, would require either a long journey down an inclined slope such as the valley under consideration, or a protracted period of agitation in shallow waters, followed by deposition in comparatively still waters ; and, finally, that the deposits so laid down should remain undisturbed by volcanic or subterranean action to present the absolute regularity and horizontality in which they are found to-day.

As a corollary to this conclusion, it would appear that the present land surface was gradually raised to its present level above the sea, or alternatively, that the sea-level fell gradually down the West African slope to its present level without disturbing the harmony of the general grade or the formations filling the valleys, excepting where the upland waters continued to cut depressions on their way down it to join the ocean. The tidal waters, with possibly a high velocity compared with that of the present epoch, continued to act on these depressions until it ploughed out the sides and outfall of the upland stream down to its own shore-level, and continued to act for such a period of time as would suffice to form the ancient valley as it exists in the present time.

This gigantic monument of the erosive action of the tidal waters, assisted in periods of flood time by the upland waters, is four hundred miles long by river, or three hundred direct reaching from the mouth between Cape St. Mary and Barra Point, to the junction of the Nerico before referred to, above which the river channel rises rapidly and appears to be running in a bed cut by the upland waters alone.

The width of the ancient valley ranges from ten miles between Cape St. Mary and Barra Point on the coast, where vestiges of the cliffs are still existent, to about two miles at the junction of the Nerico, after which the ranges appear on both banks of the river, confining the stream to a normal bed, showing only the erosive action

CLIFFS AND SPURS

of flood waters. Between these points, however, the ancient valley widens out in places to over twenty miles, notably at the big bend at Elephant Island, where the bed of the river bends suddenly to the north for twenty miles, east for thirty miles, and south for fifteen miles, only to return to its normal easterly direction at Wallikunda, near the lower end of the Kai Hai Islands. The great bend includes what may be called an island of the plateau formation, while in flood season the southern branch of the ancient estuary direct from Elephant Island to Wallikunda can be traversed in a canoe.

The level of the plateau land is about 60 feet above present high-water mark at Cape St. Mary, rising to 150 feet inland at a distance of 200 miles from the coast in a direct line, with an additional 25 to 50 feet for the ridges, but in no place visited does the elevation above tidal level exceed 200 feet. The grade or fall from the interior to the sea-coast appears to be quite regular where the original laterite crown can be found capping the hills, but near the lower river the hills are rounded on the top with slooping sides, having apparently suffered from a greater erosive force than those near the upper river, or having been subjected to the same force as the hills in the interior for a more lengthened period of time, as the latter present an abrupt cliff-like appearance generally to the river-bed of the valley. The marked difference in the aspect would tend to show that the elevation of the land to its present position, with regard to the sea-level to-day, occupied a considerable period of time.

It has been mentioned above that the aeroplanist's view would show a series of ridges and hollows covering the surface of the plateau, with spurs jutting out from the edge of the plateau into the ancient valley, and the question naturally occurs: What preserved these spurs from destruction in the middle of an area subjected to such a gigantic erosive force, while the rest of the material

THE GAMBIA

at one time filling the valley to the same level of original deposition was gradually being swept out to sea ?

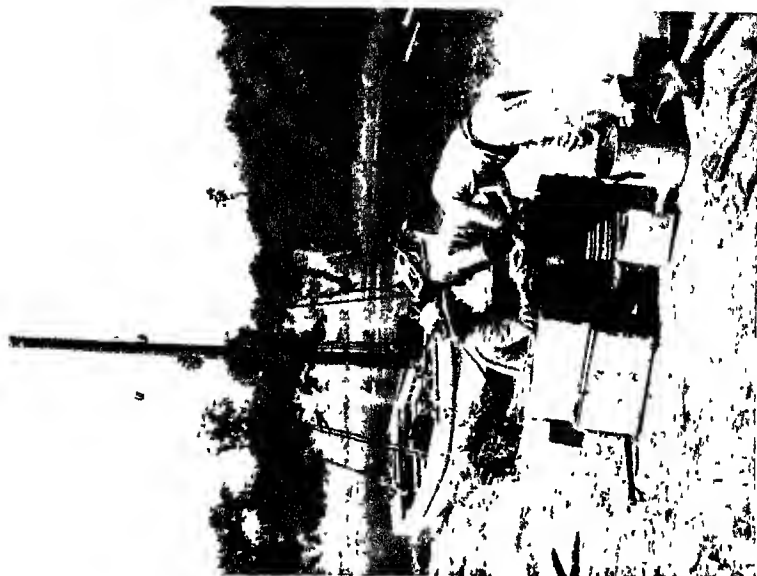
The spurs and the isolated hills still remaining are invariably capped with a more compact and harder laterite rock than the main body of the remaining plateau, and, as stated above, rise to an altitude of twenty-five to fifty feet above the general level thereof. These conditions would tend to preserve them while the lower and softer rock formations were being swept away, partly owing to their greater resistance, and partly because, as the water receded, the caps of the spurs and ridges would emerge before the lower portion of the plateau, and would be no longer subjected to scour on the surface, but only to erosion on the sides. The appearance of the sides and ends of these features to-day tends to confirm this theory.

It is also probable from the existing conditions that the ancient sea-level did not rise much above these features ; for although the layer of pisolitic laterite with which they are covered was undoubtedly laid down under water, as shown by its more or less marked stratification, its granular structure is of the coarsest water-worn and rolled material in the whole of the sedimentary formation.

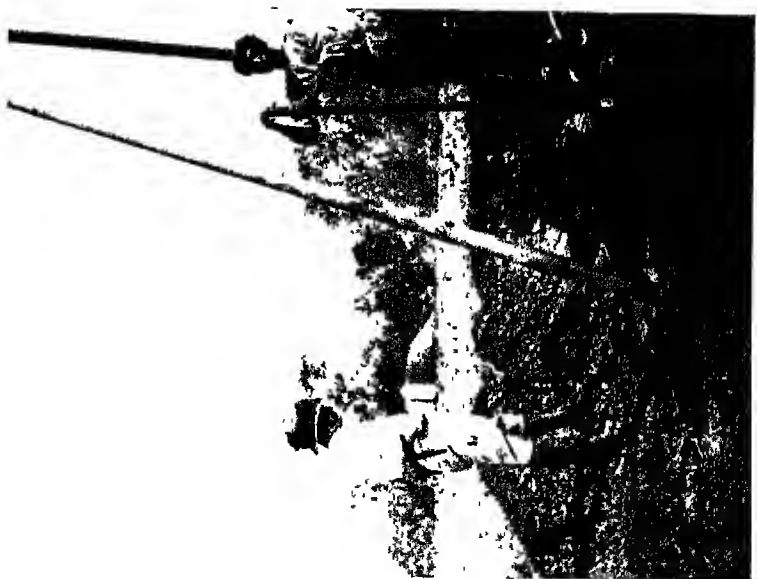
It would naturally, therefore, be found on the top of a shoal or sandbank subjected to sifting and separation by moving water, provided that the specific gravity of its particles was equal to, or less, than that of the other material undergoing the same operation.

As the sea-level fell, then, these spurs would appear as promontories or islands, while the rest of the plateau was submerged ; and as the ridges continue across the plateau land the general appearance would be that of a gigantic ploughed field with the furrows filled with water, an appearance which is repeated to-day in some of the low-lying areas of the plateau land during the rainy season.

With regard to the original cause of the undulations



PANNING OUT SAMPLES.



BORING FOR IRON ORE

RIDGE-LIKE SANDBANKS

on the surface of an immense area of sedimentary rocks, which show every evidence of having at one time formed part of the sea bottom, two theories offer themselves for consideration. It has been stated before that the whole surface of the plateau land shows a gentle grade of about one hundred feet in the three hundred miles of direct distance, falling regularly from east to west, while the contours from north to south along the ridges would follow curves practically parallel to that of the high-water mark if we bridge the indentations, due to erosion since the plateau was laid down, by lines across the valley.

The first theory is that the undulations on the surface are due entirely to the action of water. On the North Atlantic Coast of Africa, the same ridge-like formation may be observed in sandbanks running parallel to the coast-line with hollows between them, in which the tidal water finds its way up and down the coast. All the stretch of lagoons, with immense sandbank formations, on the Ivory Coast and from Togo Land to Benin River, are due to some natural force which distributes the material brought down by the rivers in flood time in lines parallel to the coast. To be more exact, the line of distribution of the upland material is the resultant of two forces moving in a direction nearly at right angles to each other.

The sand and silt brought down on the tide, aided by the upland waters, pushes the land out to sea across the line of coast, while the universal tidal impulse, which sweeps from south to north along the continent twice a day, aided by the ocean currents, also parallel more or less to the coast-line, arrange the material in formations consonant to the forces at work; and the daily rise and fall of tide on foreshore is also a factor in checking the upland flow, thus causing the sand and silt to deposit in the shallow waters.

The second theory is that of volcanic action, inducing

THE GAMBIA

earth waves, the undulations of which, in a plastic clay such as that which forms the mass of the lower sedimentary deposits in the valley of the Gambia, would tend to become fixed.

The area under consideration is certainly within the sphere of action of Fogo, the volcano in the Cape de Verde islands, as well as that of the Kong Mountains; and it is only fair to say that its proximity to an active volcano is a strong factor in the theory that the laterite formation was at one time volcanic dust. The pea-shaped grains were rounded by fire and passage through the air in falling, and the lava-like appearance of some parts of the same materials is due to the sudden cooling on falling into the sea.

Nevertheless, the writer is inclined to the opposite theory of degradation of older rocks by weather, transport, and distribution on its present bed by water, and the formation of the undulations by the natural forces still at work on the coast of Africa.

No signs or evidence of volcanic or seismic action have been observed in the exposed faces of the cliffs over the present river-bed, which are the ends of the spurs from the main plateau.

The stratification is conformable to the general grade of the valley, so that the different layers of the system can be traced or found without difficulty half a mile along the spur from the exposed face on either side. Extending the survey, and taking the crown of laterite as a datum, the same strata, perhaps slightly altered in composition, are found practically at the same depth below that datum on the face of a cliff one hundred miles distant in the valley above or below. It may therefore be accepted that the stratification of the sedimentary formation within the area under survey is conformable over the whole field of survey.

Turning now to the detailed examination of the

COMPOSITION OF CLIFF STRATA

different layers exposed in the cliffs or found by adits or boring, the present surface of the ridges and spurs is an ironstone carrying a stunted vegetation of hardy trees with gnarled stems and branches, sparsely distributed over the surface of the rock. It is held, however, that these are vestiges of a more luxurious vegetation that flourished on the plateau in former ages, when the surface of the ironstone rock was covered by a bed of silt and slime left on its surface by the receding ocean.

The tropical rains of this part of Africa, which sometimes give a rainfall of six inches in the twenty-four hours, have swept the deposits off the plateau, leaving the bare rock, but the original vegetation persists, and, failing soil, by inserting its roots in the crevices draws nourishment from the rock.

As the roots thicken the struggle for existence on the part of the plant ends in splitting off blocks of the ironstone down to the first bedding of the rock, about one foot below the surface.

These blocks are found distributed over the plateau, sometimes arranged in a circular form as if used as seats at a meeting of the dog-faced baboons, communities of which live on these heights as a more secure home during the night, against the beasts of prey that desire monkey meat for a change from a continuous diet of antelope.

Below the vegetation, then, the layer of dense laterite, and below that, the same formation less dense and ranging from six to ten feet in depth in all.

The whole of this formation contains about 26 to 28 per cent. metallic iron, but unfortunately the greater part of the residue in the gangue is silicious, the proportion of which sometimes rules as high as 40 per cent. with 10 per cent. of alumina, the remainder consisting of water, oxygen, with traces of sulphur, phosphorus, manganese, lime, magnesia, copper, gold and silver.

The lower part of this deposit is slightly richer in

THE GAMBIA

iron, with silica and alumina more equally balanced, but still amounting to about 50 per cent. of the mass, and other analyses from different cliffs more than one hundred miles apart, show slight changes in proportion, but scarcely any in the elements of the composition. The ore is classed as limonite. Immediately below it is a formation of red and brown ore composed of mixed hematite and limonite, slightly richer in iron, with the alumina predominant over the siliceous. The layer is about twenty feet thick, tending to become poorer in iron as it descends, and passing into a magnesian clay with crystallized quartz grains disseminated through the mass. The cliffs are vertical, or even slightly undercut to the bottom of this layer.

Below this occurs a layer of clean siliceous grit with water-worn grains; in some cliffs slightly cemented together by red clay, in others free from clay, while in a few instances a coarse pebble and clay bed overlies the finer sand and grit of this formation. This stratum, regarded as one formation, has a depth of fifteen to twenty feet, and at the bottom overlying the substrata is found a band of black sand crystal of magnetite, a layer of iron-stained coarser grit, or in some cases a band of nearly pure limonite ore with larger water-worn quartz pebbles ingrained, looking like almond toffee.

This band is about one to one and a half feet thick where found as described above, but in some cliffs it has passed into a dense formation about two to three feet thick, resembling emery in the mass, and consisting of magnetite crystals with sharp siliceous sand of extremely fine grains, in about equal proportions.

Below the grit formation, which, when cemented together as described above, shows a perpendicular face, but when in loose grains, an angle of, say, 30 per cent. to the perpendicular, the talus commences, through which it was necessary to drive cuttings in order to expose the solid formation.

EXTENT OF CLIFF STRATA

These, when driven under the grit, exposed a magnesian clay mixed intimately, with fine silicious sand, and coloured by traces of metals, forming yellow, brown, and reddish ochres. The composition gradually passes into a purer and finer clay, which again overlies what may be taken for kaolin or china clay of the best quality, in some parts of which the colours are more regularly stratified and even laminated, in white, bright yellow, violet, and pinkish bands, the latter probably due to the presence of phosphates.

In all the cliffs examined, this formation extends down to the present dry season river-level, and in the bores it still continues to thirty feet below. On two spurs the clay formations are interrupted by bands of what may be termed hematite iron ore, but carrying a lesser proportion of metal than the laterite on the top of the cliffs, and still containing an undue proportion of silicious sand. These bands were found on the cliffs farthest inland of those examined, and below them the clay beds continue.

Dispersed in the clays as far as penetrated, pieces of ore are found, some of which have a nodular form, and are probably the richer portions of the second layer of laterite washed clear of the matrix of magnesian clay, as they are of the same irregular form, but with all the corners and edges rounded by weathering or washing.

There is also found on several cliffs a richer ore in lumps, and in shapes of roots, branches of trees, and bamboos; these are apparently formed by the filtration of iron in solution during the decay of the wood fibre, as in some cases the fossil is hollow with the centre or pith of the original plant form not filled. A crust of coarser particles also replaces the bark, thus marking the difference in the original fibrous composition of the plant. Other specimens have the appearance of stalactites with a solid centre.

THE GAMBIA

Both nodules and fossils may be found on the edge of the water at the summer level of the river on the toe of the cliff, from which they have fallen, washed clean of clay and grit by the action of the flood waters on the foot of the steep.

The analysis of the nodules gives over 31 per cent. of metallic iron, and of the fossil iron ore over 35 per cent., but still an undue proportion of silicon.

In boring on the river-bank in the upper river, 250 miles from the sea, at a depth of from twenty to thirty feet below high-water mark, a bed of quicksand is found under the clays, as mentioned in the general description of the valley, and as far as can be deduced from the information gained by boring, the same bed underlies the cliffs or spurs of the plateau land, and probably fills the whole bed of the ancient estuary.

The wells of the villages inland only penetrate the surface loam and sand (and in some cases, where situated on the plateau land, the laterite also), but stop on arriving at the impervious clay bed described, because the filterings of the strata above it give sufficient water for the use of the people.

Many of these wells have been visited, and the ground excavated appears to conform practically to the cliff formations, while in some of them, high up the river and three miles away from its present bed, the white pipe-clay or kaolin is tapped at about twenty feet, and forms the bottom of the well; the clays above having faulted, or perhaps, having regard to the basin-like shape of the theoretical cross-section, the formation having ceased lower down in the bed of the valley.

The wells in question are only fifteen to twenty feet deep, and are sunk at villages occupying a high plain, with a deep alluvial soil. Probably the upper formations have been swept away in the past down to the clay formation, and the alluvial soil has been deposited later by the floods.



SAMI—THE HONSTONE CLIFFS



SAMI—THE HONSTONE CLIFFS

PERMI—IRONSTONE CLIFFS

WELL WATER

If the pipe-clay at the bottom were penetrated, it is probable that the quicksand of the old ocean bed would be found underlying it.

The milky-white water from these wells, unless boiled and allowed to settle, is an excellent emetic, from the greasy nature of the clay which colours it, and probably from some magnesia or other element in solution, and yet the people drink it without filtering, having possibly become inured to its mineral properties.

As far as the survey has gone at present, therefore, the sedimentary formations above described that occupy the valley of the Gambia overlies a bed of fine sand, mixed with the slime and ooze in such proportions as to constitute a quicksand, containing also the finer and heaviest constituents of the formations above, including about 5 per cent. of magnetite, crystallized in extremely fine particles. The magnetite is found in the river washings, in the iron ores, and practically throughout the valley, even at the mouth of the river and along the ocean beach of the Island of St. Mary, where it occurs in thin beds and layers, and is carefully collected by the women of Bathurst, who crush and use it as a substitute for antimony to beautify or at least darken their eyelashes and eyebrows.

And, finally, reefs of laterite occur crossing the bed of the river below tidal level, and continue above tidal waters, the distance apart of these formations gradually increasing from two miles on the Ba Dimma to about five miles at the head of tidal waters, and to twelve miles near the mouth of the river, the last gap being from Dog Island to Barra Point on the north or right bank, and Madina Hills to Cape St. Mary on the south or left bank.

Owing to the difficulty of obtaining representative samples from below water, the composition of these lower strata remains undefined.

Samples taken from shallow water on the sea-coast show a conglomerate of rich crimson hematite ore in

THE GAMBIA

pockets and lumps mixed with a brown sandstone, rendering the mass useless as a commercial ore. It is quite possible, nay even probable, that the hematite deposits are richer as one goes deeper, judging from this lowest bed of ore ; but, on the other hand, the valley is afloat, so to speak, and pumps of a powerful calibre would be necessary to keep any workings free of water, so that any deposits below the clays would be difficult to work commercially.

On the whole, it may be said that the Gambia is rich in deposits of iron ore, ochres, and china clay, and it is quite possible that some of these may in the future be found rich enough to work commercially. As stated before, there are also traces of the nobler metals throughout the whole of the sedimentary formations, the silver appearing to occur with the gold generally as ten to one, but none of the samples analyzed contain more than one pennyweight of gold to the ton of 2240 pounds, while assays of the more promising strata do not give more than a half pennyweight to the ton, with five pennyweights of silver. It is suggested that in the older rocks, of which these formations are the ruins, there existed a certain amount of fine gold and silver, intimately mixed with and distributed throughout the mass, which would account for the occurrence of the nobler metals through the different layers of the sedimentary formations or detritus to which they are now transformed.

It is possible, however, that in the quicksand, or below it, a concentrate of the heaviest elements originally contained in the parent rock, or rocks, may be found ; and if such a concentrated material is found, it is more than probable that it could be dredged profitably, seeing that a half-pennyweight per ton of free gold, capable of amalgamation in passing over the tables of a dredger, or down a long sluice, is an excellent payable proposition where the quantity of wash dirt is unlimited, as it is in the valley of the Gambia.

Fig. 10
at hand



Fig. 11

Fig. 12

Fig. 13

Fig. 14

Fig. 15

CHAPTER III

The Ethnology of the Gambia—The distribution of races in the Valley of the Gambia.

IT is with the greatest diffidence that the author sets out to write upon this part of his work, but a study of most of what has been written in the past, with fifteen years' experience and personal knowledge of the races inhabiting the small part of the African continent dealt with, will perhaps justify him in recording his observations.

As the commissioner for the delimitation of the curves which mark our frontier, at a time when the white man was hardly ever seen in many of the inland districts, there was an ample field for obtaining first impressions of the different races of negroes inhabiting the valley of the Gambia; but, unlike other countries, where a wild rush through it might appear to justify the traveller in writing about the people, in West Africa one recognizes that, even after living in close contact with its people for years, ruling them, caring for them, and taking the greatest interest in their manners, customs, and methods of life and thought, there is "no soundings" to be written across the chart when one attempts to deal with the inner mysteries of the African's mind and methods of reasoning and thought.

There is no bridge, silver or golden, real or ideal, that will take the white man into the black man's inner sphere of thought, and yet one fondly imagines that the plummet has reached the bottom with those Africans whom years of association and kindness on both sides have linked to

NATIVE MENDACITY

one, in a mutual bond of caring for each other's welfare and bodily comfort.

It may be so, and one hopes that such mutual acts of kindness are not entirely lost, but with the author there have always been other depths to sound, or heights to scale, with each new circle of conditions evolved by the ever-rapidly changing scenes of life in the West African bush.

Apparently, the northern European races will not cross successfully with the negro, save through the intermediary of the southern Europeans, with centuries of Moorish or African blood in their veins. So also the lines of thought, which are, and must always be, on racial lines, will not lead to a common goal with the Briton and the negro, but run parallel to each other at a higher or lower level from an altruistic point of view, while they cross and re-cross in the "Metissage" of the Spanish or Portuguese races and the African, having many things in common.

For instance, the African, as the author knows him, is the personification of untruth ; that is to say, he never tells the truth for truth's sake, even in the simple matter of the position of a town or the distance thereto, but, like those who are to be beaten with few stripes, he knows not the depth of his iniquity from our point of view. He lies because facts are stubborn things, and if he definitely stated facts the question of his own interests in the matter at hand might suffer.

In his own imperfect course of reasoning he realizes that "knowledge is power," and that he must preserve his exclusive information, or the point at issue would be settled at once, possibly to his disadvantage, by his chief or more powerful neighbour.

Therefore, he lies that he may profit by knowing the actual facts, while the other man is led astray by imperfect knowledge of the conditions.

THE GAMBIA

These are the ethics of lying, either for fear of punishment, as a child to its parents, or to gain some worldly advantage that will repay the adult for the loss of self-respect.

And so the gentle African lies to the European as his protohuman ancestors lied to a stranger ape, with regard to the direction to be taken in search of food, when that was the chief end of their daily life, and when the continuance of the family depended upon the unaided resources of Nature. Unless their family interests in the store of food were common, east was west, and north was south, to the father of the family in a neighbouring tree; but, like the diplomatist of to-day, the interlocutor knew his neighbour was lying, and once out of sight, changing his course, he found the juicy fruits, thinking none the worse of his neighbour, and promptly lied himself to a third protohuman bread-winner. As that is what is called a "smart business man" with us, even after thousands of years of written law forbidding lying, one must conclude that lying is the natural rule with both untutored, as well as tutored human Nature. So that, abstract truth being the beginning and end of all things from a moral point of view, if we may judge the African in the scale of abstract truth, he is found wanting in the fundamental ethics of morality.

It is to be feared that nothing of concise value to anthropology can be written about Senegambia in the twentieth century, owing to the fact that, although that part of West Africa inland from the coast was originally occupied by a primitive race of negroes, they were forest dwellers without organization, and therefore succumbed easily under the incursions of fiercer and more warlike races from the north and the east, who were armed with more deadly weapons of war owing to their touch with the semi-civilized Moors and Arabic races that occupied these frontiers.



THE DANCING MAN "READY."



THE DANCING MAN "OFF."



ORIGIN OF SLAVERY IN THE GAMBIA

The only relics that are to be found to-day of the primitive negro race which originally occupied the forest belt between the Senegal and the Rio Grande are the Serreres on the coast, north of the Saloum River, who are Pagans and were cannibals; the Feloops, Floops, or Flûps, as called by early voyagers, but now, in the valley of the Gambia, known as the Jolahs, occupying the territory between the sea-coast and the headwaters of the Vintang Creek, about one hundred miles inland; the Patcharis or Pakaris in the Middle Valley, and the Bassaris, including the Kunyadis, in the Upper Valley. These will be again referred to, and it is evident, from the chronicles of the different writers on the subject of slavery in this part of West Africa, that it was these Arcadians and forest dwellers, with their simple manners and customs of sustaining life from the products of the forest, field, and streams, who supplied the bulk of the trade, under the pretext that they worshipped idols, and therefore were considered to be outside the pale of humanity by the races that had adopted the Koran.

The Foulah tribes of Fouta Jallon told Winterbottom that it was their custom to make war upon these Pagan races, in obedience to the dictates of the Koran, and to slay all those who were too old or too young to be useful as slaves.

Later on, however, as the profits from the trade were subject to competition on all sides, the supply failed by depopulation of the country of the more peaceful tribes, and dog commenced to bite dog. More warlike races of Mandingos, Serrekolis, and Foulahs warred upon other races for the purpose of taking prisoners of war and supplying the demand. Moore mentions instances where all offences, even trivial ones within the tribe, against the tribal laws, were punished by sale into slavery.

The first actual observer of the distribution of races in Senegambia was Cada Mosto.

THE GAMBIA

On his first voyage he found a tawny Moorish race occupying the north bank of the Senegal, which he calls the "Azanaghi or Tawny-Moors." They were meagre and small of stature, and their country was dry and barren, On the south side of the river, however, he found a race of men "exceedingly black, tall, corpulent, and well-made."

He was surprised to find so great a difference in so narrow a space. Cada Mosto had by chance alighted upon one of the great ethnological boundaries of Africa at a time when war between races of different colour, customs, or religion was the rule of life.

The great rivers of the continent formed natural barriers and defences behind which the Negroid races, inhabiting fruitful forests or cultivable plains, could better repel the predatory desert tribes that, sowing not, lived on their mobility and the facility which their horses and camels gave them to rob their neighbours and reap the results of the industries of others. At the zenith of power of the great Songhois Empire, however, the Tawny-Moors were driven back or subdued northward along the coast, at least as far as the Valley of the Rio d'Oro, where a colony of Songhois established their power at Gualata, or Jualafa, from which the Jollofs now take their tribal name. With the Moorish invasion of the Valley of the Niger this outpost of empire, in common with others on the fringe of the desert farther east, was conquered, and the Songhois were driven south.

Dr. Leyden thinks that Gualata is probably Walet, but Leo, the African, says that Gualata borders upon the sea. In his description also of the Kingdom of the Gualata he says, "These towns are distant south from Nun about 300, from Tombuto north-west, 500, and from the sea about 200 miles," which is the position shown in the old maps, while Walet was another outpost on the edge of the desert about 200 miles north-north-east from

ARABIAN PREDOMINANCE

Tombuto (Timbuctoo). But Walet, Waled, Ouled, are numerous in Numidia. "The people of Libya," Leo Africanus remarks, "whilst the country of negroes was subject to them, settled their royal seat in this region, unto which great numbers of Barbary merchants resorted at that time." . . . "These people speak the language called Sungai; the inhabitants are black, and receive strangers with great hospitality."

To this Francis Moore, in 1730, adds the following note: "These three towns of Gualata seem by the situation to be what is now called the Kingdom of the Grand Jolloiffs (*sic*). The Jolloiff race, who are now Kings of Barsally (Ba Saloum or Great Saloum), seem descended from them, their name being 'N'Jay, here called Sungai, and in other places Sanagai, and their language different from that of the Mundingoes, or negroes." There are other evidences of the connection between the Songhois and the Jollofs which are adduced in the historical chapters, but the above quotations appear sufficient here to prove that the race which Cada Mosto describes as occupying the south bank of the Senegal and the territory south to the Gambia were not the indigenous race, but the descendants of the Lybian or Arabian races which conquered the Valley of the Niger in the seventh century, and gradually extending their power westward, ruled parts of the valleys of the Senegal and Gambia up to the Moorish invasion of the Soudan at the end of the sixteenth century.

So Cada Mosto found the descendants of the Lybians occupying the territory from the south bank of the Senegal to the North Bank of the Gambia, in parts of which territory they remained in power, subject to certain Mandingo incursions, until subdued by the French in the latter part of the nineteenth century. They were still ruled by the Royal House of the Songhois or 'N'Jay, and in 1896 the Bour Saloum, a descendant of the ancient

THE GAMBIA

kings, came to a palaver on the Anglo-French boundary, attended by 1100 horsemen, and could then have put as many more in the field on a war footing.

Barbot also regarded the Jollofs as the Songhois, and in his vocabulary of their languages, says, "Jalof, or Zanguay."

The name of the River Senegal is traceable through "Sanaga," as it was called at first, to "Songhais," and, as other writers have suggested, the natives with whom the earliest discoverers first came in contact gave the name of their tribe when asked for the name of the river.

As far as written records go back, then, the Jollofs have held the country between the Senegal and the Gambia; but although Negroid, as far as can be deduced, they are not of the indigenous races in that part of Senegambia, but are more akin to the Nubian or eastern Ethiopian than they are to the Serreres, their neighbours to the west on the sea-coast, or to the Floops on the south.

Moreover, they have customs, dress, and hair, with other attributes quite unlike the above-mentioned tribes, while they themselves referred to relics and traditions as belonging to the "old people," that is to say, the "ancients," or the original races of which their ancestors were the conquerors or the successors.

The Serreres to the west occupied part of the coast north of the Saloum River, and have much in common with the Floops to the south of the Gambia. As a rule they are still Pagans, and were obviously a distinct race from the pure Jollofs, although now intermixed to a certain degree with both those and the Mandingo intruders into the country on the south.

East of the Jollofs in ancient times was the Kingdom of Wuli, occupying a tract of country on the right bank of the Gambia, between the Sandugu River on the west and the Nerico on the east.

Wuli is chiefly peopled by a race, or more properly a

POWER OF THE MANDINGOS

fusion of races, called Serakolis. They are allied to the Mandingos, and at one time the northern tribes formed part of the Kingdom of Melli.

They are a mixture of Foulahs, Mandingos, and a dash of the Arab tribes on their northern frontier, and like those ancestors, appear to have lived more by war and plunder in the past than by industry. In addition to the Negroid strain, they are said to have some Portuguese blood in their veins dating from the occupation of their country in the fifteenth century by the latter, while on their way to Bambouk, and working the gold-mines of Tambaroora. They are professing Mohammedans, but are not strict in their observances, admitting the use of both alcohol and tobacco, probably owing to their early contact with Europeans, and the transmission of these habits through successive generations.

Towards the north there is a predominance of the hybrid Foulah races, whose ancestors settled south of the Senegal during the great trek to be referred to anon.

These Foulahs, however, should not be confounded with the pure Foulahs, the wandering race of men that seldom settle in any place for more than a season, but live with their flocks and herds, driving them all over West Africa in search of pasture.

East and south of the Kingdom of Wuli, on the headwaters of the Gambia, the Mandingos have held sway from the earliest records.

They formed the nucleus of the great Kingdom of Melli or Mali, the rival, subject, and conqueror in turn of the Kingdom of Jenne, maintaining a semi-independence throughout the centuries against Songhois, Mohammedans, and Moors in their successive dominations of the valley of the Niger, until finally subdued by Askia the Great, when at the zenith of his power in Timbuctoo. It took even this great general twelve years to accomplish the task, from 1501 to 1513, and although the Kingdom

THE GAMBIA

of Melli was broken up and its territories placed under Emirs from Timbuctoo, it is doubtful if the Mandingos were actually conquered in their fastnesses on the Fouta Jallon Plateau.

The Mandingos, moreover, were the first amongst the tribes of the Upper Niger to adopt the Mohammedan faith, and joined hands with the forces of the Khalifs against Jenne, which helped to preserve their racial independence. Mandi Mansa (King of Mandi) sent ambassadors to Pedro Vaz in 1490, proposing amity, and Barros records: "With this Prince a very intimate alliance was formed."

West of the Mandingos, in descending the valley of the south bank, a remnant of the true indigenous negro is found in the territory now called Damantang, between the Gambia and its tributary, the Kolountou, or Grey River. The tribal name "Bassari" includes also the Kunyadis, who live in the forests in roughly constructed and temporary houses, go naked in summer, or the dry season, and cover themselves with skins of wild beasts during the rainy season. Jobson describes them thus in 1620, and in 1900 the writer found them in practically the same condition of civilization, as far as vestments may be taken as a mark of progress. West of Damatang, on the left bank of the Grey River, the ancient kingdom of Kantora commences, the present inhabitants of which are Mandingos and a mixed race of Foulahs, Mendis, the southern branch of the Mandingos, and Sousous, another kindred tribe originally from the Niger Valley, but later of Fouta Jallon.

There may be also traces of the indigenous tribes, the forest people, akin to the Bassaris and the Patcharis, for it is evident that these people occupied the south bank of the Gambia from the Mandingo territories to the sea-coast, but were submerged by the Great Trek when the Foulahs of Fouta Jallon pushed north, and crossing



A WASHING B'DE SERAKOLIS AND FULAH WOMEN



A NATURAL STUDIO.

EXODUS OF THE FULAHS

the Gambia Valley, eventually arrived in that of the Senegal.

The tradition of this exodus is well known in West Africa, and has a curious likeness to the Divine guidance of the Jews, to whom, with some authorities, the Fulahs are akin.

In a time of famine and dearth, owing to the great increase of the flocks and herds, as well as of the people, the elders gathered together to consider how their flocks and herds were to be preserved in the overcrowded state of their territories.

They were sitting under the Bantaba tree discussing this vital question, when a parrot alighted on the tree and dropped a grain of millet in front of the chief. Having given this ocular demonstration of the plenty that was to be found in other countries, the parrot flew north. Interpreting this as the guidance of Allah, the Fulahs girded up their loins, and in the manner of their far-away ancestors trekked north, always led by the original parrot, who was either immortal or very old when they arrived in the valley of the Gambia, and from that gradually spread farther north to the valley of the Senegal, where they met the Tawny-Moors on the southern edge of the desert, and their pilgrimage ended. M. Guebhard, who mentions this tradition, thinks that the movement was gradual and extended over several generations, during which they acquired a broad strip of the intervening country, embracing many tribes and obliterating the tribal boundaries.

Fuladugu, the powerful kingdom west of Kantora, with which it was generally at war, stretching over one hundred miles on the south bank of the Gambia and southward to the Fouta Jallon, is part of the country passed over by the Fulah exodus. It was a powerful kingdom, ruled over by Temala, in the fifteenth century, who sent an army to resist the invasion by the Portuguese

THE GAMBIA

under Pedro Vaz. This army was so large that the streams on its line of march were drunk dry by the hosts of men and their horses and cattle, at least, so runs the story in the old scripts.

West of Fuladugu, and thence to the coast, the original forest tribes appear to have maintained their independence, commencing with the Patcharis, probably allied to the Bassaris before mentioned, and to the Baskaries further south in Casamance, thence through the Floops or Feloops as they are called by early writers, now the Jolahs, and finally to the Banyons on the sea-coast.

All those races are Pagans, and although dominated by the Mandingos for centuries past, have not accepted Mohammedanism, nor have they as a rule intermarried or fused with other tribes, thus preserving a marked racial division.

They retain the primitive form of family government, each patriarch with his descendants, relations, and slaves living in a separate village walled in and stockaded against aggression on the part of his neighbour, owning no tribal chief, but combining readily against the attacks of other tribes.

Their country appears to have embraced the whole area south to the Rio Grande and east to the Fouta Jallon foothills, in fact, wherever the forests extended, until the Fulahs started north and absorbed the whole of the mid-valley which restricted them to the country west of that march.

In 1450, therefore, the valley of the Gambia was occupied by five tribes, with, of course, offshoots or hybrids, due to the mixing of blood on their boundaries, and to incessant intertribal war, in which the women and children became the prisoners, concubines, or slaves of the conquerors.

There were on the coast the Serreres and Jollofs ;

TRIBAL DIVISIONS

the Serakolis of Wuli inland on the north bank ; the Floops and Fulahs from Fouta Toro with their Sousous and Tukurols hybrids on the south bank ; and the Mandingos, covering the head of the valley, and intruding in several places on the banks of the river, Upper Niani-Barra on the north bank, Kulari and Tankular on the south.

These tribal divisions have now disappeared, and although the racial characteristics remain in many cases, especially with the Jollofs and the Floops, the latter now called Jolahs in the Gambia, and occupying the Kingdom of Fogni, the whole of the valley is now inhabited by a mixture of races of which the Mandingo is paramount. There are also other fresh elements from the coast, north and south, Sousous and Mendis from Sierra Leone and Arabs from the north of the Senegal.

The Anglo-French boundary also, cutting at right angles the tribal boundaries, which, in ancient days, ran practically at right angles to the trend of the valley, has divided the ancient territories fronting on the river into part English and part French, while the piping times of peace under our protection makes the Gambia a happy hunting-ground for the races farther into the interior, who come annually to farm ground-nuts and eventually form a small town somewhere in the valley as a rallying point for succeeding years. It will be seen, therefore, that in dealing with this subject the observations of the early chroniclers are of more value than any effort to divide the races in the present century.

CHAPTER IV

The Description of Races, the Jollofs, the Floops—The Ancient Graves.

WE now turn to Cada Mosto in the fifteenth, to Francis Moore in the eighteenth, and to Dr. Leyden, with other writers, about the commencement of the nineteenth century in order to glean the early ethnical conditions and compare the changes throughout the period embraced in these chronicles.

As to the Jollofs; Cada Mosto calls their kingdom Senega, and bounds it on the east with Tukulor, that is one of the hybrid races of Serakolis above mentioned, and on the south with Gambia, west with the ocean, and north with the Senegal River. They were governed by a king, chosen by the most powerful chiefs, who reigned as long as he pleased them, but the title was not hereditary. They often dethroned their king, but sometimes a king made himself so powerful as to object, which resulted in civil war. The king had no fixed revenues, but lived on the offerings of his subjects, or by extortion from them when the voluntary subscriptions failed, and otherwise by forcing his poorer subjects to cultivate his fields. Sometimes he even sold them to the Tawny-Moors, or to the Christians, after the Portuguese had opened that trade.

The Jollofs were free and easy in their matrimonial customs, every man entertaining as many women as he pleased. The king had thirty wives, who took precedence according to the rank of their own fathers, and had separate establishments in different parts of the kingdom.

THE JOLLOF TRIBE

They were visited at intervals by their king, whom they had to entertain as long as he chose to reside with them. When a wife reached the condition of ladies who love their lords so much as to present a replica, the husband left her for another. "Thus he travels from one place to another, visiting his women, by which he has a very numerous issue. All the lords live in the same manner."

Their religion, by profession, was Mohammedan, but it was only the chiefs that observed any of the laws of the Koran, the people being without teachers. Cada Mosto says, "The lords have about them some of the Azanaghi for that purpose, or else Arabs who come to reside there. These have inculcated that it would be a disgrace to them who are lords to live without observing any of God's laws, and to act as the inferior people do without any religion."

As a rule, the common people went naked, only covering the privy parts, but the lords wore cotton shirts reaching to the knees, and cotton drawers fitting tight to the small of the leg, with hinder parts that dragged on the ground.

This, with modifications as to the train, is the present dress of the Jollofs, so that fashions in trousers change in Africa less rapidly than elsewhere.

The women wore but one piece of cotton round the waist, reaching to half the leg, the rest of the body being nude.

The Jollofs were very cleanly, washing several times a day, very charitable, hospitable to a degree, courageous in war, clever at weaving, making pottery, and other primitive arts, but more clever in trading, being full of words and, for the most part, liars and cheats.

They were frequently at war with their neighbours or among themselves, their arms being azagays or light darts, javelins, a curved sword, and a large target or shield for the defence of the warrior's body. With the exception of the scimitar, which shows an Arabian

THE GAMBIA

influence in their science of war, the weapons are those of most of the primitive races in Africa before the Moorish invasion.

Both sexes were shoeless and sandalless, and without hats, but wove their hair into beautiful tresses, tied in various knots, although it was short. This style of hair-dressing is peculiar to the Jollofs, and betrays their origin from some East African race, perhaps more than any other feature, except their language, which is apart from both the Moorish races to the north, the Mandingos to the east, and the two negro races to the west and south. It will be observed that Cada Mosto calls them negroes, while he calls the Tawny-Moors Azanaghi, but probably only from the fact that they inhabited the country north of the Senegal, which was formerly the Songhois kingdom to the west of the Great Desert in the tenth century.

The Jollofs have become strictly Mohammedans during the centuries that have passed, and the men generally shave their heads, but the women still retain their graceful style of hairdressing, and with their commanding stature, straight noses, smallish mouths, and graceful walk and gestures, when young and slim; a Jollof princess might well have walked out of an Egyptian wall frieze ; but they become stout and rounder in middle ages.

As all chroniclers admit, from the first discoverers to the present time, the Jollof race, where pure, is one of the finest in the whole of Africa, handsome in person, proud in bearing, and in comparison with the surrounding races in West Africa is, what it claimed to be, a superior race, intellectually and physically head and shoulders above the negro races of Senegambia. They say of themselves: "We are black, but not negroes." Such were the inhabitants of the north bank of the Gambia in the fifteenth century.

Cada Mosto met with too warm a reception on his



THE ANCIENT GRAVES



THE GRAVES, LAMIN KOTO, SHOWING ONE STONE

FLOOPS AND BANYONS

visit to the Gambia during his first voyage to have recorded the manners and customs of the inhabitants of the south bank, the Floops or Banyons, excepting as far as concerns their methods of making war, and their efforts to repel invaders.

He notes, however, that they were armed only with bows and arrows, had war canoes carrying twenty-five to thirty men, all well made and of good size, dressed in cotton shirts and wearing white caps, "like the Germans," but with a wing on each side, and a feather in the middle, as he thought, to distinguish them as warriors, but which would also tend to show that they were led by Mandingos or had adopted their style of head dress, the winged cotton caps being distinctive of the latter, and in general use up to the present day.

On his second voyage, however, he did not meet with a hostile greeting, as the Almadias accompanied him up the river at a respectful distance, probably due to the guns and crossbows used by the Portuguese on their first attempt. Having persuaded one of the canoes to come alongside, he was piloted to the wharf of Batti Mansa's country, about forty miles up the river. This might have been Tankular by the distance, and the chief appears to have been a Mandingo from his name.

The people of the country, however, were not Mohammedans, but put great faith in sorcery; they were industrious, and lived on much the same provisions as the Jollofs, excepting that they had an abundance of rice, and varied their diet by eating dog, elephants, and hippos.

Cotton was abundant, and both sexes were well clothed, while the women were fond of tattooing their arms and breasts with a hot needle; "making figures which seemed like the flowers wrought in silk on handkerchiefs, and never wear off." The men hunted afoot in the woods with bows and spears only, taking the largest and fiercest animals; but the points of the arrows

THE GAMBIA

were envenomed, so that they apparently retrieved their game afterwards, when, in that climate, it would be rather high for ordinary consumption with us.

Cada Mosto gives no further details useful for this section, so that the Floops and their customs must await more modern writers.

Francis Moore is our next observer, and in his Journal, written in 1730, he refers to the Jollofs as follows: "On the north side of the Gambia, and from thence inland, are a people called Jollofs, whose country is vastly large and extends even to the river Senegal. These people are much blacker and much handsomer than the Mundingoes, for they have not the broad noses and thick lips peculiar to the Mundingoes and Floops. In short, all the countries hereabout (and I have seen vast numbers of people from each) cannot come up to the Jollofs for blackness of skin and beauty of features."

A sketch of their mode of constitutional government from Le Maire, who visited Senegambia in 1682,* will complete the picture of the Jollof nation, and by the marked difference between their methods and those of their neighbours still further strengthen the views of the present writer, that they are the offshoot of a nation in which a form of civilized government had existed for centuries.

"The Jollofs towards the Sanaga have a sort of nobility, and gentry, whom they call Sahibobos, as they do the grandees and princes of the blood, Tenhalas; these are, as it were, the seminary of their kings, who are chosen from among them, but never under thirty years of age. . . The Damel (their title for king) has under him several ministers of state who assist him in the government and exercise of justice.

"Kondi, who is a tributary sovereign, is like the

* *Vide* "Astley's Voyages."

SUN WORSHIPPERS

High Constable (in France), and has the general command of the King's Army.

"The Grand Jerafo (by Père Labat 'Jagaraf') is the chief justice through all the king's dominions, and goes his circuits from time to time to hear complaints and determine controversies. The king's Alzari (or treasurer) exercises the same employ as the Grand Jerafa, but with a more limited power, and has under him Alkadis (El Cadi of the east), or Alkaris of large towns and villages, much like lords in France."

Astley adds a note from Barbot, who says practically the same as Le Maire, and adds that several officers, both civil and military, have their subordinates in every part of the land; he also quotes Vasconcelas in admiration of their system of both administrative and commutative justice and their impartiality in distributing rewards and inflicting punishments. He adds: "The antientest are preferred to be the prince's counsellors, who keep always about his person; and the men of most judgment and experience are the judges, fitting everywhere in Oyer and Terminer" (Astley's Voyages).

But an earlier race, of which traces still exist on the banks of the Gambia, appear to have been Sun-worshippers.

This statement is made on the evidence of their mode of burial, which, more or less, is akin to that of the Numidians, who, according to Leo Africanus, worshipped the planets. He says that "in old times they worshipped certain planets, and sacrificed to them; and were like to the Persians (probably meaning Zoroastrians) in worship of the Sunne, and the Fire, to both of which they built temples, and, like the Vestals in Rome, kept the fire continually burning." In Grant Allen's "Evolution of God," it is suggested that the origin of temples were the emblems of Phallic worship at the head of an ancestor's grave, and from that the idea of consecrated

THE GAMBIA

ground ensued, which was marked out with more stones and ultimately roofed in as a temple.

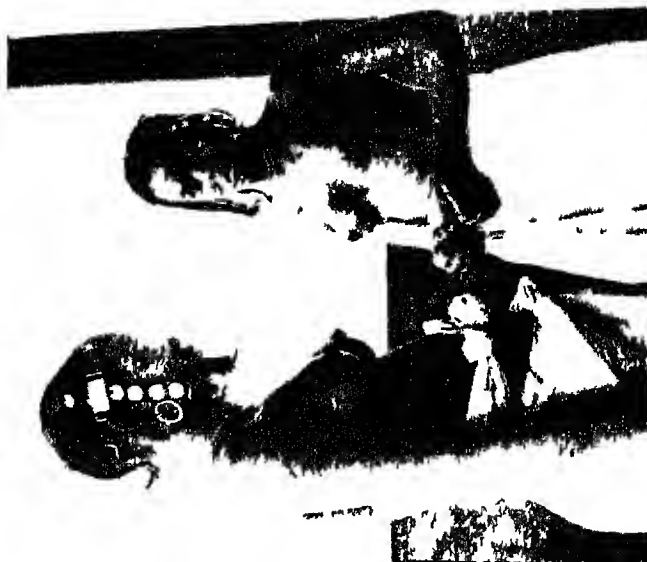
In the centre of a circle which is marked out by nine monoliths, of equal diameter and height, forming a regular nonagon, the grave with only one body is found. There is no centre stone, but a straight line due east from the centre passes midway between two stones, and being produced, passes through (a) a similar stone to those forming the circle at a distance of 24 feet from the centre of the circle ; (b) a smaller stone at a further distance of 21 feet and 45 feet from the centre ; and (c) a stone of the normal size at 40 feet further, and at 90 feet from the centre of the circle.

All the stones in the circle are 4 feet in height above the ground, and are 3 feet in diameter ; the two leaders east at 24 and 90 feet respectively are 5 feet high and 3 feet in diameter ; and the small intermediate leader 1 foot 6 inches in diameter, and broken off about 2 feet above the ground. The top of this stone was afterwards found, and completed the height to 3 feet 6 inches above the ground.

All the stones are bedded about 2 feet in the ground, giving a total length of 6 to 7 feet. They are cylindrical, with a smooth surface and a flat top in the circle, while those on the eastward line are rounded and conical on the top. They are composed of a rock which may be classed as pisolitic iron ore, in which water-worn and rounded grains of brown hæmatite, or limonite, are knitted into a mass by silicious and aluminous matter stained by oxide of iron, thus producing a regular colour of dark brown in the mass, but a mottled texture where fractured. This particular formation of rock does not exist within many miles of the site of some of the graves, but is found on the plateau-shaped top of some of the cliffs farther up the river. The stones forming the monument are weathered, but, owing to their resistance,



THE HUNTERS (SERAKOLIS)



SERAKOLI WOULD'N

EVIDENCE OF ANCIENT GRAVES

are not much weather worn, the lapse of ages having tended to complete the work of man by polishing the surface of the stone. All, excepting two which have been broken in the circle, maintain their flat circular top, while the outlying stones are also intact in shape, excepting the small broken one. The approximate weight of one of the monolith, is four tons, and although, if dressed round in the quarry, they could be rolled to the site of erection, it will be gathered from the data given that these monuments to the dead were not quarried, worked and transported to their present site without a considerable amount of labour and toil, as in some cases they are five to seven miles from the river.

The people of the country forbid, as a rule, the excavation of the grave, but, nevertheless, one grave was examined some years ago, and the skeleton exhumed, together with some broken pottery and iron spear-heads, arrow-heads, and other implements of early warfare amongst human races.

The iron implements of war would perhaps point to a comparatively recent period in the progress of the human race ; but it is difficult to say how early in history the art of smelting ore and manufacturing weapons and tools became known in Senegambia. It may have been introduced by the Carthaginian colonies which Hanno established on the West Coast, for the Carthaginians, according to Pliny, were miners, smelters and iron-workers from the mines of Elba, as well as from those of Castile and Arrogan. Later came the invasion of the Songhois, about A.D. 1000, when the pressure of the Mohammedan invasion drove them west from Jenne, and in this connection it should be noted that their neighbours the Mandingos were then workers of iron and gold.

Our earliest recorder of the arts and industries of Senegambia is again Cada Mosto, who, in 1455, found the Jollofs using "Asagays," or light darts tipped with

THE GAMBIA

iron, also swords bent like a bow and made with iron (without any steel) "brought from the kingdom of Gambia by the negroes, who thereof make their arms."

From whatever source the art of working iron was drawn, all the races now inhabiting the valley disclaim the graves as those of their ancestors, and refer to their builders as the "Old People," that is to say, the ancients, about whom they know nothing. They, however, treat the graves and monuments with great respect, or even reverence, which accounts for their preservation in their farms and near their towns.

De Brue gives an account of the burial ceremonies among the Jollofs in 1714. Where the deceased is a big chief, he is buried in his own house, but if of lower rank he is buried near the village in a grave, and covered over with earth and stones to keep the body from disturbance by wild beasts; the weapons of the deceased are fixed upon a pole at the head of the grave, with a calabash of couscous and a pot of water.

As far as De Brue's account goes, there is no effort in the direction of permanent marking as in the case of the ancient graves described above.

Phœnicians, Carthaginians or Numidians, the builders of these monuments spared neither time nor labour in permanently marking the last camp of their ancestors on earth, but I have been unable to find records of a similar method of doing so amongst the voluminous literature of Northern Africa. And yet "tombs," with the methods of disposing of the dead, or marking the graves, form most valuable evidence in tracing the descent of tribes. For as primitive peoples carry their gods with them, and retain their forms of worship in a foreign land, so also do they maintain their customs of reverential treatment of their dead.

In order to show the contrast between the Jollofs and the undoubted primitive races in the Valley of the Gambia, the Floops, Banyons, Bumbrongs, Paskaris inhabiting

CIVILIZING INFLUENCE OF EUROPEANS

the southern bank from the sea-coast for about one hundred miles inland will be dealt with before the races that lie east of the Jollofs on the north bank.

The best authority on the subject is De Brue, who appears to have been the only observant explorer of the inland races on the south bank up to the end of the seventeenth century.

In 1700 he made the journey from Albreda to Cacheo overland in order to open up more trade from the southward for the French factories on the Vintang Creek. In crossing the Gambia he was entertained by the English Governor at Fort James, who sent an officer, well acquainted with the country and the languages of the natives, to accompany him on his travels, and also presented him with beer, hams, tongues, and English cheese for his provisions.

His first stop was at Vintang, where he rested four days. Labat records De Brue's observations: "The natives of these parts are called Flups, and have a particular dialect. They are Pagans without any fixed worship, acknowledging their deities only so far as they think proper. Those within land are very savage, and often cruel to the negroes who travel through their country, unless they have Europeans in company. Those near Bintam and other places are more civilized, love strangers, are honest in their dealings, and as they are void of deceit themselves, do not love to be imposed upon." The Emperor of Fogni, as De Brue styled the paramount chief, was absent helping the King of Combo to repress a revolt among his rebellious subjects.

Referring to those about the English and French settlements, he adds: "These are the most civilized. Those who live near the mouth of the river Kazamanza are very wild and barbarous people, and do great mischief to the Europeans that fall in their way, as both the English and French have experienced."

THE GAMBIA

Astley quotes another author who is anonymous :

“ The Flups possess from the south point of the mouth of the Gambia all the coasts as far down as the village Bulol, at the entrance of the river San Domingo, on the south side.

“ Those who inhabit the mouth of the river Zamanee, (the Kazamansa) on the north side (the country towards the Gambia), are extremely savage, with whom no nation have any commerce. Every one has his own god, according to his particular fancy ; one worships a bullock's horn ; another a beast, or a tree, to whom they sacrifice in their manner.

“ Their dress is like the negroes of Cape de Verde and the inhabitants of the river Gambia, which consists in a piece of cotton cloth, striped according to the custom of the country, which barely covers their privities. They have no succession of kings, the most absolute and powerful amongst them bearing sway. They cultivate their land in pretty good order, which they sow with millet and rice. Their riches consist of bullocks, cows, and goats, of which many of them have great droves. Their villages are well peopled, distant from each other about a quarter of a league.”

Then we have Moore's account of the Floops in 1730 :

“ On the south side of the river, over against James Fort in the Empire of Fonia, and but a little way inland, are a sort of people called Floops, who are in a manner wild ; they border close to the Mundingoes, and are bitter enemies to each other. Their country is of vast extent, but they have no king among them, each of their towns being fortified with sticks drove all round, and filled with clay ; they are independent of each other, and under the government of no one chief ; notwithstanding which, they combine so firmly that all the force of the Mundingoes (though so very numerous) cannot get the better of them.”

FLOOP DRESS AND CUSTOMS

Moore then gives the account of the attack on one of the company's sloops that had grounded, which emphasizes the warlike nature of the Floops, and adds: "These Floops have the character never to forgive or let the least injury go unrevenged; but then to make amends the least good office done to them is always repaid by them with a grateful acknowledgment."

The next available authority on the Floops is Golberry, who says, in 1802:

"The Felupp negroes, who occupy a country twenty-five leagues long by fifteen leagues wide, on the banks of the Cazamance, and on the upper part of the river Vintam, retain all the rudeness of savage life, in which they delight to live and remain, without, however, being of a ferocious character. The country they inhabit is well covered, and very fertile: they rear cattle, which they defend with great courage against lions, leopards and bears, which are common in their forests.

"The Felupps go almost naked; they wear only a little apron passed between the thighs, and which serves but to conceal what modesty does not permit them to disclose; they bind the upper arms, wrists, upper parts of thighs, above the knees, and the upper and lower parts of the legs, with leather laces, so that the intervals between the parts of their limbs thus bound are much larger than in the natural state.

"They cicatrise their face and body, and engrave on them all sorts of irregular and ludicrous figures.

"These negroes have very woolly and curled hair, but longer than that of negroes in general. They collect it on top of their head, and over their forehead, where they form it into a sort of queue, or aigrette, which stands erect to the height of five to six inches; they let their beard grow, which they also collect and tie, so that it forms a point projecting several inches from the chin.

"They cover themselves with Gri-gris (charms); their

THE GAMBIA

colour is a deep black ; their skin is rough, their features tolerably regular, and resemble those of the blacks of India rather than that of the negroes.*

“ The Felupps are small and chubby, but strong and active; their physiognomy is downcast, and they are reserved. They have but little communication with their neighbours, and they are very jealous of their women, who nevertheless are not pretty.

“ Their arms were bows and poisoned arrows, with four or five lances held in the same hand as the bow, while their arrows were swung in two quivers over their back, one at each shoulder, by which one would conclude that they were ambidextrous.”

Golberry concludes his sketch by saying :

“ Although they are savage, melancholy, and not very communicative, their neighbours do not complain of them, and the Felupps pass for good people ; they are, however, warlike, and when offended, they avenge themselves with ferocity.

“ It would be curious to inquire into the origin of this horde, whose characteristic features, forms, manners and customs differ considerably from those of the nations by which they are surrounded.”

Therefore, taking Cada Mosto's observations of the Jollofs and Tawny-Moors, and Golberry's of the Floops, we may justly conclude that the great rivers of Senegal and Gambia constituted marked ethnic divisions.

To these authorities, and before leaving the coastal tribes, the author may add his own observations during the last decade of the nineteenth century and the first of the present.

The direct descendants of the Floops of former chroniclers still exist in a nation called by us the Jolahs.

* The author is now comparing them with the Mandingos, and gives an illustration of the difference in stature and dress, so that by “ negroes ” he means Mandingos.



A MANDINGO HUNTER



SERAKOLI BRIDE.

THE JOLAHS

The Banyons, a branch of the Floops occupying Combo and the island of St. Mary, are less distinct, although still traceable by their habits and customs among the many races living in Combo.

Since the establishment of the capital of Bathurst, Combo has been a refuge for the unfortunate, who fled from intertribal wars to the protection of what was known as British Combo, the territory around Cape and Fort St. Mary, which was annexed in 1827 and purchased from the native chiefs in 1840.

Besides the people that voluntarily placed themselves under the protection of the fort and flag, political prisoners from down the coast, as well as from the interior, were interned at Bakau, the native town, under the guns of Fort St. Mary, while to add to the confusion of tongues, liberated slaves and time-expired soldiers from the West Indian regiments were given plots of land on which to build their houses and grow their food. Amongst all these aliens to the soil the Banyons still exist in small communities, and are mostly employed in the collection of palm oil, palm wine, and kernels, with other forest products. The Jolahs, however, are still a distinct people occupying the same territory as in the time of the Portuguese, still known as Fogni. They are comparatively short in stature, plump and well formed, with pleasant dreamy faces, round heads, with the tuft of hair like a Red Indian's scalp lock still in evidence. They still despise clothing to a degree, even in the streets of Bathurst, and wear ligatures round their limbs and bodies.

In their own country they retain the primitive form of communal government, each patriarch with his relations, dependants, and slaves occupying a separate village, walled in and stockaded against his neighbour of the same race, distant perhaps a mile away.

For the purpose of national defence, however, they combine readily, and are formidable against aggression.

THE GAMBIA

Protected by their forests and swamps they have survived the successive waves of intrusion by the Mandingos, excepting on the banks of the Gambia, and along a certain watered route through their country by which the Mandingos reached the coast at Gunjour by the valley of the Allahi River.

Their kinsmen, the Pakaris or Patcharis, were not so fortunate, as their country at the headwaters of the Vintang and the Casamance lies on the edge of the country of Fuladugu, through which the great trek mentioned above, of the Fulah people from Fouta, passed on its way from river to river, wherever their immense herds could find food and water.

The burial of the dead among the Jolahs of to-day is unlike that of the Jollofs described above. The funeral ceremony resembles an Irish wake, with palm wine supplying the place of whisky.

The corpse is swathed in bandy cloths like a mummy, and tied up in a sitting position on a stool, or chair, in front of his former house facing the doorway. If a chief, he is exposed in the same manner on the Bantaba, and the wake takes place around it. The women do the "keening," begging the departed to come back: "Why do you leave your house?" Chorus of women: "Ayai, yai, ayai." "Why do you leave your gun?" Chorus: "Aiyai, aiyai, ayai," and so on, enumerating all the deceased's worldly goods, including his wives and female relations, who sit, actually in sackcloth and ashes, round the door of the hut.

To the onlooker the last question seems unnecessary, but they were probably more ornamental when their man was alive, and moreover always useful.

Meanwhile, the men are steadily getting drunk on fermented palm wine, and eventually the scene is closed by the entrance of the gravediggers with the news that their work is done, whereupon the deceased is placed on a

A NATIVE FUNERAL

sort of litter and borne to the edge of the clearing by the men ; the women following afar off, and remaining at some little distance.

The grave is peculiar in shape, being delved out of the solid earth in the form of a child's cradle with the hood up.

That is, the half of the grave is sunk to a depth of about four or five feet, say three feet square, the remainder of the necessary length being scooped out of the solid in a cave, about two feet high from the floor of the grave. The head of the corpse is inserted in the cave, the body and limbs fill the remainder, and the grave is filled in and stamped down by the men in succession, who fire their guns in the air at the same time.

The Jolabs believe in a spiritual existence, a sort of "happy hunting-ground." Inquiry elicited that the form of the grave was intended to prevent the deceased from rising in the body. The chief elect answered my inquiry by saying : "When a man is dead he must stay dead ; if he comes back to the town it makes trouble." As the relations were even then busy dividing the estate there was reason in the answer. The grave is always near the forest, generally with palms handy so that the spirit may get palm wine when desired. The vertical firing is intended to announce a new arrival in the land of spirits. Returning from the grave the women fell in behind the chief elect, as belonging to his household for the future. The confirmation of his chieftom by the elders, however, would not take place for some months, during which he was on probation. This had a marked effect in the distribution of the estate of the deceased, of which he retained nothing but the gun. Bribery in view of election time is thus much older than what we term civilization.

They put nothing in or on the grave for use in another

THE GAMBIA

world, perhaps because his spirit is supposed to visit them occasionally in the house, where it can help itself. The swathing and cave-like form of grave seem to be a combination of embalming and burial similar to the observances in use in the Canary Islands in the fifteenth century.

CHAPTER V

The Origin of the "Poulli" or Hybrid Fulahs, in the Middle Valley—The People of Wuli and Kantora—The Mandingos.

THE Jollofs and the Floops have been dealt with at length, because they appear to be distinct races as compared with the mixed peoples that occupy the middle valley, consisting, as described above, of races from the south, chiefly Fulahs, or their kindred tribes from Fouta Jallon. M. Guebhard says in his "*Revue des études Ethnographiques et Sociologiques*": "At the commencement of the historic period there existed in Fouta two races living side by side without fusion, each preserving their characteristics sharply defined.

"The first of these races is that of the Jallonkes of Mandingo origin, of which one of the principal tribes, that of the Sousous, is known by the part it has played in the history of the valley of the Niger. The second is less known to history, and there still remain doubts on its origin which, up to date, have not been cleared up definitely. This race should be included in the Fulah division, and was composed of people known by the name 'Poulli.'

"The Sousous appear to have been in Fouta before the Poulli, but there is no conclusive evidence on this point, and it is possible that they may have come there together. The Sousous were driven out of Jenne at the beginning of the fourteenth century, so that their arrival in Fouta would be somewhere about this date.

"During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries

THE GAMBIA

Fouta, where the Fulahs and Sousous were living peacefully, was invaded gradually by a rising tide of immigrants of different nationalities, races and religions.

"Fouta was then a veritable antheap; from this period probably dates the deforestation of the plateau under the combined efforts of the farmers and the depredations of the flocks and herds. Then took place the exodus of an important fraction of the Fulahs, whose immense herds could no longer find pasture in a country so densely populated without leading to continual friction with the farmers whose fields were ravaged.

"Thus it was that the tribe of the Denianke under the lead of its chief, Koly Teneela, left Fouta and travelled by the free road to the north, towards the Senegal in quest of pasturage and peace."

This "Free Road" lay across the middle valley of the Gambia, and as the same writer observes it was a slow process, tending to assimilate the tribes in the valley with themselves, or their followers. Although a certain section of the great Fulah race never intermarry with other tribes, this branch had, in its wanderings from the Niger Valley to Fouta Jallon, already acquired a certain amount of "Metissage" by the time their rear guard arrived in Fouta.

Arriving at the Gambia, they apparently left the races living on the salt water undisturbed, requiring fresh water for their immense herds of cattle, but they spread from the headwaters of the Casamance and Vintang Rivers, through the country now called Fuladugu, to Kantora, probably without much fighting, as the south banks of the Gambia with its indigenous tribes were then more or less under the domination of the Mandingos, with whom they had no quarrel, but even some affinity.

From time immemorial the Mandingos and the pure Fulahs have lived in amity, the former doing the fighting



JOLLOF BOY AND WOMAN



"GRIOTS"

MIGRATIONS OF TRIBES

and the latter cultivating and rearing cattle under their protection.

So the mid valley, without marked tribal boundaries, is peopled by a mixture of races consisting of the Patcharis, the eastern Floops who were indigenous; the Mandingos, who have gradually colonized the greater part of the south bank and large stretches of the north bank; and a mixed Fulah race from Fouta Jallon, who might be called semi-nomads, as distinct from the pure Fulah, who is a nomad pure and simple. Francis Moore has given us a valuable map of the Gambia, in which, neglecting the many other names by which a small town is known to the natives, he calls it Pholeycunda (Fulah town), Moracunda (or Moru Kunda, Mandingo town, practically, but meaning Mohammedan town), which serves to illustrate the mixed population of this part of the valley in his time, 1730-35. These towns are scattered all over the mid valley indiscriminately, while the Bruku Rocks is called "Pholey's Pass," possibly due to the occupation or the crossing of a branch of the migrating Fulah races. The migration passed the Gambia and reached Bondou by way of Niani and Wuli, both peopled by kindred tribes, and passing through the intermediate territories spread along the south bank of the Senegal, where the migratory race met the semi-Arab races which occupied the north bank of that river. They seem also to have crossed the Senegal and to have fraternized with the Tawny-Moors, having much in common with them, as one of the old maps marks a margin of that river on the north bank as peopled by Fulahs, and their headquarters, Fouta Toro, is on the north bank. Astley says in his Chapter XI., Book II., vol. ii., on the "Fuli inhabiting along the Gambra," quoting Jobson and Francis Moore, "these Gambra Fuli are of a tawny colour with long black hair, not near so much frizzled as that of the negroes" (the hair of the pure Fulah is straight).

THE GAMBIA

“The women are straight and excellently well shaped, have very good features, and dress their hair very neatly, but wear the same habit as blacks do.”

The women dress their hair somewhat in the shape of a fireman's helmet, a thick plait representing the rib on top, which is finished off with a large piece of amber or imitation thereof. They are said to commence quite young to train it into this form, adding to it as the hair gets longer, but never taking it down. It is, however, plenteously dressed with cow grease, which prevents the undue increase of vermin, and, moreover, they generally wear a wooden comb with long teeth, with which to pursue the pleasures of the chase in the forest of hair during their leisure moments. The men are not as handsome as the women, and lead a toilsome life compared with that of the men of other native races, with whom, in sharp distinction, the women and slaves do the laborious work. They practically live amongst their cattle, watching day and night. Moore expresses a sort of admiration of the Fulahs. According to him they are much like the Arabs, whose language is taught in their schools. “They are generally more skilled in Arabic than the Europeans in Latin, for most of them speak it, though they have a vulgar tongue of their own called Fuli.”

Moore is here speaking of the pure race of Fulahs, the wandering Shepherd Kings of West Africa, and the descendants of the Hyskos or Shepherd Kings of Egypt, according to E. D. Morel, who gives the result of an immense amount of research on the subject in his valuable work “Affairs in West Africa.”

In the “Living Races of Mankind” the authors go even farther for the origin of the Fulah race, so much do they resemble Arabian or Asiatic races of even farther east than Egypt. They are inclined to regard the origin of the Fulahs as connected with that of the Malay races, and if we accept the theory that the cradle of

EASTERN ORIGIN OF THE FULAHS

mankind was in the steppes of Asia, there is nothing far-fetched in the derivation excepting the distance, which is convertible into terms of time. It is added that some of the arts and domestic manufactures of the Fulahs are akin to those of the Malayans.

There is nothing antagonistic in the combination of the two theories, and, moreover, it adds a much greater interest to these wanderers over the earth's circumference.

According to Morel, the Hyskos, or Shepherd Kings, were driven out of Lower Egypt about sixteen centuries before the Christian era, after having enjoyed an inter-regnum of the ancient Theban dynasty for over five hundred years. By that time, with successive emigrations from the east, they were a powerful and numerous people, and after their defeat were probably scattered south, east and west, the latter contingent wandering along the northern limits of the desert until they reached the Atlantic, and the valleys of the Niger, Senegal and Gambia.

Whatever their origin it is extremely ancient, and the pure race is the most interesting one in Senegambia. Their name means "Red" as contrasted with white and black, and with their oval faces when young, chiselled features of the aquiline type, straight hair, thin and delicate lips, they form a complete contrast to either European or African races.

The type is also persistent through the hybrids, such as the Tukulors, Serawulis, and others, giving a marked refinement to the features of those and forming a sharply defined departure from the round head, with crisp woolly hair, flat face, and thick lips of the pure Negroid races with whom they have mixed.

The Tukulors, or Tucuroles of old, are a mixture of Fulah, Jollof and Mandingo blood, and were a powerful factor in the ancient kingdom of Melli above referred to. They, however, do not belong to the valley of the Gambia.

THE GAMBIA

The Serakolis or Serawulis are the northern branch of the Mandingos, mixed with Tuaregs originally, and afterwards with Fulah, when their kingdom was crossed by the great trek from Fouta Jallon.

So much has been written of the mysterious Fulah race by abler pens, that it is hardly necessary to say any more than that they are still existent in the valley of the Gambia, wandering through the country irrespective of tribal boundaries, living with their flocks and herds, building a small town of grass huts here and there, and remaining under the protection of the chief of the country just so long as they are fairly treated and the pasture is good. When justice or grass fails, they move on to the jurisdiction and pastures of another territory.

On the track of the great Fulah trek, which covered about one hundred miles of the river east and west, crossing the territories of the present kingdom of Fuladugu on the south bank and Upper Niani on the north bank, the kingdom of Wuli appears to have survived from ancient days, although it lies on the road to Bondou and thence to Fouta Toro, the ultimate conquest of the Fouta people. Possibly, however, owing to the strong dash of the Mandingo in the people of Wuli, who are called by some Serawulis, or Serakolis, indifferently, the travellers were welcomed in coming and sped in parting, leaving, however, behind them some of their cattle and the inevitable traces of their passage, in the further mixing of the already confused strain mentioned above. That is to say—in addition to the mixture of the original peoples of that part of the ancient kingdom of Melli (from which Wuli probably gets its name), by the Mandingos in the eleventh, and the Portuguese in the fifteenth centuries—fresh elements were brought in by the Fulahs from Fouta Jallon; with their already mixed descent, both in their country of latest settlement and from the people they had passed through on their slow journey, which,

MOHAMMEDANISM IN WULI AND KANTORA

according to M. Guebhard, might have extended over a century from the start of the advance guard to the arrival of the rear guard in the country on the Senegal they renamed Fouta Toro.

The same may be said of the ancient kingdom of Kantora on the south bank opposite to Wuli, and, in fact, the only pure races remaining in the Upper Gambia, from an ethnical point of view, are the Bassaris and Kunyadis, mentioned before as occupying the country between the Grey River and the Gambia, well to the eastward of the Fulah emigrants.

There is little to be added about the people of these two ancient kingdoms, Wuli and Kantora, excepting to say that, like all hybrids, they hardly conform to any rule that could apply to even a majority of the populations.

Professing Mohammedans, they observe just so much of the teaching of their Marabouts as pleases them individually, although extremely sensitive under criticism, and great professors of sanctity. They attend the Mosques more or less regularly, wear the robes with much dignity, go through the exercises and genuflexions morning and evening, especially in public, but deny themselves few of the material pleasures in eating, drinking or smoking.

Amongst them, however, are the pure Fulahs, Mandingos, and offshoots of the desert races from the north, who are strict observers, even to fanaticism, of the Mohammedan laws, but these are, as a rule, the Almamis or priests of the religion, who are professional, and their followers, who by strict observance hope to be some day the Almamy of their town or village. As to their other customs, they are as mixed as their race and their religious convictions; and yet they possess that great gift of tolerance which was formerly denied to more civilized races, and eat, drink, sleep, and play together as if they were all of one family and of one belief.

THE GAMBIA

The last important race, from both the historical and ethnical points of view, that we have to deal with in the valley of the Gambia is the Mandingo race, originally occupying the northern slopes of the Fouta Jallon Plateau, the saddle between the valleys of the Niger on the east, and those of the Gambia and Senegal on the west. The actual country of Mading or Mandi is in the Niger Valley, and includes the mines of Bouri, from which the greater part of the gold that made Timbuctoo famous is said to have come, but the nation has spread over all the trade routes leading from the Niger to the Atlantic from south through west to north.

Some authorities give the Mandingos an origin from the south, and class them as partly of the Bantu stock grafted upon the negro; others trace their descent from the negro mixed with the Moors or Arabs on the southern limits of the Sahara.

I fear there are no records to prove either of these points, so that the racial question (if they are not the primitive inhabitants, with of course a mixture since the Songhois commenced to make history and record it in the valley of the Niger) must remain unsolved. In this connection, however, it should be noted that the pure Mandingo is totally different to any of the races described above. He is tall at times to excess, with long arms and legs frequently bowed, lean, active, intelligent, brave, clever in trading and as an artisan, and owing to these factors which make him a leader of others, his race has become dominant among the tribes of North-West Africa by the process of evolution throughout past centuries.

The marked features in the Mandingos are the low brow, long head (dolico-cephalous), and prognathous jaws. Their noses are flat and broad at the nostrils, but finer on the bridge. Jannequin attributes the flatness to the method of carrying the children and suckling them on the mother's back; which may also account for the bowed



MADINGO WOMEN



JOLLOF MEN

THE MANDINGOS

legs, as the swathing is tight and severe. Moore ascribes the flat nose to the fancy of the mother in compressing it to the desired shape. However, when taken with the thick lips and prominent teeth one is inclined to regard the head as a whole, typical of the nature of the man. The eyes also are longer and narrower than those of the pure negro, while without being set obliquely, when taken with the high cheek-bones, they give the impression of the extreme antiquity in a Mongolian type of face.

These attributes are even more marked in the chiefs of high descent, the Fodis, in whom one may suggest that the original stock is less mixed than in the mass of the nation.

The Mandingo has figured largely in the other sections of this work, and it only remains now to record the observations of others.

Mandi Mansa (King of Mandi) made an immediate alliance with the Portuguese under Pedro Vaz in the fifteenth century, while Temela, the king of the country lower down the valley, probably an ancestor of the Temela who led the great trek, gathered his immense army together to drive the Portuguese into the sea. Cada Mosto on his second voyage to the Gambia, in 1451, was taken to the town of Batti Mansa (Chief of Batti), a Mandingo by his name and tributary to the Emperor of Melli, and one of the many inferior lords on the banks of the Gambia. The Empire of Melli was not broken until in 1500-13, so that the Mandingos had already commenced their penetration of the valley of the Gambia, peaceful or otherwise, under that empire, and as the north bank to the Senegal was colonized by the Songhois, they were probably confined to the south bank until Jenne fell, and the centre of power moved to Timbuctoo, of which empire they were allies, for a time, and co-religionists.

Moore, in 1730, is our next observer of the Mandingo

THE GAMBIA

race in the valley, as Jobson, who preceded him in 1620, is inclined to regard the people of the valley as one race, although divided into several kingdoms.

He, however, visited on his voyage up the river six of the petty kings, who were all called "Mansa," so that the Mandingo occupation appears to have been more or less complete in his time.

Moore, however, deals at length with their manners, customs, amusements, weapons, dress, fondness for dancing and music, strict observance of the Koran and its laws, abstinence from wine or brandy, and altogether bears out the opinion that most travellers have formed as to their superiority as a nation over the other races of Senegambia.

In Moore's time the Mandingos had crossed the river to the north bank, and had established themselves at Barra on the mouth of the river, Baddibu the next kingdom, and Sangalli, which latter does not appear on his map, but is probably Shangalli in Upper Niana, near Misera, the present capital. These, however, were all tributary to Barsally, as Moore calls Ba Saloum, the immense empire of the Jollofs, extending from the ocean to Wuli in the fifteenth century. He goes on to say that farther inland also the Mandingos had established themselves at upper Niani, which bounds with Wuli, a kindred nation as detailed above. These Mandingo settlements or colonies still exist, and although there is no more intertribal war in the valley of the Gambia, the Mandingo was still the dominant race when we undertook the penetration of the hinterland. It was with the Mandingos that we had the little wars that marked the end of last century.

A clever race, they marched with the times, but instead of turning their scimitars into the traditional ploughshares they remained the leaders of commerce as of yore, the middlemen in barter of all sorts of products

ORIGINAL TRIBES

of the country, slaves, ivory, and gold, from the great bend of the Niger to the sea, and the chief traders in the European goods that arrived in the river.

They thus became the wealthy class, while their hereditary chiefs were able in their riches to maintain standing armies of Tukulors, Turankos, and other truculent races who are the mercenaries of North-West Africa, and by means of these to retain their power over the more peaceful tribes and become the arbiters of war and peace in the valley.

The Mandingos therefore established the first protectorate over the valley of the Gambia, and it was with this race chiefly that the English and French had to fight in their "peaceful penetration" of the valleys of the Gambia and Senegal.

Although the tribal, or more properly speaking, the ethnic boundaries have now disappeared in a great measure, there is little difficulty in determining the original race or even the combination of two after a certain amount of experience. The type persists of the Jollof, Floop, and the wandering Fulah, as they seldom intermarried with other tribes; the distinction is marked of all three as against the Mandingos and their kindred tribes of Serreres, Bambarras, Tukulors and Turankos, Serakolis, and the mixture of races consequent on the displacement of tribes when the Fulahs of Fouta, with their own mixture of Sousous and other indigenous races, took the great trek north to Fouta Toro.

PART III

NATURAL HISTORY
BIRDS, BEASTS, AND FISHES

CHAPTER I

Introduction—Notes of former Authors—Le Maire—Barbot—Moore—Labat.

IN writing about the natural history of the Gambia, it may be stated that the information applies more or less also to the neighbouring parts of Senegal and Casamance, that is to say, the stretch of country which lies between the Foundiougne River on the north and the Casamance on the south, and extends inland some three hundred miles from the Atlantic to the foothills of the Fouta Jallon Mountains.

The authorities on the ornithology of this region are naturally mainly French, and among these we must mention Rochebrune's "*Faune de la Senegambie*" (published about 1886), of which Volume II. deals with the birds of this part of Africa, and a more recent smaller work on the "*Mammals and Birds of the Casamance*," etc., by one of the French Colonial Medical Officers, Dr. Maclaud, which was published by the Government of French West Africa in 1906.

In English, apart from general works on African ornithology, of which the most recent is the magnificent, but unfortunately unfinished, "*Birds of Africa*," by the late Captain G. E. Shelley, Gambian Natural History has but little literature. A list of the birds of this colony appeared as an Appendix to Moloney's "*Forestry of West Africa*" (1887), and two papers dealing specially with Gambian birds have been published in the *Ibis*, the first in 1892 by Rendall, mainly on the birds of Bathurst and its neighbourhood, the second by the late

THE GAMBIA

John Samuel Budgett (1901), on a collection of birds made during an expedition to study the fishes of this river. During the last two years also, a series of field and other notes on Gambian birds have been appearing in *Bird Notes*, the Journal of the Foreign Bird Club, from the pen of Dr. Hopkinson, who has been for the last ten years the Medical Officer of our Protectorate, and to whom I am indebted for the chapter on birds which follows.

So much for the more recent work in this line, but there were other much earlier observers and writers on the Natural History of the Senegambia, and it may be of interest to give a list compiled from "Astley's Voyages" of the observations of Le Maire, Barbot, Francis Moore, and other travellers in this part of Africa during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Some of the specimens are illustrated, but owing to the fact that the artist was dependent upon description alone in most cases, it cannot be said that they are much like the same birds as drawn or photographed in later days.

Père Labat's illustrated specimens are more weird than those of the authors above mentioned, but probably they should be regarded, like some of his letterpress, as drawn deeply from imagination.

Astley commences his list with the Pelican, or Grand Gofier (Great Throat), but remarks that others already described in other chapters are the Flamingo, Ostrich, Spatula Bird (Spoon Bill), "Monoceros," and others.

There are four sorts of Eagles: First, the Cquolantja, which perches upon the highest trees and "feeds upon apes"; second, the Cquolantja Klow, which frequents ponds and marshes, feeding on fish; third, the Simbi, which feeds upon birds; and fourth, the Poy, which preys upon crabs and shellfish.

There are also Hawks as large as Jerfalcons, a kind of small bastard Eagle, and several sorts of Kites and Buzzards.

LE MAIRE'S LIST OF BIRDS

Then there is the Flying Ostrich, which is almost certainly a Bustard, our "Bush Turkey," and the Peigne, or Comb Bird, our Marabout Bird from the description of the fan-like tail and other attributes.

Le Maire says the Wild Geese are very good (Spur-wing Geese), but that the Teal excel all other fowls, and that the Grey Teal are the best for eating.

The Partridges perch on trees, and the Guinea-fowl, which he calls "Pintades Hens," do likewise.

There are two sorts of Parrots, one small and green all over, and the others larger with grey heads, yellow bellies, green wings, and a mixture of grey and yellow on their backs. The larger ones never talk, but the small ones learn easily.

Then there are the Dwarf Herons (Egrets), which have long, round, hairy feathers on their backs, much prized by the Turks and Persians for ornaments to their turbans.

The Cormorants and Vultures are said to be like those of Europe. Of the latter some are as large as Eagles, and will devour little children, while the Nunhead, or Nun-Bird, is white and black, with a white tufted head, and feeds upon fish. (Our Fish Eagle, common in the river-side.)

Then comes a bastard Eagle about the size of a Cock, called by the French, Ecouttes, or Kites, brown with some black feathers in their wings, big talons, hooked beak, sharp eyes, and shrill cry.

The description of the *birds of prey* closes rather inconsequently with "But Nightingales here do not warble so sweet as in Europe."

The Crown Crane, one of our most graceful birds, is called the Damzel, or Damosel of Numidia, also African or Guinea Peacock, and by some, the Imperial Bird. The description is very fanciful, comparing his walk to that of a Demoiselle, while his gait, gestures and leaps have a great relation to the Bohemian manner, whatever

THE GAMBIA

that may be, and they never fail when looked at to fall a-dancing and singing.

The Trumpet Bird has two beaks, one on the other, which assists in making the sound from which they get their name; they are, however, also called the Monoceros, why, is not explained, but it appears to be in conflict somewhat with "a double beak or two bills." This must be the Ground Hornbill.

The Suck-Ox, or Sucboeuf, is a small white crane, called by us the Cow Bird, from his habits in attending upon the cattle in order to relieve them of Ticks. Labat, however, thinks they dig holes in the flesh, sucking out the blood, and would kill the beasts by their persecutions if the keepers did not drive them away.

Then there is the bird with four wings, Labat is easily first with this specimen, describing it correctly, but Jobson goes out of his way to describe the wings as pairs, and their position on the body. Moore also holds to four wings, but adds that as it only comes out at dusk it may be a bat, although the natives call it a bird. It is a Night Jar with a single feather on each wing abnormally extended, and carrying a plume on the end.

Its proper name is the "Pennant Winged Night-Jar," which will be described anon.

Labat also gives the Blue Bird, which must be one of the Rollers which are commonly called "Blue Jays" throughout West Africa.

The Ha-Ha Bird has a voice like a man, and is good to eat, while of small birds in all colours there are swarms.

The Kubalor Fisher-Bird, is our Kingfisher by his habits, but he is mixed up with the Palm Birds in describing his method of nesting. The other authorities confuse them also with birds such as Bee-eaters and Martins, which build in holes in the high bank of the river. However, all the ancient authorities observed the self-protection instinct of the Weavers and Palm Birds in building

INACCURACY OF ANCIENT AUTHORS

their nests at the extreme end of a small twig over the river, where their natural enemies, the monkeys, are afraid to venture for fear of falling into the river.

The Screech Owls are supposed by the natives to be witches on their nightly prance, and if one appears near a village, all the guns are brought to bear upon it.

The Partridge (Bush-fowl), Rock-Partridges, and Guinea-fowl are fairly well described, probably because they often appeared on the table of the observers.

They also noted the Quails, Pigeons, a Stalker taller than a man, probably the Saddle-billed Stork, and one small bird that had no legs, "but two strings like the Bird of Arabia, by which he hangs as it were motionless, with his head downwards, "and is, in colour, so like a dead or withered leaf, that he can hardly be discovered."

The smaller yellow bats on the bank of the river fulfil this description admirably in the day-time.

Then to finish we have the Alcatrazi, or Mad Bird from Barbot, which is apparently the Trumpet Bird of Labat ; the African Swan from Froger, which is again the Stalker, or Stork, and others of which illustrations are given with a background of field and stream, castellated cliffs, and the ruins of Roman viaducts ; about as true to the scenery of the Gambia as are the descriptions of the Birds, Beasts and Fishes.

But although interesting as antiques, there is little scientific knowledge to be gained from these ancient authors, and their wondrous animals have been shorn of the miraculous by the science of later observers in the same field of West Africa.

CHAPTER II

The Birds of the Gambia. By Dr. Hopkinson, D.S.O., M.D., M.A.

It was with great pleasure, though with a certain amount of diffidence, that I acceded to Mr. Reeve's request for a chapter on the Birds of the Gambia, for I have always been interested in their study during the ten years I have been travelling about our Protectorate, but at the same time I am fully conscious of the sketchiness and general shortcomings of my account, though I hope that it will at least give some idea of the character of our Avifauna.

WEAVERS.—I commence with the Weavers, that large family of small seed-eating birds, which throughout the tropics of the Old World so largely take the place of the Finches, Sparrows, and similar species of colder climes.

This family consists of the Weavers, Whydahs and Waxbills, and those which inhabit the Gambia may roughly be divided into three groups according to their usual haunts.

(1) Those which frequent the native towns and seem everywhere to enjoy the society of man, namely, the Firefinches, Combassous, the black Textor Weavers, and some of the large yellow Weavers or "Palm Birds."

(2) Birds which are usually found on the cultivated or cleared ground round the towns, Whydahs and Weavers, when out of colour, Bronze and Magpie Mannikins, Cordon Bleus, and other Waxbills.

(3) Birds of the ricefields and long grass of the swamps, such as the Whydahs and Weavers when nesting and in

FINCHES

full plumage (particularly the Yellow-backed Whydahs and the Red and Black "Bishops"), some of the Waxbills, the Cutthroats and Silverbills, though the last-named are such shy and retiring little beings that I doubt whether I have ever seen one wild, although some are generally included in the cages of the native bird-catchers.

The breeding-season of all these birds extends throughout the rains, but the old nests of many species may be seen all the year round in reeds, bushes or trees, so well fixed that they can withstand the effects of the tornados which usher in and close our rainy season. In the winter all the Weavers lose their colours, but some of the Whydahs keep their full nuptial dress for a considerable time after the breeding season, and one often sees Combassous and Paradise Whydahs in colour as late as February or March, although by then some of the latter may have lost their long tail plumes. During the dry season all the Weavers gather in immense flocks and feed then almost entirely on millet and grass-seeds, though during the rest of the year insect food forms a considerable addition to their diet.

FINCHES.—Two Serins, the Green and the Grey "Singing Finches," are very numerous, especially the former, which is popularly known here as the "Canary," and is the only common cage pet one sees. Two Sparrows are also quite common, the first being the Grey-headed Sparrow (*Passer diffusus*), about the same size as the English Sparrow, but with red-brown wings and a grey head. The second is a Rock Sparrow (*Petronia dentata*). This is to be met with in flocks in many localities, particularly in the more sandy districts and near the sea. Its general colour is a mixture of different shades of drab, brown, and grey, with a small pale lemon throat-spot in the adult. A strikingly beautiful Finch is our Golden-breasted Bunting (*Emberiza affinis*), but it is distinctly

THE GAMBIA

rare. It is brown above, bright golden below, and has a black-and-white striped head. They are very local in their distribution, and when met with are found in pairs in the scrub near villages in company with Sparrows, Cordon Bleus and Combassous.

LARKS.—We have only one Lark in the Gambia, as far as I know, and this is the Senegal Crested Lark, which is very common, especially near Bathurst. It never soars, and has no song to speak of, and is found in pairs or small parties in dry sandy places along the seashore.

PIPITS.—Of these we have two common species, (1) a small brown bird, probably *Anthus Gouldi*, and (2) the larger Yellow-throated Pipit, or Long-claw (*Macronyx croceus*), a bird about the size of a Skylark, and marked like it on the back, but with the throat and breast in both sexes a brilliant yellow. The name "Longclaw" denotes the Lark-like character of the hind claws, and their rise is also Lark-like, though they do not soar high, but drop into cover again after being disturbed as soon as they attain a safe distance.

WAGTAILS.—These are plentiful everywhere, especially in the winter, the two commonest species being the White and the Grey-headed Yellow Wagtails (*M. alba* and *flava*), while the Grey (*M. melanocephala*) and the European Yellow Wagtail (*M. campestris*) are also occasional winter visitors.

ORIOLES.—A Golden Oriole (probably *Oriolus auratus*, or it may be *O. galbula*) is by no means uncommon. They increase in numbers towards the end of the dry season, and nest in the heavier foliaged trees during the rains.

STARLINGS.—Our two most widely distributed species are the Long-tailed Glossy Starling, and the Purple-headed Glossy Starling, both of which frequent the rice-fields and swamps, the latter in huge flocks.

Other species are the Amethyst Starling (*Pholidauges leucogaster*), a lovely bird with metallic maroon upper

CROWS AND SHRIKES

parts, and white breast and belly, and the Green-winged Glossy Starling (*L. chloropterus*). The typical Glossy Starlings are all lively, self-confident and noisy birds, but *Pholidauges* is more retiring in its habits, and is never seen in flocks.

The Oxpeckers (*Buphaga*) are brown Starling-like birds, with red beaks, which live on the ticks and other insects which infest cattle.

CROWS.—The common Crow of the Gambia is the widely distributed Pied Crow (*Corvus scapularis*). Like all the Crows they take kindly to captivity. There is another common bird which is also Corvine, called the "Pie-pie" or "Jackdaw" in Bathurst (*Cryptorhina afra*), which resembles a large black Starling. Its plumage is glossy black with a dullish green sheen, and the sexes are alike excepting that the cock has a red and the hen a black beak.

TITS.—We find only one species of this family in the Gambia (*Parus leucomelas*), a black bird with a white wing patch about the size of the English Great Tit.

DRONGOS.—One species of these fly-catching birds is very plentiful. This is *Dicrurus afer*, a wholly black bird with a forked tail, rather smaller than a Starling. They take flights from some favourite perch after flies and other insects, just as our Fly-catcher does at home.

SHRIKES.—The Gambia, like all West Africa, is rich in Shrikes.

Perhaps the commonest is a long-tailed brown-coloured bird (*Corvinella*), called in Mandingo "Chacha." It haunts the low bush and trees near to the villages, and feeds chiefly upon grasshoppers and similar insects.

Another species is the Black-headed Shrike (*Telephonus*), a brown-backed bird with a black-and-white striped head. It is a good songster, probably the best we have in Gambia, and sings all through the rains, especially in the early morning and evening.

THE GAMBIA

Besides these, and other plain-plumaged birds, there are the gaudy Bush-shrikes, one of which (*Laniarus barbarus*) is black above with a yellow eyebrow, and the whole under surface bright scarlet, while another *Malaconotus sulphureipectus*) is green above and yellow below. These are generally found in fairly dense bush, and are much shyer than their more plainly dressed allies. There is also a Shrike which is either the Wood Chat, or a very similar species, which in Africa frequents open country, especially cornfields with the stalks still standing, from which point of vantage it can swoop swiftly on its insect quarry.

The Wood Shrikes (*Prionops plumatus*) are also generally distributed throughout the country, haunting the scrub and thorn bushes on the ironstone ridges, flitting from tree to tree in noisy parties as if every moment were of vital importance. They are very striking birds, with black-and-white pied plumage, a long white crest and peculiar fleshy eye-rings, yellow and scalloped at the margins.

BABBLERS AND BULBULS.—Two species of the former (*Crateropus platycerous* and *relnwardti*) and one of the latter are quite common, while several other species are also well known. The common Bulbul (*Pycnonotus barbatus*), a plain brown bird, is one of our most frequently seen (and heard) little birds. They flit about the branches of trees, calling cheerfully to one another as they search for ripe fruits and the insects these attract. The Babblers, also mainly brown in plumage, but larger, are chiefly found in the thick growth along the water-side. They are very noisy birds, and well merit their native name of "Sonka-sonka" (Quarreller), as this they always appear to be doing, if one can judge from their continual scolding chatter.

THRUSHES.—A greyish-brown Thrush, something like a hen Blackbird, is occasionally seen, and in the winter

FLY-CATCHERS AND SUNBIRDS

Wheatears and Whinchats are numerous, and Redstarts not uncommon. At this season also I have once or twice seen a Nightingale. Among our resident Thrushes are two Black Chats (*Pentholæa*) and the Chat-Thrushes (*Cossypha*), whose plumage suggests a magnified Redstart. The latter haunt the dense thickets of the river-banks and the edges of the swamps.

WARBLERS.—Warblers visit us in large numbers during the winter, all emigrants from the north, such as the Whitethroat, Willow Wren, etc. Our characteristic resident Warblers are the *Cisticolæ*, small brown birds which inhabit the long grass and are true Grass Warblers in every way. Many of them are tiny fantailed mites, while others are quite wren-like in their looks and movements.

WHITE-EYES.—One species (*Zosterops senegalensis*) is not uncommon. In actions and habits they resemble the Tits, or perhaps, more closely, the Goldcrests. They frequent the wild fig and other fruit trees, not so much for their fruit as for the swarms of small insects to be found among the ripe clusters.

FLY-CATCHERS.—The commoner representatives of this family include the Spotted Fly-catcher or a nearly, two or three species of Paradise Fly-catcher (*Terpsiphone*), the males of which are lovely black and brown birds, with distinct crests and long sweeping tails, and the Collared Fly-catcher (*Platystira cyanea*), while several other species are found here less commonly, among which one must mention the beautiful Blue Fly-catcher (*Elanoides*) which visits us during the rains.

SUNBIRDS.—These delightful little birds are in many places numerous, and, from the lovely metallic plumage of many of them, very noticeable, especially in the gardens of Bathurst, where they flit from shrub to shrub, or climb like Tits about the branches, continually calling to one another with short sweet chirps. Three or four

THE GAMBIA

species are quite common, and there are at least half a dozen others less known. Of the commoner, two long-tailed species are the most noteworthy, *Hedydypna platura*, emerald green above and bright yellow below, and *Nectarinia pulchella*, bright metallic green with black wings and tail, and a scarlet breast-patch. In these and in nearly all the Gambian Sunbirds, the multi-coloured metallic plumage is borne by the males alone, the females being plainly dressed in brown or olive. The commonest of all our Sunbirds is certainly *Chalcoptria senegalensis*, brown with a bright sheeny green crown and a scarlet chest. It, and all other species, differ from the first two in having short tails.

SWALLOWS.—Swallows are common here all the year round, though their numbers are augmented in the winter by the arrival of common Swallows and other European species. One of our resident Swallows is called here the "Singing Swallow," and quite deserves the name for his sweet notes. It is extremely tame, and nests in verandahs or native huts, building a mud or clay nest like its English relative. If misfortune overtakes the nest in a tornado, the parents are quite agreeable to accept help from man in the shape of a straw bottle cover, in which to swing the ruins and young aloft once more, sitting quite close, taking great interest in the reconstruction, and resuming charge as soon as the man retires. The markings are black and white, wings rather blunt, and tail not very long, thus contrasting sharply with the common Swallow of the Bush, which is a larger bird, blue-black above and red-brown and white below, with long, sharp wings and a deeply forked tail.

SWIFTS.—The common Swift of the Gambia is the *C. affinis*, whose range extends throughout the whole of Tropical Africa and Southern Asia. It is a distinctly smaller bird than the European Swift, and has an almost square tail instead of the deeply-forked tail of the latter.

NIGHTJARS AND ROLLERS

The general colour is mouse-brown with a greenish gloss over the back and chest in the adult birds, white chin, rump and thighs. It builds like the Swallows under the eaves of verandahs and native huts, but the nest is a mere untidy mass of feathers held together with mud and the saliva of the bird.

NIGHTJARS.—One of these is similar to the European bird, but slightly smaller and lighter in colour (*Caprimulgus inornatus*). They are common, and are seen in great numbers when a fire occurs at night, darting about in the smoke after the insects driven out by the heat.

Another representative is the striking Pennant-winged Nightjar (*Macrodipteryx longipennis*), a larger bird, in which the male dons a remarkable ornament for the breeding season, one feather shaft in each wing being prolonged to end in a racket-shaped enlargement. They are nocturnal, coming out at dusk singly or in small parties, while during the day they sleep on the ground, with pennants stretched out at right angles to the body.

A third species, the Long-tailed Nightjar (*Scotornis*), is known to exist in the Gambia, but it is very rare.

ROLLERS.—The *Coraciidæ* are amongst the most conspicuous of the Gambian birds on account of the brilliant blues of their plumage, their tameness, and their habit of perching on the top of a bush or branch clear of the foliage. They are noisy birds, particularly during the breeding season, when they indulge in much sporting and tumbling in the air with many a scream and buffet.

Two genera (*Coracias* and *Eurystomus*), the Typical and the Broad-Billed Rollers, occur everywhere. The first are Jay-like birds, and include four species, all with blue as the predominating colour, but differing in details of plumage and size. The most common is the Senegal Roller (*C. senegalensis*), chiefly light blue and black, in which the outer tail feathers are prolonged to form a deep-cut swallow-tail.

THE GAMBIA

Of the second genus (*Eurystomus*), we have one species (*E. afer*), a bird about the size of a Thrush, and with a broad triangular yellow bill with a broad gape. Its colour above is rich burnt sienna, wings a deep blue, while below it is purple or reddish-mauve. They differ from the other Rollers in being essentially birds of mornings and evenings. During the heat of the day they roost on tall trees, but when the cool time comes, sally forth to wheel and float in the air like large swallows.

BEE-EATERS.—The Meropidæ are smaller than their cousins the Rollers, and, like them, are common all over Africa. There are four or five species in the Gambia, varying in size.

The smallest is the Dwarf Bee-eater (*Melittophagus pusillus*), about six inches long. Their bills and feet are black and irides crimson, plumage above, a sheeny emerald green, below, yellow, with a black breast-patch. The two middle feathers of the upper tail coverts are prolonged to the tail end.

Other species are the Swallow-tailed Bee-eater (*Dicrocercus furcatus*), and three species at least of the genus *Merops*. In two of these green, orange, and pink are the dominant colours, while the plumage of the third (*M. nubicus*) is mainly crimson. The Red Bee-eater is more common along the river-bank than the others, and lays its eggs in holes, as deep as those of the Kingfisher, in dry mud cliffs near the river.

HOOPOES.—Of these we have representatives of both the sub-families, *Upupinæ* and *Irrisorinæ*. The first is the Common Hoopoe (*Upupa epops*), which is an occasional visitor to England, and is fairly common in the Gambia. Much more numerous, however, is one of the *Irrisorinæ* or Wood-Hoopoes, *Irrisor erythrorhynchus*, which is found everywhere. They are black with white wing-marks, fan-shaped tails and long red bills. They move about in small noisy parties, searching the tree-trunks and

HORNBILLS AND TURACOES

branches for insects, moving from place to place and climbing about like large ink-dipped Tree Creepers. We have another Wood-Hoopoe (*Scopelus aterrimus*), a much smaller bird, but this is only rarely seen.

HORNBILLS.—The *Bucerotidae* are represented in the Gambia by four or five species, three of which are common, namely, the large Ground Hornbill (*Bucorvus*) and two members of the smaller arboreal genus *Lophoceros*. The first is a bird of distinctly grotesque appearance and heavy build, rather larger than a goose, black-brown in colour with white wing-patches only visible when the wings are spread. Its cheeks and turkey-like pouch under the chin are naked and purplish, while the base of the bill is surmounted by a sort of casque, open and abruptly truncated in front. They are usually met with stalking sedately about the dry swamps in search of various reptiles and other similar articles of food, and their cry, uttered principally in the rains, is a far-reaching, low, metallic boom. Our other two common species are (1) the Brown Hornbill (*L. nasutus*), a brown and whitish bird with a yellow and black beak, locally known as the "Rainbird," as it is more plentiful and much noisier at the commencement of the rainy season than at other times; and (2) the Red-billed Hornbill, a rather smaller bird, mainly black and white, and with a red or orange bill. These two haunt trees and bush, and feed chiefly on fruits, berries, etc., and, of course, on ground-nuts in their season. Their note is a long-drawn monotonous whistle, and their flight is slow and dipping.

TURACOES.—Of the *Musophagidae* the Variegated Turaco (*Schizorhys africana*) is much the most plentiful, and is found wherever there are trees. It is a dull brown and white-crested bird, with a yellow beak, and is known here as the "Kowkow," or "Wood-cock." Our two other Turacoes are more local, and only found in those parts where there is fairly thick jungle and close to water.

THE GAMBIA

They are both much more richly dressed than the "Kowkow," one being a gorgeous metallic purple-blue with crimson remiges, while the other, the Green Turaco, is a lovely grass-green set-off, like its relative, by crimson wing-patches.

KINGFISHERS.—Of these we have many species which may be arranged in two groups: (1) The Pied, and (2) the Blue Kingfishers.

(1) There are two of this group, *Ceryle rudis* and *C. maxima*, both black and white birds. The first is entirely so, while the second is distinctly larger, and has a reddish breast-patch. Their method of fishing is to hover with palpitating wings, followed by a lightning flash into the water, almost invariably emerging with their quarry. They take a great interest in our own manner of fishing, and are generally found perched near a fisherman, watching the proceedings, especially when successful.

(2) In the second group is the Mangrove Kingfisher, a bird about three times as large as the English bird, with blue upper, greyish-brown under parts, and a powerful red beak.

Another species about the same size with a grey head and whitish underparts is probably *Halcyon semicæruleus*.

A third species seeks his food away from the water, in lizards and other reptiles, which he takes in exactly the same manner, by watching from a tree and suddenly pouncing upon his prey. Lastly, there is that perfect gem, *Corythornis cristata*, half the size of the English bird, brilliant blue above, reddish below, and with a distinct peacock-blue crest.

CUCKOOS.—The Gambia has at least four *genera* of these. First, *Centropus*, the Coucals; second, *Coccyzus*, the Spotted Cuckoos; third, *Cuculus*, the typical Cuckoos; and fourth, *Chrysococcyx*, the Golden Cuckoos.

(1) Our Coucal is *C. senegalensis*, a large brown-

CUCKOOS

winged bird, rather bigger than a Jay, but with a much longer tail. The crown, nape, rump and tail are black, the wings and coverts burnt sienna, and the under surface is creamy white. It is generally known here as the "Fool-bird," owing to its tameness and disregard of danger.

They appear to be omnivorous. Their note "Wu-tu tu-tu" is one of the commonest sounds in the evening, and they also imitate the Bush-fowl with a sort of cackle. They are said to keep tame snakes in their nests to frighten away intruders, and this story *has* a slight basis of truth, for one rarely sees a nest which is not ornamented with a piece of sloughed snake-skin.

(2) We have three species of the genus *Coccystes*: *C. glandarius*, the great spotted Cuckoo; *C. jacobinus*, the pied crested Cuckoo; and *C. Cafer*, Levaillant's Cuckoo.

(a) The first is a crested bird, greyish-brown to dark brown above, with white under parts and wing marks. Its note is a harsh "Kark-kark," but it also has a dove-like note in the evening, "Doo-doo-doo-doo," from which the Mandingos call it the "Jambo-doo-doo." It is also called "Saling" (= Hawk), and is not free from suspicion of killing Doves, although its normal food is insects and reptiles.

(b) The second is a black-crested bird with white marks on its wings and tail, and whitish under parts.

(c) The third, Levaillant's Cuckoo, is a pied black and white bird, with a greenish gloss on the black upper parts and white below. Its Mandingo name is "Kunchukulung."

(3) Of the Typical Cuckoo (*Cuculus*) we have three species, the commonest of which is the Lineated Cuckoo (*C. gularis*), a bird very like its European relative, and almost exactly like it in its note.

(4) The beautiful Golden Cuckoos are represented by two species, both very rare: (a) The Emerald Cuckoo

THE GAMBIA

(*Chrysococcyx smaragdineus*), of which the cock is a lovely emerald green, with a yellow breast and white wing bars, and the hen, green mottled with brown and bronze above and whitish below. (b) *C. cupreus*, the Gilded Cuckoo, has both sexes alike, coppery green flecked with white above, whitish with copper-coloured bars below. They make no nests, but resemble the common Cuckoo in their parasitism on smaller birds.

BARBETS.—Three or four species of three different genera are found in Senegambia, but only two are common with us, the large Groove-billed Barbet (*Pogonorrhynchus dubius*), and the Dwarf Barbet (*Barbatula minuta*). Of these the first is as big as a Thrush with a powerful pink bristly beak. The plumage is gaudy, black above, with a white mantle edged sometimes with a little crimson, below, scarlet from chin to vent, with a broad black pectoral band and bright yellow patches on the sides. They are by no means shy birds, but seem to delight in flaunting their colours. The Dwarf Barbet is black above and yellowish-white below, with a little pink on the head and a small black beak. He is not more than half the size of the Barbet above described, and is shy in his habits.

WOODPECKERS.—The two commonest species of these differ considerably in size, the smaller, whose general colouring is greenish-brown, speckled with dark brown, except on the nape, which is crimson, being smaller than a Nuthatch, the larger about eight inches long. The general colour of the latter is, above, a mixture of grey and olive-green, with a red head and rump, the feathers of which, as well as those of the upper tail coverts, being soft, long, and pointed, with grey bases and crimson ends ; below, it is grey shading into pale olive towards the vent ; the tail feathers are stiff and pointed, brown above and slightly tinged with olive below. Both these birds have the habits of woodpeckers at home.

PIGEONS AND DOVES

PIGEONS AND DOVES (*Columbidae*).—We are rich in these. The Green Fruit Pigeon is plumaged with green, golden yellow and pale purple when adult, while the young are green all over. They feed almost entirely on fruits, notably the "Shoto" and the "Kobbo," two species of wild fig; but just before harvest also regale themselves on the half-ripe "Koos."

The Rhun Pigeon (*Columba Guinea*) is also common. It is about the size of the domestic Pigeon at home, and builds in the tall Rhun Palms (hence its local name), and is only found in districts where this palm grows. The Black Pigeon is another bird more widely distributed than either of the two preceding specimens, and like the Green Pigeon is migratory just before and after the rainy season, when large flocks composed mainly of young birds pass up and down the sea-coast. It is a purple grey bird with a half collar of black.

We have four species of Doves which are common in the Gambia. (1) The Ring-neck Dove, a bird like the well-known Barbary Dove, but darker in colour; (2) The Senegal Turtle, a rather smaller bird than the European Turtle Dove, but more brightly coloured; (3) The Emerald Dove, a chocolate-coloured small Dove with bright brown underwings; (4) The Cape Dove, although not so plentiful as the other species, is also widely distributed. They are generally found in pairs all the year round, and apparently do not flock like most of their relations. They are chiefly ground feeders.

PARROTS.—Three species of two *genera* are found in the Gambia: (1) *Palæornis docilis*, the Rose-Ringed Parrakeet; (2) *Pæocephalus senegalus*, the Senegal Parrot; and (3) The *P. fuscicollis*, a much larger bird called "Bumbarra Jobo," by the Mandingos. The third are less common than the other two, and are confined to those parts of the country where the mangroves flourish.

THE GAMBIA

OWLS.—Of these we have the Big Eagle Owl (*Bubo cinerascens*), which is considered a bird of ill omen with the natives, an Eared Owl, much like the English bird, a Scops, and a still smaller bird of the genus *Glaucidium*. A Barn Owl, identical with the English bird, also occurs in the Gambia.

EAGLES, etc. (*Falconidæ*).—Eagles, Hawks and Vultures form a numerous and noticeable feature of the Gambian avifauna. Many species are extremely common, and to be seen daily, but others are much rarer. I will mention some of the more conspicuous. First must come the handsome white-headed brown Fish-Eagle, which is to be met with anywhere along the river, perched on a tree overhanging the water, or occasionally wading in a shallow place either to bathe or catch fish. Other Eagles are the Bateleur, usually seen soaring high overhead in pairs, the black and white Vulturine Sea-Eagle (*Gypohierax*), a hunter of the seashore, and a terror to the Gulls and other birds there; and thirdly, the Black Crested Eagle (*Lophoætus*), which frequents the open swamps.

Kites and Vultures, the latter officially protected as town-scorpengers, are common, while Buzzards, Goshawks and other members of the family of various sizes are constantly met with. Of these perhaps the most noticeable is the Swallow-tailed Kite (*Nauclerus*), a grey and white bird, which looks on the wing exactly like a large grey slow-flying Swallow. They are only locally distributed and are usually seen in small flocks. They feed on insects, especially on locusts in their season.

HERONS, etc.—Hérons of many species are numerous in the Gambia, as is only natural in such a country of swamp and creek and rivers. They range in size from the huge Goliath Heron down to the little Mangrove Bittern, and include among others, two White Egrets,

WATER-BIRDS AND GAME-BIRDS

one large and one small, the buff-backed Cattle Egret and the extraordinary Hammerhead (*Scopus*), an ugly-looking short-legged brown Heron, whose huge nests are so noticeable along the river, immense masses of decaying vegetation in the trees near the water. This bird is locally known as the "Jolah King," as he is supposed to be a degraded bird, just as the Jolahs are considered the lowest race here. We have two Ibises, one black (*Hagedashia*), the other white with a black neck, the latter being the well-known Sacred Ibis. Of the *Ciconiidae* there are the Marabout and the Saddle-bill Storks, the former very common, the latter distinctly rare, while the Cranes are represented by the beautiful "Crownbird." Pelicans and Darters (Snake-birds) are plentiful along the river, their place being taken at its mouth and along the coast by Gannets, Cormorants, Gulls, Terns, and other Sea-birds. Our Ducks and Geese include the large Spur-winged Goose, the black and white Knob-bill Goose, the Whistling Duck, which literally invade us in myriads at the commencement of the rains, and the small, but extremely tasty, Goose-Teal.

WADERS.—Among the most noteworthy of the Waders are two Spur-wing Plovers and the Senegal Thickknee, the latter scarcely different from the Norfolk Plover at home. Painted Snipe swarm in the marshes about June and July, while one or two true Snipe are obtained here every winter. On the mangrove flats round the mouth of the river and the larger creeks, Curlew and Whimbrel abound, and on the fresh-water swamps, Jacanas, chestnut-brown, short-winged, splay-toed water-birds, are nearly everywhere common.

GAME-BIRDS.—Last on the list, but perhaps the most interesting of all, come the Game-birds, to which for convenience I add the Bustards. Taking them in order and under the names commonly applied to them, the list is as follows :—

THE GAMBIA

1. The Bushfowl or Partridge.
2. The Rock Bushfowl.
3. The Guinea Fowl.
4. The Quail.
5. The Barbary Quail.
6. The Bush Turkey.

1. The Bushfowl is a Francolin. Of these we have at least three species, but two are comparatively rare, so that practically the name always refers to one species, that is, *F. bicalcaratus*. This bird is common throughout Senegambia, and is a distinctly larger bird than the English Partridge. Its characteristic feature is the presence of two spurs on each foot of the male bird. Our two other Francolins are (a) the White-throated, and (b) the Ahanta Francolin. The former is a beautiful chestnut bird with bright yellow legs, a good deal smaller than the common species; the latter, a larger and duller-coloured bird with pink legs, which is very local in its haunts, the dense thickets along the swamps, where it is to be found in pairs, but never in coveys. A fourth Francolin has been found in the Gambia, *F. lathamii*, but I believe that the only skins known are two or three in the British Museum, which were brought from the Kunchow Creek, at least thirty years ago.

2. Rock Bushfowl (*Ptilopachys fuscus*) is a small, dull brown bird with pink bill, comb and legs, and a square cocked-up tail. They live among the bamboos on the ironstone ridges, and as they run about among the stones look very much like a lot of hen bantams.

3. The Guinea Fowl is also a denizen of the Bamboo country, as a rule, and like all his kind is seldom found far from the water.

4. Our Quail is either the European Quail or the very similar (*Coturnix capensis*). They are only winter visitors with us, but are found in many places, singly or in pairs, during January and February.

THE BUSH TURKEY

5. The Barbary Quail is a Sand Grouse (*Pterocles quadricinctus*). It is generally found sleeping on bare patches or near recently burnt ground during the daytime, but every evening they fly in flocks to a favourite watering-place to have their drink together, while during the day they are mostly in pairs, or at most in parties of half a dozen.

6. The Bush Turkey is a Bustard. Three species are found here. The first and the commonest is *Otts senegalensis*, which is resident here all the year round. Besides this a second species (*O. melanogaster*) is locally distributed. This is distinctly larger than the first-named, and more handsome, the breast and head of the adult male being ornamented with black and white. Very rare indeed, and only visiting us in the winter months, is the large Bustard one occasionally gets in the upper river. This bird weighs about twenty-four pounds, and is probably the African representative of the Great Bustard. The Bush Turkey may be regarded as the best table bird of the Gambia, unless we adopt the idea of a French friend, who always maintained that a Snippet was by far the best "chop" if cooked properly. This was his recipe. Take a Bush Turkey, a Curlew, a Snipe and Snippet, put one inside the other according to size, and roast, basting the outer bird well with bacon. When done, extract and eat the Snippet and give the rest to the "Boys"!

CHAPTER III

Wild Animals and Hunting. By Captain W. B. Stanley, late Travelling Commissioner for Upper Gambia.

As might only be expected in a Protectorate which in comparatively recent years has become one of the most highly cultivated and thickly populated portions of West Africa, its value as a hunting field has proportionately decreased.

In the eastern portion of the Protectorate, where formerly the Elephant and Buffalo undoubtedly roamed, numerous villages and large areas of cultivation are now to be found ; whilst the open marshes which fringe the river, and which in former years were, in the dry season, the habitat of herds of *Cobus Kob* antelope, are now the grazing ground of countless cattle.

This decrease in the numbers of wild animals in the Protectorate of the Gambia is not due, in any great measure, to the slaughter of animals by either Europeans or natives. Although nearly every man in the Protectorate possesses a flint-lock gun, they are very seldom used except at festivals, such as dances and marriages ; even Guinea Fowl and Francolin, which are very plentiful, are seldom shot at, although often trapped, and that great enemy of the farmer, the Dog-faced Baboon, is only occasionally hunted or fired at. The game animals of the Gambia have not been killed off, but have retired before its ever-increasing cultivation to the more thinly populated, though less watered portions of neighbouring French territory. Herds of cattle have literally taken

HUNTING

the place of herds of antelope, on the banks of the Gambia.

In the dry season of the year 1902, I encountered a magnificent herd of Korrigum Antelope (*Damlliscus corrugum*) which must have numbered well over a hundred beasts, on the open plains between the villages of Bereif and Quenoto, on the north bank of the eastern portion of the Protectorate. A truly splendid sight with the bright morning sun shining on the glossy coats, and black horns of the Antelopes, as they cropped the fresh green herbage which follows the annual burning of last year's grass. In 1910 the same open plains were visited at the same time of year, but from a neighbouring hill the smoke from several new Fulah villages was visible, whilst cattle dotted the plains where, nine years before, the herd of Korrigum had grazed. This change has been gradual, and, although it is still possible, during the height of the dry season, to find small herds of this Antelope in the vicinity of the village of Bereif, they cannot be encountered with the certainty of ten years ago.

In the neighbouring French territory, however, game is still plentiful, especially in the more thinly populated portions of the banks of the Gambia and its tributaries, to the east of our Protectorate. Here, during the dry season, native hunters from British territory as far west as McCarthy Island, and from surrounding French territory, establish hunting camps; and although they kill game without regard to sex or maturity, they are fortunately armed only with flint-lock guns, trade gun-powder, and hammered iron bullets, with which they seldom attempt to kill game at over twenty yards' distance. The result is that game animals survive, although, from being much hunted, they become extremely wary, and a successful hunter, in stalking game, has to take many things into consideration besides the direction of the wind.

THE GAMBIA

At the present time Elephants are absolutely protected in the Gambia, although as a matter of fact there are no traces of forest left of sufficient area to form a reserve. A few Elephants, however, still occasionally visit the most easterly portion of the Protectorate during the height of the dry season, no doubt attracted by the broad belt of Rhun, or Fan Palms (*Borassus flabellifer*), which flourishes in the vicinity of the river, the fruit of which ripens in May and of which they are inordinately fond.

As is the case in most parts of North-West Africa, the tusks of Elephants are inclined to be small, anything over 50 lbs. in weight per tusk being exceptionally good. I recollect, however, seeing a pair of stump tusks sold at Fatta Tenda, which weighed nearly 80 lbs. each; they were exceptionally thick and massive, and had they been perfect, would no doubt have scaled well over 100 lbs. each.

At certain seasons of the year Giraffes are to be found in very small numbers in the arid country to the north-east of our Protectorate. In 1910 Captain McNeill, the well-known big game hunter, killed a very good bull, the special object of his expedition being to obtain a specimen of the Senegal variety of Giraffe for his private collection at Oban.

Nearly twelve years ago the carcass of a dead Giraffe was found in the vicinity of McCarthy's Island, but this is the only authentic instance of a Giraffe being seen in British Gambia; the natives surmised that it had wandered down to the river in search of water, after being wounded by a native hunter.

The Senegambian variety of Buffalo (*Bos caffer planiceros*) is found in the Gambia, but is extremely scarce, and is now absolutely protected. This Buffalo differs from the Congo variety (*Bos caffer nanus*) in being a somewhat larger and heavier animal, considerably

BUFFALOES

darker in colour, and with a wider spread of horns—a good specimen measuring 30 inches—which is due not so much to superior length, as to the angle at which they are set on the head. Like the Congo variety they vary greatly in colour, and I have seen individuals of *Planiceros* which were quite as light in colour as dark-skinned specimens of the Congo variety, which I have seen in Sierra Leone.

In 1907, I purchased a ten months old bull calf of the Senegambian Buffalo, on behalf of Sir George Denton, the Governor of the Gambia, whose intention it was to present the specimen to the Zoological Gardens in London. The young buffalo stood about 3 feet in height, and showed enormous bone and strength, but was perfectly tame and friendly. Its horns were then about 6 inches in length. This Buffalo reached Bathurst safely, after ten days' journey in a cutter, and after apparently doing fairly well for several months, died suddenly. This was a great loss, and unfortunately about the same time a young Hippopotamus died, which another travelling commissioner (Mr. J. K. McCallum) had obtained on behalf of the Governor, which was also intended for the Zoological Gardens.

Several English sportsmen have, in recent years, shot specimens of the Senegambian Buffalo, amongst others being the well-known big game hunter, Mr. Russell Roberts, who has secured some very fine heads.

Like most Buffaloes, the Senegambian variety has a very bad reputation when wounded and hard pressed; otherwise, it is an exceedingly wary beast, and, unlike many wild animals, usually makes up its mind the instant that it suspects danger; and it is by no means dependent on the sense of smell alone to detect the presence of man.

Native hunters sometimes believe that bush fires are caused by sparks from the horns of bull Buffaloes fighting

THE GAMBIA

for the cows; curiously enough native hunters in Sierra Leone, where the small Congo Buffalo abounds, have the same belief.

A few maneless Lions are to be found in the Gambia and surrounding French territory, although, from the fearless way natives will sleep in the bush at night, without even taking the precaution of lighting a fire, it is easy to see that the Gambia is not a Lion country.

Personally, during a period of ten years, I only saw one Lion. This occurred in Kantora on May 22, 1907. The Lion remained quietly hidden in a small clump of bushes a few yards off, whilst I, with my field-glasses, was watching a pair of Hartebeests, which had sensed my wind, and it was not until I was joined by my tracker, and we had exchanged a few remarks, that the Lion made his presence known by bounding out of the bush and loping away. Although obviously a male, no trace of a mane was visible. I have also inspected a number of skins at various times, and in every case the mane was absent.

Leopards may be said to be common in the Gambia, despite the fact they are seldom shot, or even seen by Europeans. Although not often trapped in the Gambia, a considerable number of Leopards are shot annually by native hunters, owing to the necessity of safeguarding the large number of herds of cattle and other stock which are owned in the Protectorate.

Leopards, and an occasional marauding Lion, are sometimes destroyed by the following simple method. A heavily charged Long Dane gun is securely fastened to two posts, with its butt resting on, and its muzzle about two feet from the ground. A large piece of meat is placed round the muzzle of the gun, whilst a string which is passed round a post connects the meat to the trigger of the gun; in this way the Leopard is shot, provided he is standing in the proper position when he tries to pull the meat from the muzzle of the gun.

ANTELOPES

With regard to Antelopes, the Gambia will stand comparison with British East Africa as to the number of species to be found there. From all accounts, however, the herds in the Gambia are much smaller and more scattered, and generally speaking are wilder than in the game districts of East Africa.

No less than twelve species of Antelope are to be met with in the Gambia Valley; they are, in order of size, as follows :—

1. West African or Derbian Eland (*Taurotragus derbianus*).
2. Roan Antelope (*Hippotragus equinus gambianus*).
3. Water Buck or Sing-sing (*Cobus defassaunctuosus*).
4. West African Hartebeest (*Bubalis major*).
5. Korrigum Hartebeest (*Damaliscus corrugum*).
6. West African Situtunga (*Tragelaphus gratus*).
7. Cobus Kob or Bufrons Kob (*Cobus kob*).
8. Nagor Reedbuck (*Cervicapra redunca*).
9. Harness Antelope or Lesser Bushbuck (*Tragelaphus scriptus typicus*).
10. Gambian Oribi (*Oribia nigricaudata*).
11. Crowned Duiker (*Cephalophus coronatus*).
12. Red-flanked Duiker (*Cephalophus rufilatus*).

I have seen it stated that Red-fronted Gazelle (*Gazelle rufifrons*) and White Oryx (*Oryx leucoryx*), as well as Maxwell's Duiker (*Cephalophus maxwelli*), have also been recorded from the Gambia; personally, however, I have never seen either of the first two species of Antelope as far south as the Gambia, nor have I seen their skins or horns in the hands of native hunters, nor received descriptions from native hunters who have spent their lives in the Gambia, which might lead me to think that they are found in the colony. In 1910 I saw a live specimen of the Red-fronted Gazelle in captivity at Dakar, which had come from the interior, and have also seen skulls of this Antelope at both Dakar and St. Louis, in Senegal, as well as horns

THE GAMBIA

of White Oryx, which have been brought from the north, I am inclined to think, therefore, that the range of these two Antelopes does not extend so far south as the Gambia. For the same reason I am inclined to think that the range of Maxwell's Duiker does not extend quite so far north as the river Gambia, although it is certain that this antelope is found not far to the southward.

1. To return to the Antelopes, of which specimens have been secured from the Gambia during the last two or three years, the Derbian Eland is rare in the valley, and is absolutely protected, but specimens of this Antelope have been obtained from Senegal within the last two years by both Mr. Russell Roberts and Captain McNeill. This Eland belongs to the striped variety, but is distinguished from the striped Livingstone's Eland, found in Portuguese West Africa, by the absence of the frontal tuft of black hair which marks the bulls of the latter variety.

In 1910, whilst hunting in Gambia, I found the dead carcase of a Derbian Eland, which had evidently been wounded by a native hunter; it was, unfortunately, more than half devoured by vultures. In March, 1906, a young bull Eland, limping badly, was seen grazing amongst the cattle on the marshes near Misera, in Sandu, on the right bank of the upper river. This Eland had been wounded, was seen for several days, and finally it was stoned and speared to death on a small hill a few hundred yards from my camp.

I was unfortunately on the opposite side of the river at the time, but the chief sent a messenger to me to report the circumstance.

Judging from a pair of horns in the possession of the Paris Museum, the Derbian Eland undoubtedly carries longer horns than any other Eland; the horns, however, of specimens which have recently been obtained from Senegal have not been exceptionally long. Personally,

THE ROAN ANTELOPE

although I have measured a number of Derbian Eland horns, I have never yet seen anything to equal $35\frac{3}{8}$ inches, which is the record for Livingstone's Eland, much less to equal $39\frac{3}{8}$ inches, which is said to be the measurement of the pair of Derbian Eland horns in the Paris Museum. Native hunters have, however, informed me that they have often seen horns of this Antelope considerably longer than the ones which I have measured.

2. Roan Antelope are fairly common all over the Gambia Valley and its neighbourhood, they are usually met with in pairs, or in small herds of four or five animals. Once during the dry season, however, I saw a large herd numbering between thirty and forty of this magnificent Antelope. A big bull roan Antelope will stand as much as 60 inches, or 15 hands at the shoulder, and with his fine equine head, strong arched neck, compact body, and clean limbs, short erect but even mane, conspicuous muzzle and face markings, and thick boldly curved horns, he presents a very handsome and striking appearance.

Roan Antelope vary somewhat in colour in the Gambia; the general body colourings, however, may be said to be rufous grey, not unlike the colour of many roan horses, but more even in pigmentation. The under parts are almost white. The horns of this Antelope are perhaps shorter in the Gambia than in other parts of Africa, anything over 28 inches in length over the curve being very exceptional. This Antelope carries a large amount of flesh, a big bull weighing fully 600 lbs.

Although at the present time I do not believe Roan Antelope breed in the Gambia, a considerable number are shot annually by native hunters during the dry season, usually at night from pits near the game parks whilst they are making their way down to the river to drink. In open country this Antelope has extremely keen sight, and on the bare open marshes near the banks of the river I have frequently seen them show signs of alarm and

THE GAMBIA

commence to edge away, although they have detected my presence purely by sight, and at such a distance that it was only possible to make out their species with the aid of powerful field glasses.

Native hunters appear to recognize the equine characteristics of this Antelope, as they sometimes use the word "Souna," which means "Mare" in the Mandingo language, when referring to a female roan, and this is the only Antelope to which this word is applied, although the word "Toura," meaning a bull, is frequently used with reference to the larger Antelopes.

3. Waterbuck (native name Sing-singo) are still to be found in certain districts in British territory in the vicinity of the river, and are common in French territory to the east of our Protectorate. In point of appearance, if not of size, this Antelope comes next to the Roan, but is so common all over Africa as not to need description. The male only carries horns, the female being a much smaller and altogether more insignificant-looking animal. This difference in appearance is principally due to the absence of horns, a less upright carriage of the head, and a slender ewe neck instead of the upright massive neck of the male animal.

The Waterbuck is readily tamed if captured young, and completely loses its natural fear of man. During the time I was in the Gambia I managed to obtain two young male Waterbucks for Sir George Denton, one of which unfortunately broke its neck when in my possession, while being placed on board a steam launch. The other specimen reached England safely, and is still to be seen in the Zoological Gardens in London. Both of these specimens were perfectly tame and friendly.

When wounded, both Waterbuck and Roan Antelope should be approached with caution, as apart from being known to charge, they can, whilst lying on the ground, both use their horns, strike with their forefeet, and kick

HARTEBEEST

like lightning, their hard sharp hoofs being capable of inflicting very nasty wounds. In 1907 the French Administrator in the district adjoining mine was badly gored in the ribs whilst endeavouring to knife a wounded Waterbuck near Netebulu, and but for the fortunate presence in the vicinity of the British Protectorate Medical Officer (Dr. E. Hopkinson), who was able to attend him, he would probably have died from the effects of the wound.

4. Hartebeest (*Bubalis major*) are occasionally met with in British territory, and are plentiful in the neighbouring French territory. They are almost invariably found in herds of from about four to twenty animals, and with their long, straight heads set on equally long, straight necks, high withers, short back, and low quarters, present a somewhat curious appearance.

A big bull Hartebeest will stand some 50 inches at the shoulder and weigh over 400 lbs. The general colour of the body is a light sandy red.

The natives on the banks of the Gambia seldom or never use the hide of the Hartebeest for making sandals, although it is admirably suited for that purpose. They have a curious superstition that any one who wears sandals made from the hide of the Hartebeest is doomed to travel from place to place for the remainder of his life.

Horns are present in both the male and female of this Antelope. Immediately below the base of the horns and above the wall of the brain is an empty cavity of about the size of a small wine-glass, and it is a curious fact that these cavities sometimes contain two or three large maggot-like grubs almost an inch in length; presumably the larvæ of some insect, which, when quite small, has made its way up the animal's nostril. Native hunters say that these larvæ cause the Hartebeest a good deal of annoyance, and believe that they continually butt their heads against trees and other objects in their efforts to get rid of them.

THE GAMBIA

5. Korrigum Hartebeest are to be met with in the Gambia and in French territory during the height of the dry season, but I cannot recollect having seen many of this Antelope before the month of March or after the months of June or July. From this it would appear that the real habitat of this bastard Hartebeest is north of the Gambia, and that they only migrate to that region during the drougthy months of the year. Large herds of this Antelope are sometimes seen during the height of the dry season.

In build, the Korrigum resembles *Bubalis major*, but is somewhat smaller in size and is not so remarkable in appearance, having less of the curious ungainly look of the true Hartebeest. The horns, which are carried by both males and females, are very black, and curve evenly backwards, in no way suggesting the true Hartebeest. The general colour scheme is a dark rufous brown, with black points. The hair is very short, the coat being remarkable for its wonderful sheen.

7. The Cobus Kob Antelope is so common all over West Africa as not to need description. Not many years ago this beautiful Antelope was common in many parts of the upper river, but at the present time, owing to the large herds of cattle, which in recent years have invaded their haunts, to say nothing of herdsmen and their dogs, very few marshes in British territory still hold Cobus Kob. They have retired to French territory, where they are perhaps the commonest Antelope to be met with. Herds of Kob are usually composed of from six to twenty females and young animals, with one or two big bucks only, or else entirely of males, ranging from old bucks to half-grown animals which, as their horns are small and inconspicuous, are apt to be mistaken for does unless glasses are used.

As soon as male animals are old enough to take an interest in the females of the herd they are turned out

REEDBUCK

by the regular herd bucks, and in this way herds of bucks of all ages are built up. I have on several occasions witnessed, through glasses, most desperate fights between Cobus Kob bucks.

8. Next to the Cobus Kob Antelope, in point of size, comes the Nagor Reedbuck. In build and in general colouring the Reedbuck closely resembles the Kob Antelope, but is without the distinct black line on the forelegs, which in the Kob extends from the slot to the knee. The coat of the Reedbuck is also rather less rufous in colour than that of the Kob, whilst in the Reedbuck a naked gland is noticeable below the ear, which is not seen in the Kob Antelope.

As regards size, a mature male Reedbuck will stand 29 inches at the shoulder, and will weigh about 80 or 90 lbs., whilst full-grown male Cobus Kobs, which I have measured, average 34 inches at the shoulder and weigh about 150 lbs.

Like the Kob Antelope, horns are only carried by male Reedbucks; they average in good specimens about 10 inches over the curve, and curve sharply forwards, something after the manner of the horns of a Chamois. The habitat of this Antelope in the Gambia is the almost continuous chain of marshes which fringe the river-banks. In the early morning this Reedbuck can sometimes be seen feeding on the marshes, almost side by side with the cattle. The Reedbuck is invariably met with in pairs, or in small family parties of three or four, and never goes in herds.

During the heat of the day it likes to lie up in some soft patch of grass. Owing to this habit, I have, on various occasions, seen quite a number killed by sportsmen intent on walking up partridges, as, if the wind is favourable, the buck will not get up until the guns are right on top of it. When alarmed, and especially at night or in the early morning, the Reedbuck makes a sound between a sharp whistle and a hiss, and at the same time leaping

THE GAMBIA

several feet in the air and landing on the same spot. The Reedbuck is a very powerful swimmer. In the dry season of 1906 the late Master of the Government steamer *Mansa Killa*, at a point where the river is fully two miles in width, noticed something swimming in mid-stream. On the steamer being stopped and a boat lowered, it was found to be a full-grown Reedbuck. In the chase and capture which followed the Reedbuck was injured, and was therefore taken on board and killed.

In the Gambia the Reedbuck is often much troubled by Bot flies, and I have frequently noticed their backs below the surface of the skin, covered with the larvæ of this fly.

Amongst a considerable number of other Gambian Antelopes several specimens of the Reedbuck have been sent to the Zoological Gardens in London during the past ten years by Sir George Denton.

6. Dealing with the Antelopes in order of size, the Situtunga should have followed the Korrigum Hartbeest; as, however, it is closely related to the Harnessed Antelope, I have not taken it in its turn. The Situtunga Antelope, or Batomenango of the Mandingo hunter, has its habitat in the Gambia, but it is an extremely rare and difficult animal to meet with. It is not found anywhere east of the Chamois River, as beyond that point the country is not suited to its needs.

Although, curiously enough, this was one of the first Antelopes I shot in the Gambia, I never afterwards, in the course of ten years, even saw another specimen. In build and general appearance and colouring this Antelope resembles the Harnessed Antelope; the hair, however, is longer, and the Antelope has a shaggier appearance, whilst the upright fringe of hair which extends along the spine of the male Harnessed Antelope, is not present in the Situtunga. In proportion to its size, both the tail and hoofs are longer in the Situtunga than in the Harnessed Antelope. In size, the Situtunga approaches a female

THE HARNESSED ANTELOPE

Waterbuck. The horns of this Antelope found in males only twist in the same way as those of the Harnessed Antelopes, but are not nearly so straight when viewed from the front; the horns bow outwards for three parts of their length. For about an inch in length the tips of the horns are yellowish white in colour. This Antelope, which is exceedingly shy, prefers reedy forest swamps, with plenty of cover, in the vicinity of the rivers, which are never dry or burnt out from year to year.

The horns in my possession measure only 18 inches in a straight line, and $21\frac{1}{4}$ inches over the curve. Mr. H. L. Pryce, C.M.G., however, obtained a pair of horns from a native hunter, which I found to be no less than 27 inches in a straight line, and $30\frac{1}{2}$ inches over the curve. I have measured a number of Situtunga horns, but have never seen anything to approach this pair as regards length.

9. The Harnessed Antelope, or lesser Bushbuck, is found all over the Gambia, and is so well known to every one as scarcely to need description. The Harnessed Antelope belongs to the same genus as the Situtunga, and in the Gambia is as common as the latter Antelope is rare.

Almost at any time two or three tame specimens of this Antelope can be seen running fearlessly about the streets of Bathurst, whilst they are also a common feature in the grounds of Government House.

Male Harnessed Antelopes stand about 21 inches at the shoulder, the West African variety being somewhat smaller than elsewhere.

The general colouring of the males is a bright chestnut-brown, with five or six white transverse stripes on the sides, and a number of white spots on the shoulders, sides, and hind-quarters. In the distance the shoulders and chest of full-grown males appear almost black, owing to the presence of numerous long fine black hairs. The horns, which are carried by males only, are almost straight, and twist spirally, a good pair measuring

THE GAMBIA

14 inches in length. There is an upright fringe of black and white hairs extending from the shoulder to the tail, and longest in the middle of the back.

The females are smaller, more spotted, and paler in colour, and are without the black tinge seen on the fore-quarters of the males.

Under natural conditions this Antelope prefers fairly thick bush, affording plenty of cover. When suspicious or alarmed it frequently utters a loud hoarse bark, which has more of a threatening than a timid note in it.

10. Next in order of size comes the graceful little Gambian Oribi. It is perhaps curious that the natives of the Gambia, although they have given the Red-flanked Duiker a distinctive name, have made one name do for both the Oribi, and the Crowned Duiker, distinguishing between the two species by words meaning "white" and "red."

The Gambian Oribi is fairly common all over the Gambia, where it is invariably met with in pairs. As a rule, but to lesser extent than the Crowned Duiker, it prefers the high waterless ironstone plateaux which abound in the Gambia, and is not often seen in the vicinity of marshy or swampy land.

The Gambian Oribi soon becomes tame, even if captured long after it has been weaned, and is a fairly hardy little Antelope.

11. The Crowned Duiker, on the other hand, is difficult to rear, and usually sickens and dies in captivity. The latter Antelope appears to eat almost anything; young specimens I kept were almost omnivorous in their tastes, being particularly fond of chicken's bones; I have also on occasions seen them catch centipedes and other insects, which they at once devoured. Captain A. G. Todd, Army Veterinary Service, who was with me during the dry season of 1906, was much interested in this curious habit, which he witnessed on several occasions.

GAMBIAN ORIBI

Despite the fact that both Gambian Oribi and Crowned Duiker are by no means rare in the Gambia, very little appears to be known about either of them. The following description, therefore, of adult male specimens shot by me during May, 1907, may be of interest.

IO. GAMBIAN ORIBI.

General colouring, yellowish fawn, with a rather dusky tint when viewed at certain angles, owing to the hair being tinged with black. The face has a dark brown blaze extending from the muzzle to the crown of the head, and, like the Crowned Duiker, terminates in a small dark brown tuft, which, however, is considerably shorter and less pronounced than that of the Crowned Duiker. The cheeks, chin, region round the eye, and lower parts of the legs are pale yellow. The ears are large, and dark brown in colour. The under parts and insides of the limbs are white. The tail is black on top, and whiteish below. A naked black gland, almost circular, is present at the base of the ear. The horns, which are about 3 inches in length, form an angle with the facial plane; they are straight, or very slightly curved forward, wide apart, rough at the bottom, and taper to a very fine point.

Height at shoulder, $22\frac{1}{2}$ inches; length from end of muzzle to tip of tail, $41\frac{1}{2}$ inches; length of head, 7 inches; length of tail, 3 inches; girth round barrel, 29 inches; girth of neck midway between head and shoulders, 9 inches; length of horns, $3\frac{3}{8}$ inches; weight, 36 lbs.

Like the Reedbuck, this Antelope utters a sharp whistle when alarmed.

II. CROWNED DUIKER.

The general body colouring is a bright rufous brown, almost chestnut in colour; the cheeks, ears, throat, chin, and underparts being considerably lighter in tint.

THE GAMBIA

A dark chestnut blaze extends from the muzzle to the crown of the head, and terminates in an almost black tuft of hair about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length. The tail is black. A black mark extends from the slot for about 2 inches up both the fore and hind legs. There are conspicuous naked elongated glands below the eyes. The horns, which are found in the male animal only, are about 3 inches in length, rather thick and lightly annulated for half their length; they are slightly curved forward or practically straight, and, if anything, form a slight angle with the plane of the face.

Height at shoulder, 19 inches; length from end of muzzle to tip of tail, 36 inches; length of head, $7\frac{1}{4}$ inches; length of tail with tuft, 6 inches; length of tuft, 3 inches; length from between ears to root of tail, 23 inches; girth behind shoulder, $18\frac{1}{2}$ inches; girth round barrel, 22 inches; girth of neck midway between head and shoulders, $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches; length of horns, $3\frac{3}{4}$ — $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches; weight, 28 lbs.

Females of both Gambian Oribi and Crowned Duiker have four teats.

12. Lastly comes the pretty bright-coated Red-flanked Duiker, which stands scarcely 15 inches at the shoulder, but which is remarkably heavy for its size. This Duiker, which is found almost everywhere in West Africa, prefers thick bush or forest country. With its bright chestnut flanks, and blue grey back and limbs, it readily catches the eye as it nimbly makes its way through the bush, with rounded back and nose carried close to the ground. Even when startled it seldom raises its head.

The Red-flanked Duiker is a strong and heavily built little animal and carries any amount of flesh on its body. As a rule only the buck has horns, although I once shot a doe which had incipient horns scarcely half an inch in length.

WILD CATS

SMALLER FELIDÆ.

Owing to the abundance of Guinea Fowl, Francolins, and other feathered game, the smaller Felidæ, along with many birds of prey, find a congenial hunting ground in the Gambia. Of the larger of the small Felidæ, both the Serval (*Felis Serval*) and the Caracal or African Lynx (*Felis Caracal*) occur in the Gambia, although the latter is by no means common. To my certain knowledge, however, one specimen was killed by a native hunter in Kantora;* the Gambia, however, is probably the southern limit of the range of this handsome cat north of the equator. The Serval, however, has a far wider range, and is found nearly everywhere in West Africa, and its appearance is generally well known. Standing about 18 inches in height, the Cat is of slim and elegant build, with long limbs and a light head. The general body colouring is a light yellowish-grey, boldly spotted on the flanks, and striped on the back with black. The back of the ears are barred with black, whilst the tail, which is rather short for the Cat's height, is ringed and tipped with black. I have never yet known any one succeed in taming this Cat, however young it is taken.

The Caracal, or African Lynx, stands rather lower at the shoulder than the Serval, but is a thicker-built animal, and has much more powerful limbs. The general body colouring is sandy-red, which, viewed in a certain light, has a dusky tint, due to the extreme tips of many of the hairs being black. The under parts and the back of the limbs are white, faintly spotted, and barred with rufous yellow. The coat is thick and soft, the ears are large, with black terminal tufts over an inch in length; the backs of the ears are black, flecked with white hairs. Muzzle white, with a black spot on each side of the upper lip.

* One was killed at Kossema in 1910 by Mr. le Cointre.

THE GAMBIA

Tail short, barely reaching to the hocks, and slightly tipped with black. The eyes are greenish-grey, and the pupils circular. The claws of the fore feet only appear to be fully retractile; the claws on the hind feet are always visible, the points being worn off from contact with the ground. The Lynx is a good climber, and readily takes to trees if hard pressed by dogs.

In 1909 I succeeded in taming a Caracal, which I afterwards kept as a pet for over a year. This Caracal fortunately came into my possession when it was a few days old. A previous attempt to tame a Caracal a few weeks old had failed, for although the beast got quite accustomed to a collar and chain, and never attempted to escape, it remained savage to a degree. The second attempt was more successful; the Caracal was at first given cooked meat, but on finding that its teeth were becoming affected by this diet, I gave it raw meat, usually Francolins, soon after they had been shot, and with the feathers on.

Although perfectly tame, and friendly with his master, the Lynx never lost his bloodthirsty instincts, and delighted in stalking and killing any living animal from a pigeon to a sheep. When about a year old I saw it kill a sheep of more than three times its own weight, springing on the shoulders of the sheep, which was in full flight; the Lynx, whose weight was not sufficient to bring the sheep to the ground, steadied himself for a second with his long, sharp claws, then, slipping underneath, seized the sheep by the throat just below the base of the jaw bones. After stumbling for a few yards the sheep fell, and when we arrived on the scene we found him *in extremis*, the Lynx grimly hanging on, his teeth still buried in the sheep's throat.

Although none of the true pigs occur in the Gambia, the Wart-Hog (*Phacochoerus africanus*), which is closely related to them, is found there. The Red River Hog also

WART-HOGS

occurs not many miles south, although I do not believe its range extends north to the Gambia.

During the dry season Wart-Hogs are usually found in the vicinity of the dry open marshes near the river-bank, where in the early morning they may sometimes be seen digging for food. Often the first thing which attracts one's attention is a column of dust rising straight up into the air, caused by these digging operations. The senses of hearing and smell are very acute in the Wart-Hog, their sight also is fairly good, but whilst they are engaged in digging up roots, they are very easily approached, provided the wind is in the right direction.

The Wart-Hog is so called on account of four warty protuberances on the sides of the face. This Hog, which is an exceedingly ugly animal, will weigh close upon 250 lbs. The following are the measurements of an old Hog killed on March 26, 1907:—

Height at shoulder, 31 inches ; length from end of snout to tip of tail, $75\frac{1}{2}$ inches ; length of head from between ears to end of snout, $15\frac{1}{2}$ inches ; girth behind shoulder, 44 inches ; length of upper tusks showing above gums (over curve), $10\frac{1}{4}$ inches.

The general body colouring is a dull mud grey, and with the exception of a quantity of long dark brown bristles on the back which are thickest above the shoulders, and which extend from between the ears to the root of the tail, the hide is naked. Wart-Hogs can travel at a great pace, and when fleeing from an enemy invariably carry their tails straight up in the air. They are also powerful swimmers, and I recollect at McCarthy's Island seeing a youngster scarcely two feet in length, which had been recently caught, make its escape from its box, and jump into the water from the upper deck of an ocean-going steamer, swim round the ship, which was at anchor, and make its escape into the bush in an incredibly short space of time.

THE GAMBIA

The Hunting-Dog (*Lycaon pictus*) is also found in the Gambia, although it is seldom seen. I once, however, almost walked into a small pack drinking at a pool, near the Kunchau River; on seeing me they withdrew rather deliberately, uttering a sort of short bark, and stopping to eye me from time to time, presumably from curiosity. At the first glance, and before I could grasp their size, I thought from their general appearance that they were Hyænas. Although considerably smaller they are a much handsomer animal than a Hyæna, and carry a far finer coat, which is blotched and mottled with patches of black, yellow, and grey.

Both the spotted (*Hyæna crocuta*) and the striped (*Hyæna striata*) variety of Hyæna occur in the Gambia, although the former is the more common. Almost every European who has travelled up country has at some time or other had a goat or sheep seized and carried off from his camp by a spotted Hyæna, whilst sick cows, or calves, that remain out in the bush after dark are frequently killed. Such incidents are often attributed to Leopards, a glance, however, at any tracks which may have been left by the marauder will soon clear the matter up, as the marks of the nails, which are clearly visible in the foot-prints of the Hyæna, do not show in the foot-prints of the Leopard.

At almost any village in the upper river the howl of the Hyæna can be heard at night, although the beast itself is seldom seen. I once, however, met a very big one whilst out after Antelope in broad daylight; with the sun shining on his scanty coat the strange-looking beast appeared almost white in colour, and looked very big. Native hunters say that Hyænas can go many days without eating, but that they drink daily, and when very hungry will swallow a quantity of mud from the river or pool after they have drunk. A spotted Hyæna from the Gambia was presented to the Zoological Gardens

JACKALS AND ANT-EATERS

by Sir George Denton in 1902. I am told that it is now one of the best behaved and tamest Hyænas in the Gardens. In its younger days, however, it was a savage little beast, and outgrew numerous dog collars, the changing of which, when they became too tight for his neck, was always an exciting event.

The commonest Jackal in the Gambia is the side-striped variety, a decidedly handsome Jackal, found usually in pairs. This Jackal appears to have lost its carnivorous tastes, and is very fond of ground-nuts, and a species of wild fig. The natives call it "Kunko Wullo," which means "Farm Dog," and the only one I ever shot was busily engaged in eating ground-nuts in a farm. In 1907 I took two cubs from a litter of six before they were old enough to open their eyes, but they never became very tame, and were at the best snappy little beasts. They would eat anything, and were quite as fond of vegetables and fruit as of meat. These two specimens were presented to the Zoological Gardens by the Governor of the Gambia, but unfortunately died soon after they reached the Gardens.

Ant-eaters are common in the Gambia, but being nocturnal in their habits are seldom seen, except by native hunters, who sit up for them at night, and who say their flesh is excellent eating.

Porcupines are also common, and are said by native hunters sometimes to turn Ant-eaters out of their burrows, when they themselves wish to take up fresh quarters. They do much damage to ground-nut plantations, but the smallest obstacle suffices to keep them out, and for this reason one frequently sees in the Gambia little bamboo fences less than a foot in height, surrounding the ground-nut farms.

Five or six kinds of monkeys are found in the Gambia, by far the commonest of which is the Dog-faced Baboon (*Papio sphynx*), which occurs all over the Protectorate in

THE GAMBIA

large troops of from fifty to two hundred or more. This monkey is the bane of the ground-nut planter, as a troop will not only help itself to as many bushels of nuts as it requires, but will ruthlessly root up the whole farm, whether the nuts are ripe or not.

Large numbers of dogs are trained to watch the farms during the hours of daylight, and regular drives are sometimes organized in the following manner in which large numbers of monkeys are killed. At sunset the Dog-faced monkeys usually take to trees, in which they pass the night; in this way a troop is marked down and surrounded at night by the young men of two or three villages, accompanied by every available dog. Fires are lighted until daybreak, when the monkeys are driven out of the trees, and the hunt commences. No guns are allowed (for obvious reasons), but swords and sticks are used, and if the hunt is well organized, less than fifty per cent. of the troop breaks through the cordon. The dogs are of the greatest help, and in their excitement tackle the monkeys quite fearlessly. Besides "killed," after one of these drives, I have seen eighty "captives" brought in tied hand and foot, and hung on poles; most of these were quite young monkeys, but there were also a few full-grown ones, all of whom died in a day or two, probably from injuries.

The young suckling monkeys are generally carried clinging underneath the stomach of the mother. When pursued and hard pressed the mother will retain them in that position as long as possible, but when she considers she must be caught she snatches them out and flings them to one side without abating her pace.

Two members of the Lemur tribe are found in the Gambia, which I believe are the Potto (*Perodicticus*) and Galgos. I have had specimens of both these animals in captivity. The former animal is exceedingly strong for its small size, and will force its way out of badly

LEMURS, HARES, AND SQUIRRELS

constructed cages at night, although during the daytime it will not try to escape. The specimen I had in captivity was about 8 inches in length, and was a vicious little beast with other animals; I recollect one day catching a Woodpecker, and as I had no cage ready for it, decided to put it in the Lemur's cage whilst I looked for a box; the Lemur, however, at once seized the Woodpecker and, biting it through the head, killed it.

One species of Hare (*Lepus senegalensis*) is found in the Gambia, about 4 lbs. in weight, besides Squirrels, Weasels, and other small mammals, about which very little is known.

These with Rats, Mice, "and such small Deer," practically sum up the Wild Animals of the Gambia Valley from the hunter's point of view, and one can only regret that the observations are not of much more value to the savant.

CHAPTER IV

The Amphibians of the Gambia.

OF the Amphibians in the Gambia the Hippopotamus takes the pride of place, as the largest and perhaps the most interesting.

There is apparently only one species, as the dwarf Hippo is not found north of Sierra Leone, but, although we lack variety, the want is balanced by numbers, especially above the Barra-Kunda Falls, where they can live a peaceful life with little fear of molestation by the native, owing partly to the difficulty of killing him for food, and partly, unlike his dry-land companion, the Elephant, he carries nothing of a commercial value about him.

Formerly the Sea-horses—as they are called by the natives—were found in numbers as low down the river as they could obtain fresh water, but the increase of steam traffic, coupled with the fact that the captain, or others, took pot shots at them wherever seen, has driven most of them out of the steamer channels to the backwaters between Elephant Island and the Baboon Islands, or to the river above McCarthy, and even one hundred miles farther up to the reaches above Yarbu Tenda.

They are plentiful enough, however, in the channels out of the way of steamers, and a herd of nine occupying a channel between the Baboon Islands and the south bank induced me to choose some other way down river. They were decidedly aggressive in their attitude toward my



A DRAGL OF HIPPOS.



THE AUTHOR'S CAMP AFLOAT.

THE HIPPOPOTAMUS

boat, with their heads and backs out of water, as they stood in the shallows and roared at the intruders on their privacy. The Baboon Islands divide the river into three streams, two of which are seldom visited by any vessel larger than a native canoe, of which the Hippo has no fear ; on the contrary, the canoeman has a great respect for the Hippo, especially when the family party is complete, with papa, mamma and baby, in which circumstances it is always dangerous to go near.

And yet they are harmless old water-pigs, quite agreeable to let the man alone if he does not intrude on their privacy in the breeding season, or afterwards, when the mother is bringing up the baby in the way he should go to become a credit to his parents. Above the Barra-Kunda Falls, however, it is not unusual to have a shock from a Hippo rising under the boat, but there the deep-water channels narrow in the dry season, and he is trying to escape without exposing his body as the water shoals ahead of his course.

In the deep pool ploughed out by the meeting of the waters at the junction of the Nerico with the Gambia, there appears to be an assembly of Hippos from both rivers, and there must have been about fifty of all sizes on one occasion when I camped there. The device of Jobson and Stibbs, of hanging out the lantern over the stern of the boat, was adopted to keep the enterprising bulls off, so that they bellowed at a respectful distance ; but sleep was impossible until they went up the bank of the river to have either a late supper or an early breakfast at about two o'clock in the morning.

Owing to the true sportsmanlike attitude of the late Governor of the Gambia, Sir George Denton, all wild animals receive ample protection in the Colony, and the penalty for killing a Hippo is £100, so that the next generation of mankind may still find some of them in British Gambia.

THE GAMBIA

The Manatee, or Manati, is also found in the Gambia as a visitor, but, one must presume, only for the purpose of breeding in fresh water. It is seen, and, sad to say, is sometimes killed, in the network of creeks above Elephant Island, when blocked in a small creek, into which it has penetrated impelled by maternal instincts, and without consulting a local tide table with which to work a passage to deeper water before low water. The "Fish without hands" is well known to both Science and Nautical Fiction, so that even if it were possible to describe it, it is here unnecessary to do more than note its occurrence in the Gambia.

A large species of Porpoise also runs up the Gambia, probably also for breeding purposes, to the same network of creeks just above permanent salt water on the surface of the river. (The fresh water overlies the salt and is drinkable above Elephant Island.)

These are generally in pairs, the two back fins, parallel to each other, about a yard apart, are seen rising and falling together, as they plunge their way up-river, almost as regularly as if the fins were attached to the same monster. On one occasion I shot one of these Porpoises from the bridge of a river steamer (of course in the pursuit of knowledge), as he rose close under the paddle wheels.

The bullet entered the spine just behind the head, and the Porpoise came up floating astern quite dead. We endeavoured to hoist it on board by the boat tackles, but the weight was too great, so with great reluctance we were forced to leave the carcase in the river. The body was about ten feet long, and, although bulky, was beautifully symmetrical in its torpedo-like shape and taper from back fin to head and from the same point to the powerful fluke.

There are two distinct species of Crocodiles in the Gambia, and from study of the specimens at home I take them to be *C. Cataphractus* and *C. Niloticus*.

CROCODILES

The first has a head, rounded above the eye orbits, about one-fifth of the total length, and from the eyes it tapers down to a slender snout with a bulbous nose, on the top of which the nostrils are located. In basking on the top of the water all that is seen of the Crocodile is the dome of the forehead between the eyes, and the bulb of the snout above the water-line.

With head generally up-stream he lies, probably in wait for prey, but on being alarmed there is no fuss or commotion in his retreat, as he sinks silently below the surface, the last thing seen of him being the bulbous nose. The bulb is admirably adapted as a stop to prevent a clove hitch from slipping, when, after having been stunned by a bullet, the animal can be approached for that purpose, for, like other reptiles, the Crocodile takes some time in dying, even after a theoretically mortal wound. The *modus operandi* of the experienced hunter is interesting to the looker-on from a safe distance.

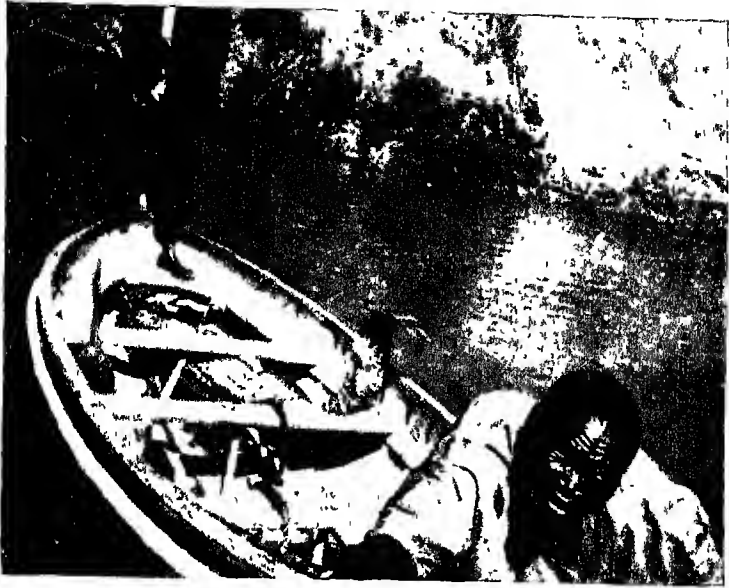
When a good shot tells in the spine, heart, or brain, the tail only quivers gently, while a bad shot simply hurries the quarry into the river, and, even if mortally wounded, he can only be retrieved after a day or two, when he floats belly up, but no one then wishes for his close proximity. Given the former conditions, there is great excitement on board the boat at the view of unlimited "beef" lying on the shore, for most of the Manjago sailors eat Crocodile, so the dingy is called away. Generally the captain, if he is a Manjago, deserts his post readily in view of the excitement of retrieving enough food to victual his ship for a week. On arriving, the boat is grounded noiselessly in the mud, and the loom of an oar is placed across the snout of the Crocodile with one or two men standing on the flat of the oar to keep the mouth closed. The captain then passes a stout rope under the jaws in the soft mud, round the top, and makes a clove or running hitch.

THE GAMBIA

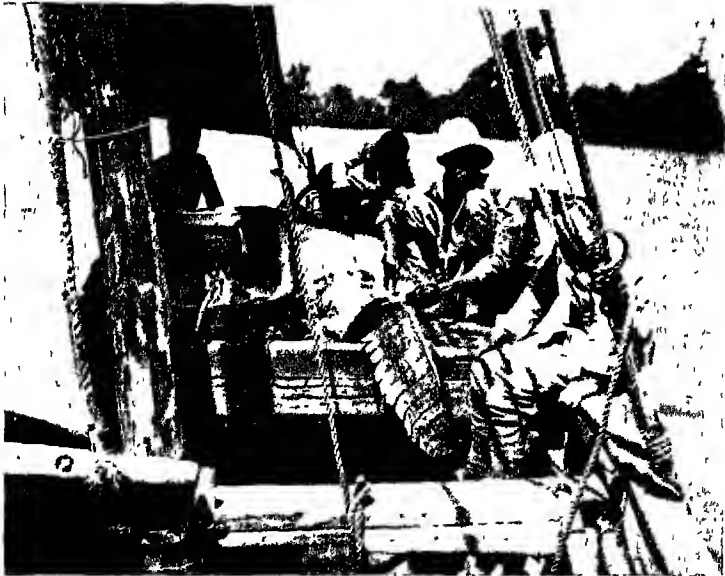
The other end is then carried to the dingy, and thus disarmed for attack the Crocodile is hauled into the river, towed to the cutter, and hoisted aboard by the tackles. Sometimes, appearing really dead, he has been brought off inside the dingy, but this is always dangerous, as, coming to life again, he sometimes breaks things with his powerful tail, and takes sole charge, after the crew have taken to the water for safety. Even four hours after apparent death, with a bullet under the forearm and another at close quarters through the brain, I have seen a twelve-footer clear the forecastle of everything movable with one sweep of his tail, and breaking away, tumble amidship. But the clove hitch holds, and he is harmless for attack.

The other species, *C. Niloticus*, has a shorter head, blunter snout, and a general taper from the back of the skull to the nose. The skull is shorter in proportion to the body than his congener, and the head more square, in addition to which the tail has a double row of fin-like projections ending abruptly in one, at the rather blunt tail fin.

In fact, from a layman's point of view, the *C. Cataphractus* seems more akin to the Lizard shape, while the *C. Niloticus* tends to resemble the fish. It may be that the tidal limit divides the habitat of the two species, but not sharply, for the bottle-nosed variety is found well down the river, although it is more common in absolutely fresh water, where some grow to a greater size than below McCarthy. On the Grey River one was observed, while waiting for other game, over twenty feet long, and others of lesser length were killed near the junction of that river with the Gambia. In the tidal waters, on the other hand, the blunt-nosed Crocodile seems to predominate; he is seldom over fifteen feet in length, and generally ten to twelve feet is regarded as a normal length for the adult. About that and under, they have



BRINGING THE CROCODILE ON BOARD



CUTTING UP THE CROCODILE.

FRESH-WATER TURTLE

been shot yearly in great numbers by the author, for although taking life unnecessarily should be repugnant to one, the Crocodiles are outside the pale, as they prey on all other fauna, and include in their menu both monkey and man. The fewer of them left to breed every rainy season the better are the conditions of life in the next dry season for fish, feather, man, and beast.

The *C. Niloticus* was called an Alligator by Barbot and Moore, but Natural History itself was in its infancy when they wrote about the Gambia and its animals.

Another Nile Valley Amphibian that is found in the Gambia is a fresh-water Turtle, a specimen of which was presented to the Zoo by the author, and identified as belonging to the species *Trionyx triguttatus* or *T. Niloticus*. The specimen in question came from the Ogun River in Lagos, but they are found in all the rivers of the West Coast. The largest specimen taken by the author measured nearly thirty-six inches on the longer axis of the oval carapace, and twenty-six inches across the back. They may be seen frequently floating asleep in the sunshine on the surface of the pools above Barra-Kunda, and appear to be a purely fresh-water denizen. They breed in the dry season, laying their eggs in the banks of fine sand above the water-level, on the sand spits and shoals.

There is another species of Turtle whose habitat is in the brackish water of the Mangrove creeks. He is a great nuisance to the fisherman, for although rarely taken on the line, he makes his presence known by taking the bait and marching off with it over his shoulder, so to speak, as long as the fisherman will pay out; when struck, however, he spits the bait out, and is seldom hooked.

This species is flatter in the carapace than the Green Turtle which is frequently taken off the coast, but there is a family likeness, and it may be the young of that

THE GAMBIA

species living in shallow waters until large enough to take to the ocean.

One of the river-side habitants frequently seen is the Iguana, about which there is a doubt as to his amphibious habits, for although preferring the land as a rule, there is no hesitation about plunging into the river if startled or surprised on the trunk of a tree.

Probably his diving capacities are similar to those of a water-rat, and he rises under the bank with his nostrils above water ; but he takes the plunge as readily as a young Crocodile, with which species on the bank the Iguana appears to be on friendly terms, as he may be found consorting with one or two of them in a splash of sunshine on the shady side of the river.

There are probably many other small amphibians in the Gambia, and there is one species of the Otter tribe, but these scarcely come within ken of the hunter, excepting perhaps the Batrachian members of the group, who make the nights melodious from tree, river, and swamp.

CHAPTER V

The Fishes of the Gambia.

ON this subject, also, it is to be feared that the information given will be of more interest to the fisherman than the savant.

Apart from the scientific work of the late J. S. Budgett, it would appear that the only recorded observations of the fishes of the Gambia are those of Barbot, Moore, Golberry, and other old writers, but these have in some cases a touch of the wonders of travellers' tales, while the illustrations which embellish their descriptions were made before the invention of photography, and show a similar tendency towards the wonderful.

They are, however, extremely interesting as curiosities of the early literature on the Fauna of West Africa, and Père Labat, especially, revels in portraying wonderful birds, beasts, and fishes in his collation and translation of the earlier writers. These, however, touched with the lance of pure science, have been shorn of their wonders, and have fallen into their places in the classification of the Fauna of West Africa.

The deep-sea fishes of the coast of West Africa may be left to the text-books on Ichthyology, as the field of survey includes the tropical part of the Atlantic Ocean on both the African and American coasts, and according to Gunther would even extend to the eastern shores of the continent of the Indian Ocean.

The Gambia, like all tropical rivers, swarms with fish life in the warm shallows about the mouth of the

THE GAMBIA

river, and in the creeks that run through the delta formed by the Island of St. Mary.

The food fishes are well represented, and in fact the Middle ground, and thence seaward towards the Fairway Buoy, offers as fruitful a field for enterprise with a fleet of trawlers as the Arguin Banks, where the French have established their fisheries. The demand, for the markets inland, is unlimited in this class of food.

Fishing over these grounds occupies the energies of a large percentage of the native fishermen of Bathurst, while in the shallows on the coast, and in the creeks of the Island of St. Mary, the seine net seldom comes ashore empty. A large quantity of the fish caught near Bathurst is dried in the sun without salting, and forms a staple of food for people inland, where it is known to the European under the general name of "Stink-fish," irrespective of any distinctive name by which it was known in its lifetime. Mackerel and Mullet are generally dealt with in this way, while the Soles, Couta, and more delicate food fishes form an inexhaustible supply for the tables of both rich and poor, white and black, without which diet many of the latter would perforce become vegetarians, as the meat supply is both small and dear.

For the fisherman with the rod, also, these creeks offer good sport with the fly, minnow, or live bait. The fishing with other baits is naturally left out, although, in the Gambia one would hardly carry the prejudice so far as the Yorkshireman who would not attend the funeral of his late friend, because he had been known on one occasion to fish on the bottom with bait.

Where fish food is necessary to health, as in Africa, one cannot observe such fine distinctions strictly; but as a rule, fishing with bait is done by deputy, as the African, not being a sportsman, is not particular as to the manner in which fish life is taken if the food is available.

The fly and artificial minnow take well near the

FISHING

bridge over Oyster Creek on a rising tide until the flood tide turns. The fly takes a species of Mackerel, possibly the small fry of the Tunny Fish, which abounds all down the coast from the Mediterranean. The spoon or minnow will also take these, as well as what is locally called the Sand Mackerel, which is the Sea Mackerel of other waters.

The greatest sport, however, is to be obtained with live bait, with which anything from a pound to fifty pounds may be taken at the bridge at high water. To use the Irishman's expression, "the water is fairly stiff wid fish"; small Tunny, small Sun-Fish, or Angel Fish, Mackerel of the larger species, Barracouta, and Sharks, the latter to feed on the smaller fishes, who in their turn feed upon the small fry and water insects gathered around the piles of the bridge. The spinning live bait takes Sand Mackerel, Barracouta, Sharks, and other predatory fishes, the first running to 5 or 6 lbs., the second to 15 or 20 lbs., while the last are only regulated by the depth of water on the bar of the creek, and, fast into a 6-foot Shark, one can lose 10s. worth of tackle in ten seconds.

Line-fishing by the natives is also a profitable industry, and is carried on by a fleet of canoes, which keep the market at Bathurst supplied with food. The fleet sails out to certain grounds, the locality varying with the state of the tide, and usually comes back loaded with fish, including some of those above mentioned as well as Soles, Grouper, Rock Cod, Ray, and occasionally a large Tunny or a Saw Fish. It is taking quite a sporting chance to kill these monsters in a light dug-out canoe, and especially so if the fisherman is taken by surprise, as he must be sometimes, for, having reached his ground and set his lines, unless the sport is good, he often lies back and sleeps after his exertions in paddling. It is a common sight to see a canoe lying off the shore

THE GAMBIA

apparently derelict, but a telescope will show a great foot on each gunwale with the lines fast to the big toe, and in this attitude the fisherman slumbers peacefully in the bottom of the canoe awaiting a bite. One can imagine the awakening with a 60-pounder on the run; but few accidents occur, although the light craft has to follow wherever the sweet will of the fish may take it, until, tired out, he can be stunned on the surface or towed ashore.

In addition to the fish enumerated above, we have the Meagre, "Le Maigre" as the French call it, locally "No Belly," which appears to be a free rendering of the name into Pidgin-English. It belongs to the Sciaenoids, and is possibly *S. Aquila*. This fish is common on the North-West Coast of Africa, but apparently only runs into the river in March and April, when a great harvest is reaped by the natives.

They are caught in varying sizes at sea at other times, but the run in spring appears to be composed of mature fish, so that they probably run up the river to spawn. They range from 20 to 30 lbs., and are taken in great numbers from the beach in Bathurst, by means of a signal halyard, large hook, whole mullet, and one nigger-power to haul them ashore, as the native does not believe in playing his fish. They may also be taken on the trolling rod, but they are sluggish and afford but little sport after the first rush.

In the creeks round St. Mary's Island and off the lower part of the river one finds the Mangrove Perch. This I am inclined to think is a climbing Perch, owing to a suspicious habit of lying high up among the mangrove roots, sometimes splashing into the water and making for the deep over the mud at a rapid pace, half exposed in water too shallow for swimming. This fish resembles the specimens in the museum classified as *Anabas scandens*, is a handsome one, and has the Perch dorsal



A SIXTY POUNDER



ICHIHYBORINA. PHAGO—WEST AFRICA

VARIOUS SPECIES OF FISH

fin complete. It is sometimes seen in shallows amongst the Mud Skippers (*Perloptthalmus*), and apparently they have the faculty in common of breathing air.

The Mud Skippers are found in great numbers on the mangrove creeks near the mouth of the river at low tide, and are apparently confined to salt water, as they do not appear higher up the river.

A species of Shad, probably the Allis Shad, runs into the West African rivers, and is sometimes taken in the Gambia. Those illustrated, however, were taken with a Devon minnow off the mouth of the Rio Fresco (*Rufisque*). They are very game, and afford both plentiful and good sport when a shoal is met with.

The Trevally is also found in the mouth of the rivers and about the anchorage of steamers, in 5 to 6 fathoms of water, but I have never taken it in the river.

The Red Schnapper is found off the mouths of the river, generally on rocky ground, and affords good sport with the rod.

Then there is also a fish of the Bream tribe which resembles the Black Bream of Sydney Harbour, and may be identical, excepting in the colour, which is lighter, possibly due to warmer and fresher waters in his habitat of the Gambia. Like the Black Bream, this fish is seldom taken in the daylight.

Barracouta, or "Couta," as they are locally called, abound near the mouth, and are sometimes found high up the river, but only occasionally.

Gar Fish of two species are found, for the most part near the sea, but they can also be taken at McCarthy, but only in small fry as far as known.

A Mullet with a peculiar gristly, or adipose, lump on the nose is more or less common near the mouth of the river and along the seaward shore of St. Mary's Island; it is locally known as the Shine-nosed Mullet,

THE GAMBIA

owing to the phosphorescence of the nasal appendage in question. It runs to 3 lbs. or more, and is therefore a heavy member of its tribe if it is a true Mullet.

Ascending the river, probably owing to the great width, and the enormous area of water fished, it is very seldom that one finds any fish but Cat Fish and Sharks, and the former take readily, but the natives say they are not good for "White Man," by which legend they secure the whole catch for their "Chop." Both are numerous, the former on the bottom, where he appears to be able to defend himself against the latter by grovelling in the mud, and the latter cruising in search of food. It is not unusual to have an interview with both at the same time, by the Shark swallowing the Cat Fish when he is being hauled in.

After passing Elephant Island, 90 miles from the mouth, the river, about a mile wide up to that point, divides into several branches, which meander in devious ways round islands, many of them not much above water, and crossed by innumerable creeks and waterways, while the banks are also intersected by mangrove creeks running far inland. Here are found in large numbers the large amphibious animals as well as the marine mammalia, especially during the rainy season.

In these creeks are bred Mud Fish, Flat Fish, somewhat like a Skate, with many a weird eel of gigantic size and primeval fishes with embryonic eyes, gills, and a single caudal fin, as if still in the process of evolution. Here also the Siluroid Fishes flourish with the Polypterus and Protopterus, although also met with 200 miles above, while it is the happy hunting-ground of the Crocodile and gigantic Iguanas, hidden in the luxuriance of the tropical vegetation that fringes the creeks and covers every inch of the alluvial flats, excepting where it has been destroyed by man.

In such surroundings with fishes, reptiles, frogs,



MY FAMILIARS—TOBY AND CHAPPIE



A TRIO OF SPECKLED BEAUTIES

CURIOUS SPECIMENS

amphibious mammalia, and innumerable birds and apes, all within an area of one thousand square miles of water, salt, brackish and fresh ; of warm mud and silt ; of littoral vegetation ; and of primeval forest ; one can well imagine the march of evolution from the lower to the higher forms of life as still going on. But for the pestiferous interference of monkey and man, with their desire to kill for killing's sake, thus destroying the sequence, one might mark sea forms passing through the stages that fit them for their amphibious life and their progress upward, through conditions that inure them to a life on land, higher up on the banks of the fresh-water tributaries of their bed of evolution.

In an African river it is most interesting to set a series of short lines at different depths, depending from a cable strained tightly across the river above the water, with a bell on the land end to announce the capture of a specimen.

The taut cable acts like a rod and both strikes and kills the fish automatically.

Of course with a true "fisherman" this is only done for the purpose of scientific study, as one would not fish with bait, although the crew of the boat have no such silly scruples, and eat the catch with as much gusto as if it had been killed with a rod and on single gut. The weird things that one sometimes finds in the morning would be the soul's delight of a professor of natural history.

Alas ! travelling or working in West Africa affords little time to sit down with Gunther in hand and endeavour to identify genera and species, so that all the curios go the same way, down the Kruboy's throat, irrespective of their rarity, so long as they give the rice a strong taste of fish.

About 160 miles from the mouth where the last of the islands is passed, the river becomes a stream about 200 to 250 yards wide, confined between banks which gradually increase in height in ascending the stream.

THE GAMBIA

One is inclined to think that, as the river narrows, the life of a fish becomes more strenuous, as the Crocodiles increase in number when compared with the bulk of water, the Fish Hawks appear on the banks more frequently, and the negro sets traps, builds fish fences, and fishes continuously with the line. From this or some other natural reason, there are only a few species that will take the lure in the upper river. The ubiquitous Cat Fish still persists, but with changes in colour and fin power, and by the latter change he becomes more interesting on the rod, although, being a bottom feeder, he cannot attain to the rank of a sporting fish. Above McCarthy Island, and in fact for some distance below, he is joined by his opposite member in the animal kingdom, locally known as the Dog Fish, who, like his quadrupedal namesake, is much more useful in the domain of sport. This so-called "Dog Fish" is not to be confused with the Shark species of the English coast, called by the same name. His local name comes from the rounded contour of the mouth, with teeth on the upper and lower jaw, which certainly has a dog-like appearance. In body and fins, tail and colouring, he is not unlike a grayling, while his undoubted adipose fin also marks the species as allied to the Salmon genus. The teeth are conical, those on the upper jaw fitting between the teeth on the lower jaw. The scales are comparatively large on the body, diminishing towards the powerful homocercal tail with which the fish develops great speed, and is therefore a worthy foe on a trout rod with tackle to suit. The smaller ones up to $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. will take the "ground-nut" quite readily on fine ends, while if the nut is pounded into a paste with a little flour and used on a flight of hooks, one may take two or three at the same time. When struck, they leap clean out of the water and frequently shake or break free, so that the odds are not all on the side of the rod.

DOG FISH

The natives also take the Dog Fish, up to 5 or 6 lbs., with a hand line, by burlying the clear water with dust and broken nutshells from the ground-nut yard, and allowing a peeled nut to sink slowly through the clouded water. The ground-nut, however, is not their natural food, as from their teeth and general attributes they are predatory, and in taking it they have adapted themselves to new conditions within the last eighty years, as the ground-nut was introduced to the Gambia in 1832.

In the open river, away from the wharfs, the Dog Fish will not take anything but live bait, but the best of sport may be had by trolling with a light rod, piano wire ends, and a small Archer spinner. The wire ends are necessary to ward off the attacks of young crocodiles with which the river swarms, and many a carefully prepared bait comes in mangled by them after a short but fierce run of the reel. The bony palate of these pests prevents even a treble hook taking hold, otherwise one would not wish for better sport than a three-foot crocodile, as they are tremendously fast in the water while young.

The Barracouta penetrates the upper waters as far as McCarthy, 160 miles from the sea, and possibly above. He is generally ravenous when taken there, as he probably encounters a brisker competition for food than on the lower reaches. This fish also takes anything spinning, or giving a semblance of life, but, as a rule, he is thin and not in condition so far from the sea.

Another sporting fish for the trolling rod, in the pools above tidal reaches, is a large Carp or Perch which has been identified as another Nile specimen found on the Western Littoral of Africa (*Lates Niloticus*). This fish runs to a large size, but not as large as his congener in the Nile, where it is said to attain to 150 lbs., while 40 to 50 is its maximum in West Africa.

THE GAMBIA

When taken on the line this fish also adopts the jumping tactics, and springs clear out of the water, shaking his head like a terrier killing a rat, and falling back with a resounding splash before settling down to his endeavour to break the line by sheer strength.

These efforts are probably effective in their struggles with their natural parasites, or with small Crocodiles and fresh-water Sharks, both of which are found in the same waters.

Live or spinning bait is readily taken by the Nile Perch, and a small Mullet or Bull-headed Trout spinning through the water at about 3 miles an hour will readily raise him from the deeps of the pool in which he lies during the dry season.

It is hard to say whether the Nile Perch is purely a fresh-water fish, but he is rarely seen in brackish or salt water in the Gambia.

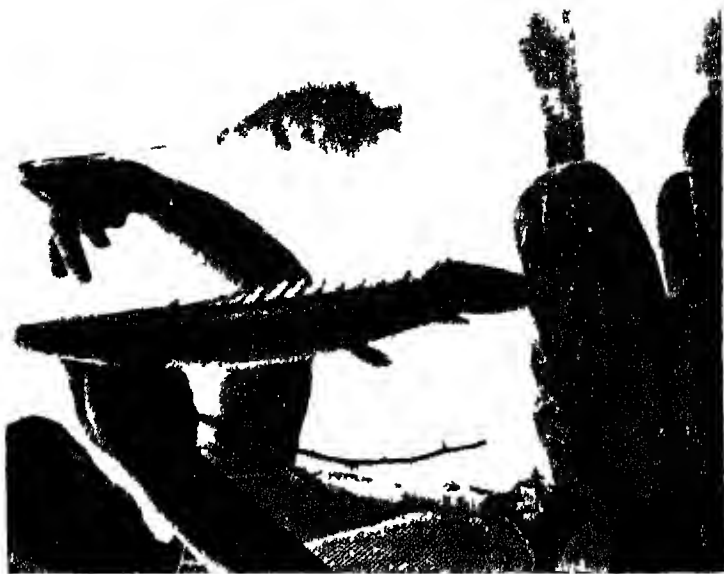
The Bull-headed Trout (so called in the West Indies) may also occasionally be taken with a small spoon or spinning bait, artificial worm, or minnow, in the rapids above Barra-Kunda where the river is entirely fresh.

His habitat appears to be the fast water between the pools where he can avoid the monsters that lie in wait above and below.

A fresh-water Mullet is also found in the upper waters, but it is hard to say whether he inhabits them all the year round.

The peculiar conditions of the great rivers of West Africa, in high flood for 4 to 6 months with water 15 to 20 feet above the dry season level, and then, above the tidal influence, falling away to a string of pools and rapids, make it difficult to determine whether a fish is in his own water or merely landlocked and undergoing changes of colour during the process of acclimatization owing to the change of conditions and food.

Thus the Cat Fish, Mullet, and Shark, which persist



POLYPTERUS—PERCH



JOBS CATCH—FRESH WATER MULLET

FISH TRAPS

throughout 400 miles of the Gambia, from the sea to the pools and rapids above the Nerico, appear to be identical, with the exceptions of colour, which is lighter, and form, which is slighter, probably due to scarcity of food, but still they may have specific differences for the savant which do not leap to the eye of the fisherman.

The natives of West Africa take their fish in the most unsportsmanlike manner, in fact, there is not the slightest trace of a desire for sport, but simply that of obtaining food with as little trouble and fatigue as possible. They build small fish fences on the edge of the stream, which they bait with offal or bones; they also build strong fences across a small tributary and on the faster waters, where they use a trap between the stakes; both the bottle-shaped and the basket traps of different designs are used with an entrance formed like a funnel with long strips of bamboo, easily forced by the fish in entering, but opposing their exit by sharpened points, which close together automatically when the fish has entered.

Another device used by them is a short stout line made fast to a boulder or root in the stream and carrying a large baited hook. The bait, generally a small fish, is supported by a small float of cork wood about a yard distant from the bait, and so arranged that it plays about in the running water.

Traps are laid for Crocodiles in somewhat the same manner, tied to a root or a tree on the bank of a deep pool, but the hook is replaced by a short bar attached to a length of chain, formerly home-made by the village blacksmith, but now generally fashioned of telegraph wire stolen from the Government lines.

The bar is 4 to 6 inches in length, sharp as a needle at both ends, and swivelled on the chain like the bar of a dog-chain.

The bar is lashed parallel to the chain with a slight thread, and in this position passed down the throat of a

APPENDIX

LIST OF MANDINGO AND JOLLOF BIRD-NAMES

By DR. E. HOPKINSON.

Commonly used names in Bathurst are in inverted commas, " ".

ENGLISH.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Firefinch. Cordon bleu. Waxbill. Combasou.	Moro kunundigo. Temento kunundingo. Sanna-fintong or Nyanna, fintong.	Ramatu. Kumba-suban. (Evi- dently the source of the name of this bird, which was originally given it by Viellot.)
Yellow Weaver—" Palm- bird." Paradise Whydah Glossy Starling. Long-tailed G. S. Cryptorhina.—" Jackdaw." Crow (<i>C. scapularis</i>). Drongo. Babbler. Golden Oriole.	Katcho. Weer, Weer-weer. Weer djuti-jangya. Chàchà fino. Kàna. Séoro-séo. Sonka-sonka. Katchabà (also=other yellow birds). Allalà-nansingo (=Allah's darling). Chàchà, Sé-séo. Kudúng-kudúng. Katchabà Bubù-kila.	Làro-làro. Yerayer. Gulagul. Khelakhel. Bakbofi. Katcha-katcha.
Wood-Shrike (<i>Prionops</i>). Long-tailed Shrike. Barbary Shrike. Yellow-breasted Bush- Shrike (<i>Malaconotus</i>). Black-headed Bush-Shrike (<i>Telephonus</i>). Swallow and Swift. Pennant-winged Nightjar.	Ndoio. Nàna. Dabbu-dabbu (Kuno), Jahl-lo. Taka or Taka-barring- dingo. Keer-kutàrong.	Ndokh, Ndukh. Mbélar. Pitchi-dai. Bakhar.
Red Bee-eater. Roller.		

APPENDIX

LIST OF BIRDS—continued.

ENGLISH.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Wood-Hoopoe.	Ka-dádda.	
Ground Hornbill.	Mansa Deebong.	Ndobia.
Brown Hornbill.	Kilongkong.	Killingko.
Black and White Hornbill.	Marrinà; Joni=kumba	
Variegated Turaco.	Kowkow.	
Violaceous Turaco.	Kowkow Mansa (=King of the Kowkows).	
Pied Kingfisher.	Jilango.	Babukar.
Blue Kingfisher.	Keer-kairrlong.	
Coucal, "Foolish Bird."	Kandi-wutu.	
Crested Cuckoo.	Jambo-doodoo.	
Common Cuckoo.	Samma-sélingo.	
Woodpecker.	Yiro-kongkonnà.	Ngortan.
Green Fruit Pigeon.	Puto-puto; locally Puro- puro.	
	Této-préto, the young.	
<i>Black Pigeon.</i>	Bitá-fín.	Pegel, general name for the larger doves.
Rhyn Pigeon.	Kallawàri.	Khetahet.
Dove.	Purà.	Mpétah.
Ringneck Parrakeet.	Kelli-kelli or Chàkelli.	Tchoy; Kele.
Senegal Parrot, "Dum- dum."	Jobo.	Ndumdum.
Owl.	Kikio; Kiklango.	Horgetch.
Eagle.	Bibo.	Jakhay.
Fish-Eagle.	Kulangjango.	Kulanjang.
Vulturine Sea-Eagle.	Doo-o forro.	
Vulture.	Doo-o.	Tan.
Hawk (general name, includes the Kite, etc.).	Sélingo.	Litchin.
Black Ibis.	Kaung-à.	Njurkel.
Spoonbill.	Dadosa.	
Hammerhead, "Jola King."	Seyra-jàta.	
White Egret.	Harikoio.	Khordà; Tortor.
Cattle Egret, "Tick-bird."	Kununkoio.	Nyarapulo.
Heron (various species).	Jébungo.	Reg.
	Turolélengo.	Tarakh.
	Sarr-kulah.	
Mangrove Bittern.	Kaung-ah.	
Marabout Stork.	Jimmu.	Jimmi; Ngedj.
Wood Ibis.	Kamindo.	
Pelican.	Kabbo.	Njagabar.
Cormorant or Darter	Turo-duno.	Ntchulà.
"Water-dux."		
Saddle-billed Stork.	Hello.	
Duck.	Burro.	Hankhel; Kanarr.
Goose.	Burro-bà.	Ità.
Gull or Tern.	Bata-nàna.	Dor.
Curlew.	Kunukuko.	Ndiberle.
Plover.	Temo-temo.	Wetawet.
Thickknee Plover.	Kuling-kuling.	
Jacana.	Jite-suséo.	
Bustard, "Bush Turkey."	Kunko-duntungo.	Gemet.

APPENDIX

LIST OF BIRDS—continued.

ENGLISH.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Crowned Crane.	Kumáro.	Jambajob.
Ostrich.	Suruntukuno.	Bah ; Banjoli.
Bushfowl. (<i>Framcolinus</i> .)	Wollo.	Ntchokèr.
Stone Bushfowl. (<i>Ptilo-</i>	Wantiro.	Ganar u ala.
<i>pachys</i> .)		
Quail. (<i>Coturnix</i> .)	Jatto-berrando.	Tiprip.
Guineafowl.	Kammo.	Nât.
Sand-Grouse. " Barbary	Pilli-pilleecho.	
Quail."	'Mbirro in the Upper	
	River.	
Fowl.	Suséo.	Ganar.
Hen.	Suse-muso.	Ganar gu jigen.
Cock.	Duntungo.	Sekhá.
	Farandumbéo, a red cock.	

LIST OF MAMMALS.

ENGLISH AND LOCAL.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Antelopes—		
Cob.	Wonto.	Koba.
Crowned Duiker.	Mankero Wullengo.	
Eland.	Jinki-Janko.	
Harness Antelope.	Manango.	Jib.
Hartebeeste.	Tongkongo.	
Korrigum.	Kallabu-tonkong.	
Oribi.	Mankara koio.	
Reedbuck.	Konkitongo.	Mbila.
Red flanked Duiker.	Kuntango.	
Roan Antelope.	Dakoio.	Tchar.
Situiunga.	Bato-Menango.	Kéwél.
Water Buck.	Sing-singo.	Sinsin.
Ant-bear.	Timpo.	Njahat.
Baboon (dog-face).	Kongo.	Gong.
Bat.	Tonso.	Njugup.
Buffalo.	Sib.	
Bull.		Yuka.
Camel.	Nyonkomo.	Gelem.
Caracal.	Jatangkana.	
Cat.	Nyankummo.	Mûs.
Civet cat.	Bambango or Kuling-kato.	Sikor.
Dog.	Wullo.	Khaj.
Donkey.		Mbamsef.
Elephant.	Sammo.	Ney.

APPENDIX

LIST OF MAMMALS—continued.

ENGLISH AND LOCAL.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Giraffe.	Tiréyo.	Siket (<i>male</i>), Bey (<i>female</i>).
Goat.		
Ground Squirrel.	Kon Sorio.	
Hare.	Sango.	Leg.
Hippopotamus.	Mallo.	Leber.
Horse.		Fas.
Hunting Dog (<i>lycaon</i>).	Jurruto.	
Hyæna (<i>spotted</i>).	Suluo.	Buki.
" (<i>striped</i>).	Namano suluo.	
Jackal.	Kunko wullo.	Ntila.
Leopard.	Solo.	Mafar.
Lion.	Jatto.	Daba.
Monkey.	Sulo.	Golog.
Mouse.	Nyino.	Jinah.
Pig.		Mbam.
Porcupine.	Balo.	Sây.
Rat.	Nyino.	Jinah.
Serval.	Kulungkato or Bambango.	Sâbl.
Squirrel.	Kirruno.	Hojoh.
Wart-Hog.	Wullonkono séo.	Mbam'-ala.

LIST OF REPTILES.

ENGLISH.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Chameleon.	Nyankongkorongo.	Kakatar.
Crocodile.	Bambo.	Jasik.
The long narrow-nosed species.	Sori-soro.	Maymabo.
Frog and Toad.	Toto.	Mbota.
Gecko.		Onka.
Lizard.	Basso.	Sindakh.
Monitor, "Iguana."	Kanna.	Bar.
Snake.	Sah.	Jân.
Python.	Minuyango.	Nyangor.
Tortoise.	Tanto.	Mbonat.
Turtle.	Kuto.	Ndumar.

APPENDIX

LIST OF FISHES, CRUSTACEANS, ETC.

ENGLISH.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Allis Shad.		
Barbel.		
Barracouta.	Wong-Kango.	Njuna.
Bream.		
Cod.		
Cat Fish.	Kunkulengo.	
Crab.	Nyonkuro.	Tchoholan.
Crayfish.	Nderri-nderri.	Sipasipa.
Dog fish.		
Eels.		
„ Electric.		
Flat Fish.	Konno-konno.	
Gar Fish.		
Grouper.		
Mackerel.		
Maigre (Le).		
Mangrove Perch.		
Mud Fish.		
Mud Skippers.		
Mullet.		
Nile Perch.		
Polypterus.		
Porpoise.		
Protopterus.		
Rays.		
Saw Fish.		
Schnapper.		
Sharks.	Patamo.	Tchakh.
Skate.		
Sole.		
Sun Fish.		
Sword Fish.		
Trevally.		
Trout.		
Tunny.		
Turtle.		

LIST OF INSECTS.

ENGLISH.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Ant (general name). Soldier Ant. White Ant, " Bugabug."	Minnimenango. Keltiä. Baba.	Melentan. Honhonor. Màkh.

APPENDIX

LIST OF INSECTS--continued.

ENGLISH.	MANDINGO.	JOLLOF.
Bee.	Kumburungo.	Yemba.
Butterfly.	Konkito-berro.	Leppa-leppa.
Centipede.	Sà-gna-gnana.	Worworan
Flea.	Jatiokollo.	Fèl.
Fly.	Sio.	Wefi.
Mangrove Fly.	Jollo.	Koross.
Tsetse Fly.	Si-jollo or Jollo-fin.	
Grasshopper.	Tongo or Jatto-tongo.	Salir.
Hornet	Duntung-karalango.	Nguri.
Locust.	Kuntingo.	Sochet.
Louse.	Karanko and Dabo.	Tèfi.
Maggot.	Tumbo.	
Mosquito.	Susula and Sisilingo.	Yor.
Scorpion.	Buntàlo.	Jit.
Spider.	Talingo.	Jargoñ.
Tapeworm.	Joll-lo.	Songuf bir.
Guinea Worm.	Seylengo.	Songuf.

INDEX

- ABASSID, Khalif, 23
 Accra, 29
Advice, brigantine, 67
 African Company, The, 54
 African Society, The, 83
 Agra beads, 19
Albert, steamer, 97
 Albreda, 58-61, 64, 76-78, 81-82, 145,
 189; exchanged, 97
 Alexandrian Library, 7, 12
 Ali Souko, 82, 87
 Allahi, river, 194
 Allen, Grant, 185
 Anderson, Dr., 90
 Angra-Pequena, 53, 101
 Arabians, 22, 25, 26, 43, 173-175, 179,
 204
 Arguin Banks, 266
 Arguin Island, 8, 38
 Askia the Great, 23, 36, 41, 46, 175
 Astley's "Voyages," 27, 30, 31, 35-37,
 80, 185, 190, 199, 212
 Azanaghi, tribe, 24, 181, 182

 BA DIMMA, river, 150, 155, 165
 Baboon Islands, 140, 258, 259
 Baddibu, tribe, 98
 — Kingdom of, 143, 144, 206
 Badet Mountain, 119
 Bady, town, 121-124, 147
 Bai Creek, 143
 Bakau, native town, 193
 Ballangar (Joar), 58, 66, 78-9, 142
 Bambarras, tribe, 41, 207
 Bambuk, 32, 84, 108, 175
 Bananko, 129
 Banks, Sir Joseph, 83
 Bantu, tribe, 24
 Banyons, tribe, 94, 178, 183, 188, 193
 Barbot, French author, 27, 28, 185,
 212, 215, 263-265
 Barra (or Barsally), King of, 59, 64-65,
 71, 78, 81, 94, 98, 173
 — Kingdom of, 143, 206
 Barra Point, 9, 92, 99, 146-147, 156,
 165, 179, 206
 Barra-Kunda, 49-51, 68, 97, 129-130
 — Falls, 67, 72-73, 127-131, 258,
 259, 263, 274

 Barrading, town, 98
 Bairos, quoted, 176
 Baskaries, tribe, 178
 Bassaris, tribe, 50-51, 122, 171, 176,
 178, 203
 Basset, Thomas, 45
 Bassy, 135-136
 Batelling, 144
 Bathurst, 6, 44, 86, 97-99, 132, 136-
 138, 143-147, 152, 165, 193, 211, 218-
 221, 247, 266-268
 — founding of, 92
 Baton, Henry, 63
 Battu Mansa, 36-37, 183, 205
 Beathencourt, Jean de, 45
 Belfoud, Villaud de, 27
 Bello, Sultan, 52
 Bemoy's, Jollof chief, 38-39
 Beretto, 44
 Berif, 130, 235
 Bintam (*see under* Vintang)
Bird Notes, 212
 Bismarck, Prince, 101
 Bussao, 60, 93
 Bombale Creek, 142
 Bondou, 108, 199, 202
 — Desert, 115, 127, 150
 Boroba Wharf, 138
 Bour Saloam, Chief, 173-174
 Bourguignon, Sieur, 58
 Bourri Mines, 204
 Brefet Creek, 146
 Brereton, Colonel, 91
 Broken (or Boid) Islands, 6, 11, 146
 Brown, Mr., 32
 Bruku Rocks, 131, 137-138, 199
Buckar Sano, trader, 18, 49-50, 124
 Budgett, John S., 212, 265
 Bulol, village, 190
 Bumbrongs, tribe, 74, 188
 Burton, Sir Richard, 27, 99
 Bussa, Falls of, 88

 CACHEO, 60, 189
 Cadiz, 8
 Camden, Lord, 89
 Canary Islands, 186
 Cape Bald, 6, 7, 11
 — Blanco, 8, 31, 93

INDEX

Cape Bojador, 30-31
 — Coast Castle, 27, 94
 — Islands, 35
 — Lybia, 8
 — Non, 30
 — Rosco, 37
 — St. Mary, 6, 7, 99, 144-147, 156-157, 165, 193
 — Verde, 13, 27-28, 33-35, 160, 190
 Cape-Cairo Railway, 53
 Carat, origin of the term, 19
 Carnarvon, Lord, 102
 Carrol's Wharf, 140-142
 Carthaginians, 8, 9, 19, 21, 38, 188
 Casamance, river, 72, 119-120, 130, 133, 143-145, 153, 178, 189-191, 194, 198, 211
 Cassal, Dr. Hugh, 57
 Catherine, ship, 48, 49, 140
 Chamois, river, 246
 Chandos, Duke of, 66
 Charles I., King, 54
 — II., King, 54-55
 Charters to merchants, 47, 54
 Clapperton, Mr., 52
 Colbert, Mr., 56
 Combo, 97, 193
 —, King of, 189
 Commenda, 28
 Compagnie des Indes occidentales, 55-56
 — du Senegal, 56, 57
 — Normand, 52-56
 — Royale du Senegal, 57, 58
 Company of Merchants trading to Africa, 81, 91, 93
 Congo, river, 6
 — Free State, 53
 Convention of 1904..140-141
 Cook, Captain, 89
 Corker, Governor, 59-62
 Crescent, transport, 89
 Crisp, Sir Nicholas, 54
 Cromwell, Oliver, 54
 Cubit, origin of the term, 19

 DAISY, King, 86
 Dakar, 239
 Damatang, 121-124, 176
 Dasalami, 135
 De Barros, Portuguese Chronicler, 30-31
 De Brue, Andre, 57, 60-62, 77, 188-189
 De Genne, Comte, 58, 62, 77
 De Lausan, M., 81
 De Pontdeveza, M., 81
 De St. Vaudrille, Capt., 62
 Deer Islands, 141-142
 Denham, quoted, 17
 Denianke, tribe, 198

Denton, Sir George C., 237, 242, 246, 255, 259
Despatch, ship, 66
 Devil's Point, 143
 Diaz of Lagos, Vincent, 33
 Dieppe Merchants, 27-29, 52
 Dobo, 137
 Dog Island, 9, 44, 143-145, 165
 Domba, river, 118
Dover, steamer, 97
 Dubois, M., 15, 16, 23-25
 Dumasangsang Creek, 142, 143
 Dunkuku, town, 142

 EDA, town, 140
 Edrisi, author, 68
 Egyptians, 15-16, 20
 El Mina, 28-29
 Elephant Island, 78, 140-144, 152, 157, 258-260, 270
 Elizabeth, Queen, 38, 42, 45
 Emirates, 46
 Euphrates, river, 20
 Europina, 140, 142
 — Creek, 141
 Exetor merchants, 45

 FABIAN, William, 37
 Fairway Buoy, 147, 266
Falcon, H.M.S., 98
 Falome, river, 118-120
Fanfaron, brigantino, 63
 Faraba, 146
 Fatta Tenda, 48, 51, 69, 72, 125-127, 133-135, 236
 Finde-fato, port, 135
 Floops, tribe (*see under* Jolabs)
 Fodi Kabba, chief, 143-144
 Fogni, King of, 59, 64, 189
 —, Kingdom of, 179, 193
 Fogo, volcano, 160
 Foreign Bird Club, 212
 Forolangoli, chief, 36
 Fort Bullen, 99
 — James, 48, 56, 57, 68-69, 77-81, 91, 145, 188-189, 199, 207; bombardment of, 58-59; storming of, 62
 — St. Mary, 92, 193
 Fouta Jallon Mountains, 17-18, 26, 36, 89, 115, 118-121, 149-155, 171, 176, 197-204, 211
 Fouta Toro, 179, 199, 202-203, 207
 French in West Africa, the, 27-28, 37, 42-45, 52-54, 102-106
 Frozer, M., 58
 Fuladugu, King of, 141
 —, Kingdom of, 130-139, 177, 194, 198, 202
 Fulah, tribe, 39-41, 78, 87, 106, 175-179, 194, 197-203, 207
 Fulah's Ford, 138

INDEX

- GAGO, 47, 50
 Galbeny, quoted, 29
 Gambia, port of the, 44
 — river, navigable extent of, 10, 68;
 discovered by the French, 29-30;
 Portuguese on the, 32, 42-45; its
 sources discovered, 92, 115-116;
 chart of, 97; hinterland of, 103-105;
 French designs on, 107; described
 from its source to the sea, 115-148
 Gambissara-Kuta, 132, 133
Gambra Casile, ship, 63-65
 George III., King, 89
 Geregia, 58, 60, 69, 145 (*see also under*
 Vintang)
 Germany in Africa, 53, 101
 Gibraltar, 5
 Gilianez, Portuguese explorer, 31, 43
 Gillifree, 67, 85, 145
 Goa, 14
 Golberry, M., 81-82, 265; quoted, 191-
 192
 Gold in the Gambia, 166
 Gonzalez, Antonis, 31
 Goree, 28, 58, 59, 62, 78, 81, 87-89;
 evacuation of, 91
 — Island, 63
 Gosselin, M., 10
 Gouldsbury, Governor, 102-103, 111
 Grand Sestros, 28
 Grey River, 119-121, 124, 129-131,
 176, 203, 263
 Gri-gri, charm, 20, 191
 Ground-nut, cultivation of the, 95-96,
 103, 107-108, 125-126, 130, 134-135,
 138-142
 Gualata, 23, 172-173
 Guebbard, M., 177, 197, 203
 Guenotto, 126-129
 Guinea, 15-16, 28, 42-43
 Gunjour, 194
 Gunther, quoted, 265, 271

 HAKLUYT, quoted, 47
 Half Die, 44, 97, 146
 Hanbury, Governor, 58
 Hanno, Carthaginian Explorer, 8-12,
 134, 187
 Harrison, Mr., 72
 Hawkins, Sir John, 43
Hermione, ship, 62
 Herodotus, quoted, 5-7, 10, 68
 Hobart, Lord, 89
 Holland, war with, 55
 Holmes, Capt. Sir Robert, 55
 Hopkinson, Dr. E., 212, 216, 233, 242,
 277
 Houghton, Major, 83-88

IBIS, newspaper, 211
 Indea, river, 142

 JAKANDA Creek, 95
 Jali, town, 144
 Jallacotta, King of, 50
 —, town, 123
 James I., King, 47
 James Island, 9, 36, 53-55, 58, 67-71,
 81, 86, 143, 146; our first African
 possession, 145 (*see also under* Fort
 James)
 Jannequin, quoted, 204
 Jarra, Kingdom of, 79, 143-144
 Jarrume, 139
 Jemarrow, Kingdom of, 137, 140
 Jenne, Kingdom of, 15-19, 22-25,
 38, 59, 134-135, 175-176, 187, 197,
 205
 Jera Kunda, 50
 Jinnak Creek, 144-146
 Joal, 18, 59, 60
 Joally, 78
 Joar (*see under* Ballangar)
 Job ben Solomon, 78-79
 Jobson, Capt. Richard, 18, 49-54, 67,
 97, 123-124, 176, 199, 206, 214,
 259
 Jolah (Floop), tribe, 31, 34, 61, 106,
 171, 178, 179; their warlike nature,
 191-194; their beliefs, 195
 Jollofs, tribe, 17, 20, 25, 34, 39, 106,
 172-174, 179, 194, 207; described,
 180-189
 —, chief of the, 38, 180
 Jurunku Creek, 145

 KAR HAI Islands, 139, 157
 Kali Tenda Hills, 137
 Kamalia, 87
 Kansala, 145
 Kantora, Kingdom of, 124-125, 129-
 130, 133, 176, 198, 203, 238, 251
 Kanube, 136
 Karantaba, 84, 137
 Kassar, 42, 48, 50, 140
 Katamina, 142
 Katchang Creek, 144
 Kau-ur, 142
 Kayes, 86, 107, 108, 120, 141
 Kiang, Kingdom of, 143-144
 Kitchener, Lord, 101
 Knoll Buoy, 147
 Koina, 130
 Kokun, 126
 Koly Tencela, Chief, 198
 Kommo, 94
 Kong Mountains, 14, 151, 155, 160
 Kontu-ur, 140
 Kormantin, 29
 Korobumba, 130
 Kossema, 136-137, 251 n.
 Kossoun, 127, 132
 Kossun Cliffs, 167

INDEX

- Kudang Wharf, 140-142
 Kulari, 135, 179
 Kunchau Creek, 136, 254
 Kununka, 140
 Kunyadis, tribe, 122, 171, 177, 203
 Kwinella, 144
- LA BLONDE*, corvette, 82
 La Roque, Capt., 62-63
 Labat, Père, 27-30, 60, 65, 185, 189, 212-215, 265
 Labé, 115, 120, 147-149
 Lagos, 105, 263
 Laidley, Dr., 84-87
 Lamin Creek, 44, 145
 — Point, 145
 Le Cointre, M., 251 n.
 Le Maire, quoted, 184-185, 212-213
 Leach, John, 72
 Ledyard, missionary, 83
 Legrand, M. Réne, 130
 Leo Africanus, 16, 41-47, 68, 70, 172-173, 185
 Leo X., Pope, 41
 Leyden, Dr., 7-13, 16, 23, 27, 32, 39, 47, 50-51, 84, 172, 180
 Lok, Capt. John, 42
 Louis XIV., King, 56
 Lower Niana, 138-140
 Lowther, mate, 64
 Lucas, missionary, 83
- McCALLUM, J. K., 237
 McCarthy, Sir Charles, 92-94, 138
 — Island, 92-95, 137-139, 235-236, 258, 263, 269, 272-273; origin of, 137; purchase of, 138
 — town, 95, 99, 102, 136, 139
 Macdonald, Governor, 97
 Macclaud, Dr., 211
 McNeill, Capt., 236, 240
 Macswain, Lieut., 67
 Madeira, 31
 Madina, town, 144, 146
 Madina Hills, 165
 Mading, 36
 Malays, 200-201
 Mandi Mansa, 39, 176, 205
 Mandingos, tribe, 18, 24-25, 35-37, 76, 98, 106, 121, 134-135, 171-179, 187, 190-203; King of the, 36; as traders, 73; their headdress, 183; described, 204-207.
 Manko, Abba, warrior, 32
Mansa K'ilah, steamer, 246
 Marrakesh, 23, 46
 Massey, Major, 64-65
 Mayne, Capt., 62
 Mecca, 23
 Medina, 84, 86, 125, 135
Medusa, ship, 93
- Melli, Empire of, 17, 18, 36, 175-176, 201-202, 205
 —, King of, 36, 205
 Mendis, tribe, 179
 Mesurata, 84
 Miseta, 132, 206, 240
 Mississippi Co., 56, 71, 77
 Mohammedans, 16-17, 115, 135, 141, 171, 175-176, 181-182, 187, 203
 Mollien, Gustave, 92-93, 115-118
 Moloney, Mr., 211
 Monkey Court, 137
 Montagu, Duke of, 70
 Moore, Francis, 36-37, 68, 69, 134-135, 142, 145, 180, 184, 199-200, 212-214, 263-265; quoted, 70-80; 171-173, 190-191, 205-206
 Moors, 47, 204
 Morel, E. D., 200-201
 Morocco, 14, 19, 45
 —, King of, 47
 Moroccan question, 53
 Mossi, Kingdom of, 25
 Mosto, Cada, 31-35, 171-173, 180-184, 187, 192, 205
 Moussa Mollah, King of Fuladugu, 141
 Muta Point, 144-145
Mutine, ship, 62
- Necho, Pharaoh, 5
 Nerico, river, 17, 18, 49, 50, 97, 120, 123-124, 129-132, 150-152, 156, 259, 275
 Netebulu, town, 125-127, 133, 242
 Newfoundland Fisheries Question, 106, 109
 Niamena, 141-143
 Niani, King of, 48
 — Kingdom of, 199 (*see also under* Lower Niani and Upper Niani)
 Nianiija Creek, 107, 141
 — town, 141
 Nianimaru, 140-142
 Nianlico, river, 124, 128
 Niger, river, 4, 14-17, 21-24, 48; its source discovered, 92
 — Valley, 46
 Nile, river, 13-16, 20, 22, 26; its name defined, 18
 Niokolokoba, river, 120
 Nuncz, Hector, 49-50
 —, Tristan, 31, 37, 42, 50, 145
- O'CONNOR, Col. Luke, 97
 Ogun, river, 263
 Oliver, Mr., 28
 Oranto, 50
 Orfeur, Governor, 66-67
 Ouloffs, tribe, 25
 Owen, Lieut., 97

INDEX

- PANGOON Island, 139
 Panshang, 105
 Parent, M., 63
 Park, Mungo, 32, 84-89, 93, 125-126, 137
 Passi Massi, 132
 Patcharis, tribe, 61, 74, 171, 176, 178, 194, 199
 Peace of Ryswick, 58-62, 78
 Perai Wharf, 125, 132-133
 Petit Dieppe, 28
 Phœnicians, 5-7, 13, 21, 25, 188
 Pinai, 142
 Pinder, Governor, 62
 Pintadom, Antonio Anez, 42
 Pisanian, 42, 84, 86, 89, 137
 Pliny, 187
 Portendic, 81, 97
 Portodally, 78
 Portudal, 59, 60
 Portugal, King Charles V., of, 42
 —, Prince Henry of, 30-35, 38
 —, King John II. of, 38
 Portuguese, 17, 25; in West Africa, 27, 44 *seq.*, 76-77
 Poulas, tribe, 116-118
 Poulli, tribe, 197
 Prester, John (Mythical Monarch), 32, 39
Princess, ship, 60-62
 Pryce, H. L., 247
 Ptolemy, quoted, 12
 Puerto del Cavallero, 31
 Pyke, Capt. 79
- Queneto, village, 235
- RANOLDS, Richard, 45
 Rendall, Governor George, 95
 Rennell, Major, 10
 Rich, Sir Robert, 47-48
 Rio d'Oro, river, 172
 Rio Grande, river, 37, 42, 119, 149, 150, 269; source of, 115-116
 Roberts, Russell, 237, 240
 Rochbrune, M., 211
Rochester, ship, 62
 Rodwell, Capt., 67
 Rouen merchants, 27-29, 52
 Royal Africa Company, 56-63, 66, 70, 78, 129, 142; state aid for, 68-69, 80
 Rufisque Bay, 28-29
- SAHARA DESERT, 13-14, 22, 149-151, 204
 St. Domingo, 43
 St. Jago, 76
St. John, sloop, 48
 St. John's Mart, 18, 49, 50, 165
 — River, 28
- St. Louis, 53, 54, 82, 93, 239
 St. Mary's Island, 7, 9, 43, 86, 91-94, 143, 146, 193, 266, 268-269
 Saloum, Kingdom of, 141-142
 — River, 59, 171, 174
 Salt Trade, 19, 59
 Sami Cliffs, 167
 — Tenda, 132-133
 Sanjally Creek, 142
 Sanjang of Netebulu, Chief, 127
 Sapu, 139
 Sastaspes, Persian Noble, 7, 11, 13
 Scylax, The "Periplus" of, 7, 12, 13, 25
 Sea Horse Island, 142
 Scagram, Governor Henry F., 96-97
 Sego, King of, 87, 90
 Seimo, river, 124-125, 129, 132-133
 Senegal, 28, 29, 33, 81, 92; a French Colony, 54, 71; export of ground-nuts from, 96; origin of the name, 174
 — River, 4, 6, 10, 15, 17, 20-25, 68, 121, 149; Portuguese on the, 32, 42, 45; French on the, 53; its source discovered, 92, 118
 Senegambia, 15, 20, 21, 103, 107
 Serakolis, tribe, 25, 121, 134, 171, 175, 179, 201-202, 207
 Serreres, tribe, 171, 174, 178, 207
 Shelley, Capt., G. E., 211
 Sierra Leone, 90, 94, 99, 105, 237-238, 258
 Sika Point, 145
 Silver in the Gambia, 166
 Simbing, 84
 Sine, town, 125-126, 130
Sion, ship, 49
 Slave-trading, 73, 78-79, 132, 171
 Slavery, 43; abolition of, 139
 Sofanyama, river, 140-143
 Songhoi Empire, 24
 —, Kings of, 22, 23
 —, tribe, 15-16, 21-22, 46, 135, 172, 175, 182, 187, 204-205,
 Soudan, 15, 23, 173
 Sousous, tribe, 176, 179, 197-198, 207
 Stanley, Capt. W. B., 234 *seq.*
 Stibbs, Capt. B., 66-68, 129, 259
 Suara-Kunda Creek, 98, 145
 Sukuta, 140
 Sunkunda, 127, 130-132
 Sutuko, 51
- TANCROWALL, 76-77
 Tambaroora, 175
 Tankular, 36, 42, 144, 179, 183
 Tarik-e-Soudan, 15, 16
 Temala, King, 39, 177, 205
 Tenda (St. John's Mart), 18, 49-50, 59, 67, 97, 123-125

INDEX

- Tenda, King of, 18
 ——— Desert, 121, 150
 ——— Range, 119-122
 Tendebe, 144
 Thegazza, salt-mines, 19, 59
 Thiess, 107, 120, 141
 Thompson, George, 48-49, 123, 140
 Timbuctoo, 15-16, 23-25, 38, 41, 46,
 47, 50-51, 54, 59, 68, 83-84, 87, 121
 173-176, 203-205
 Tintam, John, 37
 Toby, *Kruboy*, 134
 Todd, Capt. A. G., 248
 Tomany, Kingdom of, 135-137
 Toniataba, 143
Torch, H.M.S., 98
 Toubabkolong Wharf, 144
 Toncoulours, tribe, 25
 Toundib, battle of, 46
 Towerson, Capt. W., 43
 Treaty of Breda, 55
 ——— Paris, 91, 106
 ——— Versailles, 81
 Treville, Ernest de, 28
 Trotter, Capt., 97
 Tuaregs, 24, 202
 Tuba Kuta Creek, 135-136
 Tukulors, tribe, 179, 201, 207
 Turankos, 207
 UPPER NYANI, 134-137, 179, 202, 206
 Uso di Mare, Antonio, 33
 VASCONCELAS, M., 185
 Vaudreuil, M., 81
 Vaz, Commander Pedro, 39, 176-178, 205
 Vintang, 33 42, 59, 61, 64, 139 (*see*
also under Georgia)
 ——— Creek, 33, 58, 69, 144-145, 171,
 189, 191, 194, 198
Virgin, The, ship, 28
 WALET, 172, 173
 Wallia, 136
 Wallikunda, 84, 139-142, 157
 Wallofs, tribe, 25
 Wassu, 140
 Water in the Gambia, quality of, 165
 Wilberforce, William, 90
Wilberforce, steamer, 97
 Willingarra, 130
 Willy, Governor, 66
 Wilson, Rowland, 54
 Windham, Captain, 42
 Winterbottom, quoted, 171
 Wuli, Kingdom of, 125, 130, 133-136,
 174-175, 199, 203
 YAKADOO, Creek, 94-95
 Yani, King of, 48
 Yarba, 52
 Yarbu-Tenda, 51, 103, 107, 109, 121,
 124-126, 129-132, 258; meaning of
 the name, 131
 York, James Duke of, 55
 ZOOLOGICAL Gardens, 242, 246, 254-255,
 263

THE END



