
DOI:<https://doi.org/10.53555/eijhss.v7i3.114>

TOTIC: PORTUGUESE PRE- COLONIAL AND COLONIAL DIPLOMATIC AGENTS OF TERRITORIAL EXPLORATION AND EXPLOITATION OF SAO - TOME AND PRINCIPE ISLANDS OF THE GULF OF GUINEA IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN 1485-1975

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Abstract:-

The present article brings out typologies of pre-colonial and colonial great figures that strongly coordinated, moderated and put in radical human forces of European exploration, exploitation and colonisation activities in the overseas colonies in Sub-Saharan Africa with examples drawn from the following important lucrative region known as the Gulf of Guinea within the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS). The two countries used as our case studies include Sao-Tome and Principe from 1485 to 1975 (490 years) with 210 official agents remarkably during the pre-colonial and colonial periods. Considering the fact that most history books at times mentioned only few colonial administrators of the Continent, we therefore deemed it necessary to carry out this research on the various portfolios of specific foreign actors in full beginning from pre-colonial to end of colonial exploitations. The pre-colonial era brings out some of the foreign agents who in one way or the other prepared the ground work for deeper colonial partition, expropriation, expansion, exploitation and exaggerations of colonial activities as the best means to compensate themselves from the natural providence of the Black Continent in terms of natural and human resources well accessible in to the Atlantic Ocean. The work is divided into two parts using a chronological approach as indicated on the various tables and it brings out the total number of all prominent pre-colonial and colonial agents of the two countries. The

scrutiny of specialized documents based on the pre-colonial and colonial Africa actually inspired us in the writing of this paper which can open new avenues to future researchers to find out in detail which of the Portuguese agent did what and when during their tenure of offices characterized with changing portfolios and revision of radical exploitative colonial policies colonialism.

Keywords:- *Pre-colonial, Portfolio, diplomatic agents, exploitation, colonialism, Gulf of Guinea, natural resources.*

INTRODUCTION

Two Countries around the Gulf of Guinea region are well illustrated in this study due to their geostrategic and geopolitical importance during the period of European radical exploitation. The region possesses favourable maritime area located in the western part of the African continent. It includes eleven countries bordering the Atlantic Ocean namely: Ghana, Togo, Benin, Nigeria, Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Sao Tome and Principe, Angola and Congo. It covers an estimated total surface area of 2, 35 million km². The coastline on the Gulf of Guinea consists of the Bight of Benin and the Bight of Biafra (or Bonny).¹ The name Guinea is said to have come from Ghana.² However, this is not certain because the name Guinea has been used in Southern Africa's west coast and West Africa's south coast. The Gulf of Guinea is an important geo-political choke point for shipping transporting oil extracted in the Niger delta, as well as goods to and from central and southern Africa. It includes, for the first time, a section dedicated to regions and sea-basins, including the Gulf of Guinea.³ the Gulf of Guinea is the northeastern most part of the tropical Atlantic Ocean from Cape Lopez. Still in West African colonies, Senegal was also an important spotted zone of slavery trade and the case of South African as the Europeans equally stretched their mixed feelings against the black majority.

This study brings out those principal colonial agents in the form of table with different periods of administration to clarify the uncertainty frequently illustrated or neglected by other scholars. The teaching of African History and interactions with European countries during the 21st Century entails us to know those agents and goes deep into their archives to search and evaluate their activities of exploitations as directed by the metropolis under the directives of foreign colonial offices. The present article of European exploitative precolonial and colonial agents and diplomatic representatives with different portfolios has been divided into two parts for the selected Sub-Saharan African Countries situated with the Gulf of Guinea in the ECCAS Region. Section one focuses on the presentation of typology of Pre-colonial and Colonial Portuguese official representatives in Sao-Tome and Principe from 1485 to 1975. Each island was governed as a separate entity until 1753, when they were united as a single crown colony. In 1951, the islands became an overseas province of Portugal. Autonomy was granted in 1974 and independence was granted on 12 July 1975. During the period ranging from 1485 to 1975, there were different types of colonial administrators who strongly exercised their colonial ambitions to the profit of their metropolitan headquarters ranging from the title of Captain, Acting Governors and Governors as indicated on the table No.1. We therefore deemed it necessary to carry out this research on the various portfolios of specific foreign actors in full beginning from the pre-colonial era. The pre-colonial era brings out some of the foreign agents who in one way or the other prepared the ground work for deeper colonial expropriation, expansion, exploitation and exaggeration of colonial activities as the best means to compensate themselves from the natural providence of the Black Continent in terms of natural and human resources.

¹ In Portuguese West Africa: Angola and the Isles of the Guinea ... <https://www.jstor.org/stable/4000000> · 1928 — The Isles of the Guinea Gulf 35 to await his return. Later, when he came in, he turned out to be an intelligent old man with a grey beard and a withered, ... Western Africa - The beginnings of European activity | Britannica <https://www.britannica.com/place>

The pioneers were the Portuguese, southwestern Europeans with the ... on the islands of the Gulf of Guinea had come to be dependent on African slave labour. Guinea | region, Africa | Britannica <https://www.britannica.com/place>

The Gulf of Guinea is a part of the Atlantic Ocean adjacent to this coastal area. ... A papal bull gave Portugal exclusive rights over the western coast of Africa, and ... <http://ldhi.library.cofc.edu/show>.

² Gulf of Guinea – Wikipedia.en.wikipedia.org › wiki › Gulf_of_Guinea, Consulted, November, 15,2019. ³Collins English Dictionary, HarperCollins Publishers.

Gulf of Guinea – Wikipedia, en.wikipedia.org › wiki › Gulf_of_Guinea.

1. IDENTIFICATION OF PORTUGUESE PRE-COLONIAL HEGEMONIC SETTING 1485-1884

During the pre-colonial and colonial periods, Sub-Sahara African Countries were radically hegemonised by different European administrators who successfully organized effective exploitation of their respective sphere of influences of the Continent to the advantage of their metropolitans 'origins specifically in Western Europe. Those agents were ranked differently depending on the period of exploration and exploitation of the territorial spaces of the Gulf of Guinea closely to the Atlantic Ocean.

1.1. Presentation of two Islands of Sao-Tome and Principe in the South Atlantic Ocean

São Tomé and Príncipe is a small nation composed of an archipelago located in the Gulf of Guinea of the equatorial Atlantic Ocean. The nation's main islands are São Tomé Island and Príncipe Island, for which the country is named. These are located about 300 and 250 kilometres (190 and 160 miles), respectively, off the northwest coast of Gabon in Central Africa. The nation's geographic coordinates are a latitude of 1°00'N and a longitude of 7°00'E. São Tomé and Príncipe constitute one of Africa's smallest countries, with 209 km (130 miles) of coastline. Both are part of an extinct volcanic mountain range, which also includes the island of Bioko in Equatorial Guinea to the northeast and Mount Cameroon on the mainland coast further northeast. São Tomé is 50 km (30 miles) long and 30 km (20 miles) wide and the more mountainous of the two islands. Its peaks reach 2,024 m (6,640 ft) - Pico de São Tomé. Príncipe is about 30 km (19 miles) long and 6 km (4 miles) wide, making it the smaller of the two. Its peaks reach 948 m (3,110 feet) - Pico de Príncipe. This makes the total land area of the country 1,001 km² (386 square miles), about five times the size of Washington, D.C... Both islands are crossed by swift streams radiating down the mountains through lush forest and

cropland to the sea. Both islands are at a distance of 150 km² (60 square miles). The equator lies immediately south of São Tomé Island, passing through an islet Ilhéu das Rolas¹.

Map 1. Location of two islands of sao-tome and pricnipe in the South Atlantic Ocean



SOURCE: John Emerson, Human Rights Watch, 2010. Geography of São Tomé and Príncipe – Wikipedia, [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ge...](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Geography_of_S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9_and_Pr%C3%ADncipe) ; Sao Tome and Principe - The World Factbook – CIA, <https://www.cia.gov/countries/sa...>

The two disjointed Islands have an estimated population of 199,910² inhabitants been the second least populated African country after the Seychelles, as well as the smallest Portuguese-speaking country. Its Capital and largest city is São Tomé and main spoken official language is Portuguese with others such as Forro, Angolar and Principense Creole.³ São Tomé is a small country has an invigorating vegetation gifted with a wealth of diverse important natural resources. Its privileged geographic location in the center of Guinea Gulf lets it act strategically as a gateway region, namely to Angola, Cameroon, Central Africa, Republic of Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Chad, Nigeria. It is almost 3-hours away by plane to the main cities of Central Africa and 48 hours by sea of the main ports in this region. In a broader picture it can be seen also a strategic podium between other Regions of the world. Their nearest country neighbors are Cameroon, Gabon, Nigeria, and Equatorial Guinea. São Tomé, that was the name given to the biggest island and the city capital, lies approximately 180 miles from the coast of Gabon and is crossed by the Equator at its southern

¹ Geography of São Tomé and Príncipe – Wikipedia, [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ge...](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Geography_of_S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9_and_Pr%C3%ADncipe) ; Sao Tome and Principe - The World Factbook – CIA, <https://www.cia.gov/countries/sa...>

² This population estimation is based on 2016 census. . As at 2016, the World Bank recorded a population of 199, 910, mostly catholic. At independence in 1975, there were over 60.000 inhabitants. Jack P. Greene et Philip D. Morgan, *Atlantic History: A Critical Appraisal*, 2008 .

³ Early Limits of Local Decolonization in São Tomé and Príncipe ...<https://www.jstor.org/stable>.

tip. Príncipe (Prince) island (and its *ilheus*) is an autonomous region with a specific administrative-political statute and is 160 miles from the coast of Equatorial Guinea.⁴

Besides other economic areas that can be explored like services including tourism and hotel sector, trading, agriculture, cattle raising and fisheries sectors, it presents one of the greatest economic potentials in Africa despite the sharp fall in oil prices and net investment inflows that the country has witnessed lately. Since human resources should be the major asset a country has there is only a few populations that is skilled and have the right competencies to be able to work in a competitive environment in oil and gas, services or tourism. São Tomé is a member of the United Nations (UN), the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the African Union (AU), the Economic Community of Central African States (CEEAC), and the Community of Portuguese speaking countries (CPLP). Príncipe island capital is called Santo António and has a specific organ which is the regional Government and Assembly⁵. São Tomé has a land area of 330 square miles and Príncipe has a land area of only 42 square miles. São Tomé is organized territorially into two Provinces (São Tomé and Príncipe Island) and, further, into municipalities. It is subdivided in seven administrative districts, namely Água Grande (São Tomé), Cantagalo (Santana), Caué (São João de Angolares), Lomba (Neves), Lobata (Guadalupe), Me-zóchi (Trindade) and Paguê (Santo António in Príncipe). The islands are volcanic in origin and rise to a height of 6,639 feet above sea level. The majority creoles are known as Forros and Angolares both descendants of African slaves. The main local official currency is known as Dobra. The country has the potential to be one of Africa's largest oil producers or reserve and unique tourism stop. São Tomé is in the center of the Gulf of Guinea, where several major oil discoveries have been made over the last 10 years and potentially others to be made.⁶

1.2. Typology of Pre-colonial and Colonial Official Diplomatic Portfolios

Diplomacy is defined as the skill for dealing with people effectively in a positive way including the foreign relations with other countries. When you negotiate or broker a deal between two parties who are angry, this is an example of a time where you have shown diplomacy.⁷ Diplomacy, the established method of influencing the decisions and behaviour of foreign governments and peoples through dialogue, negotiation, and other measures short of war or violence. Modern diplomatic practices are a product of the post-Renaissance European state system. Historically, diplomacy meant the conduct of official (usually bilateral) relations between sovereign states. By the 20th century, however, the diplomatic practices pioneered in Europe had been adopted throughout the world, and diplomacy had expanded to cover summit meetings and other international conferences, parliamentary diplomacy, the international activities of supranational and sub national entities, unofficial diplomacy by nongovernmental elements, and the work of international civil servants. The term diplomacy is derived via French from the ancient Greek *diplōma*, composed of *diplo*, meaning “folded in two,” and the suffix *-ma*, meaning “an object.” The folded document conferred a privilege— often a permit to travel—on the bearer, and the term came to denote documents through which princes granted such favours. Later it applied to all solemn documents issued by chancelleries, especially those containing agreements between⁸ sovereigns¹¹. Diplomacy later became identified with international relations, and the direct tie to documents lapsed (except in diplomatic, which is the science of authenticating old official documents). In the 18th Century the French term *diplomate* (“diplomat” or “diplomatist”) came to refer to a person authorized to negotiate on behalf of a state.⁹

In Europe, early modern diplomacy's origins are often traced to the states of Northern Italy in the early Renaissance, with the first embassies being established in the 13th century. From Italy, the practice was spread across Europe. Milan was the first to send a representative to the court of France in 1455.¹⁰ By the late 16th century, permanent missions became customary. The Holy Roman Emperor, however, did not regularly send permanent legates, as they could not represent the interests of all the German princes (who were in theory all subordinate to the Emperor, but in practice each independent). In 1500-1700 rules of modern diplomacy were further developed. French replaced Latin from about 1715. The top rank of representatives was an ambassador. At that time an ambassador was a nobleman, the rank of the noble assigned varying with the prestige of the country he was delegated to. Strict standards developed for ambassadors, requiring they have large residences, host lavish parties, and play an important role in the court life of their host nation. In Rome, the most prized posting for a Catholic ambassador, the French and Spanish representatives would have a retinue of up to a hundred. Even in smaller posts, ambassadors were very expensive. Smaller states would send and receive envoys, who were a rung below ambassador. Somewhere between the two was the position of minister plenipotentiary¹⁴.

Informal diplomacy (sometimes called Track II diplomacy) has been used for centuries to communicate between powers. Most diplomats work to recruit figures in other nations who might be able to give informal access to a country's leadership. Track II diplomacy is a specific kind of informal diplomacy, in which nonofficials (academic scholars, retired civil and military officials, public figures, social activists) engage in dialogue, with the aim of conflict resolution, or

⁴ Neves, Maria Das, *Sao Tomé And Príncipe As A Regional Gateway (Strategies For A Sustainable Development)* - (São Tomé E Príncipe Como Um Gateway Regional”, Iscps, Superior Institute Of Social Studies Of Lisbon University, Nova University Of Lisbon, 2017.

⁵ Kevashinee Pillay and Nélia Daniel Dias, *São Tomé and Príncipe: Legal System and Research*, October 2018.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ *The Art of Tact and Diplomacy - Skills You Need*, www.skillsyouneed.com > ips > tact-diplomacy.

⁸ Sally Marks, *The Role of Diplomacy*. He is a Professor of History, Rhode Island College, Providence, 1977– 88. Author of *The Illusion of Peace: International Relations in Europe, 1918–1933*. Consulted online, February 7, 2021.

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Antonucci, Michael, "War by Other Means: The Legacy of Byzantium". In *History Today*. 43 (2): 1993, pp. 11–13.

¹¹ Gaston Zeller, "French diplomacy and foreign policy in their European setting." In *The New Cambridge Modern History*, 1961, pp.198-221.

confidence-building. Sometimes governments may fund such Track II exchanges. Sometimes the exchanges may have no connection at all with governments, or may even act in defiance of governments; such exchanges are called Track III.¹²

Their different colonial taxation policies through direct and indirect rules were supervised through different typologies of colonial appellations such as: Resident and Senior Resident Officers, Senior District and District, Captain, Director, Lt. Governor, Governor and Governor General, Commissioner, Commissioner General and High Commissioner, Administrator and Special Resident, and Superintendent. The colonial actors of the region were the French in five countries—Congo—Brazzaville, Gabon, Togo and Benin and later part of Cameroon known as French Cameroon. In addition, the British in three countries—Nigeria, Gold Coast, and later part of Cameroon known as British Cameroon. The Spanish in two countries—Equatorial Guinea and Sao Tome and Principe and lastly the Portuguese in Angola and Sao Tome and Principe which is the main focus of the study.

Considering the magnitude of radical colonial activities in this region ranging from the onset of late 19th Century and mid-20th Century ramification of colonization, we find it very necessary to bring out the principal and sub-actors of those Western European colonial games by list different typologies of colonial administrators. Tables below are really clear evidence to support the historical fact that Western European imperialism, exploitation, partition, domination, demarcation, and intensive and radical methods of colonial hegemonies were seriously protecting and supervised by those actors on different tables depending on each European power.

1.3.¹³ Portuguese Gross Exploration Ambitions and Acquiring of lucrative Space in the African Gulf of Guinea

The Portuguese Crown commissioned its navigators to explore the Atlantic coast of West Africa to find the sources of gold whose trade was dominated by Morocco and Muslim caravan routes across the Sahara also carried salt, kola, textiles, fish, grain, and slaves.¹⁴ The navigators first passed the obstruction of Cape Bojador in 1437 and were able to explore the West African coast as far as Sierra Leone by 1460 and colonize the Cape Verde islands from 1456¹⁶. In 1470, Portuguese explorers, João de Santarém and Pêro Escobar discovered the islands uninhabited. The territory was soon incorporated into the Portuguese Empire. In order to cultivate the islands, the Portuguese brought people as slaves from the African mainland to work the cocoa and sugar plantations on the islands. São Tomé and Príncipe became important staging post for the Atlantic slave trade¹⁷.

In 1488, Portuguese explorer Bartolomeu Dias (c. 1450-1500) became the first European mariner to round the southern tip of Africa, opening the way for a sea route from Europe to Asia. Dias' ships rounded the perilous Cape of Good Hope and then sailed around Africa's southernmost point, Cabo das Agulhas, to enter the waters of the Indian Ocean. Portugal and other European nations already had long-established trade ties to Asia, but the arduous overland route had been closed in the 1450s due to the Ottoman Empire's conquest of the remnants of the Byzantine Empire. A major maritime victory for Portugal, Dias' breakthrough opened the door to increased trade with India and other Asian powers. It also prompted Genoan explorer Christopher Columbus (1451-1506), then living in Portugal, to seek a new royal patron for a mission to establish his own sea route to the Far East¹⁴. Dias' expedition party included six Africans who had been brought to Portugal by earlier explorers. Dias dropped off the Africans at different ports along the coastline of Africa with supplies of gold and silver and messages of goodwill from the Portuguese to the indigenous people. The last two Africans were left at a place the Portuguese sailors called Angra do Salto, probably in modern Angola and the expedition's supply ship was left there under guard of nine men. In early January 1488, as Dias' two ships sailed off the coast of South Africa, storms blew them away from the coast. Dias is thought to have ordered a turn to the south of about 28 degrees, probably because he had prior knowledge of southeasterly winds that would take him around the tip of Africa and keep his ships from being dashed on the notoriously rocky shoreline.¹⁵

Bartolomeu's decision was risky, but it worked. The crew spotted landfall on February 3, 1488, about 300 miles east of present-day Cape of Good Hope. They found a bay they called São Bras (present-day Mossel Bay) and the much warmer waters of the Indian Ocean. From the shoreline, indigenous Khoikhoi pelted Dias' ships with stones until an arrow fired by either Dias or one of his men felled a tribesman. Dias ventured further along the coastline, but his crew was nervous about the dwindling food supplies and urged him to turn back. As mutiny loomed, Dias appointed a council to decide the matter. The members came to the agreement that they would permit him to sail another three days, then turn back. At Kwaaihoek, in present-day Eastern Cape Province, they planted a padrao on March 12, 1488, which marked the easternmost point of Portuguese exploration.¹⁶

Following his expedition, Dias settled for a time in Guinea in West Africa, where Portugal had established a gold-trading site. João's successor, Manuel I (1469-1521), ordered Dias to serve as a shipbuilding consultant

¹² Nicolson, Sir Harold George. *The Evolution of Diplomatic Method*, 1977; Otte, Thomas G. *The Foreign Office Mind: The Making of British Foreign Policy, 1865–1914*, 2011. [Use of language in diplomacy | DiploFoundation. www.diplomacy.edu > general > use...](https://www.diplomacy.edu/general/use...)

¹³ Portugal–São Tomé and Príncipe relations – Wikipedia, [https://en.wikipedia.org > wiki > Por..](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Portugal_Sao_Tome_and_Principe_relations)

¹⁴ Ibid. The Portuguese came to São Tomé in search of land to grow sugarcane. ... of Kongo eventually became a source of slave labourers to work the sugar plantations. Sao Tome and Principe country profile - BBC News [https://www.bbc.com > news > worl...](https://www.bbc.com/news/world-45612345)

¹⁴ mai 2018 — From the late 1400s Portugal began settling convicts on Sao Tome and establishing sugar plantations with the help of slaves from the mainland ,<https://www.esi-africa.com/regional-news/brics/sao-tomeand-principe-sign-mou-for-lusophone-compact/>, <https://www.afdb.org/en/search/content/lusophone%20compact>.

¹⁵ Cadbury, William A., *Labour in Portuguese Africa*, London, 1910, pp.38–41.

¹⁶ Clarence-Smith, W.G., “Labour Conditions in the Plantations of São Tomé and Príncipe, 1875– 1914,” *In Slavery and Abolition* 14, 1993, pp.149–67.

¹⁶ C.R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825*, London, Hutchinson & Co. 1977, pp. 26–7, 30. [Sao Tome and Principe country profile - BBC News, https://www.bbc.com/news/world...](https://www.bbc.com/news/world-45611111)

14 mai 2018 — From the late 1400s Portugal began settling convicts on Sao Tome and establishing sugar plantations with the help of slaves from the mainland...

for the expedition of Vasco da Gama (c. 1460-1524). Dias sailed with the da Gama expedition as far as the Cape Verde Islands, and then returned to Guinea. Da Gama's ships reached their goal of India in May 1498, nearly a decade after Dias' historic trip around the tip of Africa. Afterward, Manuel sent out a massive fleet to India under Pedro Álvares Cabral (c. 1467-c. 1520), and Dias captained four of the ships. They reached Brazil in March 1500, then headed across the Atlantic toward South Africa and, further ahead, the Indian subcontinent. At the feared Cabo das Tormentas, storms struck the fleet of 13 ships. In May 1500, four of the ships were wrecked, including Dias', with all crew lost at sea. Bartolomeu Dias died on May 29, 1500 off the Cape of Good Hope.¹⁷

The arrival of European sea traders at the Guinea coastlands in the 15th Century clearly marked a new era in their explorative and exploitative in relations with the traditional Western African communities. The pioneers were the Portuguese, southwestern Europeans with the necessary knowledge, experience, and national purpose to embark on the enterprise of developing oceanic trade routes with Africa and Asia but with targeted ambition to have contact with Mali the diverted their trans-Saharan gold trade from Muslim North Africa to Christian from European Continent²². During the early fifteenth century, advances in nautical technology (especially the invention of the caravel, with its aerodynamic hull and triangular lateen sails) enabled Portuguese mariners to travel south along Africa's Atlantic coast in search of a direct maritime route to gold-producing regions in sub-Saharan West Africa. Founded in 1482 near the town of Elmina in present-day Ghana, the feitoria São Jorge da Mina was of special importance in that it gave the Portuguese far better access to sources of West African gold. In addition to trading posts, Portugal established colonies on previously uninhabited Atlantic African islands that would later serve as collection points for captives and commodities to be shipped to Iberia, and eventually to the Americas. Portuguese colonization of the Cape Verde Islands, some 350 miles west of the Upper Guinean mainland, was underway by the 1460s. Farther south in the Gulf of Guinea, Portuguese mariners encountered the islands of São Tomé and Príncipe around 1470, colonization of São Tomé began in the 1490s. Both groups of islands served as entrepôts for Portuguese commerce across vast regions of western Africa. Though São Tomé became an important sugar producer, the island also collected slaves for trans-shipment to Elmina, many of whom would be sold to local merchants and used to transport gold from the interior¹⁸.

Therefore, the islands of São Tomé and Príncipe were discovered and claimed by Portugal in the 1470s and a Portuguese colony was officially established in 1485 with João de Paiva as the first pre-colonial Captain and ended with Captain João de Melo in 1522. This phase recorded six different Captains who set the networks of total exploitation of the territory in the African Gulf of Guinea. Then, the territory became the Portuguese Crown Colony (PCC) from 1522 to 1641. Within which ten Captains were appointed beginning with Vasco Estevens to Antonio Maciel in about 1582. Changing of pre-colonial administrative portfolio moved from the status of Captain to that of a Governor in a transitional period of Francisco Fernandes de Figueiredo between 1584 and 1587. It then proceeded in the same capacity with about twenty nine Governors and Acting Governors till 1641 with Miguel Pereira de Melo e Albuquerque as Acting Governor.¹⁹ Taken together, these results indicate that the peopling of São Tomé might have provided one of the first examples of the combination of diverse African contributions and European admixture that emerged from the overseas population relocations promoted by the Atlantic slave trade²⁰.

Another new page was opened in the pre-colonial era following the occupation of the territory by Dutch under a hegemonic portfolio of a Commander between 1641 and 1648, the same year in which the Westphalia State System was put in place in Europe. Thereafter, the second phase of PCC took over from 1648 to 1709 with nineteen Governors and Acting Governors and one Senate agent. This was also interrupted by the French occupation between 1709 and 1715 under a Junta. The period from 1715 to 1753 once more saw the return of PCC beginning with Bartolomeu da Costa Ponte as Governor to the Chamber of Senate having a total of sixteenth agents with different portfolios as seen on table no.1. Then, Principe alone also experienced fifteenth agents beginning from Antonio Carneiro, Seigneur de Vimioso in 1500 to 1862 with Joao Filipe de Gouveia under the title of Seigneur de Vimioso and Comte de Principe. Moreover, Sao Tome and Principe once more returned to PCC from 1753 to May 24, 1884 which marked the end of pre-colonial Portuguese occupation. This period witnessed thirty seven Governors and Acting Governors and fourteenth Senate as seen on table no.1. However, the pre-colonial era laid the foundation of Portuguese exploration, implantation and exploitation of natural and human resources in the Gulf of Guinea. From the beginning of the 17th Century, the main Portuguese bases for the export of slaves were Santiago, Cape Verde for the Upper Guinea traffic, and São

¹⁷ Sao Tome and Principe country profile - BBC News, [https://www.bbc.com/news/world...](https://www.bbc.com/news/world-45611111)

14 mai 2018 — From the late 1400s Portugal began settling convicts on Sao Tome and establishing sugar plantations with the help of slaves from the mainland. <https://www.esi-africa.com/regional-news/brics/sao-tomeand-principe-sign-mou-for-lusophone-compact/>.

<https://www.afdb.org/en/search/content/lusophone%20compact> ²² The Beginnings Of European Activity, online.

¹⁸ *African Laborers for a New Empire: Iberia, Slavery, and the Atlantic World*, June 2002, online.

¹⁹ This analyses is based on personal findings within the period of PCC.

²⁰ Gil Tomás, Luísa Seco, Susana Seixas, Paula Faustino, João Lavinha, Jorge Rocha, *The peopling of São Tomé (Gulf of Guinea): origins of slave settlers and admixture with the Portuguese*, 2002.

Tomé Island for the Gulf of Guinea. In the 1630s and 1640s, the Dutch drove the Portuguese from most of the Gold Coast, but they retained a foothold at São João de Ajuda, now called Ouidah in Benin, as they preferred to acquire slaves from the Gulf of Guinea rather than Upper Guinea before the 1750s. In the 17th century, the French at Saint-Louis, Senegal, the English at Kunta Kinteh Island on the Gambia River and Dutch at Gorée had established bases in Upper Guinea²¹.

MAP 2: The two Disjointed Islands of Sao-Tome and Principe as one Country

Orientations of the map

Red points indicate the main six regional areas of Sao-Tome and Principe.

Red Square is the capital city of the country.



Sources: Alyssa Franz, São Tomé Island, June 21, 2009. 21 juin 2009 — Sao Tome and Principe map. World Maps Online. São Tomé, an African plantation society and slave trading post, lies in ... By the mid-16th century, São Tomé became Africa's most prominent exporter of sugar grown by ... são tomé esclavage history of são tomé and principesao tomé gabonville de são tomé-et-principedrapeau de sao tomé-et-principeà sao tomé, les portugais ont inventéSao Tome and Principe - History | Britannica[https://www.britannica.com](https://www.britannica.com/place) › place

São Tomé and Príncipe were uninhabited when they were discovered, about 1470 ... 16th century São Tomé was for a brief time the world's largest producer of sugar, instability as slaves escaped to the mountains and raided the plantations.

²¹ C.R. Boxer, Portuguese Guinea, online, The Portuguese seaborne empire, 1415–1825, pp. 26–7, 30 London, Hutchinson & Co. 1977.

TABLE No.1. STATISTICS OF PRE-COLONIAL AND COLONIAL ADMINISTRATIVE AGENTS OF PORTUGUESE IN SAO-TOME AND PRINCIPE 1485-1975
ABBREVIATIONS USED ON THE TABLE

C = Captain

G = Governor

A.G = Acting Governor

S = Senate

J = Junta

S.V = Seigneur de Vimioso

C.P = Comte de Principe (C.P)

| No. | YEAR | NAME OF PRE-COLONIAL AGENT | PORTFOLIO |
|-----|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | 24September 1485 – 3 February 1490 | João de Paiva | Captain ((C) |
| 2 | 3 February 1490 29 July 1493 | João Pereira | C |
| 3 | 29 July 1493 28 April 1499 | Álvaro de Caminha | C |
| 4 | 11 December 1499 c.1510 | Fernão de Melo, | C |
| 5 | c.1516 – c.1517 | Diogo de Alcáçova | C |
| 6 | c.1517–1522 | João de Melo | C |
| 7 | 1522 – 1531 | Vasco Estevens, | C |
| 8 | 1531 – c.1535 | Henrique Pereira | C |
| 9 | 1541–1545 | Diogo Botelho Pereira | C |
| 10 | 1546 – c.1554 | Francisco de Barros de Paiva | C |
| 11 | c.1558 – 15 | Pedro Botelho | C |
| 12 | 1560–1564 | CristóvãoDória de Sousa | C |
| 13 | 1564–1569 | Francisco de Gouveia | C |
| 14 | 1569–1571 | Francisco de PaviaTeles | C |
| 15 | 1571–1575 | Diogo Salema | C |
| 16 | 1575 – c.1582 | António Monteiro Maciel | C |
| 17 | c.1584–1587 | Francisco Fernandes de Figueiredo | C/ G overnor (G)1886 |
| 18 | 1587–1591 | Miguel Teles de Moura | G |
| 19 | 1591–1592 | Duarte Peixoto da Silva | G |
| 20 | 1592–1593 | Francisco de Vila Nova | Acting Governor (A.G) |
| 21 | 1593–1597 | Fernandes de Meneses | G |
| 22 | 1597 – c.1598 | Vasco de Carvalho, Governor | A.G |
| 23 | c .1598–1601 | João Barbosa da Cunha | A.G |
| 24 | 1601–1604 | AntónioMacielMonteiro | A.G |
| 25 | 1604 – 160 | Pedro de Andrade | G |
| 26 | 160. – 1609 | João Barbosa da Cunha | A .G |
| 27 | 1609 | Fernando de Noronha | G |
| 28 | 1609–1611 | Constantino Tavares | G |
| 29 | 1611 | João Barbosa da Cunha, | A.G |
| 30 | 1611 | Francisco Teles de Meneses | G |
| 31 | 1611–1613 | Luís Dias de Abreu | G |
| 32 | 1613–1614 | Feliciano Carvalho | G |
| 33 | 1614–1616 | Luís Dias de Abreu | G |
| 34 | 1616–1620 | Miguel CorreiaBaharem | G |
| 35 | 1620–1621 | Pedro da Cunha | G |
| 36 | 1621–1623 | Félix Pereira | G |
| 37 | 1623–1627 | Jerónimo de Melo Fernando | G |
| 38 | 1627–1628 | André Gonçalves Maracote | G |
| 39 | 1628–1632 | Lourenço Pires de Távora | A.G |
| 40 | 1632 | Francisco Barreto de Meneses | G |

| | | | |
|----|----------------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| 41 | 1632–1636 | Lourenço Pires de Távora | A.G |
| 42 | 1636 | António de Carvalho | G |
| 43 | 1636–1640 | Lourenço Pires de Távora | A.G |
| 44 | 1640 | Manuel QuaresmaCarneiro | G |
| 45 | 1640–1641 | Miguel Pereira de Melo e Albuquerque | A.G |
| 46 | 3 October 1641 – 1648 | Paulo da Ponte | Dutch Commander/ A.G |
| 47 | 1641–1642 | Lourenço Pires de Távora | G |
| 48 | 1656 – c.1657 | Cristóvão de Barros do Rêgo | G |
| 49 | c.1661 – 166. | Pedro da Silva | G |
| 50 | 1669–1671 | Paulo Ferreira de Noronha | G |
| 51 | 1671–1673 | Chamber Senate | Senate (S) |
| 52 | 1673–1677 | Julião de Campos Barreto | G |
| 53 | 1677–1680 | Bernardim Freire de Andrade | G |
| 54 | 1680–1683 | Jacinto de Figueiredo e Abreu | G |
| 55 | 1683–1686 | João Álvares da Cunha | A.G |
| 56 | 1686 | António Pereira de BritoLemos | G |
| 57 | 1686–1689 | Bento de Sousa Lima | G |
| 58 | 1689–1693 | António Pereira de Lacerda | G |
| 59 | 1693–1694 | António de Barredo | G |
| 60 | 1695–1696 | José Pereira Sodré | G |
| 61 | 1696–1697 | João da Costa Matos | G |
| 62 | 1697–1702 | Manuel AntónioPinheiro da Câmara | G |
| 63 | 1702–1709 | José Correia de Castro | G |
| 64 | 1709 | Vicente DinisPinheiro | G |
| 65 | 1709–1715 | French Occupation | Junta (J) |
| 66 | 1715–1716 | Bartolomeu da Costa Ponte | G |
| 67 | 1716–1717 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 68 | 1717–1720 | António FurtadoMendonça | G |
| 69 | 1720–1722 | Junta | J |
| 70 | 1722–1727 | José Pinheiro da Câmara | G |
| 71 | 1727–1734 | Serafim Teixeira Sarmento | G |
| 72 | 1734–1736 | Lopo de Sousa Coutinho | G |
| 73 | 1736–1741 | José Caetano Soto Maior | G |
| 74 | 1741 | António Ferrão de Castelo Branco | G |
| 75 | 1741–1744 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 76 | 1744 | Francisco Luís da Conceição | G |
| 77 | 1744–1745 | Francisco de Alva Brandão | A.G |
| 78 | 1747–1748 | Francisco Luís das Chagas | G |
| 79 | 1748–1751 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 80 | 1751 | António Rodrigues Neves | G |
| 81 | 1751–1753 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 82 | 1500 – 3 April 1545 | PRINCIPE António Carneiro, seigneur de Vimioso | Seigneur de Vimioso (S.V) |
| 83 | 3 April 1545 -15? | Francisco de Alcaçova Carneiro | S.V |
| 84 | 15?? – 16? | Luís Carneiro | S.V |
| 85 | 16?? – 1640 | Francisco Carneiro | S.V |
| 86 | 4 February 1640 – 1690 | Luís Carneiro de Sousa | Comte de Principe (C.P) |
| 87 | 1690 – 7 January 1708 | Francisco LuísCarneiro de Sousa | C.P |
| 88 | 7 January 1708 – 6 November 1724 | António Carneiro de Sousa | C.P |

| | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------------|---|------------------------|
| 89 | 6 November 1724 – 18 November 1731 | Francisco Carneiro de Sousa | C.P |
| 90 | 18 November 1731 – 29 November 1753 | Carlos Carneiro de Sousa e Faro | C.P |
| 91 | 1851 – 1852 | Francisco Ferreira Coelho Cintra | |
| 92 | 1852 – 1852 | Manuel Francisco Landolph | |
| 93 | 1852 – 1854 | Manuel Mariano Ghira | |
| 94 | 1854 – 1857 | Joaquim José de Sousa Osório Menezes | |
| 95 | 1857 – 1860 | João Manuel de Melo | |
| 96 | 1862 – 1862 | João Filipe de Gouveia | |
| 97 | 1753–1755 | SÃO TOME AND PRINCIPE PORTUGUESE CROWN COLONY (1753–1951) Chamber Senate | S |
| 98 | 1755 | Lopo de Sousa Coutinho, | G |
| 99 | 1755–1758 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 100 | 1758–1761 | Luís Henrique da Mota e Mele, | G |
| 101 | 1761–1767 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 102 | 1767–1768 | Lourenço Lôbod’ AlmeidaPalha, | G |
| 103 | 1768–1770 | ChamberSenate | S |
| 104 | 1770–1778 | Vicente Gomes Ferreira | G |
| 105 | 1778–1782 | João Manuel de Azambuja | G |
| 106 | 1782–1788 | Cristóvão Xavier de Sá | G |
| 107 | 1788–1797 | João Resende Tavares Leote | G |
| 108 | 1797 | Inácio Francisco de Nóbrega Sousa Coutinho | G |
| 109 | 1797 | Manuel Monteiro de Carvalho | A.G |
| 110 | 1797–1798 | Varela Borca | G |
| 111 | 1798–1799 | Manuel Francisco Joaquim da Mota | G |
| 112 | 1799 | Francisco Rafael de Castelo de Vide | G |
| 113 | 1799–1802 | João Baptista de Silva | G |
| 114 | 1802–1805 | Gabriel António Franco de Castro | G |
| 115 | 1805–1817 | Luís Joaquim Lisboa | G |
| 116 | 1817–1824 | Filipe de Freitas | G |
| 117 | 1824–1830 | João Maria Xavier de Brito | G |
| 118 | 1830–1834 | Joaquim Bento da Fonseca | G |
| 119 | 1834–1836 | Provisional government | Provisional Government |
| 120 | 1836–1837 | Fernando Correia Henriques de Noronha, | A.G |
| 121 | 1837–1838 | Leandro José da Costa | G |
| 122 | 1838–1839 | José Joaquim de Urbanski | G |
| 123 | 1839–1843 | Bernardo José de Sousa Soares de Andréa | G |
| 124 | 5 February 1843 – 2 March 1843 | Leandro José da Costa | G |
| 125 | 2 March 1843 – 1 May 1846 | José Maria Marquês | G |
| 126 | 1 May 1846 – 30 September 1847 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 127 | 30 September 1847 – 20 November 1847 | Carlos Augusto de Morais e Almeida | G |
| 128 | 20 November 1847 – 20 July 1848 | ChamberSenate | S |
| 129 | 20 July 1848 – 30 June 1849 | José Caetano René Vimont Pessoa | S |
| 130 | 12 December 1849 – 9 March 1851 | Leandro José da Costa | S |

| | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------------|--|-----|
| 131 | 9 March 1851 – 20 March 1853 | José Maria Marquês | S |
| 132 | 20 March 1853 – 28 July 1855 | Francisco José da PinaRolo | S |
| 133 | 28 July 1855 – 21 March 1857 | Adriano Maria Passaláqua | S |
| 134 | 21 March 1857 – 15 January 1858 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 135 | 15 January 1858 – 29 May 1858 | Francisco AntónioCorreia | S |
| 136 | 29 May 1858 – 1859 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 137 | 21 November 1860 – 8 July 1862 | José Pedro de Melo | G |
| 138 | 8 July 1862 – 17 November 1862 | Chamber Senate | S |
| 139 | 17 November 1862 – 30 March 1863 | José Eduardo da Costa Moura | G |
| 140 | 30 March 1863 – 8 January 1864 | João Baptista Brunachy | G |
| 141 | 8 January 1864 – 2 August 1865 | Estanislau Xavier de Assunção e Almeida | G |
| 142 | 2 August 1865 – 30 July 1867 | João Baptista Brunachy | G |
| 143 | 30 July 1867 – 30 September 1867 | António Joaquim da Fonseca | G |
| 144 | 30 September 1867 – 30 May 1869 | Estanislau Xavier de Assunção e Almeida | G |
| 145 | 30 May 1869 – 7 October 1872 | Pedro Carlos de AguiarCraveiro Lopes | G |
| 146 | 7 October 1872 – July 1873 | JoãoClímaco de Carvalho | G |
| 147 | 7 October 1872 – July 1873 | Gregório José Ribeiro | G |
| 148 | 1 November 1876 – 28 September 1879 | Estanislau Xavier de Assunção e Almeida | G |
| 149 | 28 September 1879 – 28 November 1879 | Francisco Joaquim Ferreira do Amaral | G |
| 150 | 28 November 1879 – 3 January 1880 | Custódio Miguel de Borja | G |
| 151 | 3 January 1880 – 30 December 1881 | Vicente PinheiroLôbo Machado de Melo e Almada | G |
| 152 | 30 December 1881 – 26 January 1882 | Augusto Maria Leão | A.G |
| 153 | 26 January 1882 – 24 May 1884 | Francisco Teixeira da Silva | G |
| 154 | 24 May 1884 – 25 August 1886 | BEGINNING OF COLONIAL ERA Custódio Miguel de Borja | G |
| 155 | 25 August 1886 – 9 March 1890 | Augusto César Rodrigues Sarmento | G |
| 156 | 9 March 1890 – 26 June 1891 | Firmino José da Costa | G |
| 157 | 26 June 1891 – 8 December 1894 | Francisco Eugénio Pereira de Miranda | G |
| 158 | 8 December 1894 – 8 April 1895 | Jaime Lobo Brito Godins | A.G |
| 159 | 8 April 1895 – 5 April 1897 | CiprianoLeite Pereira Jardim, | G |

| | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|--|------|
| 160 | 5 April 1897 – 5 April 1899 | Joaquim da GraçaCorreia e Lança | G |
| 161 | 5 April 1899 – 3 January 1901 | Amâncio de AlpoimCerqueira Borges Cabral | G |
| 162 | 3 January 1901 – 8 May 1901 | Francisco Maria Peixoto Vieira | A.G |
| 163 | 8 May 1901 – 8 October 1902 | Joaquim Xavier de Brito | G |
| 164 | 8 October 1902 – 7 June 1903 | João Abel AntunesMesquitaGuimarães | G |
| 165 | 7 June 1903 – 14 December 1903 | JoãoGregório Duarte Ferreira | A.G |
| 166 | 14 December 1903 – 13 April 1907 | Francisco de Paula Cid | G |
| 167 | 13 April 1907 – 24 June 1907 | Vitor Augusto Chaves Lemos e Melo | A. G |
| 168 | 24 June 1907 – 24 October 1908 | Pedro Berquó | G |
| 169 | 24 October 1908 – 13 March 1909 | Vítor Augusto Chaves Lemos e Mel | A.G |
| 170 | 13 March 1909 – 13 June 1910 | José Augusto Vieira da Fonseca | G |
| 171 | 13 June 1910 – 7 August 1910 | Jaime Daniel Leote do Rego | G |
| 172 | 7 August 1910 – 11 November 1910 | Fernando Augusto de Carvalho | G |
| 173 | 12 November 1910 – 28 November 1910 | Carlos de MendonçaPimentel e Melo | A.G |
| 174 | 28 November 1910 – 14 June 1911 | António Pinto Miranda Guedes | G |
| 175 | 14 June 1911 – 24 December 1911 | Jaime Daniel Leote do Rego | G |
| 176 | 24 December 1911 – 13 May 1913 | Mariano Martins | G |
| 177 | 13 May 1913 – 31 May 1915 | Pedro do AmaralBoto Machado | G |
| 178 | 31 May 1915 – 6 June 1915 | José DionísioCarneiro de Sousa e Faro | G |
| 179 | 6 June 1915 – 28 July 1918 | Rafael dos Santos Oliveira | A.G |
| 180 | 28 July 1918 – 11 June 1919 | JoãoGregório Duarte Ferreira | G |
| 181 | 11 June 1919 – 25 September 1920 | Avelino Augusto de Oliveira Leite | G |
| 182 | 25 September 1920 – 22 October 1920 | José Augusto de Conceição Alves Vélez | A.G |
| 182 | 22 October 1920 – 2 July 1921 | Eduardo Nogueira de Lemos | A.G |
| 184 | 2 July 1921 – 23 January 1924 | António José Pereira | G |
| 185 | 23 January 1924 – 8 July 1926 | Eugénio de Barros Soares Branco | G |
| 186 | 8 July 1926 – 31 August 1928 | José Duarte JunqueiraRato | G |
| 187 | 31 August 1928 – 30 January 1929 | Sebastião José Barbosa | A.G |
| 188 | 30 January 1929 – 31 August 1929 | Francisco Penteado | G |
| 189 | 31 August 1929 – 17 December 1933 | Luís Augusto Vieira Fernandes | G |

| | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------------|--|------------------------------|
| 190 | 17 December 1933 – 8 May 1941 | Ricardo VazMonteiro | G |
| 191 | 8 May 1941 – 5 April 1945 | Amadeu Gomes de Figueiredo | G |
| 192 | 5 April 1945 – July 1948 | Carlos de Sousa Gorgulho | G |
| 193 | July 1948 – 8 October 1950 | Afonso Manuel Machado de Sousa | A.G |
| 194 | 8 October 1950 – 11 June 1951 | Mário José Cabral Oliveira Castro | A.G |
| 195 | 11 June 1951 – 28 June 1952 | OVERSEAS PROVINCE OF PORTUGAL (1951–1974) Mário José Cabral Oliveira Castro | A.G |
| 196 | 28 June 1952 – 18 April 1953 | Guilherme António Amaral Abranches Pinto | A.G |
| 197 | 18 April 1953 – 19 May 1953 | Fernando Augusto Rodrigues | A.G |
| 198 | 19 May 1953 – July 1953 | Afonso Manuel Machado de Sousa | A.G |
| 199 | July 1953 – August 1954 | Francisco AntónioPiresBarata | G |
| 200 | August 1954 – 15 June 1955 | Luís da CâmaraLeme Faria | A.G |
| 201 | 15 June 1955 – 5 December 1956 | José Machado | A.G |
| 202 | 5 December 1956 – 13 October 1957 | Octávio Ferreira Gonçalves | A.G |
| 203 | 13 October 1957 – August 1963 | Manuel Marques de Abrantes Amaral, Governor | G |
| 204 | August 1963 – 30 October 1963 | Alberto Monteiro de Sousa Campos | A.G |
| 205 | 30 October 1963 – 1972 | António Jorge da Silva Sebastião | G |
| 206 | 1973–1974 | João Cecilio Gonçalves | G |
| 207 | 29 July 1974 – 18 December 1974 | António Elísio Capelo Pires Veloso | G |
| 208 | 859 – 21 November 1860 | Luís José Pereira e Horta, | G |
| 209 | 18 December 1974 – 12 July 1975 1 | AUTONOMOUS PROVINCE OF PORTUGAL (1974–1975) António Elísio Capelo Pires Veloso | G / High Commissioner |

SOURCE: W. G. Clarence-Smith, *The Third Portuguese Empire, 1825–1975*, Manchester University Press, 1975, pp. 30–1. List of governors of Portuguese São Tomé and Príncipe ...en.wikipedia.org › wiki › List_of_governors_of_P... The islands of São Tomé and Príncipe were discovered and claimed by Portugal in the 1470s. A Portuguese colony was established in 1485. Each island was ...

II. INTENSIVE PREPARATION OF RE-OCCUPATION TOWARD OFFICIALISATION OF SPHERE OF INFLUENCE FROM THE BERLIN COLONIAL CONFERENCE TO INDEPENDENCE NOVEMBER 1884-1975

The period of the late 19th and 20th Centuries was marked by intensive exploitation of the territory by the Portuguese following the outcome of Western European unilaterally partitioned of the African territories among themselves with confusing demarcation off specific sphere of influences. From then henceforth, Lisbon colonial Office was able to appoint forty one colonial agents with the ranks of Governors and Acting Governors from Custodio Miguel de Borja on May 24, 1884 to Mario José Cabral Oliveira Castro in June 1951 under PCC. Then between June 1951 and December 1974, Sao-Tome and Principe became an Oversea Province of Portugal with thirteenth colonial agents appoint. This last phase of Portuguese hegemony transformed the territory into an Autonomous Province of Portugal from December 18, 1974 to July 12, 1975 with Antonio Elísio Capelo Pires Veloso appointed as Portuguese High Commissioner as indicated on table No.1 above.

2.1. Patterns of Portuguese Agents hard policies and Conflicts with the local population over extortion

After serving as a food supply station for the slave-ships connecting the Gulf of Guinea with Brazil, in the mid-1800s the plantation system was revived, inspired by the Brazilian coffee boom in the Paraíba Valley. Coffee paved the way for cocoa cultivation in the 1880s. The history of the exploitative and racialized São Tomé's plantation complex has been the subject of extended scholarship,⁴ but this literature has not paid much attention to the political economy of plantation ecologies. The discussion of conflicts that emerged when the first signs of environmental disruption began at the turn of the twentieth-century is very important in the understanding of Portugal's exploitative ambitions through her colonial agents. The transformation of São Tomé in the "purest model of a plantation colony"²², by the early 1900s, was not only the result of continuous power struggles between planters, the state, native population and indentured laborers but also between those human actors and the environment. For the French botanist Auguste Chevalier there was no such thing as too many adjectives to describe planters' battle against the rainforest of São Tomé. During his visit to the island in 1905, he wrote about the "fantastic chaos of mountains cut by ravines", the "tumultuous torrents", the "thick fog that never seems to lift" and the "tormented equatorial vegetation" that made this country at first sight the "least fit place for agriculture". Only with "prodigies of effort and ingenuity" that implied "slaughtering the forest giants", "damming the torrents" and building kilometers of railways had this "savage nature" been converted into a "methodically maintained tropical garden" where "the cocoa tree now prevails".²³

Nevertheless, the frustration of Portuguese colonial authorities in Latin America following the independence of Brazil in 1822, the suppression of the slave trade in the Portuguese territories and the introduction of coffee and cacao cultivation in the 19th Century shifted the economic centre of gravity back to São Tomé and in 1852 the city once again became the capital. Cacao replaced coffee as the main cash crop in the 1890s,²⁴ and during the first two decades of the 20th Century, the colony was in some years the World's largest producer of the commodity which leads to maximum expansion of the plantations on the islands of the Africa Gulf of Guinea. Taking into consideration that, when slavery was legally abolished in 1875, the Portuguese recruited contract workers from such places as Angola, Cape Verde, and Mozambique. The introduction of two new cash crops, coffee and cocoa, were very important in the colony due to the fertility of the soil. The rich volcanic soils proved well suited to the new cash crop industry and soon extensive plantations known as roças, owned by Portuguese companies or absentee landlords, and occupied almost all of the good farmland. By 1908, São Tomé had become the world's largest producer of cocoa, which still is the country's most important crop. However, until 1910 the living and working conditions of these indentured labourers often were little different from slavery²⁵.

The first months of 1909 were troubled times in the equatorial Atlantic island of São Tomé. In mid-March, after a long controversy opposing British chocolate manufacturers and Portuguese cocoa planters, the firms Cadbury, Fry and Rowntree decided to boycott São Tomé's "slave-grown cocoa". To cope with the consequences of the embargo planters turned to the colonial government. Asking for the state's assistance was a common practice. Even if the island's economy had been driven by private investment, the state had always supported the plantations by regulating the market, facilitating access to land and, most significantly, by enforcing labor-recruiting policies²⁶. Estate owners were, once again, demanding Portuguese diplomacy to work on their behalf to legitimize plantation labor practices. I but labor was not the only problem they had to face. In April, planters issued another call for help requested agronomic science to deal with an unknown disease that affected cocoa trees, which, according to them, "had already produced great economic damage". São Tomé was not a newcomer to the world commodity trade. Sugar made the island the first plantation economy in the tropics in the early sixteenth-century, before the plantation revolution of the Caribbean.²⁷ Controversially, cocoa production dropped after the First World War of 1914-1918 and the islands became isolated and notorious for the brutality and corruption that reigned on the plantations belonging to absentee planters and corporations. During the Paris Peace Conference, Portugal colonial possession was confirmed under Mandated Territory of the League of Nations (LONs) and was maintained after the Second World War of 1939-1945 under an International Trusteeship System of the United Nations created in 1945. This challenges further strengthened Portuguese colonial policy of exploitation through her colonial representatives in Sao-Tome and Principe. For example, attempts to force the local Forros to work on the plantations led to the Batepá Massacre in 1953, an event later often cited by São Toméans in their demands for independence as an example of the violence under Portuguese rule.³³

2.2. The Challenges of Civilised and Uncivilised Elites

Any of such "civilized" category was based on the educational levels of each "somatic group" with all literate related with "white" people practicing racial prejudice in Portuguese empire.

Meanwhile the "uncivilized", was said to include those "who preserve a traditional African culture", while the "assimilated" were those "who totally or partially adopted a Western European culture". In practice, only a small minority of people enjoyed civilized status in the Portuguese colonies. In 1950, figures amounted 43,000 São Tomé and Príncipe

²² N. Domingos et al. (eds.), *Resistance and Colonialism*, Cambridge Imperial and Post-Colonial Studies Series, 19167.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Arlindo Manuel Caldeira, "Learning The Ropes In The Tropics: Slavery And The Plantation System on the Island of São Tomé", In *African Economic History*, Vol. 39, University Of Wisconsin Press, 2011, pp. 35-71, <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23718978>.

²⁵ Joseph Kiprop, "What Are The Major Natural Resources of Sao Tome And Principe"?, November 19, 2019, In *Economics*.

²⁶ Pape, Duarte And Rodrigo Rebelo De Andrade, *The Farms in São Tomé And Príncipe – As Roças De São Tomé And Príncipe*, From, Publisher Tinta Da China, August 2015.

²⁷ Ibid. ³³ Ibid.

stood apart from the other colonies with civilized people (around 72% of the population), 8,000 in Guinea (less than 2% of the population), 135,000 in Angola (less than 4% of the population), 93,000 in Mozambique (less than 2% of the population), 7,000 in Timor (less than 2% of the population).). As pointed out above, there was no indigenous status in Cape Verde. The same was true in India and Macau, but most of the population did not live according to standard Portuguese law, as there were special regimes for Hindus in India and for Chinese people in Macau. The classification was therefore used for five territories (Guinea, São Tomé and Príncipe, Angola, Mozambique and Timor), but it did not apply to the other three colonial territories (Cape Verde, India, and Macau), where all people were considered “civilized” for statistical purposes. This was a general consensus in the Portuguese society of the time, as we can read: “(...) in India the designation of “indigenous” never applies, as this word is appropriate, in its technical-juridical meaning, to the backward populations of Angola, Mozambique and Guinea. In India there never were “indigenous” in the legal sense of the word and they are all citizens, even the most uncultivated”.³³

Consequently, the Committee for the Liberation of Sao Tome and Principe (CLSTP) was set up in exile in 1960. It later changed to be known as Movement for the Liberation of Sao Tome and Principe (MLSTP) in 1972²⁸ when majority of the colonial people and territories of African countries were already granted independence. However, São Toméan nationalist political party, the Movement for the Liberation of São Tomé and Príncipe (MLSTP), was created by those exiles based in Equatorial Guinea with the intent of creating an independent nation. After the Carnation Revolution of 1974, the new Portuguese regime was committed to the dissolution of its overseas colonies. In November 1974, their representatives met with members of the MLSTP in Algiers and worked out an agreement for the transfer of sovereignty.²⁹

During the 1967–1970 Biafra War of secession in Nigeria, São Tomé served as the major base of operations for the Biafra airlift. The airlift was an international humanitarian relief effort as one of the largest civilian airlift during the 20th Century that transported food and medicine to Eastern Nigeria which was estimated to have saved more than a million lives.³⁰ The government that took power in Portugal after a coup in 1974 agreed to hand over power to the MLSTP in 1975 and virtually all Portuguese colonists fled to Portugal, fearing an independent black and Communist government. The new Portuguese regime was committed to the dissolution of its overseas colonies; in November 1974, their representatives met with the MLSTP in Algiers and worked out an agreement for the transfer of sovereignty.³¹ After a period of transitional government, São Tomé and Príncipe achieved independence on July 12, 1975, choosing as its first President the MLSTP Secretary General Manuel Pinto da Costa.³²

Conclusion

Beginning of pre-colonial era was opened with the first ever Portuguese official agent know as Captain, João de Paiva from September 24th 1485 to February 3rd 1490. This period ended with Governor, Custódio Miguel de Borja between 24 May 1884 and 25 August 1886 who managed the transitional period between November 1884 to February 1885 Berlin Colonial Conference on Africa. During which different Western European Great Powers at the time obtained their specific and well defined sphere of influence of the African territories known as oversea empires. The first phase of European exploitation covered from 1485 to 1885, which is about 400 years before official colonization with a total of 155 colonial agents of different portfolios. The last of the colonial Governors was António Elísio Capelo Pires Veloso, who later became the first Portuguese High Commissioner when Sao-Tome and Principe moved from an autonomous Province of Portugal in 1974 to total independence in 1975. The colonial stage spanned from 1885 to 1975 with some 54 colonial agents of different portfolios for 90 years. This last stage of the Portuguese exploitation of the African territory in the Gulf of Guinea was characterized with wide and hard diplomatic tactics in their colonization strategies. The fact that the Portuguese played an unforgotten role to be recorded in the history of exploration, exploitation, colonization and decolonization as the last European country to liberate the colonial people and territories under her administration, it makes the history of the concern Gulf of Guinea more interesting to future researchers. It should be noted here that the new government organized by Nationalist Movement that took power in Portugal after a coup in 1974 agreed to hand over power to the Nationalist Movement of Sao-Tome and Principe known as the MLSTP in 1975. Virtually, all Portuguese colonial agents in that territory of the Gulf of Guinea fled to Portugal, fearing an independent black and

²⁸ Ibid. However, it consisted of only a small group of exiles, who were unable to mount a guerrilla challenge to the Portuguese on the islands. By the late 1950s, when other emerging nations across the African Continent were demanding independence, a small group of São Toméans had formed the Movement for the Liberation of São Tomé and Príncipe (MLSTP), which eventually established its base in nearby Gabon. Picking up momentum in the 1960s, events moved quickly after the overthrow of the Caetano dictatorship in Portugal in April 1974. Encyclopaedia Britannica Inc. 2021.

²⁹ Portugal–São Tomé and Príncipe relations - Wikipedia [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Portugal-São Tomé e Príncipe](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Portugal-S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9_e_Pr%C3%ADncipe)

³⁰ Biafra Relief Heroes: Remembering – in the words of those who were there..., Voice of Biafra International. Retrieved 2013-11-24, Consulted online.

³¹ Eyzaguirre, Pablo B. "The independence of São Tomé e Príncipe and agrarian reform." *Journal of Modern African Studies* 27.4, 1989, pp. 671–678.

³² By the 1950s São Toméans began to call for political independence from Portugal. A small group of black residents formed the Movement for the Liberation of São Tomé and Príncipe (MLSTP), which began gaining significant popular support by the 1960s. By April 1974, they had successfully overthrown the Portuguese government. After a short transitional period, São Tomé was granted independence on July 12, 1975. Alyssa Franz, São Tomé Island June 21, 2009. Alexander Keese, Early Limits of Local Decolonization in São Tomé and Príncipe: From Colonial Abuses to Postcolonial Disappointment, 1945-1976, *The International Journal of African Historical Studies*, Vol. 44, No. 3 (2011), Boston University African Studies Center pp. 373-392, <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23267202>.

Communist government. The new Portuguese regime was committed to the dissolution of its overseas colonies of Angola and Mozambique in the same vain with regard to hot National Liberation Movements which after obtaining their independence resorted to intensive civil wars. This was a clear indication that the Portuguese exploitative agents left those countries prematurely without preparing the elites with whom to hand over power after 490 years of harsh pre-colonial and colonial manipulation of human and natural resources.

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