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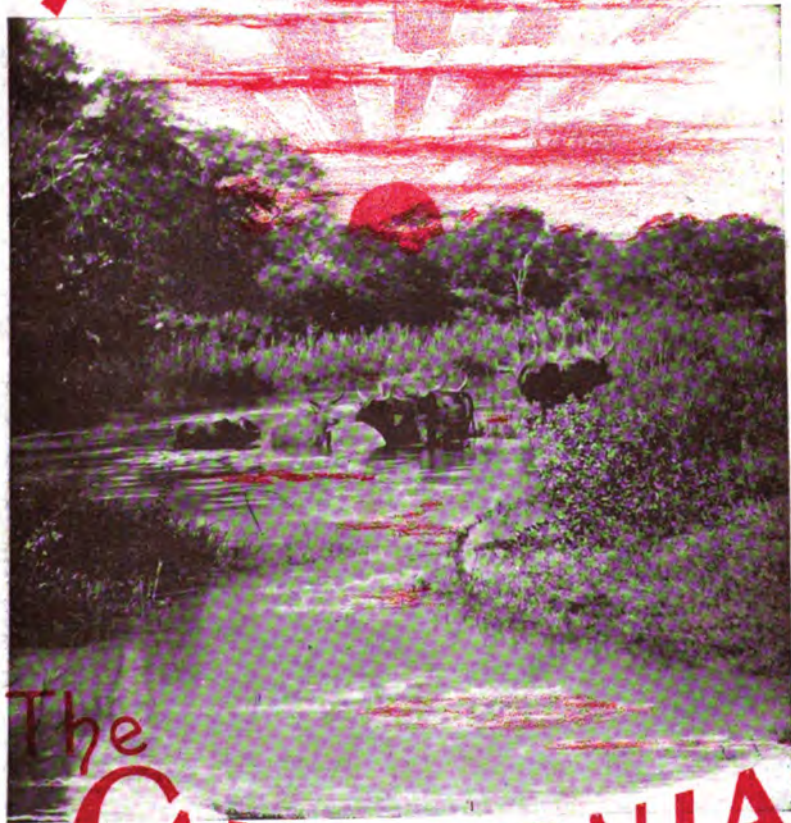


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SWAZILAND



The

CALIFORNIA

of South Africa.



His Honour the Resident Commissioner for Swaziland (Mr. R. T. Coryndon.)

SWAZILAND :

THE
CALIFORNIA OF SOUTH AFRICA.



PUBLISHED BY AUTHORITY OF THE
SWAZILAND MINING, COMMERCIAL, AND
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SWAZILAND:



The California of South Africa.

The object prompting the Swaziland Mining, Commercial, and Industrial Chamber to issue this small handbook, springs from a desire to interest individual prospectors and miners, and the young South African farmer, in the prospects of this mineralogically rich and agriculturally fertile territory. For upwards of 20 years Swaziland has played an important part in Colonial politics, and, like many other countries harassed by the attentions, and unsettled by the finesse of the engineers of high diplomacy, internal development has been arrested owing to the uncertainties of the future, and the indefinite character, throughout, of the Administration.

We are on the eve of Settlement.* There is reason to believe that before this pamphlet is published a Proclamation will be issued by the High Commissioner, which will finally adjust all outstanding disputes as to farm titles and the hitherto undivided rights of Europeans and natives to the ground, and that therein, and thereby, the foundation will be laid for the unrestricted occupation of a large proportion of Swaziland by Europeans, who for a great number of years have held titles to land; but have not been in a position to make full use of their holdings.

The Chamber has authoritative data for stating that the Swaziland Concessions Commission, which is at present sitting to settle disputes involved in conflicts of boundaries, will proclaim its awards within the next few months. They also understand that before the end of the year a Special Commis-

* Since this was written, an official summary of the pending Proclamation has been published. It divides the country in the proportion of one-third to natives and two-thirds to Europeans.

sion will be appointed to partition native and European areas, thereby removing the existing complications which the undivided character of such rights over similar areas occasion; and as this delimitation will finally adjust all outstanding questions, the country should be open for settlement at the end of 1908.

The Chamber is of opinion that there is no part of South Africa where climate, geographical position, and fertility of soil combine so harmoniously to facilitate the operations of the individual settler. The country, in its pioneering stage, is essentially a country for individual enterprise, and it is that form of settlement that this Chamber desires to encourage. It is certain that a proportion of mineral and land owners will be prepared to allot tribute and farming areas to qualified applicants on terms which it is hoped will be favourable; in fact sufficiently liberal to attract the best class of settler.

In the older settled districts of the Cape Colony and Natal many young men, reared on farms, trained to farm life, and possessing a small amount of capital and a large fund of energy find it impossible to acquire land in their neighbourhood excepting at prices which would absorb the greater portion of their financial reserves. To such this handbook should appeal. It is true that Swaziland may for some years be handicapped by lack of railway transport. To the stock farmer that will not prove a hardship, though the agriculturalist will undoubtedly be placed at a disadvantage. On the other hand, the completion of the Johannesburg-Lourenco Marques line through Swaziland will materially increase the price of land, and men with moderate means will then experience similar difficulties in purchasing farms to those which the Chamber gathers are prevalent in older communities. The early settlers in the Cape Colony, Natal and the Transvaal were faced with much greater hardships, when, as pioneers, they first occupied those territories. Markets were non-existent, and railways unthought of. They fought their way through greater difficulties and dangers than any which are likely to beset the path of the settler in Swaziland, and built up homesteads and attained competencies against heavier odds than can under any circumstances be imposed on the man who takes up ground in this country. Pioneer stock-raising and agriculture in any land is never the work of the faint-hearted. The men who venture out must burn their boats behind them. Provided careful investigation convinces the intending settler of the suitability of the country, and its capacity, in time, to repay expenditure

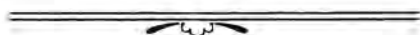
of capital and labour, nothing but grim determination can win through, and the Chamber has no desire to encourage the young farmer in the belief that Swaziland deviates from the rule which applies to every infant country, or that we possess a subtle charm which will release the farmer from the penalties of his craft or the miner from the adventure of his calling.

All that is claimed is that Swaziland is the last undeveloped territory on the fertile well-watered slopes of the Eastern Drakensberg which is open to the pioneer, and an unprospected mineral belt of great promise, the fringe only of which has been examined for metalliferous deposits.

MBABANE,

SWAZILAND,

1st October, 1907.



GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.

TOPOGRAPHY.—Swaziland lies on the eastern slope of the most easterly spur of the Drakensberg range, and of the western edge of the central Transvaal high-veld. As sub-continental divisions count, it is but a small repoussé on the map of Africa; it is barely the size of Wales. On its 6,500 square miles of mountain and plain it carries a European population of 1,000 and a native population of 84,000, or approximately 1·4 whites and 120 natives to every 6,000 acres. Its natural seaboard is cut off by an intervening strip of Portuguese and British Ama-Tongaland some 40 miles wide, but the sun, rosy and fresh from his antipodean passage, first lights at dawn, from the rim of the Indian Ocean, the majestic peaks of Makonjwa and Ngwenya, 6,700 feet above sea-level, and 140 miles inland. Baptising them with his ruby rays, he smiles down in turn on the plains of the middle veld, and the bush-clothed low country, a timbered valley lying hardly 1,000 feet above the ocean.

FERTILITY.—The country is remarkable, in nature-favoured, in many ways. It is the nearest portion of British South Africa to the port of Lourenço Marques. A railway, 45 miles long, will, in a few months' time, connect the eastern frontier with Delagoa Bay. On the very threshold of the tropics, altitude ensures to the European settler all the climatic desiderata which preserve his virility, and yet the influence of the Mozambique current, with its southern rush of torrid waters, bathes the land in a film of tepid moisture which imparts to vegetation a tropical wealth, luxuriance, and almost perennial verdure.

RIVERS.—The river system is prodigal. Three large rivers traverse the country from west to east, and from the highest crests of her mountain ranges silvery veins of water rush downwards in never-failing volume to swell the main arteries which intersect the plains. The potential utility of this marvellous water system can hardly yet be realised. Along the 100-mile-long wall of the Swazi highlands, where the mountains pre-

ipitously halt, and the descent to the middle-veld begins, a regular sequence of mountain torrents tumble in unrestrained haste to join their midland affinities. Millions of gallons of water, falling every minute of the day and night between 800 to 1,000 feet in 1,000 to 3,000 yards make up a reserve motive power which, one day, the engineer will reckon with. These streams, with the moisture they impart to the soil, and the opportunities they afford of irrigation, are perpetual insurances against droughts, and are amongst the best assets of the country.

SOIL.—Another gift of Nature is the step-like formation of the country. Through the aeons, south-east monsoons, water-laden and boisterous, have lashed the ranges into their present serrated forms. The detritus, washed downward by storms, and intercepted in the prehistoric lakes of the lower valleys formed, in settling, the alluvium which has built up the rolling plains of the midlands and lowlands of this epoch. These variations of altitude and soil regulate the vegetation and shelter varieties as wide apart as the products of the tropics are from those of the temperate zone.

RAIN.—Three great overshadowing mountain ranges, steadfast sentinels on the outer-guard of Swaziland's western frontier, having fertilized its plains, now help to water them. Every wind that laps up moisture from the Indian Ocean beats against their bold uncompromising buttresses, and time and again airborne moisture fails to rise to the thin atmosphere which 6,700 feet above sea level implies. Banks of clouds pile up against their walls, precipitation follows, the slopes stream with water, and Swaziland bathes in the warm dews from the eastern sea. At times the strong sea-wind lifts the clouds over the barrier, and they hurry westward to refresh the Transvaal, but more frequently they expend themselves on the highlands and middleveld of Swaziland.

The country bares her bosom to the east. The first glint of the morning sun dyes her mountains crimson. The sea-borne mists clothe in fleecy garments the towering peaks which mark her western wall. The tears of the clouds swell countless vleis which are the nurseries of her water-ways; warm, moist, fragrant with whispers of the Orient, she spreads her mother-lap in hospitable welcome to those who seek its fold.

HISTORY.

ETHNOLOGY.—Swaziland is peopled by a branch of the coastal Bantu race, of which the Batonga were, we are inclined to believe, the earliest southern representatives. But it is within the recollection of living man that a section of the Bapedi, a branch of the totem tribes of the great plateau, once occupied a very large portion of the country. Some 60 or 70 years ago they were driven out by the impis of Zopuza and Mswazi.

NOMENCLATURE.—The native name of Swaziland is Kwangwane, and that of the people Amangwane, or people of Ngwane. As, however, the territory first came to the notice, in modern times, of Europeans about 1840-50, during the early part of the reign of Mswazi, that chief's name was applied when the territory was referred to by the hunters and traders who were amongst the pioneers of South-east Africa. Dr. Theal, in his "Beginning of South African History," very truly observes: "There is not a single tribe in South Africa to-day that bears the same title, has the same relative power, and occupies the same ground as its ancestors three hundred years ago," and it is evident from what historians have gleaned from the early records of Portuguese and Dutch explorers, that when South African history first came to be written, different tribes under entirely different conditions peopled the Swaziland of to-day.

OLD RECORDS.—The first record of the territory resulted from the explorations of Lourenço Marques, and Antonio Caldeira, who explored the rivers flowing into Delagoa Bay. Relying on information received from the natives, these two officers in 1544 reported that the Mbuluzi river had its source in a great inland lake, and they called it the river of the lagoon (Rio da Lagoa).

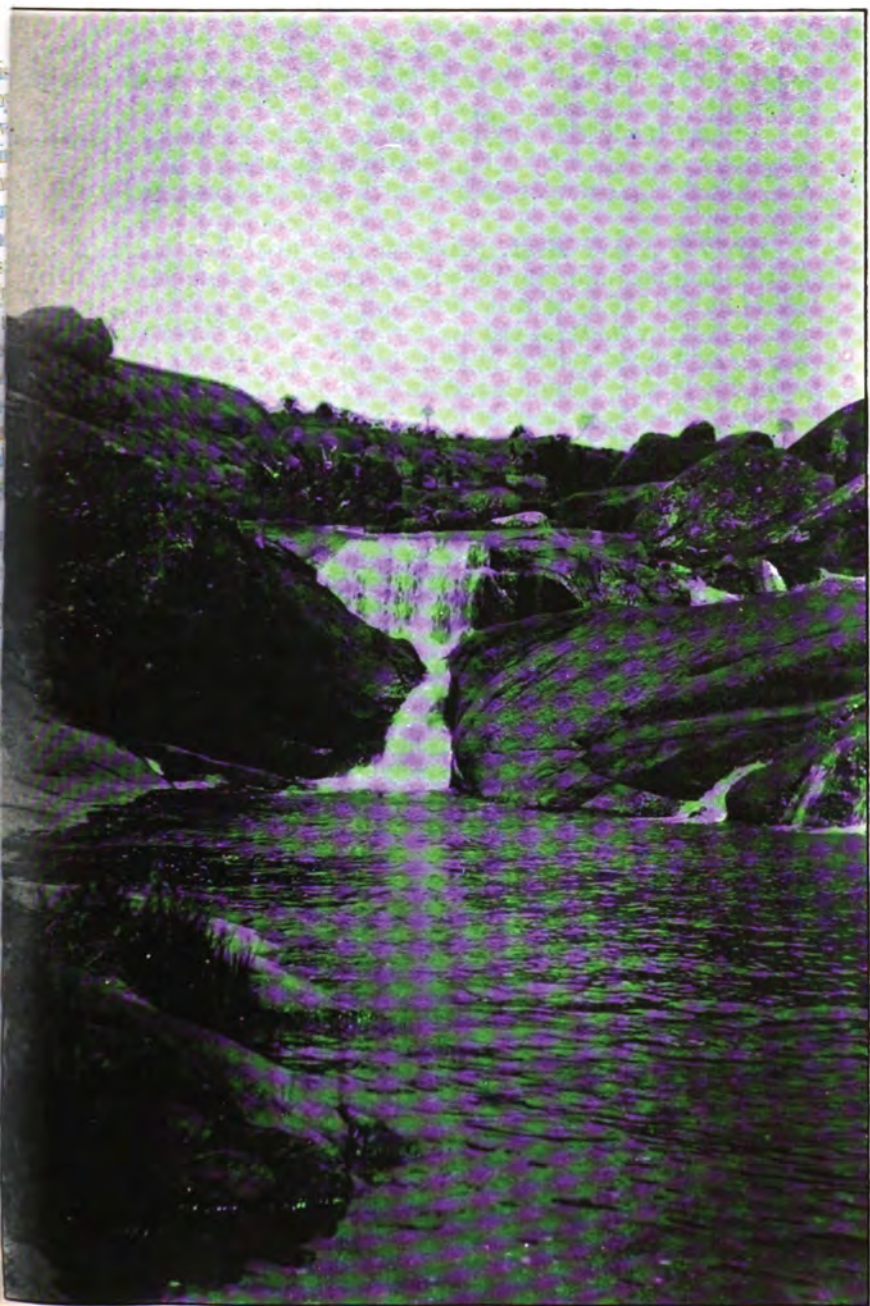
In consequence of the quantity of ivory and copper which it was found could be traded, the Portuguese authorities established a station on the shores of the Bay, and from that centre traders moved out into the hinterland. There is nothing left to-day to indicate that those strangers took root in the country.

though we know they traded in it, built in it, and their missionaries taught in it. There is nothing to show that any European settlements were founded, or that the native inhabitants were influenced by the presence of this alien Latin race. A few old mines at Forbes', and odd holes on the Lubombo and on some of the interior ranges, suggest that primitive mining at one time was undertaken, but beyond the stone ruins of Bapedi or Makatisi villages, nothing remains; nor is there ought to suggest that the barbarians of those early days were influenced by the presence of and contact with a higher civilization. On the contrary, there are indications that sanguinary struggles obliterated every vestige of the white man's influence, that the people who were the contemporaries of these early traders were themselves driven from their homes, later to be replaced by other tribes who stepped into a blood-stained wilderness, and who in their turn gave way to still more modern conquering hosts.

For how long, and how frequently, this tale can be retold in South African history, it is impossible to say. In the gravels of the Mbabane quaint stone arrow-heads, battle-axes, and scrapers are found, which tell of palæolithic man. Bushmen drawings on the sheltered curves of granite boulders carry us probably centuries forward, odd old pots, and rough beaten copper ornaments in the musty depths of Lubombo caves are all that remain of tribes which even tradition fails to number or name, and of the clans which the shipwrecked crew of the "Santo Alberto" encountered or heard of in their weary march from Kaffraria to Delagoa Bay, "not a single tribe is mentioned," says Theal, "with the same name as any now existing." The Makomata*, who spread 90 miles inland along the banks of the Usutu are lost, three centuries have sufficed, in this cauldron of rapine and aggrandisement, to obliterate the last records of a humanity which flooded the land.

In 1723, or about 170 years after the Portuguese first traded through the country, a party of Europeans employed by the Dutch East India Company, and stationed at Lourenço Marques, started from their fort on an inland trek to locate a mountain of iron, probably the Mpundwini, on the Lubombo, about which natives who had travelled down to the Bay had spoken. Under the Secunde, Jan C. Stefler, they marched out to the west, and after a week's journey entered "a land in the mountain kloofs of which were magnificent forests, the soil was rich, and covered with long grass, streams of fresh water

* Possibly represented by a small Zulu clan calling themselves Kumalo.



Middle Fall, Mbuluzi River.

were numerous and different kinds of game, particularly elephants, were seen in great abundance." In crossing a river, most likely the Mbuluzi, which would lie in their track, they were set upon by a band of natives, and as the Secunde was killed, the survivors deemed it prudent to return to the fort.

In 1757 a new chief, Mangova, had arisen on the east of the Lubombo, and controlled the territory along the Tembi river, but in 1791 the tribe broke up owing to civil war, and it is about this time that the present ruling clan, consolidators of the Swazi people, moved into the southern portion of Swaziland from the east. There is nothing in written or oral history to connect the ruling caste of Swaziland with the tribal revolt of the Kapela, but it is co-incident that at the end of the 18th century the future ruler of this country moved out of Amatongaland and established himself in close proximity to the caves and forests of the southern Lubombo.

THE SWAZI DYNASTY.—About this period numerous detached clans occupied this territory. They were probably the flotsam and jetsam of some earlier wave of conquest, people of the Bantu race whose ancestors had hidden in the mountains and bush to escape destruction, and who, in the course of generations, through natural increase, had grown in numbers until they were able to move out into the open and rely for safety on their numerical strength. They still consorted in large villages, their cultivated fields lying miles from their homes, which were generally established on strategic vantage-ground. In the midlands these clans were of the coastal Bantu type; in the hills they were Makatisi or Bantu of the totem tribes, similar in kin to the Abesuto of to-day.

The Usutu valley below the mountain range was occupied by the Masegu clan, under a chief named Ceca, son of Kubonya, son of Ndhlovu, son of Mahlangala. The Bapedi, on the ranges, bore the clan name of Muisi, subject to a distant chief named Mkisi, who lived near Hlomohlomo, but were locally governed by a chief called Njinji, son of Manjoli, son of Nkumbha, son of Manyovu. They dressed like the Masegu, but spoke differently. Their central village was on the slope of the Mbabane mountain. In the lowlands were the Mahlangu, and the Tabeta clans who lived in huts built after the Tonga fashion. On the Komati, near the Nkambeni hills, were the Magagula. Bushmen inhabited the greater portion of the broken country in the south-west.

Whilst Dingiswayo was organising his Umtetwa in the country north of Tugela, Ndugunya, sometimes called Usikotsa, of the Mhlolo clan, was harassing the small peoples along the northern banks of the Pongola, and just as the southern chief laid the foundation of a military nation which Tshaka, Tshaka the manslayer, afterwards utilized on which to build his conquests, so the Swazi king carted the stones upon which his son Zopuza, and grandson Mswazi erected the fabric which is known as the Swazi tribe of the present day.

Ndugunya died about the year 1815. Zopuza, his successor, more restless than his father, picked quarrels with most of the small tribes in his vicinity, and his military talent and capacity for organisation so impressed them that the majority of these scattered people tendered him their allegiance. He used their young men to still further extend his sway, and a few years after he had taken over the paternal clan the whole of south Swaziland was under his rule. The growing power of the Amazulu, now captained by Tshaka, disturbed him. In a dispute regarding the ownership of some gardens on the Pongolo, Uzwiti, a Zulu chief, sent an expedition against Zopuza, which surprised and worsted him, and he thought it wise to move his headquarters some distance from the strike of his adversary. He accordingly organised his remaining troops and trekked into the central part of our Swaziland, wiping out those who opposed his passage. Settling in the valley of the Usutu, to the north of the Mankiyana range, he drove out the Makatisi, the relics of whose villages are still to be seen scattered about the rocky eminences and highlands of the country, and absorbed those clans of coastal Bantu, who had hitherto been living in isolated security. At times the tribe was much disturbed by Zulu incursions—though on one occasion they defeated four of Dingana's regiments—and they were constantly taking refuge in the hills to escape the Southron's assegais. They succeeded, however, in preserving their autonomy. At one time civil war broke out, and Zopuza had to flee. An old regimental song tells the story of his flight to the Hlomohlomo kraal, which he built in the Transvaal on the ruins of a Bapedi stronghold:—

“ We all know him, the son of the Lion,
We all know him, the son of Ndaba;
He sleeps in the veld, the son of the Lion.”

And “ the son of the Lion ” effectively hid himself until a faithful general wiped out his enemies, and he was able to

return in safety and continue his reign. He died about 1836, and was succeeded by his son Mswazi.

Mswazi was more sanguinary in temperament than his father. Desirous of emulating the records of Tshaka and Dingana, the latter of whom, in February or March of 1840, he slew, throughout his whole reign he waged incessant war on surrounding tribes, and mercilessly handled his own people. His fighting force probably numbered 10,000 men, and of these the old Nyati (buffalo) regiment was a constant menace to the peace of South-East Africa. With the exception of occasional raids from the south, Mswazi had little to fear from the Amazulu of Panda. The Swazis had inaccessible mountains in which to take refuge, and a Zulu incursion was a profitless, and at times, to the raider, a dangerous undertaking. The Swazi chief was constantly free to dispatch his impis on looting expeditions, and every winter recorded forays amongst the agricultural Makatisi. He devastated the Kaap valley, and depopulated the country on either side of the Elands and Godwani rivers, his territory extending to the Crocodile river on the north, and Machadodorp and Carolina on the west. When he had no further conquests to strive for in those directions, he took up the cause of his brother-in-law, Mawewe, son of Soshangana, who had seized the throne of the Ngoni people of Shangana country, and had chased his brother Mzila into exile. Mzila returned, and Mawewe was driven from the country, but Swazi impis were sent to back him, and for a time were able to restore him to power. Ultimately, with his people, he settled in Swaziland, and Mzila took possession of his kingdom. These contests took place between 1860 and 1865. In one of the expeditions the Swazis laid siege to the Portuguese fort at Lourenço Marques. Mswazi stated emphatically that his reason for this manœuvre was to keep the Europeans in the fort, as they were inclined to assist Mzila. He succeeded in doing so. Swazi regiments pushed up to Sekukuni country, and were not infrequently roughly handled by the Bapedi, sheltered in their mountain strongholds. With Tshaka first, Mzilikazi second, Ma Ntatisi third, Mswazi stands fourth in the schedule of modern South African butchers. The number of tribes this latter chief destroyed, and the immense area of country he laid waste built for him a record which is best rendered in the adulatory language of succeeding generations, "Au, Nkosi mpéla." (Verily! a King indeed.)

Mswazi died about 1868. He was to have been succeeded by his favourite son Mbelini, but that young man, who was of

a violent temper, quarrelled with his equally intolerant parent and fled to Panda, in Zululand. Years afterwards Mbelini led many Zulu raids into Swaziland, and was ultimately shot by a British officer in the later stage of the Zulu war.

Ludonga, a youth, next in succession, reigned for about six years, but was poisoned at the Nkanini kraal some time about 1874. A virulent civil outbreak followed. Nondwandwa, one of the most powerful chiefs in the country, was assassinated and his people massacred. Regiment turned against regiment, the whole nation took sides, and for two years the country was drenched in blood. Ultimately the older chiefs prevailed, the disaffected regiments were broken, and Mbandini, a young son of Mswazi, was placed on the throne. A strong commando of Dutch farmers, of which the late Mr. Gert Rudolph, C.M.G., and Mr. R. K. Loveday, M.L.A., were members, entered the country and gave the new chief their support, and he was firmly established as paramount head of the tribe.

Mbandini shewed few of the bloodthirsty characteristics of his father. His trait was diplomatic, but he still maintained the historic feud with the Bapedi of Sekukuni. His standing regiment, the Ndhlavella, was constantly on the prowl, and Mbovana, and Matafeni, his fighting indunas, were only kept in check by fear of European reprisals.

THE WHITE INVASION.—About 1878 white men were closing in on the borders of Swaziland. Scots and Dutch farmers were settling along the Eastern Transvaal frontier. The possibilities of a gold fields in the North-Eastern Transvaal had already appealed to a few venturesome spirits, and shortly after Mbandini entered on his reign, pioneer British miners settled in Swaziland and prospected along the western schist belt for precious metals. In Mswazi's time hunters and traders from Natal and the Transvaal had frequently visited the country, and a white man was no stranger to the Amangwane. Mbandini, in a tentative manner, encouraged the miner. In 1878 he gave permission to the late Mr. Tom McLachlan to prospect and mine north of the Komati river, and in 1882 he accorded similar privileges to the late Mr. James Forbes, south of that water divide. An odd Transvaal farmer got authority to depasture his sheep, during the winter, on the rich grasses of the highlands. These small beginnings led to the ultimate incursion of a large body of whites. The successes of Messrs. McLachlan, Forbes and Carter in the gold belt encouraged others to seek for similar rights, and about

1886, when Moodies and the De Kaap gold-fields commenced to attract public attention, numbers of Europeans crossed the Swazi border and secured mining rights over large areas from the Swazi chief, which at that time Mbandini was quite prepared to make over to them. Farmers and grazers, alive to the richness of the veld, followed in quest of farms and grazing areas, and soon a constant stream of Europeans presented their petitions for concessions at the royal kraal. Between 1885 and 1889 the whole country was concessioned away, the simpler rights being followed by absolutely ridiculous monopolies for ludicrous industrial enterprises, such for instance as theatres and pawnshops, the inventions of a shcal of speculative concession seekers.

EVOLUTION OF EUROPEAN CONTROL.—In 1886 some of the more responsible Europeans who were interested in mining ventures discussed the position with Mbandini, who was persuaded to consent to a petition for a British resident to be permanently appointed to the country. He intimated, however, that he could not pay one. Two of the gold mining companies agreed to pay the king sufficient to enable him to make an offer to the British Government to defray the expenses of a resident, and the late Mr. David Forbes was deputed to approach Lord Rosmead (then Sir Hercules Robinson). The appeal to the High Commissioner was ineffectual. The wild orgie of the concession boom followed. In 1888, European interest holders, mainly mining concessionaires, pressed the Paramount Chief to grant a charter of self-government to an elective body in matters solely concerning whites. Mbandini was reluctant to make this grant. He saw in it a limitation of his sovereignty. Quite unexpectedly, and spontaneously, one of the most powerful chiefs of the Inner Council, the National Trustee Jokovu, who throughout had opposed any concessions to the whites, supported the proposal, and in August of that year a Charter of self-government was signed, the Chief reserving to himself the vetoing of any proceedings which might be disagreeable to him. The late Mr. Theophilus Shepstone, C.M.G., who had been in the country for a couple of years, first in a private capacity and later as King's Adviser, was appointed Adviser and Secretary to Mbandini, and fifteen property owners were elected by registered concessionaires as a Government Committee, representing respectively mining, land, and monopolistic interests, with five additional members as King's Nominees. The first Charter Committee consisted of the following gentlemen:—Captain Andrew Ewing (Chair-

man), the Rev. Joel Jackson, Mr. T. B. Rathbone, and Mr. G. Murphy* (King's Nominées); Messrs. Charles B. Acton, Walter Carter, George Fullerton, Gideon Kannemeyer, and Richard W. Wright (Minerals); Messrs. Albert Bremer, David Forbes, Junior, Elisha King, William C. Penfold, and J. Thorburn (Monopolies); Messrs. I. Ferreira, C. Engelbrecht, P. Joubert, J. de Klerek, and R. T. van Rooyen (Land). Mr. Allister M. Miller was appointed Government Secretary, Mr. A. Blake, Collector of Customs, and Mr. S. Ryan Chief of Police. Resident Justices of the Peace were commissioned in different districts, and a *Heenraad*, or Sessions Court, consisting of two members of the Committee and the Secretary, was required to sit at intervals at the Magistracies to hear appeals from the Justices, or cases outside their jurisdiction. The registration of deeds was in the control of Mr. Shepstone. Rentals on concessions, and a 4 per cent. transfer duty on transactions in fixed property formed the revenue, from white sources, of the Paramount Chief, and Customs and taxes levied on Europeans were at the disposal of the Government Committee. The income of the Paramount Chief at this time amounted to over £12,000, and this sum was annually paid to his successor during the following ten years.

Mbandini's Diplomacy.—The killing of Sandhlana, the Prime Minister, and other important chiefs by Mbandini in December, 1888, threw the country into a state of ferment, and in the subsequent winter the British and Transvaal Governments sent in a Commission to report on the state of affairs. Mbandini, who since December, 1888, had at odd times been ailing, was taken seriously ill in September of 1889. He died in October.

Tradition paints this chief a bloodthirsty, besotted savage seated on a gin-case, hiccoughing his consent, whilst in a state of intoxication, to any request made him by the battalions of concession seekers, whose gifts, invariably cases of champagne, he was too weak to refuse. This is a wild distortion of the true story of this revel of acquisitiveness. Whilst it is impossible to analyse the inner workings of the native mind, it is certain that Mbandini was influenced by some logical consideration in the policy he adopted. He was a man of remarkable shrewdness, who even in dealing with his own people relied more on tact than force to attain his ends. In 1879 the

* Mr. A. M. Miller was appointed the fifth nominee of the King in February, 1889, on his taking Mr. Shepstone's place as Secretary and Agent to Mbandini.

influence which was brought to bear on him by the British Government led him to accept the limitations of his western and northern boundaries. Some 15 years previously Mswazi had ceded to the Transvaal farmers that portion of the Lydenburg district north of the Crocodile river, over which he was unable to enforce his control. When Major Alleyne, R.E., was deputed, in 1878-9, to demarcate the Swazi frontier, the Carolina, De Kaap and Komatipoort districts were cut into the Transvaal, and the line was demarcated along the high ranges which form the back-setting of so much of the country as faces the east. Mbandini, as already stated, accepted this award, and at the same time intimated to the Boers that he was naming his eldest son in compliment to them. Immediately after the retrocession, Mbandini was intelligent enough to grasp the fact that a new force had arisen on his western frontier, a consolidated government which would differ materially from the disjointed, impoverished, Zulu-threatened Republic of President Burgers' days. When Great Britain had suggested to Mbandini that he should assist in the war against Cetewayo, he excused himself on very plausible grounds, sent his emissaries into the country to report the progress of the fight, and not until after the battle of Ulundi did he make offer of assistance, which was then refused. The conquest of Zululand was an object lesson to the native tribes of South Africa. Captain McLeod had no difficulty, a year later, in raising 5,000 Swazis to assist in the expedition against Sekukuni. Mbandini concurrently, and without demur, accepted the award of the Boundary Commission. But the retrocession alarmed him. During the period of Great Britain's occupancy of the Transvaal he had allowed a small number of Boers to acquire grazing rights along the western border, though whilst tolerating the few British miners north of Komati, he had refused them written authority to work for minerals. Following the retrocession, he made mining grants. Between 1884-6 a turbulent faction of the Boers under the late Mr. Stoffel Tosen resented the granting, by the Chief of Mining Rights, to Messrs. McLachlan and Forbes, and the King's diplomacy was thereupon exerted to secure a guarantee of remuneration for a Resident British Agent, whose presence might serve to check the dictatorial attitude of the Boer malcontents. The British Government's refusal was a disappointment, but as an off-set to the claims of the Boers, Mbandini withdrew all restraint in making grants of minerals, and between 1886-8, the whole country was partitioned off for mineral purposes.

Of something like fifty mineral concessions, only six were made to subjects of the Republic. The later action of the Eastern Boundary Commission of 1888 which severed from Swaziland that portion of Swazi territory west of the Tembi and east of the Lubombo, convinced him more than ever that his heritage was a vanishing number, and he therefore dealt out concessions with a lavish hand equally to Briton and Boer. "Why should I not eat before I die?" he once remarked, and he ate accordingly.

THE CONCESSION BOOM.—The concession boom can hardly be described as picturesque: it was novel. It framed the halcyon age of the Swazi. Roads were made, and footpaths worn to bedrock by the horses of concessionaires who were or who would be. Wayside hotels, and native trading stations were maintained on the proceeds of their entertainment, and largess. The King's sweeper, his brewer, his snuff-bearer, the man who paired his nails, were sanctified entities in the eyes of the suppliant. Into their ever-open hands a constant stream of silver fell in the expectation that it might disclose some veiled path to the heart of the giver of good things. The indunas—the councillors—as befitted their superior station, were still more substantially rewarded. Gold was their guerdon, and uncounted wealth was distributed in enlisting their sympathies. Gifts bestowed in superlative generosity not infrequently postponed the desired consummation, for favours to come were ever before the eyes of the Outer Guard, and many an aspiring concessionaire spoilt his chance through too ruinously lavish an expenditure in his introductory efforts. The concessionaires who succeeded have been catalogued; those who failed—and they were legion—are lost in oblivion. Through it all Mbandini was undisturbed. He was often impatient, but never rude. He postponed affixing his signature with the same courtesy that granted a principality; he was as courtly to the Boer with his few pounds for his first rent as he was to the bejewelled speculator with his canvas-bag of gold. Through it all he honestly strove to conserve to his White Committee the full fiscal advantages of the Charter. A certain check to the signing of a concession lay in proof that it conflicted with the prerogatives of that instrument.

POLITICS.—During the whole of this period a fierce political intrigue was being waged. Boers, and some Britishers, with the full sympathies of the Republic, were endeavouring to get

documents signed which would ensure the ultimate control of the country by the Transvaal; Britons, cold-shouldered by Downing Street, were furiously strenuous in their efforts to wrap his sable majesty in the Union Jack. In the light of subsequent events there is little doubt but that had Mbandini ever reached that point when he would have had to choose between the evils—to him—of British or Dutch control, he would have selected that of Britain, not because he loved her the more; he but feared her the less. But he escaped the crisis; he died on terms of confidential intimacy with the contending political factions, who never for a moment had dreamed that an outer barbarian had learned the maxim *Divide et impera*.

Twelve months after his death the British and Transvaal Governments agreed by convention to a triumviral form of administration for the country, with Colonel R. E. R. Martin representing Great Britain, Mr. D. J. Esselen the Transvaal, and Mr. T. Shepstone the natives, as its rulers. A Special Judicial Commission sat and pronounced on the validity of concessions, rejecting some, confirming others. The Government of the Republic had acquired several monopolies affecting the taxes of the country, and subsequent to the findings of the Judicial Commission many of the more practical, or perhaps one might describe them the more reasonable, of the monopolies were purchased by that Government and by limited liability companies. A central European rallying point, known as Bremersdorp, was founded, and some attempt made to develop the country on civilized lines. But intervening political and administrative heart-burnings, combined with ill-defined community of property in the land owned by Europeans and natives, materially handicapped progress. In 1895 the Transvaal, with the consent of the British Government, took over all protective, administrative, legislative, and jurisdictional powers, a British Consul (Mr. J. Smuts) being appointed to watch British and native interests. This change led to serious native unrest, which recurred in 1897, when rinderpest swept through the country, and again in 1898, when the paramount chief, Bunu, the heir of Mbandini, murdered the chief induna and fled to Zululand to escape arrest by the Government. The whites had to laager, troops were marched into Swaziland, and all industry was suspended. Bunu was subsequently handed over by the Zululand authorities, tried, convicted and fined, and certain of his powers curtailed by a protocol to the Convention. The country was settling down when war broke out in 1899.

In 1902 a British police force moved into Swaziland, but for two years no laws were promulgated, nor were any steps taken to rehabilitate white influence in the territory. In 1904 a Proclamation was issued by Lord Milner, which applied the laws of the Transvaal Colony, provided for the machinery of government, ordered a general survey, and appointed a Commission to enquire into and expropriate monopolies, adjust all disputed land and mineral boundaries, and partition European and native interests in and to the ground. The assessment of monopolies for expropriation was completed in 1906, and all monopolies were either suspended, expropriated or forfeited. This Commission is now on the verge of issuing its awards in matters of overlapping boundaries, and the land is to be divided between Europeans and natives in the proportion of two-thirds to European registered owners, and one-third to natives. The new Commission undertaking this partition proceeds with its work immediately. It is anticipated that at the end of 1908 the land will be free for settlement.

The late Resident Magistrate, Mr. F. Enraght-Moony, retired, and Mr. Robert T. Coryndon, an official whose successful establishment of European government in North-West Rhodesia, under most difficult, and not altogether dissimilar, conditions is a matter of history, has been transferred to Swaziland as Resident Commissioner, and is responsible to the High Commissioner for the administration of this Colony.

Swaziland now takes her place as a separate State in the South African Colonial family. The future to a great extent lies in her own hands. Nature has been most lavish to her. Artificial rather than natural barriers have retarded her development, and it is believed that the fair-play which a sound and sympathetic administration will ensure is all that is required to invite within her frontiers the class of settler most competent to advantage by the generous favours which climate, soil and geographical position confer.

STOCK AND AGRICULTURE.

GENERAL EXPERIMENTS.—Sufficient experimental work has been carried out in agriculture and stock farming over a long series of years at different altitudes to enable the settler to pick up the threads of experience and form some judgment on the prospects of the territory, and especially calculate the capacities of the different classes of soil and variations of climate. The principal experiments have been conducted by the Swaziland Corporation, Ltd., at an altitude of 2,800 to 3,000 feet (Loch Moy), and at 4,000 to 4,500 feet (Dabriach), whilst several enterprising individual stock farmers and agriculturalists have contributed to the general fund of knowledge under this head.

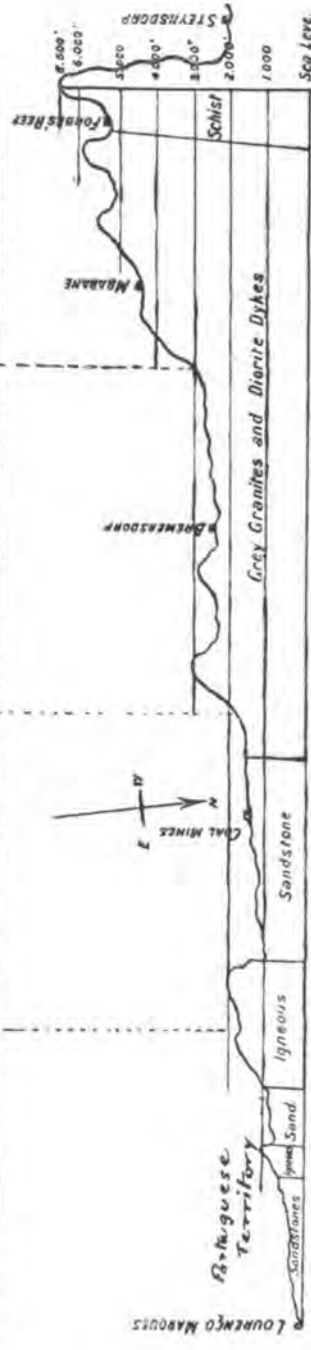
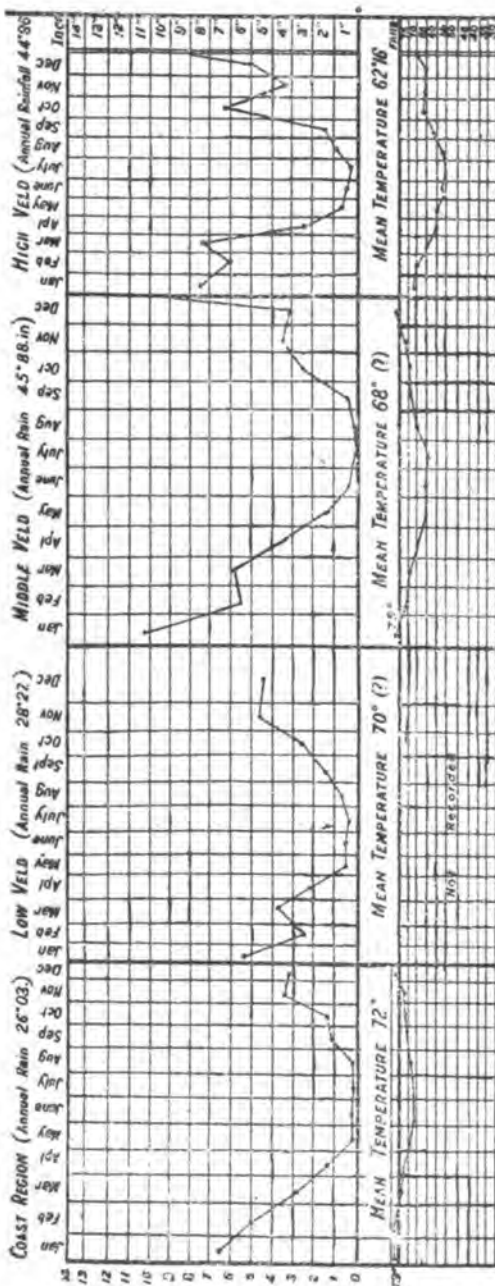
SOILS.—The geological formation of the country divides it into three distinct terraces: Highlands, Midlands, and Lowlands. The Highlands, some 4,000 to 6,700 feet above the sea, consist of some talc and micaceous schists, but preponderatingly of granite. The Midlands, from 1,800 to 2,800 feet altitude, with the foothills, are mainly granitic, with large alluvial deposits of a foreign soil, precipitated in the old lake beds, the alluvial having intermixed with more recent detritus from decomposed diabase dykes. The Lowlands, 600 to 1,000 feet above the sea, are principally in sandstone. On the western limits coarse grey granites shed their weatherings over the country; on the eastern side debris from the Lubombo overlies the country rock, but the central bed-rock is sandstone very much broken up by intruding dykes which cross the country latitudinally at right angles to the Lubombo. The Lubombo itself is a bold trappean dyke, averaging 15 miles wide, and from 1,000 to 2,000 feet in altitude, the western slopes of which are aggressively precipitous, the plateau clothed with a rich reddish soil, stony in places, but everywhere fertile, sloping easily to the east, broken by heavy timbered kloofs hiding deep-lying streams.

ALTITUDINAL PROPORTIONS.—It may be taken approximately that the Highlands comprise 1,650,000 acres, the Midlands 1,250,000 acres, and the Lowlands, with the

Lubombo, the remaining 1,250,000 acres of the 6,500 square miles of Swaziland.

RAIN AND TEMPERATURE.—The plate on the next page will give general approximate data regarding the rainfall and temperature of the different belts. Rain has only been recorded during a series of drought years, probably a dry pentade, a marked diminution in the water-flow having been noticed. In the past meteorological year, the figures of which are unfortunately still awaiting official computation, the Highlands' rainfall averaged 54 inches, which is more in accordance with the tradition of Swaziland seasons.

UTILITY.—It is not difficult to forecast the future utility of the three plateaux. The Highlands will be devoted to the rearing of stock; the Midlands to the cultivation of citrus trees, winter vegetables, and general sub-tropical products of the fruit variety; and the Lowlands to the growth of tobacco, cotton, and the prosecution of mixed farming on a moderately large scale. In every instance the Chamber desires, with the assistance of the large land owners, to encourage the establishment of small farmers, men with sufficient capital to stock 2,000 acre farms in the uplands, men with limited capital, but with energy to help them through as fruit growers, intensive farmers on from 300 to 500 acre blocks in the Midlands, and the experienced planter for the more tropical bush.



ROUGH LATITUDINAL SECTION OF SWAZILAND

— About 15 Miles to 1 Inch —

THE HIGHLANDS.

TICK FEVER.—Swaziland, in common with the whole of East Africa, has suffered from the ravages of tick fever. Before the rinderpest plague moved south, the country was one of the richest cattle belts in the sub-continent. Rinderpest carried off 100,000 head in 12 months, but we recovered with extraordinary rapidity. The State escaped the wholesale destruction of cattle entailed by the war; in fact, numbers of native cattle from the Transvaal were driven over the border for safety. Then tick fever appeared, and the losses were enormous. Quite inexplicably the bush country escaped, and is now teeming with herds. In every other portion of the land, however, the losses per herd amounted approximately to 95 per cent. The disease was principally spread by natives, who callously drove infected beasts from one feeding ground to another. The result has been that Swaziland has been denuded of 75 per cent. of its horned stock. The disease still exists in isolated centres, but it has worn itself out, and ordinary precautions are safeguards against its recurrence.

CATTLE.—The surest preventative is fencing. Cattle paddocked on ground which has been 14 months infection-free, are safe, and every stock farmer must be prepared to fence a portion of his farm before he can, with any confidence, introduce horned stock. On the Highlands, cattle rather than sheep are recommended. Clothed in rich rooi grass the broken country of the higher levels is an unsurpassed cattle range. The bleak uplands of the high-veld, the exposed tracts of kareo, are hopelessly outclassed by the hills and vales of the Makonjwa, Mankaiyana, and Mahlangatshwa. Every peak carries grass to the summit; in every kloof a rich succulent undergrowth provides nutriment when the plateaux are dried out and fibrey. Clear streams spring eternally with an entirely unexplained spontaneity from mountain tops, and the aspect of the land is warm, well-watered and verdant. The only months in which the stock farmer has to provision himself against possible wintry rigours are August and a portion of

September. During the latter month the first mists creep up from the sea, and the mountains are swathed in a soft veil of moisture. Before the heavy rains of October fall the new grass has already commenced to sprout, and the chills of spring are fended by fresh-blooded cattle sheltered in the cosy nooks of kloof and krantz.

The experiments of the Swaziland Corporation at Mbabane afford convincing proof of the suitability of this veld for cattle. In 1903 they purchased 10 head of cattle for £107, and in the following year placed them in a small paddock at Dalriach. The paddock was originally 12 acres in extent, but it was subsequently enlarged to 40 acres. When the cattle were first paddocked there were some 200 head of native kraal-stock outside and around the fence. In 1907, of that 200 head only 12 remained, the others having succumbed to tick fever; but inside the fence the 10 head of cattle had increased to 23 head, whilst in addition £78 worth of stock had been disposed of out of the troop. In the first winter the cattle were assisted with 10 tons of hay cut from the ordinary veld. In the second year a similar weight of hay was supplemented by an addition of five tons of mealie-stalk ensilage. Last winter the herd relied solely on a stack of rooi-grass hay, and preserved their condition admirably, despite the fact that they were pastured on only three acres to the full-grown beast, or under $1\frac{2}{3}$ acres to the whole troop. On this fare some of the cows remained in milk throughout the winter. The veld is healthy, for all the calves have been reared. Though this may be exceptionally fine natural veld, the greater portion of the Highlands compare favourably with it for cattle; in fact, the natural advantages which this section of Swaziland offers to the breeder of slaughter stock are obvious from the winter condition of cattle along the eastern frontier.

MERINO SHEEP.—A few isolated Highland farms will carry Merino sheep in the summer, but up to the present Swaziland is not adapted to sheep ranching. In the winter tens of thousands of this class of stock are driven down to our mountains along the frontier, and remain in the hills until September, but so soon as the first rains fall they return to their high-veld homes. The richness of the summer grasses, and particularly the excessive moisture, conduce to blue-tongue and other diseases, and there seems little hope that the grass will be tamed for sheep farming until heavy stocking by cattle has reduced the rank undergrowth to a more tractable condition. An interesting experiment has been initiated by Mr.

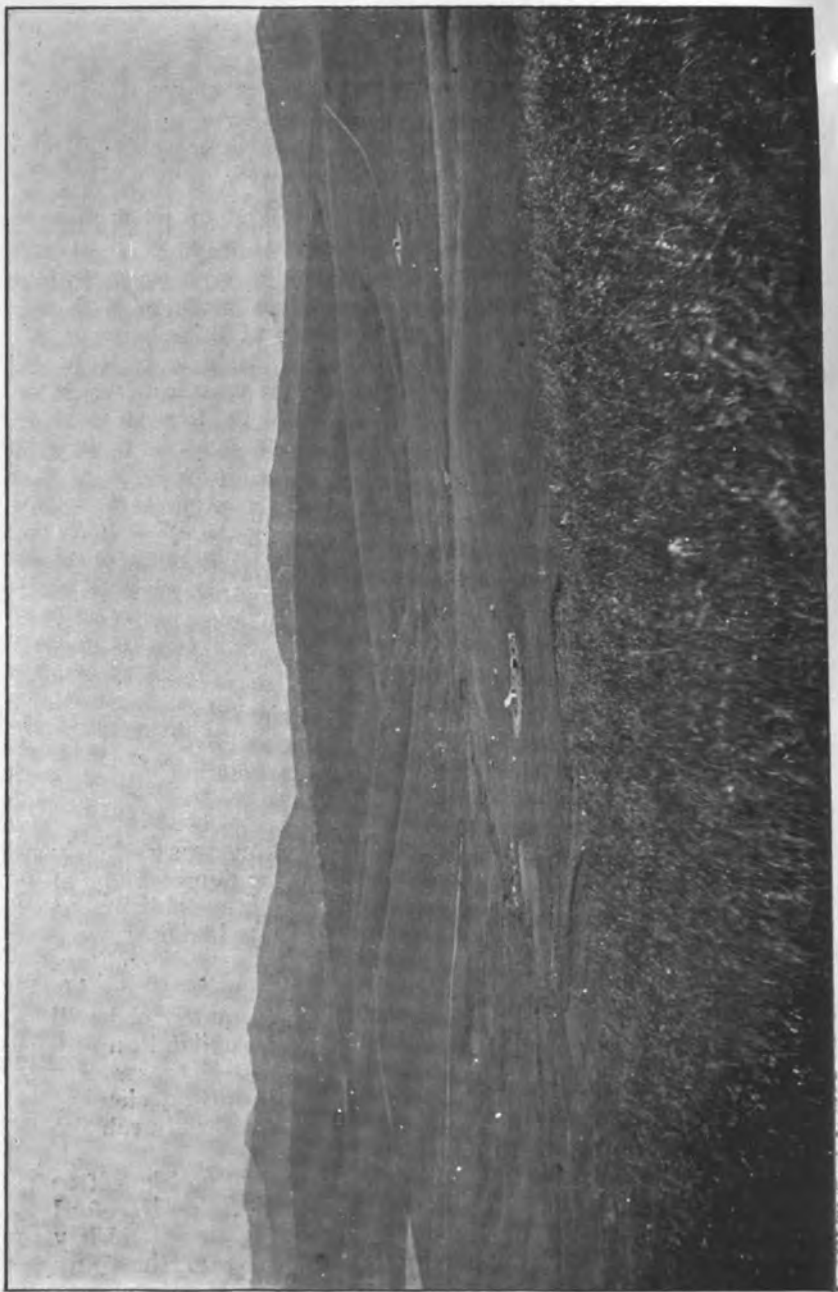
John Baylis, of Rocklands, in the Pigg's Peak district, who has imported first-class Merino rams to cross on the ordinary Kaffir sheep, a species of the Afrikander sheep, which laid the foundation of the wool industry in the Cape Colony in the days of Bowker, Pigot, Daniell, Griffith, and White. Mr. Baylis hopes to improve the local sheep up to an acclimatised wool-bearing variety. Though having experienced some loss in his initial experiments, he is able to show encouraging results, and there are hopes that a good stamp of fine-woolled ewe will result. But it is not advisable for the pioneer farmer, starting in a new country, to undertake experiments of this character. All experience shows that in Swaziland altitude is no safeguard to the intending wool-grower, and it therefore would appear that time only can reduce the veld to the state of docility that will justify the healthy maintenance of Merinos in the summer months.

ANGORAS.—A Dutch farmer in the Ngwenya valley at 5,000 feet, runs a small troop of Angoras imported from the Orange River Colony. The experiment is too young to enable the Chamber to draw conclusions. Up to the present, despite a summer rainfall of 51 inches, the flock seems healthy, and the increase fair.

PERSIANS.—A few small troops of Persians have adapted themselves to the climate and grass, and this breed of sheep will probably become a favourite on farms where the owner desires to vary his stock.

HORSES.—Some 17 years ago horse-breeding was seriously undertaken at an altitude of 5,500 feet, but the depredations of leopards in those days caused great loss, and the establishment was abandoned. Climatically, the paddocked ridges were healthy during the season, and the animals kept good condition in winter in the vleis. Until, however, Dr. Theiler issues his anti-horsesickness virus and serum, which it is understood will be within a year or two, horse breeding in Swaziland on any large scale is not recommended. The Highland grasses are good, and the climate is generally favourable, but an element of risk is present, and one bad season of sickness may rob the breeder of the profit of years.

The pioneer stock farmer will do well to confine himself to horned stock, and Persian sheep. Of cattle, the Hereford breed seems one of the most suitable for the country. They are good foragers, and appear to require less care than any



Typical High Veld—Mbabane, Swaziland.

other blood stock. A thoroughbred bull quickly implants his characteristics on a herd of country-bred cows, and the progeny mature rapidly. As the slaughter-house door is ever open, slaughter stock will be the most profitable to rear for some time to come. When a railway runs through the country, dairying will, no doubt, offer many openings, but until quick transport is available it is not to be thought of unless in so small a way that it can only be referred to as an occasional industry.

MIDLANDS.

Nestling under the granite walls of the mountain ranges, and spreading its rolling table-lands for some 25 miles to the east, with here and there an island kopje or low ridge of hills relieving the undulating monotony of the grass-clad plain, the Midlands takes its place as the intermediate step in the descent from the mist belt to the tropical shades of the bush. The whole of this belt is well watered. The mountain torrents pour themselves into its lap, and the adjunctive rainfall renders water conservation on any very large scale for ordinary farming purposes superfluous. To this part of Swaziland the agriculturalist will turn his eyes.

From the centre of the Midlands the coast lies east, by the proposed and inevitable rail, some 90 miles, and whilst the farmer of the future may find that local markets will absorb a small proportion of his produce, it is hoped that the greater part of crops, whether of fruit or cereals, will be grown with the ultimate view to export through our maritime outlet at Lourenço Marques. It will be pointed out that the Natal coast land can grow many, if not all, products similar to those which this middle veld is capable of rearing, and that her area of sub-tropical production is co-terminal with the sea, and not, as here, some 90 miles inland. The reply to that is that the best Natal coast land cannot be purchased on easy terms at £1 per acre, which the Chamber hopes will be the maximum price charged to the pioneer in Swaziland. Nor is the Natal season as early nor so late as that of Swaziland. Being nearer the tropics and benefiting by the marked geniality and mildness of thermal conditions, early and late varieties of different classes of fruits are here factors for profit making which should stiffen the young farmer to put up with the hardships of the present that he may benefit by the advantages to come. Swaziland is the most advantageously placed of the unsettled regions of British South Africa, and it claims the maxima of sub-tropical benefits with the minima of sub-tropical penalties; it favours the growth of the richer products of the earth, whilst conserving healthful conditions of domestic existence to the

European producer. The reader need only look at a map of South Africa to grasp the syllogism. The Chamber therefore hopes that once the natural advantages of the country are recognised, definite movement will be made by progressive agriculturalists to take up Midland farms.

WATER.—One of the marked advantages of farms in the Midlands will be that in early settlements running water will form one of the boundaries of each block. A small dam, with a few hundred feet of piping, will invariably provide a constant water supply during the dry season, whilst with a 40-inch rainfall water conservation in farmers' dams will relieve the cultivator of anxiety during the three months of winter.

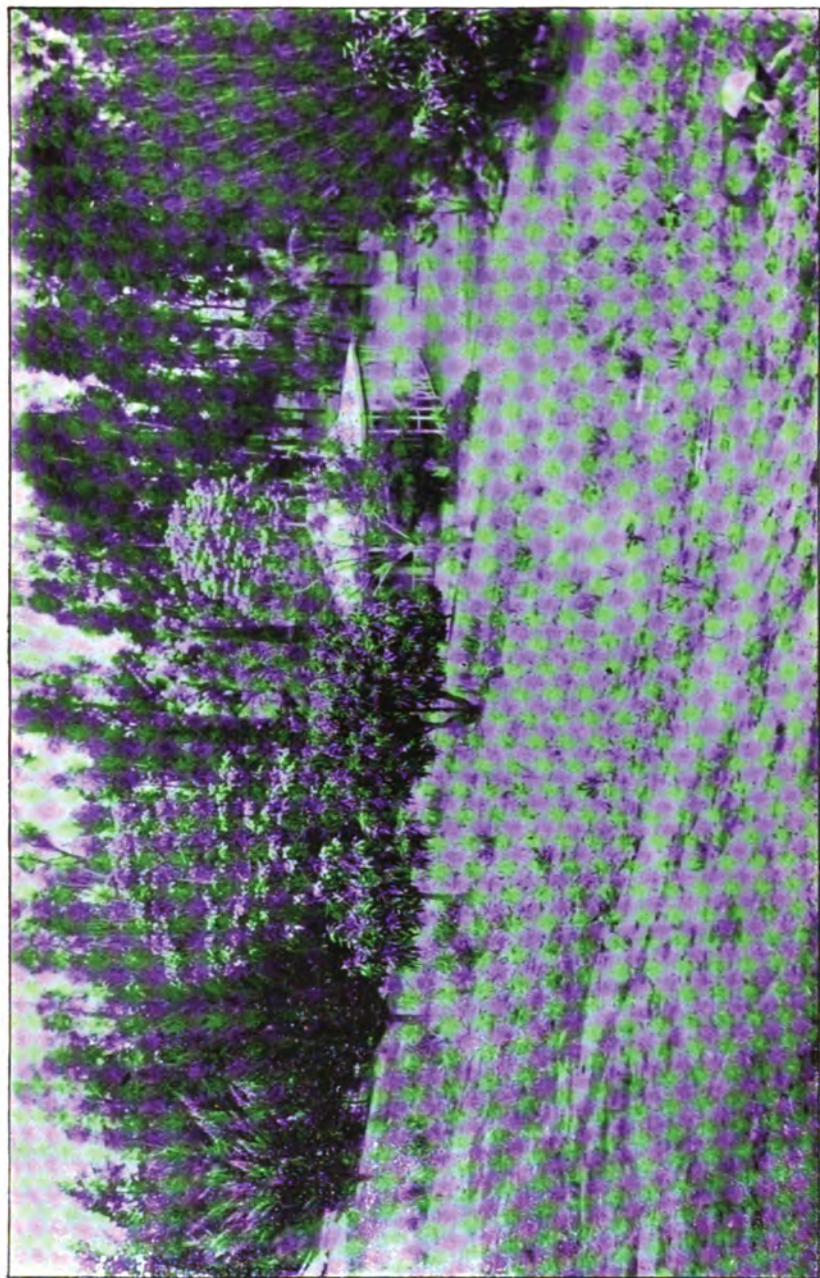
CLASS OF PRODUCE.—It is generally agreed that the middleveld is primarily a citrus belt. Wherever citrus trees have been planted, they have proved a success, and that with very rudimentary and perfunctory treatment. With initial crops of mealies to prepare the land, a number of settlers, it is believed, could pay their way, if content with humble beginnings, until the trees will reach the producing stage, when careful packing and proximity to the export point should, with the aid of co-operative methods, enable the grower to place his produce on the oversea market.

FRUIT *versus* GRAIN.—Experiments which have been carried on for some years point to the future of Swaziland as a fruit rather than a grain country. Sufficient grain should and could be raised to feed the populace, but grain for export will, it is believed, give way to fruit. At present a few farmers grow mealies, but they retain them to sell to the natives. These thriftless children, no matter how favourable the season, are sellers on a small scale of their cereals at harvesting time and buyers on a large scale before the summer is half through. Transactions in the sale of mealies to natives are generally conducted at 30s. per muid. The mines, government, and trading establishments are large buyers. No definite returns on this head are available, but it is reliably computed that in the 12 months ending June 30th, 1907, 12,000 muids of mealies, or meal, were imported from the Transvaal. The average price delivered was 19s. per muid. The demand is increasing rather than diminishing, though it is apparent that if 100 farmers grew 200 muids each, the price would be reduced to 10s. per muid. But even at that figure sufficient profit should be made to keep the establishment going, and it is

doubtful if that price would be lowered, for Natal is proving that at 200 miles from the coast properly graded mealies are worth 9s. 6d. on the rail for shipment to the European market. The monetary sinews of the farmer in his earlier operations lie in mealies.

FRUIT EXPORT.—The Chamber urges as the ultimate aim of every settler that whatever he plants he should select, cultivate, and handle with a view to export. The export movement may seem premature to-day, but trees don't spring into bearing by the wave of a wand. The country will probably consume its own produce for three or four years. And after? No one who has studied the horticultural progress of the Transvaal in the last three years but must foresee that the next five years will complete a system of export which will hold its own in European markets against any competitors from the older centres. Swaziland's proximity to the sea will place the local producer in an advantageous position, not the least factor of which will be early and late varieties, the first and the last on the market. "Export" should be the watchword of every settler.

Placing citrus in the forefront the range of fruit and other products in the Midlands has been proved to include mangoes, avacado pears, sugar cane (for sugar or winter forage), custard apples, sweet and sour sops, pineapples, bananas, litchis, jack-fruit, tea (the tree only), coffee, and, subject to experiments now proceeding, a variety of early peaches. No attempts have hitherto been made to grow winter oats, but there is reason to believe that where irrigation is undertaken good forage crops can be secured. In valleys situated at intermediate altitudes between the Midlands and Highlands a wide field in early varieties of temperate zone fruits is open to the planter. Swaziland is at present buying outside £15,000 annually in foodstuffs which she should produce herself. In this the Chamber sees humble encouragement for the initiation of the agricultural industry.



“Loch Moy” Homestead (Swaziland Corporation, Ltd.).

LOWLANDS.

The low-lying, bush-clad, country is rich in pasture land and still more fruitful as a field for the growth of cotton, tobacco, and cane. It has to bear the reproach of malaria, but were it not that the remainder of Swaziland is so remarkably free from sub-tropical ills probably much less would be laid in this respect to the charge of the low-veld. In its present prairie stage it is undoubtedly closed to the oversea immigrant, but to men who are accustomed to warm climates it is not unsuitable, and when at a later date cultivation exposes the rich humus to the air, and when drainage, and proper attention follows the introduction of civilisation, there is little doubt but that similar hygienic changes will take place, such as have been noticed along the coast of Natal, where in 1869, in Victoria County and elsewhere, epidemics of malaria were not infrequent.

COTTON.—As with the citrus tree in its relation to the future of the Midlands cotton should play the principal part in the exploitation of the bush. During the past three years the Swaziland Corporation has paid considerable attention to the experimental growth of cotton. The experiments were conducted on poor middle-veld soil, and American upland varieties were subject to severe tests. A wild cotton, classed at Kew as probably derived from *Gossypium punctatum* Sch. et Thon. var. *nigeria*, W. Watt, and stated probably to have descended from the old white cotton of Egypt, is indigenous, and whilst it was surmised that cotton might flourish there, it was considered desirable to test it in the higher ground for various reasons. If it gave a commercial growth there, there could be no doubt about its adaptability where the wild variety showed so healthy a producing power. This year the Henderson's Consolidated Corporation provided further data to the experiments by planting on good bush land at about 1,200 feet above the sea.

The Swaziland Corporation's experiments were conducted by Mr. Carter H. Cleveland, an Alabama cotton expert. The altitude was 3,000 feet, and the 1907 report of the Manager of the Corporation to his Directors on this work is as follows:—

The acre cultivated last season with experimental varieties was again tilled, to which was added 29 acres

of new ground, and in this 30 acre block we planted 20 varieties of seed. In the acre under cotton last year we sowed the four varieties which gave us the best results in last year's crop. These were Russell's big boll, Cook's long staple, Hawkins' Improved, and Early Carolina. Whilst it is unfair to the seed to form definite conclusions from results on newly-broken ground, Mr. Carter H. Cleveland, who throughout has been in charge of the operations, has decided that the four varieties named are the most suitable for cultivation in Swaziland. He contends that the facility with which any class of cotton is grown even on poor ground, its freedom from disease, and the general climatic conditions of the country, render further experiments unnecessary. From the four varieties named we must build up our crops of the future, and he argues that it is only by the careful selection of seed from the healthiest plants of each crop, repeating that practice for several seasons, that we will finally get the best results from the soil. He contends that by so doing we will be able to rear a medium long staple that will be uniform and equal to the best class of upland American. Whilst for purely experimental purposes Loch Moy was suitable and convenient, I would strongly recommend that further work of an experimental character should be conducted in conjunction with commercial planting, that first-class bush-veld should be selected, and a distinct establishment inaugurated.

The following observations on the year's work will be of interest :—

SOIL.—The best class of soil, and most suitable rainfall for cotton lies in that portion of Swaziland west of the Lubombo range, and east of the Nkambeni, Malinda, Tab 'Nkulu, and Sineweni Hills. Of this country some 1,000 square miles may be described as first-class country on which, when a selected type of plant is evolved out of the better classes with which experiments have been made, a yield of 400lbs. lint per acre could be relied upon. It is possible that some 350 square miles on the western ridges of the Lubombo may be classed with the bush-veld, but Mr. Cleveland reserves his opinion on this point, as meteorological data is not reliable regarding the humidity of the Hill region.

SEED.—The four varieties which have given us in two successive seasons uniformly good results are recom-

mended. These varieties, as already enumerated, are Russell's Big Boll, Cook's Long Staple, Early Carolina, and Hawkins' Improved.

DATE OF PLANTING.—Mr. Cleveland advises that cotton should be planted in the last week of October and first fortnight in November, and not later. If planted too early the autumn rains and mist soak into the bolls which either rot and fall off the stem, or burst imperfectly, carrying a stained lint which provides a harbour for insects; if too late, the bolls fail to make and burst when half their natural size. It is better, he considers, to have the crop fully made by the first week in April and lose a few of the earlier bolls than run the risk of the dry weather coming down before the bolls are matured.

DETAILS OF PLANTING.—Distance between rows will vary according to the ground. In rich ground four feet six inches is not too wide. In poorer ground the rows may be closer. It is advisable to plant seed close in the lines and to thin out all imperfect plants. Stunted plants are only in the way. Once the seedlings are up the field must be kept clean of all weeds and the cultivator should never be idle. The more loose and moist soil the fruit-roots get, the better the crop. Mr. Cleveland reckons that it is easier and cheaper to keep ground clean in Swaziland than in America, where the fields are old and weedy, and what he has to pay extra for picking he saves in cultivation over United States cost.

PICKING.—Except for the one acre carrying its second year's crop, the plantation gave no definite criterion of the cost of picking. The sixteen varieties planted on the 29 acres were not satisfactory, and close picking was not possible. Consequently it was hard to form any conclusions from the cost of handling straggling plants. Mr. Cleveland, however, roughly estimates the cost of picking with raw hands at 3s. per 100lbs. He has experienced no difficulty in getting labour, but up to the present it is indifferent. The native women and children take kindly to the work, but he has not yet succeeded in training them to the use of both hands. He believes that three or four seasons' experience will turn a large percentage into good cotton pickers, but it is obvious that they must be trained by persons acquainted with the work and prepared to pick alongside them. For the purposes of a test he put several of his best hands who were in their second year in the acre block which was cultivated last season. The best

picking in this close field was 77lbs. with one hand at a cost of 1s.; at the same cost another picker gathered 70lbs., the other two averaging 62lbs., the average cost being, roughly, 1s. 6d. per 100lbs. The second picking gave the best lint. Owing to our limited accommodation in the lint-house and the fact that different varieties gave their second picking at different times, we decided to mix and average the crop out as a whole, making no selections and saving the expense of a variety, in size and unnecessary number, of sample bales. The picking season comes on immediately after the native crops have been reaped, and women and girls are free—we have found them anxious—to raise some money for themselves. We do not therefore anticipate much difficulty in getting raw hands to pick. If we can make the work popular, there will be an inexhaustible labour supply, as no doubt women from Portuguese Amatongaland would readily cross the border into the eastern flats to participate in the picking on conditions similar to hop-picking in England.

CONCLUSIONS.—If we can average out our crops at 400lbs. per acre, Mr. Cleveland estimates that a bale of 500lbs. can be landed at Lourenco Marques for £4 10s., which represents cost of production, 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. Calculating the cost of freight, commission, etc., at $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. and the market value at 6d., the annual profit per acre should represent £5."

The report on the five-acre block of the Henderson's Consolidated Corporation in the Lowlands confirmed all that has been surmised regarding the suitability of that part of the country for cotton cultivation. Mr. A. R. Torrens, the local manager of that company, reports:—

"We planted five acres. The acre of Abassi was a failure, producing only 61lbs. lint. The balance works out for the four remaining acres at 554lbs. lint to the acre as follows:—

Name of Cotton.	Yield per Acre.	London Price.
Cook's Long Staple ...	579 lbs.	8d. per lb.
Truitt's Big Boll ...	516 lbs.	8d. per lb.
Bohemian	485 lbs.	7 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per lb.
Russell's Big Boll ...	439 lbs.	8d. per lb.
Trash	200 lbs.	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.
Total	2,219 lbs. lint.	

These results, as is remarked in the report of the Corporation, remove cotton growing from the experimental stage, and assure its ultimate establishment as a staple industry in Swaziland.

TOBACCO.—Tobacco is a sure crop. The aim of planters must be to strive to produce the wrapper leaf which is so much sought after in the Transvaal. The sheltered character of the ground, its rich humus, and a peculiar suitability of soil all combine to promise a satisfactory accomplishment of this object where intelligent and sustained selection of seed is persevered in. On the Lubombo a large quantity of native tobacco is grown. It is much in demand amongst the natives, and for a better class of European-grown tobacco there is ready sale to the black population.

SUGAR CANE.—Sugar cane has been planted in the middle-veld. It makes a good crop in about 18 months, and the conditions are more favourable in the Lowlands. Until railway communication is available, cane cultivation on any large scale is not commercially practicable.

CEREALS.—Maize can be grown in large quantities in bush country, and kaffir corn (millet) is a suitable and responsive crop, but in every case, with the Portuguese railway at the frontier and Lourenço Marques 45 miles further east, cotton is the sound crop and the one which, properly handled, will bring in profitable returns.

GENERAL.—The immediate outlook for the Lowlands settler lies in the direction of mixed farming on a fairly large scale; troops of cattle, with a block of cotton, of mealies, and as many other products as are likely to contribute towards the upkeep of the establishment until whatever the staple class of cultivation it is intended to follow is established on a payable basis. The veld is remarkably rich in stock grasses, and notwithstanding the dry winters horned and all stock—but particularly cattle—are slaughter fat throughout the year, but the soil is equally rich, and it will generally prove more lucrative to employ cattle as a bye-product and derive revenue mainly from cultivation of the ground.

The malarial character of the Lowlands has been touched on. If a man, acclimatised to the coast line, takes ordinary precautions, if he lives in a mosquito-proof hut, follows an active daily routine, and consumes a normal quantum of

vegetables, he will probably escape any malarial attacks. The malaria is not a deadly form of the disease, and black-water fever is not known in this tract. Its most southerly recorded limit is below the Mpundwini mountain at Nomahasha. For a healthy man adopting recognised precautions the bush should have no terrors. Virgin soil as it is, however, does not at present allow of liberties being taken with it.

PRICE OF LAND.—In outlining the general scheme of settlement, the Chamber desires to reiterate its introductory statement that the object of this pamphlet is merely to interest prospective settlers of the desirable class in the prospects of Swaziland. With the Administrative settlement still incomplete, and no likelihood of the partition of land between Europeans and natives being concluded before the summer of 1908, it is not desirable that any more serious movement than one of enquiry should be encouraged at the present time. Nor is it possible to publish the terms on which landowners, who still have to study the new Administration Proclamation, are willing to lease or sell their land. That information will, it is hoped, be forthcoming in the larger handbook which will be issued in May. But it may be remarked that the Chamber has noticed correspondence in certain newspapers relating to the probable price of land in this country. Whilst the Chamber is unable to state the price that may be fixed—it may possibly vary very materially—they entertain no hope that land proprietors, who, in many cases, years ago, paid as much as 10s. per acre, are likely or could be expected to dispose of ground, reduced through partition by one-third, at the figures which persons unacquainted with the circumstances and ignorant of the capabilities of the territory seem to imagine should be the price. That which the Chamber hopes to accomplish is a general scheme of settlement in which Highland stock land shall be offered in 2,000 acre blocks rent free for three years, and thereafter purchasable for 10s. per acre in 20 years, payable in instalments of 6d. per acre per annum; that Midlands in 300 to 500 acre blocks, and Lowland in 1,000 acre blocks shall be disposed of at £1 per acre, under similar terms (1s. per acre per annum after the first three years), occupation and payment, the landowner reserving each alternate block for his own purposes or subsequent sale. The persistent fight to rescue Swaziland from native absorption, and to maintain through years of unavoidable inoperation, cost, and loss, these properties, which, by purchase and judicial confirmation were European property, is justified alone by the

knowledge of the country's agricultural capabilities, and the Chamber is not hopeful that landowners will consent to alter their convictions or philanthropise their terms by reducing the value of their agricultural and stock areas to the up-country-Transvaal price for Crown land. Transvaal Crown lands in most cases were residue lands which the early settlers did not take up, in most cases did not value. Swaziland is the territory for which the Transvaal Government and people have fiercely contended for 16 years, and the analogy as to relative land values is unsound and invidious.

MINERALS.

Swaziland will be free to the prospector so soon as the owners of mineral areas make known the terms upon which they will admit of prospecting and pegging. Neither political nor economic administrative factors intervene, as in the case of land, in postponing the exercise of the full rights of mining concessionaires, the only delay is unavoidably occasioned by the reasonable desire of the owners of mineral areas to discuss the new position before deciding as to their future policy in dealing with their properties. Particulars bearing on this phase of local activity will be published in a handbook at a later date.

MINERAL PROSPECTS.—For the individual prospector, who is not a pauper, and for the small tributing capitalist given fair terms, and provided in both cases the settler has mining experience, the prospects in Swaziland are good. The western fringe from the Horo on the north to the Usutshwana river, a strip of country some 12 miles broad from the Transvaal-Swazi frontier, to the parallel granite belt—about 700 square miles in superficial area—is highly mineralised country carrying many quartz reefs, and gold-bearing schists, and in which most of the streams give in the pan alluvial gold, and in some districts tin.

RETROSPECT.—The history of mining up to the present has not resulted in many encouraging pointers. Its languishing condition is mainly due to the once lavish richness of outcrops, which led to wild speculation, extravagant expectations and the subsequent investment of an enormous amount of capital, a great portion of which was spent on useless plant and its transport into Swaziland at a time when wagon rates from the railhead in Natal averaged £20 per ton. The outcrops fell at depth from ounces to dwts., the batteries could not be supplied, the huge plants could not be erected, hand-to-mouth chasing after any little lead that gave hopes of feeding the mill led to improvident mining, and finally the companies lost heart, and in most cases shut down, and the general political unrest and

uncertainty of title kept them there. In 1889, 120 head of stamps were at work, and preparations for the erection of many more were in contemplation; at the present time only 40 stamps—20 at the Horo, and 20 at Forbes' Reef—are dropping, but there is more justification to-day for a larger stamping power than ever before. In 1889 the whole mining reputation of the country rested on outcrops. To-day, on two mines at least, an amount of underground prospecting has been carried out which enables the engineer to calculate his "backs" from levels at from 400 to 700 feet below the surface. A great deal of promiscuous delving and some well-directed prospecting development indicates, to those who can understand, something of our mining future. From the information which this work has afforded us, two general principles have to be recognised. First, the intrusive diabase dyke; and, second, the lenticular character of the mineralised mass. The territory generally is intersected by dykes, and no geological authority has yet decided that the dyke is or is not the parent or host of mineralization in the schists, but it is patent to those who have examined the various mines that whilst it does not follow that wherever there is a dyke there is gold, it is so far evident that wherever there is gold there is a dyke. The deepest development work in Swaziland has reached some 700 feet on values. This, however, is little more than a scratch on the surface of a reefing property. In most instances the surface quartz at depth changes to schist, and the surface one to two ounce stuff falls to 10 to 15 dwts. with the alteration in formation. But the work that has been done only gives a very superficial insight into the prospects of permanency of our reefs. The fact that in 700 square miles of gold-bearing schists two or three mines shew profitable rock at depth, has as little bearing on the general prospects of the industry as it has in enabling us to lay down any hard and fast rule regarding the conditions at depth of the various outcrops which are scattered over its surface. The country, as a matter of fact, is a closed book; its pages are as yet uncut. The capital which might have been used in speculative mining—using the word *speculative* in the sense that all reef mining must in its early stages involve an element of speculation—was diverted by the influence of Mr. Rhodes and a railway to Rhodesia, a much bigger field offering no less favourable, in fact, somewhat similar conditions. Out of the wild and disjointed application of that capital certain sound Rhodesian concerns have emerged. The flow of capital for mining purposes in the near future to Swaziland is unlikely. The Rand has first call and a capacious

digestion, and this country, in common with others far removed from the centre of the world's dramatic gold producer, will have to await its turn. But there is no necessity to wait if similar methods to those dealing with the situation in Rhodesia when outside capital failed, are adopted here. The country must encourage the small man. Two of our largest companies have already recognised this necessity, and the batteries which are at present producing are run in connection with the tribute operations of Mr. Thomas Andrews, a tributor of wide experience, and boasting a record of success.

TRIBUTORS' PROSPECTS.—The natural conditions of Swaziland are favourable to the methods of the tributor. The main deficiency is timber. But the country on the general average is an adit country, ground is just as frequently sound as rotten, and though there may be water in the mine there is invariably plenty outside; consequently timber, required for props and lagging, is rarely wanted for fuel. Water is the motive power. The face of the country is excoriated by water-courses, and prospecting is comparatively easy. It is unusual to find a stream along this tract that does not carry traces of gold, and with a complete drainage system the practical prospector is assisted by natural indicators in his quest to track the matrix of the wash. Cut of the innumerable outcrops, the denuding of which has led to this distribution of fine gold in the gravels and river beds, it seems reasonable to infer that a small percentage at least will ultimately be found to be permanent pay bodies, whilst many may give a fair return on outcrop to a five-stamp mill run on economic lines by the tributing class of miner. One tribute record in Swaziland shews that with a small mill and cyanide plant a tributor has come out on surface stuff over a period of four years with a total extraction of about 3 dwts. This is a proof of the facilities which the country offers to the small man. The hundreds of thousands of pounds sterling which have been expended on mining areas have proved little more than that the belt is highly mineralised on the surface, and it now remains for much closer investigation of a totally different character to locate and define the extent and degree of such mineralisation.

ALLUVIAL.—A problem which remains to be solved is wrapped up in the fixing of the whereabouts of the eroded metals which in the course of centuries have been washed from the reefs on the western mountains. A certain proportion is retained in the present alluvium of the Highland valleys, but

nothing has so far been discovered that can account for the mass that must have been weathered and washed away in the scours of the past. A small test washing in a typical valley on Forbes' Concession gave an average gold value of 1s. 1d. per cubic yard, but this does not elucidate the problem. It is evident that unless (a) the gold remained practically *in situ* through a process of secondary enrichment in the outcrops which as they were softened by weathering received and retained the precipitated mineral, or (b) the continuous rush of water from these high altitudes scoured every disintegrated atom down to the sea, 150 miles away—presuming as the initial hypothesis that in the remote past the country carried similar outcrop values to those of the present day—deposits of an unknown value remain in old river beds possibly in the low country, which beds have yet to be discovered. This applies to the gold of the schist belt, but even more so to the tin from the pegmatites.

TIN.—Cassiterite was first located in 1890 in the present district of Mbabane, granite country with interbedded bodies of schist and veins of pegmatite richly mottled with large crystals of tin, giving 70 per cent. of white metal. Owing to the sporadic character of these occurrences, the tin crystals were not handled as reefing propositions. The streams, draining the pegmatites, were tested and found to contain valuable deposits. Since 1892 tin has been regularly worked. No record has been kept of the amount exported, but during 1906, 276½ tons were sent out of the country, and in 1907 the export was 269·70 tons, valued at £31,700. At the present time about 40 tons per month are dispatched to the coast to be shipped to England for treatment. The tin ore is hand sorted in three grades. No 1 is valued at £125 10s. per ton, No. 2 at £120 per ton, and No. 3, flour tin, very difficult, without proper appliances, of separation from the fine sands, at £45 per ton. The ore is washed from the gravels in the various creeks in the ordinary 16 feet boxes, the process following the simplest methods of alluvial mining. One European supervises several boxes, and the natives, at from 30s. to £2 per month, with rations of 3lbs. of meal and meal at 18s. per 200lbs. per diem, and 1lb. of meat at 6d. per lb. per week, perform the manual labour. About 15 Europeans and 1,000 natives are engaged on the fields, which are under the management of Mr. W. Knight, C.M.G., of Swaziland Tin, Limited, a company with headquarters in Johannesburg. The valley of the Mbabane drains into the Usutu valley 1,000 feet



Working Alluvial Tin—Mbabane.

below. Tin has been traced along the course of this river in the lower valley, and on certain mountain slopes still further to the south, but no serious attempts have yet been made to examine the eastern extension of the valley or trace old river beds, and it may be that the metal exists in payable quantities further east than is at present known. Tin has also been found in the schists, one magnificent crystal of 102 ounces being the first indication of its presence in the Swaziland Corporation's mineral area at Forbes' Reef. It was located in small quantities in certain fissures and joint planes in the country rock, but though a considerable amount of money was spent in examining the occurrence, its origin still remains a mystery, and its payability is unproven. Work is proceeding which may develop on satisfactory lines.

COAL.—In the Lowlands, within 65 miles of Lourenço Marques, a bed of coal of a quality almost equal to the best Welsh steam, has been found, and now awaits the construction of the railway to start on its producing career. This coal, the property of Swaziland Coal, Ltd., has already been subjected to severe steam tests. It is a smokeless anthracite, a stack of which has been standing at the pit mouth in the open for 10 years, and still preserves its solidity and freedom from combustion. In similar strata some 40 miles to the south Henderson's Consolidated Corporation, Ltd., have traced an extension of this field on one of their numerous properties. An assay of this coal gives results which compare favourably with the famous coals of the world. The following table will explain the comparisons:—

	Henderson's Swazi.	S. Wales. Anthracite.	Pennsyl- vania.	Peru.	Risca, S. Wales.	Hartley, North- umber- land.
Moisture... ..	4.78	2.00	0.94	0.66	1.12
Volatile matter ...	2.67	3.82	2.57	1.00	5.43	14.5
Carbon	88.29	90.39	90.45	82.70	75.49	78.65
Ash	4.26	1.61	4.67	3.75	1.12	2.49

The calorific power of the Swazi coal is 14.77. Thirty-seven varieties of the South Wales coals tested by De la Beche and Playfair's method averaged a calorific power of 9.05lbs. From this table it appears that the coal is 2.10 per cent. less efficient in carbons, and 2.65 per cent. heavier in ash than the best Welsh anthracite, whilst with 1.15 per cent. less volatile matter it is in hydro-carbons more anthracitic. This latter feature, no doubt, is due to the action of the numerous igneous dykes which have traversed the coal

measures of the sandstone belt. With coal of this character within 65 miles of the sea, and 10 miles of good iron deposits the industrial prospects of this part of the country are hopeful.

Though hardly in the line of the individual prospector or tributor these rich coal measures mean a great deal to Swaziland; many mouths to feed, much money to be spent, and new industries to be founded. On the more northerly property of the Swazi Coal, Limited, the seam is 6 feet thick, and there is, it is stated, one square mile of this coal in sight. Only a railway is wanted. On this property alone not less than 2,500,000 tons of high-class coal, proved by bores and development work, lies underground awaiting transportation.

In this brief review of the potential prospects of the country in its relation to mining it must be remembered that rough prospecting work has only been prosecuted over about one-sixth of its total area. Some 5,000 square miles are still virgin ground to the miner, and on this tract, which is made up of a veritable specimen box in the varieties of its geological structure, some 2,000 miles comprise granites traversed by schists, and intruding dykes of diabase, whilst the southern central mountain ranges are made up of slates, hornblende, talc, and micaceous schists, and other similar formations not unfavourable to occurrences of mineralization of a commercial character. The Administration has recognised this fact in the "Settlement," and has conferred upon the owners of mineral concessions a free run over the whole territory.

ADMINISTRATION AND LAWS.

The relative position of Swaziland to other South African States and Colonies, has from the earliest days of its history been wrapped in mystery to those persons unacquainted with its peculiar circumstances and modest isolation. It has been the lone-star State of the sub-continent, and still deserves that appellation, for it has now started business on its own account with Downing Street as a sleeping partner. Its affinity, however, is the Transvaal. That is indicated by the fact that—the Common Law being Roman-Dutch—the Statutory Laws of the Transvaal Colony, in operation there previous to 1904 are, *mutatis mutandis*, enforced in Swaziland, and, by Proclamation of the High Commissioner, legislative enactments of the Transvaal, where applicable, are proclaimed of force in the territory. The Registrar of Deeds of the Transvaal acts in a similar capacity for us, and the Transvaal Surveyor-General is the custodian of Swaziland diagrams. All professional men admitted in the Transvaal may practice here. There, however, affiliation ends. Laws and official notices are promulgated through the High Commissioner's *Gazette*. His Excellency as High Commissioner, and not as Governor of the Transvaal, supervises the affairs of the country, and the Administrator is responsible to him and through His Excellency to the Colonial Office for his administration of Swazi affairs. Swaziland is a South African Crown Colony, just emerging from the teething stage.

OFFICIAL STAFF.—The present headquarters of the Government is at Mbabane, a small village on the eastern edge of the Highlands. His Honour the Resident Commissioner (Mr. Robert T. Coryndon) controls the affairs of the country from this centre through the following staff:—

GOVERNMENT SECRETARY.

Secretary for Swaziland MR. D. S. HONEY.
Chief Clerk: Mr. B. H. Warner, B.A. *Clerks:* Messrs. L. G. Luscombe, T. A. Steward, and R. E. V. Saunders (Interpreter).

Registrar of Special and Resident Commissioner's Courts: Mr. T.A. Steward.

HEALTH.

Medical Officer of Health: Mr. R. CLARK PERKINS, D.S.O., M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P.

Veterinary Officer for Swaziland: Mr. W. A. ELDER, M.R.C.V.S.

POLICE. (S.P.)

Assistant Commissioner in Charge of Police: Capt. C. H. GILSON, D.S.O.

One Superintendent, 19 European N.C.O.'s and men, and 148 natives.

DISTRICT ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS.

Hlatikulu: Assist. Commissioner B. Nicholson, D.S.O., Sub-Inspector of Police D. Harvey, Clerk H. Pitcher.

Pigg's Peak: Assist. Commissioner C. R. I. Ross Garner, Sub-Inspector of Police T. Christie.

Mbabane: Assist. Commissioner Alan G. Marwick; Clerk, H. McCarter.

Mankaiana (Sub-District): Sub-Inspector G. Morris.

Ubombo (Lubombo): Assist. Commissioner M. W. Whitridge; Sub-Inspector of Police, J. Maber.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

Post and Telegraph Master ... MR. THOMAS FRASER. Clerk: Mr. C. J. Duprecz.

Forbes' Reef. Post Agent; *Pigg's Peak,* Post Agent and Telephone; *Hlatikulu,* Post Agent; *Bremersdorp,* Sub-Post Office and Telephone; *Stegi* (Lubombo), Post Agent; *Mhlotsheni,* Post Agent.

Justices of the Peace for Swaziland: Mr. Thomas Andrews (Horo); Mr. James H. Howe (Bremersdorp); Mr. Allister M. Miller (Mbabane); Mr. A. R. Torrens (Balegana).

The Government Secretary is *ex-officio* Collector of Customs and Master for Swaziland.

Mbabane has a resident clergyman of the Church of England (the Rev. C. C. Watts, M.A.), a well-supported Sports Club, and a Caledonian Association.

There are two Government Schools, one at Bremersdorp and one at Hlatikulu, and one subsidised private school in South Swaziland.

The National Bank of South Africa, Ltd., has a branch at Mbabane.

FISCAL.—During the year ending 1906 the total value of Imports was £25,690, and of Exports £37,520, or an excess of Exports over Imports of £11,830. During 1907 the Imports amounted to £10,444, and the Exports to £40,752, or a difference of Exports over Imports of £308. The Revenue for the year ending June, 1907, amounted to £29,101 as against £49,352 for the year 1906, or a decrease of £20,251. This was due to a reduction in the Native Hut Tax by interim Government Proclamation. The Expenditure for 1907 totalled £87,565 as against £45,074 in 1906, or an increase in Expenditure of £42,491 on the year. It was occasioned principally through payment of expropriation sums to the owners of forfeited monopolies, the costs of surveys, and the expenses of the Swaziland Concessions Commission, a considerable proportion of which expenditure is recoverable. The Revenue about balances ordinary administrative expenses.

LAND PARTITION.—The provisions of the Settlement define the partition of one-third of each land grant for native occupation, the remaining two-thirds, where the original grant is for 99 years (which is the case in the majority of land concessions) will be conferred in freehold on the European owner, and will henceforth be known as his farm. The partition is to be conducted on lines which, whilst giving the natives well-placed ground, will impair as little as possible the value of European farms. For a period of five years after the partition has taken place no Swazi living on a farm will be compelled to leave that farm, nor may he be disturbed in the use of his kraal, nor may any farmer exact rent or servitude in respect of the occupation, but at any moment during those five years he may remove on to the land partitioned off for the exclusive use of natives or on to another farm. At the end of five years after the completion of the partition, the head of each native family then residing on a farm may, if the European desires to have him and his family as residents on terms to be mutually agreed upon between himself and the European, but which must be submitted to the Resident Commissioner for his approval, continue to reside on the farm. In default of any such mutual agreement the native and his family shall pass on to the land set apart for the exclusive use of natives and there reside.

Land set apart for the exclusive use of natives is open to mining operations on the condition that if kraals or lands are disturbed an equitable arrangement with the natives concerned must be submitted to the Resident Commissioner for his approval.

The terms of settlement are workable, and the general scheme will automatically adjust the previous complications of undivided European and native tenure to the land. Europeans are naturally desirous of retaining a certain proportion of natives on their farms, and as, in the past, friction between natives and Europeans in Swaziland has been rare, the scheme is recognised as practically settling most difficulties at the outset.

GENERAL.

ROADS.—Swaziland at present is best entered from the west. The Johannesburg-Breyten railroad via Springs is within 87 miles of Mbabane, or 45 miles of the eastern Swazi frontier at Usutu, where it is hoped the extension from Breyten will ultimately enter the country on its way to Lourenço Marques. Passengers travelling to Mbabane make the journey from Breyten twice a week by postcart, the journey occupying 18 hours. At present the trains connecting with the postcart leave Johannesburg on Mondays and Fridays in the morning, and the postcart arrives at Mbabane on Tuesdays and Saturdays about sundown. It is always advisable to consult a railway time-table, as C.S.A.R. changes on this line are frequent and mysterious. The single postcart fare from Breyten to Mbabane is £4 10s.

The road is a fairly level wagon path, which has been repaired by the Public Works Department of the Transvaal. In January and February two bridgeless rivers, the Mpeluzi and Motjana, are frequently impassable, but during the remaining months, with rare exceptions, a cyclist can reach the Swazi border at Oshoek, a distance of a little over 70 miles from the rail, in a day. For cyclists who are ordinary riders the best stages are :—Breyten to Lake Chrissie (14 miles), for breakfast ; Lake Chrissie to Vlakkfontein (22 miles), for luncheon ; and Vlakkfontein to Lochiel (20 miles), for dinner and bed. Second day :—Lochiel to Oshoek (16 miles), for breakfast ; and Oshoek-Mbabane (15 miles), for lunch. There are hotels or wayside stores at each of the places named.

Travelling in Swaziland is mostly undertaken on horseback. Rivers and hills are too frequent, and roads too rudimentary to entice the wheelman. The Administrator, during his brief term of office, has expended considerable sums on road-making, and road parties are rapidly removing the just reproaches which back-country thoroughfares have as a rule to bear.

The Midlands communicate direct with Lourenço Marques by wagon transport to the Tembi river. The Tembi is a tidal reach of the Mbuluzi, on the estuary of which the town of

Lourenço Marques stands. The distance from Bremersdorp to the Tembi river or landing in Portuguese Amatongaland is 93 miles. Light draught boats sail at intervals from the Drift to Delagoa, a distance of about 20 miles in a straight line, but 70 miles, following the tortuous windings of the tide-way.

Heavy transport into and out of the country travels either from Breyten, or Machadodorp, on the Pretoria-Lourenço Marques main line. Most imported merchandise comes from Lourenço Marques for Central Swaziland, and from Natal, via Volksrust, for Southern Swaziland. The rate from Breyten or Machadodorp to Mbabane is 4s. 6d. per 100lbs.

In the next 12 months a rearrangement of this route is probable. When the Portuguese railroad reaches our eastern frontier both outward and inward transport will travel direct to the Portuguese railhead. The mail service, however, will continue as at present.

COST OF LIVING.—Living costs vary little from those parts of the Transvaal approximating the conditions of Swaziland. Transport direct east should lessen store charges considerably. There are many stores in the territory; but apart from Mbabane, Forbes' Reef, Pigg's Peak, Bremersdorp and Hlatikulu, most of the business men are engaged in Kaffir trading. At the larger stores heavy stocks of merchandise are kept, and it is always possible to procure the necessaries of life, and to find accommodation at the smaller establishments.

CONCLUSION.—The Chamber hopes that no misconception will arise from what is written in this handbook that Swaziland will be free to any class of settler, or that its undeveloped mineral resources, its hills, valleys, and plains provide any royal road to fortune or to favours that are not achieved through the application of industry and intelligence and the exercise of patience. If a general scheme of mineral and land development on the lines indicated in the earlier pages comes within the sphere of the Chamber's influence, it will strenuously urge that in the primary stage of the movement—that stage in which the most favourable, the ground-floor, prospects are opened to those who come in as the first pioneer settlers under the new régime—only the best class of settler be chosen, and that qualification be the *sine qua non* to the allotment to any individual of land.

In farming and stock rearing the most commendable scheme would be for small parties of young farmers from older districts

of South Africa where land is dear to settle on adjacent blocks, so that old ties, a common interest, co-operation and free interchange of ideas would serve to float them over the days of initial disappointments and unremunerative labour into the harbour of achieved and established success. Swaziland asks for South Africans. She wants men of stamina who will first satisfy themselves, either through delegates or by personal inspection of the uncut value of this territory, and who with their practical knowledge will be able to judge of its future when polished by the machinery of individual industry. By such men we want to be taken for better or for worse. On those lines only have Colonies been founded and States built up, and what has been done elsewhere can be done here. Given a start under such conditions, ten years hence Swaziland will have established her claim to be considered the California of South Africa.

A. M. M.

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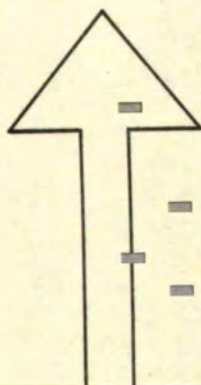
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