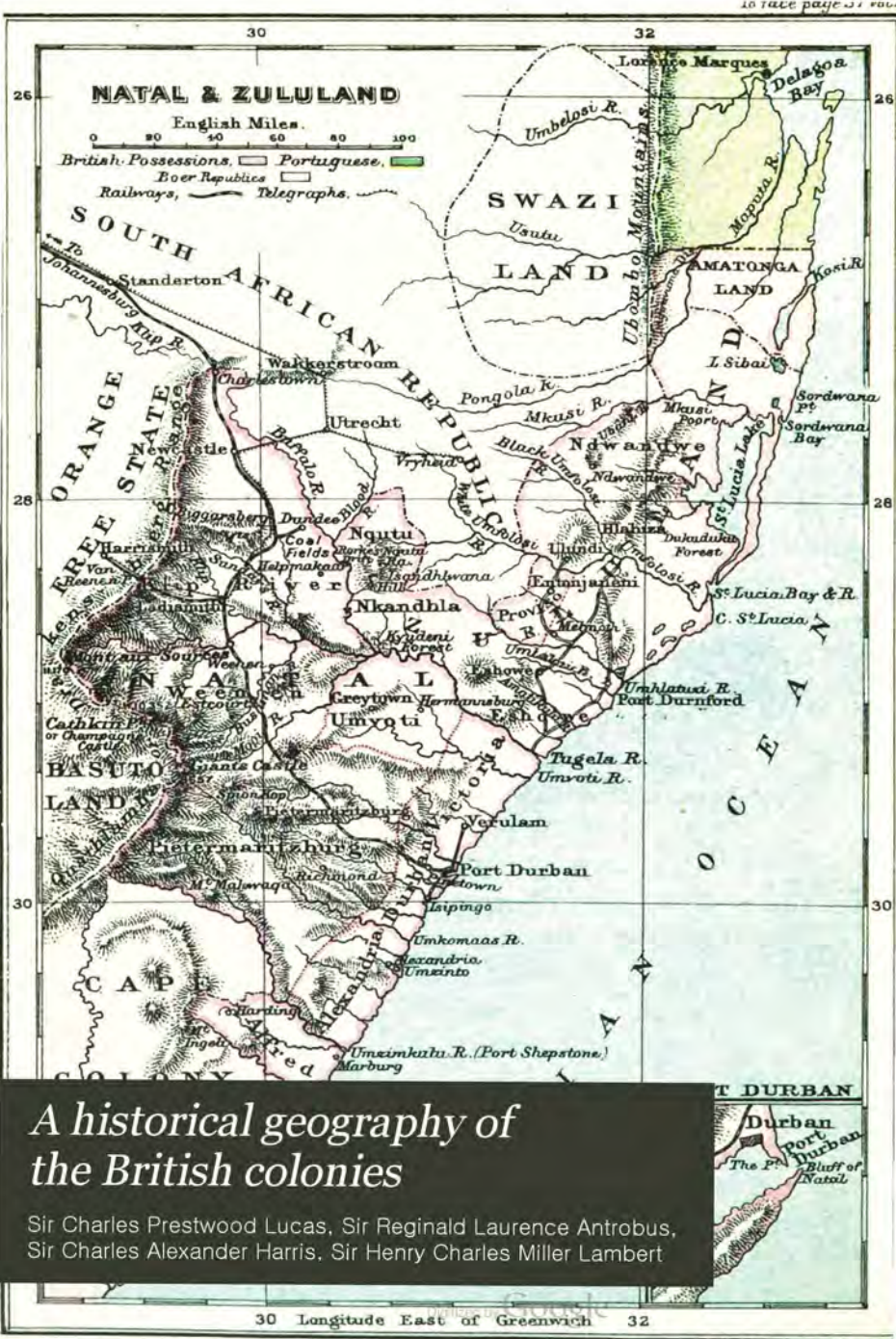

A historical geography of the British colonies

Sir Charles Prestwood Lucas, Sir Reginald Laurence Antrobus, Sir Charles Alexander Harris, Sir Henry Charles Miller Lambert

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY
OF THE BRITISH COLONIES

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OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES

BY

C. P. LUCAS, B.A.

OF BALLIOL COLLEGE, OXFORD, AND THE COLONIAL OFFICE, LONDON

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WITH MAPS

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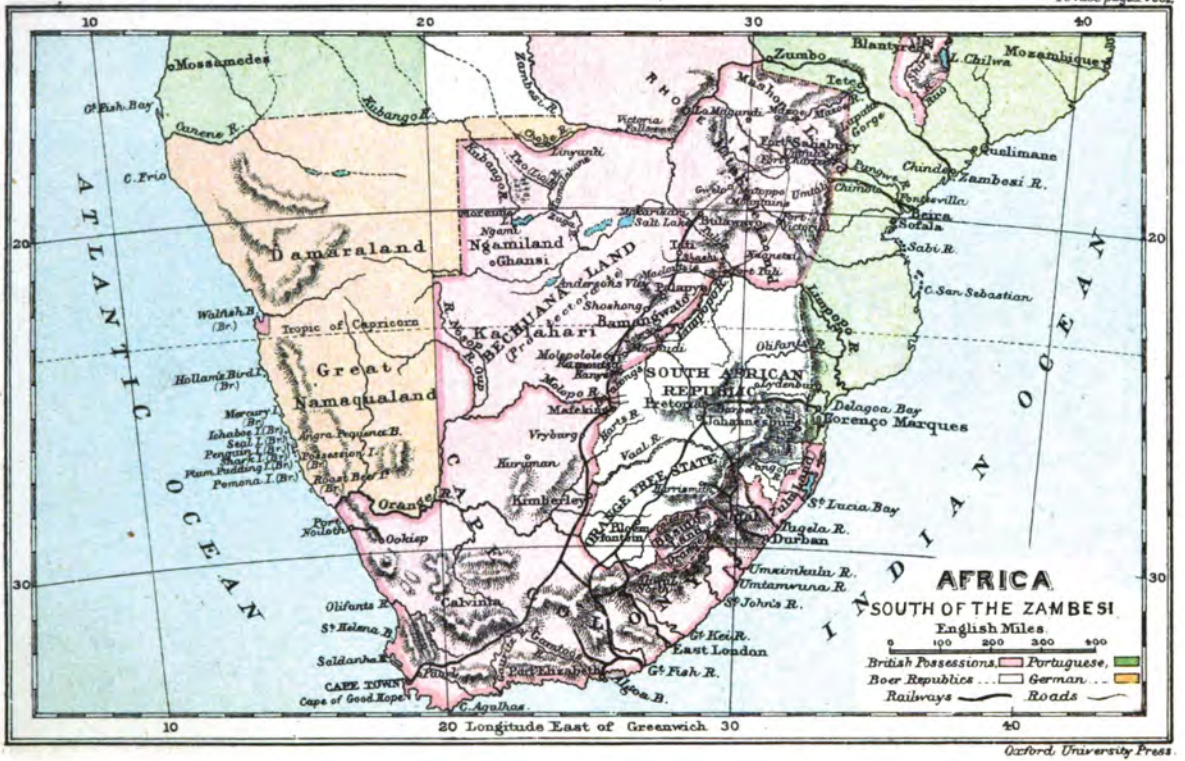

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SECTION I.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

SECT. I.

South Africa, taking the Zambesi River as its northern boundary, contains at the present time four British colonies, two of which, viz. the Cape Colony and Natal, are self-governing colonies, while the other two, Basutoland and Zululand, are Crown colonies. It also contains a British Protectorate, covering northern Bechuanaland, and the territory which lies between the Limpopo and the Zambesi on the south and north, and between German and Portuguese South Africa on the west and east. This territory includes

PART II. Matabeleland and Mashonaland, which are now commonly known as Rhodesia [1].

The reputed area of the British dependencies in South Africa is as follows:—

For Purposes of Comparison:	Square miles		Square miles
United Kingdom . . .	121,000	1. Cape Colony . . .	276,551
South African Republic	114,000	2. Natal	20,461
Orange Free State . .	48,000	3. Zululand and Amatongaland	15,000
		4. Basutoland	10,293
		5. Bechuanaland Protectorate and Territories south of the Zambesi	412,000

making a total of 734,305 square miles, or a territory larger than Queensland, not nearly so large as South Australia, and six times as large as the British Isles.

The main features of South African geography have already been alluded to in the preceding part of this book. There are low-lying coast districts, there is the plateau or high veldt of the interior, and between them there are terraces, rising one above another. Moreover the western side of the peninsula differs from the eastern, as containing fewer high mountains and fewer rivers, as having a lower average level and a larger extent of barren desert.

The Cape Colony has a long seaboard and a great extent of coast country, but it also extends far into the inland plateau, and therefore contains within its borders nearly all the geographical conditions which are to be found in South Africa. Natal, on the eastern slope of the continent, comprises coast land and ascending terraces. It reaches the crest of the dividing range, but does not cross it into the

[1] The term Rhodesia, however, includes also the territory which was assigned to the British South Africa Company north of the Zambesi, see below, p. 70. There is also another small separate British Protectorate in South Africa, viz. Amatongaland, which is noticed in connexion with Zululand, below, pp. 58–9.

high veldt. Zululand is in the main a coast country; while Basutoland, which has often been called the Switzerland of South Africa, is an entirely inland territory, among the mountain heights whence flow the headwaters of the Caledon and Orange Rivers. Lastly the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and Matabeleland and Mashonaland, form part of the great plateau of the African continent, with the ground, beyond the basin of the Limpopo, rising towards the north-east, so that Lake Ngami in the Kalahari desert is at a much lower level than Fort Salisbury in Mashonaland. Matabeleland and Mashonaland, together with the greater part of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, are within the tropics.

CHAPTER I.

THE CAPE COLONY.

PART II.

Constitution.

The Executive.

The Governor.

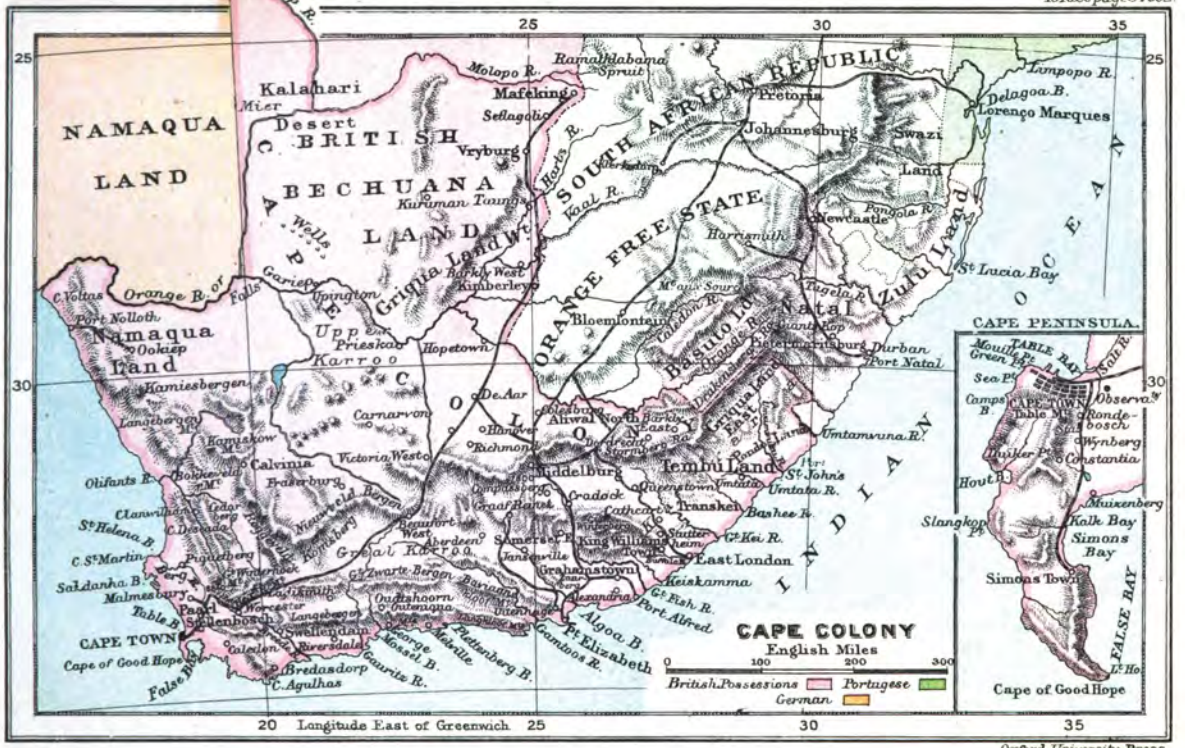
THE Cape Colony is a self-governing colony in the fullest sense. Its parliamentary institutions date from 1853, and Responsible Government from 1872. The Executive power is in the hands of the Governor, who is advised by an Executive Council. The Governor is appointed by the Crown, and, in addition to being Governor of the Cape Colony, he is also High Commissioner for South Africa, having supreme authority over the Crown Colony of Basutoland, and representing the Imperial Government in all matters which arise outside the limits of those South African territories which have been formally constituted British colonies.

The Executive Council.

The Executive Council, by which, as Governor of the Cape, he is advised, consists, for practical purposes, of the Cabinet Ministers of the colony, five or six in number. They are members of one or other of the two houses of parliament, and may speak in both, but are entitled to vote only in the house of which they have been duly elected members.

The Legislature.

The Upper House is the Legislative Council, the Lower House is the House of Assembly. Members of both houses are elected, the electorate being the same in either case and the election being by ballot; but the term of membership in the case of the Legislative Council is seven years, unless Parliament is previously dissolved, while members of the House of Assembly are elected only for five years. Members of both Houses are paid a subsistence allowance. No political distinctions are made on grounds of race or colour, though the



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education test withholds the vote from the large majority of the native population. The qualification for the franchise is British nationality by birth or naturalisation, ability to write name, address, and occupation, twelve months' residence in the colony prior to registration, and for that period either occupation of a tenement of an annual value not less than £75, or the receipt in annual wages of not less than £50. Any man who is qualified to be a voter is qualified also to be a member of the House of Assembly, but members of the Legislative Council must be over thirty years of age and possessed either of £2,000 in real property alone, or of £4,000 in realty and personalty combined.

The electoral divisions.

For the purposes of elections to the Legislative Council, the colony was in 1874 divided into seven electoral provinces, each returning three members. Griqualand West was constituted an eighth province in 1880 under the Griqualand West Annexation Act of 1877, but only returns one member to the Council; and British Bechuanaland, under the Annexation Act of 1895, now forms a ninth province, also returning one member only. The Legislative Council therefore consists of twenty-three members, the President of the Council being the Chief Justice of the Colony. Smaller electoral divisions return representatives to the House of Assembly. There are thirty-nine such divisions in all, two of which, viz. Capetown and Kimberley, return four members each; three, viz. Tembuland, Griqualand East, and Mafeking, return one member each; while the remaining thirty-four are two-member constituencies. The total number of members of the House of Assembly is seventy-nine, and they elect their own Speaker.

Municipal institutions.

Local Boards in one form or another are numerous in the colony, municipal institutions having been in existence since 1836. The larger towns have Town Councils under special acts of incorporation. At smaller centres Municipalities have been established under the general municipal law of

PART II. the colony; while for villages not large enough to be endowed with full municipal privileges a system of Village Management Boards has been devised. These last-named boards have no power of levying rates, but must make application for that purpose to the Divisional Councils. Divisional Councils came into existence under an Act of 1855, their main duties being the maintenance and improvement of roads in the division or district which they represent. Such divisions are not identical with the constituencies which return members to the House of Assembly, but are areas marked off for administrative or judicial purposes. Each division is in charge of a Civil Commissioner or Resident Magistrate, and the same officer usually acts in both capacities[1]. The Civil Commissioners are ex-officio chairmen of the Divisional Councils.

Law and Justice. The law of the colony is Roman Dutch law, modified by Acts passed by the Colonial Legislature. In the districts to the east of the Kei River a special Native Territories Penal Code is in force. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and eight Puisne Judges, three of whom form the Eastern Districts Court, and three the High Court of Griqualand. Minor cases are brought before the courts of the Resident Magistrates and of paid Justices of the Peace.

Area. The total area of the Cape Colony, including British Bechuanaland, is, on a rough estimate, nearly 277,000 square miles. It is more than twice as large as the United Kingdom, larger than Austria and Hungary, smaller than Sweden and Norway. As compared with the Australasian colonies, it comes nearest in size to New South Wales, but is not so large as that colony. Its greatest breadth in a straight line east and west is about 750 statute miles, its greatest length in a straight line north and south is about 600 statute

[1] Where there is a Resident Magistrate only, who is not also Civil Commissioner, the area in question is called a district instead of a division.

miles. Its westernmost point on the continuous coast-line[1], viz. the mouth of the Orange River, is in 16° 27′ east longitude; its easternmost point, the mouth of the Umtamvuna River, is in 30° 10′ east longitude. Its southernmost extremity, Cape Agulhas, is in 34·50 south latitude; its northern boundary, the Molopo River and the Ramathlabama spruit, touches a point which lies in about 25·38 degrees of south latitude.

Coast-line.

Viewed from the outside, the Cape Colony, with a very long extent of coast-line, facing west, south, and east, is curiously inaccessible. Its shores, taken as a whole, are little indented, and are deficient in natural harbours, in estuaries of navigable rivers. The western side of South Africa is especially unbroken and harbourless.

Walfish Bay.

One of the few inlets on this side of any value is Walfish or Walwich Bay, in 23° south latitude, within the tropics, and between seven and eight hundred miles from Capetown. It has borne its name of Whale Bay ever since Portuguese times, and was little visited except by whalers and other fishing vessels until the Rhenish missionaries in the present century began their work in South-western Africa. Vessels from the Cape, both Dutch and English, took possession of the Bay at the end of the last century: in March, 1878, it was finally and formally proclaimed to be a British possession[2]; and it is now, under a Colonial Act of 1884, a detached part of the Cape Colony, in charge of a Resident Magistrate.

A low sandy peninsula, ending in Pelican Point, runs northward for four miles or more, and between this peninsula and the mainland, facing north, is the Bay, of horseshoe shape, between three and four miles wide at the entrance, affording a safe and sheltered anchorage. At the south-east end of the bay, on the mainland, is the settlement, consisting of a few traders' stores and a mission station. The country

[1] The outlying settlement of Walfish Bay is further west.

[2] See Part I, p. 309.

PART II. round is a succession of barren sand-hills, except on the south-east, where, at a distance of from thirteen to eighteen miles from the coast, there is water and good pasturage. The total area of British territory round the bay, lying in the midst of the German Protectorate, is about forty miles in length north and south, with a depth inland not exceeding twenty miles in a direct line from the sea. As the one harbour on a long expanse of coast, and as a starting-point for the interior, Walfish Bay has undoubted value, but in itself it is a desolate possession, surrounded by desert and far removed from the centres of civilisation. In 1891, according to the census returns, the population of the district numbered 768, nearly all of Hottentot race, the white residents being only seventeen. The inner lagoon at the end of the bay is a good fishing ground, and a considerable amount of trade with the natives passes through the port. The chief articles of export some years ago were ivory and ostrich feathers, but at the present day the wealth of the inland tribes mainly consists in cattle.

Ichaboe and Penguin Islands.

North of Walfish Bay the coast of Damaraland, south of it the coast of Great Namaqualand, belongs to Germany, but there are some islets, about a dozen in number, lying off the latter coast which are owned by the Cape Colony. These are the island of Ichaboe and the Penguin islands, valuable for the guano which is collected on them. They were definitely annexed to the Cape in 1874, having previously been declared to be British possessions.

The mouth of the Orange River.

At the mouth of the Orange River, in 28° 38′ south latitude, begins the continuous coast-line of the Cape Colony. Barred by banks of sand, the river cannot be entered from the sea, and the greatest waterway of the South African peninsula is, for purposes of navigation, absolutely useless. Six miles to the south is the historic Cape Voltas, the cape of turns, so named by the Portuguese sailor Diaz, the discoverer of the Cape, as he trimmed his sails to the changing winds; and fifty miles

Cape Voltas.

from the Orange River is Port Nolloth[1] or Robbe Bay, the place of outlet for the copper-bearing districts of Namaqualand, distant by sea 300 miles from Capetown. There is a little town at Port Nolloth, and from the port a mineral railway, on a 2 ft. 6 in. gauge, owned by the Cape Copper Mining Company, runs inland for ninety-two miles to the famous copper mines at Ookiep. *Port Nolloth.*

Below Port Nolloth the barren sandy coast stretches south-east for more than 200 miles, past the mouth of the Olifants, or Elephants River, closed like other South African rivers by a bar of sand, until, in the neighbourhood of St. Helena Bay, the beach and sand-hills are but an outer fringe to good corn-growing and grazing country inland. St. Helena Bay is a semi-circular indentation in the coast, with a diameter of more than thirty miles from Cape Deseada on the north to Cape St. Martin on the south. It receives the waters of the Berg River, flowing from some of the richest and earliest settled districts of the colony, but no settlement of any size is on its shores, and no port attracts trade to this section of the coast. Cape St. Martin is in 32° 43′ south latitude, and between twenty and thirty miles due south of this cape is Saldanha Bay, more noted in the early days of the Cape Colony than at the present time. Saldanha Bay is a fine natural harbour, the finest on the south-western coast of Africa; but it is out of the way, at an inconvenient distance from the main centres of the colony, and the supply of fresh water is not so plentiful as at other ports. It is therefore little used except for purposes of quarantine, and no town has grown up in the neighbourhood. *St. Helena Bay.* *Saldanha Bay.*

From Saldanha Bay the coast runs sharply to the south-east as far as Cape Agulhas, and midway between the two points is the Cape peninsula, bounded on the north by Table Bay. Table Bay is nearly sixty miles distant from Saldanha *Table Bay.*

[1] Called after Commander M. S. Nolloth, of H. M. *Frolic*, who reported on this coast in 1854.

PART II. Bay, and five miles north of its entrance is Robben (Seal) Island [1],—flat, low-lying, nearly two miles in length by one in breadth, noted in the annals of the colony from the earliest times as a state prison, and now the scene of a lunatic asylum and a leper establishment.

Robben Island.

Table Bay, with Capetown on its shores and Table Mountain for its background, is one of the well-known scenes of the world, told of in many books, depicted by many hands. Facing due north, the bay looks towards those northern lands from which European colonists, now in countless numbers, have for two centuries and a half landed on its shores; and the small Dutch settlement which Van Riebeek founded has become a large and growing city. The mouth of the bay is four miles wide between the mainland on the east, and on the west Mouillé Point and Green Point which form the northernmost extremity of the Cape peninsula. Semicircular in shape, large and commodious, Table Bay has been, and is still being made, by means of breakwaters and harbour works, comparatively safe for shipping; but naturally the anchorage is dangerous and exposed to the north-western gales which blow more especially in the winter time from May to November, and to the south-eastern winds which in summer come driving down through the gaps past Table Mountain.

Capetown and its suburbs.

In the bend of the bay, on its western and south-western shores, stands Capetown, with Table Mountain towering above it. Its suburbs run north on the western side of the bay to Green Point and Sea Point, and, in the opposite direction, circling east round the northern end of the mountain-range which forms the backbone of the Cape peninsula, turn southward down that peninsula at the back of the mountains towards False Bay. In this direction there is a railway connecting Table Bay and Simons Bay, leaving the main line at Salt River junction two miles out of Cape-

[1] See for the name Robben Island, Pt. I, p. 14, note 2.

town, running southward through Rondebosch, Wynberg, past the outskirts of the Constantia district, to Muizenberg, Kalk Bay, and eventually to Simonstown on the shores of Simons Bay, about twenty-three miles by rail from Capetown.

All these places are within the Cape peninsula, the rugged mountainous promontory which runs south and south-east for over thirty miles, and ends in the Cape of Good Hope. Simons Bay is an inlet of False Bay, which latter bay bounds the Cape peninsula on the east and south, as Table Bay bounds it on the north. False Bay is far larger than Table Bay. In shape it is three parts of a circle, facing south, as the other bay faces north, with an entrance sixteen miles wide and a depth inland of eighteen miles. Eleven miles north of the entrance, in a corner of its western shore, is Simons Bay, safeguarded by a projecting point of land from the south-easterly gales, which blow straight into False Bay. Here, in a haven more favoured by nature than Table Bay, is the Imperial coaling station for South Africa.

False Bay and Simons Bay.

The census of 1891 gave Capetown a population of 51,251; but, if the suburbs be included, the population at the present day cannot be far short of 90,000. It may be considered as a town with a double harbour, for Simons Bay is for practical purposes a port of Capetown. Taking a very rough estimate of distances in statute miles, on the western side it is nearly 6,800 miles distant from Plymouth, over 3,000 miles from Sierra Leone, under 2,100 from the Congo, nearly 2,000 from St. Helena, 2,750 from Ascension, 3,730 from Rio Janeiro, 4,140 from Montevideo. On the eastern side it is 930 miles from Durban, under 2,800 from Zanzibar, 5,300 from Bombay, 2,600 from Mauritius, and 5,600 miles from King George's Sound.

Population of Capetown and distances.

From False Bay the coast runs south-east as far as Cape Agulhas, the southernmost point of Africa, in about 34·50 south latitude and 20 degrees east longitude. Beyond this

Cape Agulhas.

PART II.

cape the direction of the coast-line is a little north of east. The mouth of the Breede River is passed, Gauritz River, Flesh and Fish Bays, known to the earliest explorers[1]; and round Cape St. Blaize lies Mossel Bay, about 240 miles from Capetown, a port of some importance as an outlet for the central coast districts of the colony, sheltered from the westerly gales but exposed to the south-east. Beyond Mossel Bay is the harbour formed by the mouth of the Knysna River, entered between cliffs on either side, and over a double bar. Safe and landlocked, the harbour is accessible only to small vessels, chiefly engaged in the timber trade, for the Knysna district is in the forest region of the Cape Colony.

Mossel Bay.

The Knysna.

Algoa Bay and Port Elizabeth.

Further to the east, past Plettenberg Bay, Cape St. Francis, and the mouth of the Gamtoos River, the lighthouse on Cape Recife marks the western end of Algoa Bay, its easternmost point being Woody Cape, and the distance between the two points being between thirty and forty miles. A rocky islet in the bay was the furthest point reached by the Portuguese voyager, Bartholomew Diaz, on the first memorable voyage round the Cape of Good Hope. Here he set up a cross, before turning reluctantly homewards, and the rock still bears the name of St. Croix. On the south-western shores of the bay is Port Elizabeth, about 450 miles distant from Capetown, and 200 miles from Mossel Bay. Port Elizabeth, in 1891, contained over 23,000 inhabitants. It is the port and chief town of the eastern districts of the Cape Colony, and in point of trade it is now the first seaport in the colony, Capetown taking the second place, and East London the third. The anchorage is good though exposed, as is the case with most of these southern bays, to the south-east winds, and there is good railway communication with the interior. The growing importance of Port Elizabeth is due not merely to the fact that it is the outlet of pastoral and agricultural districts which year by year are better developed,

[1] See vol. iii. of this work, p. 23.

but still more to its geographical position in relation to the territories further inland. The route from this port to the Transvaal gold-fields is shorter and more direct than the journey from Capetown. Capetown is the historic capital, the mother town of the Cape Colony, but Port Elizabeth, more specially connected with British settlement, is geographically the central landing-place for South Africa.

From Algoa Bay onward the coast turns more and more to the north-east. About eighty miles beyond Port Elizabeth is Port Alfred at the mouth of the Kowie River, flowing down from Grahamstown, between thirty and forty miles inland; and about seventy miles further on, past the mouths of the Great Fish River and the Keiskamma, is the third seaport of the colony, East London, at the opening of the Buffalo River, 150 miles from Port Elizabeth, 260 miles from Durban. The drawback to this port has been the sand bar at the mouth of the river, but by artificial means, by dredging and constructing training walls, the channel has been deepened and the harbour made available for larger ships than formerly. The town, whose population in 1891 was just short of 7,000, stands on the southern bank of the river, about forty miles south-east of King Williamstown, an inland town also on the banks of the Buffalo River. The districts which more immediately feed the port, lying between the Great Fish River and the Kei, were not so many years ago troubled border districts, the scene of many Kaffir wars and of German settlement; but East London is not dependent on them alone, for, passing through Queenstown, the railway is now carried on to the Transvaal gold-fields, to which the route from East London is in mileage shorter than that from Port Elizabeth.

Port Alfred.

East London.

Between thirty and forty miles beyond East London the Kei River falls into the sea, beyond which, as far as the boundary of Natal, is the coast-line of the Transkei Territories and Pondoland, all of which now forms an integral

The Transkei and Pondoland Coast.

PART II.

part of the Cape Colony. From the Kei to the Umtamvuna, the river which forms the southern boundary of Natal, the land runs in a direct north-easterly direction for 150 miles. Various rivers come down to the sea on this section of the coast, among others the Bashee and the Umtata, but the only harbour to be noticed, and that at present a very small one, is Port St. John's at the mouth of the Umzimvubu River, which, at a distance of less than two miles from the sea, flows through a mountain gorge with cliffs 1,200 feet high. These cliffs are well known as the Gates of St. John, and at no point on the South African coast is the scenery so strikingly picturesque. A railway is now being made inland from the port, and with the development of Pondoland under colonial rule the harbour of St. John should grow in importance [1].

Port St. John's.

General summary of the South African coast-line.

Such is a very rough sketch of the coast-line of the Cape Colony. It is worth noting for the bearing which it has on the story of South African colonisation. Here is a well-rounded peninsula holding a central position on the earth's surface, but with uninviting and dangerous shores girt by stormy seas and strong currents. Why did colonisation in South Africa lag so far behind discovery? Why, when settlement began, did it expand so slowly? One obvious reason was that South African seas and lands were inhospitable, that men looked in vain for the natural harbours and the convenient water-ways which in other continents made easy the coming and going of the trader and the colonist. They went by instead of remaining. They learnt to look on South Africa as at best no more than a temporary halting-place. A glance at the map too will show that all down the western seaboard there is no port or settlement of even third-rate importance. It is only when Table Bay is reached that the inhabited and habitable coast begins, and north-east from

[1] Port St. John's was annexed to the Cape Colony in 1884, by the same Act which legalised the annexation of Walfish Bay. The rest of Pondoland was not annexed till 1894.

Table Bay runs the main line of life into the interior. Thus, for practical purposes at the present day, the seaboard of South Africa begins at Table Bay, and its centre is not where the capital Capetown stands, but rather at Algoa Bay, the landing-place of the Albany settlers, which was the true inlet of British colonisation. Take the four chief ports in British South Africa from west to east, Capetown, Port Elizabeth, East London, and Durban. From Capetown to Port Elizabeth is roughly a distance of 450 sea miles, from Port Elizabeth to East London 150, from East London to Durban 260[1].

Next take the railways inland. From Capetown to the Transvaal gold-fields is a distance of over 1,000 miles, from Port Elizabeth under 750, from East London under 700, from Durban 483. Capetown is the historic centre on the South African coast, it is not the geographical centre. Further east by sea and land is the natural trend of European colonisation.

The interior of the Cape Colony.

In describing the land of the Cape Colony, it is a little difficult to determine what are the most natural subdivisions for the purposes of geographical description. The mountain ranges, as has been more than once pointed out, run roughly parallel to the sea, and the land lies in successive plateaus. Thus a straight line drawn north from the coast, half-way between Capetown and Port Elizabeth, to the Orange River, would pass through a coast district with its own lines of hills, through an intermediate inland plateau, the Great Karroo, and through a further plateau again, the Upper Karroo, which stretches to the Orange River. But the Orange River is not a natural boundary any more than it is the political boundary of the Cape Colony. The Upper Karroo is the main plateau of the continent and stretches beyond the river through Griqualand West, through British Bechuana-

[1] Above, on p. 11, the distance from Capetown to Durban is given roughly in statute miles.

PART II. land, and through the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Moreover, the South African peninsula being semi-circular, a description which took a line only from south to north would not be adequate. There is also a wide distinction between west and east, a dry and in many parts barren and thinly-populated west, and a well-watered east with a large native population. While too the mountains turn with the coast, and at most points a line can more or less definitely be drawn between coast region and inland plateau, inland there is a general slope upward from west to east, as indicated by the course of the Orange River, and here and there on the map are subsidiary groups of mountains and hills which give to the colony a broken and varied area difficult to outline.

The mountain ranges. The main range.

The main mountain buttress of the main continental plateau runs, like the coast, in a semi-circle. At the north-western end of the Cape Colony, in Little Namaqualand, it bears the name of the Kamiesbergen, rising to over 5,000 feet. Continued in a south-easterly direction as the Langebergen, Kamiskow, and Bokkeveld mountains, this main range turns the corner as the coast turns, bearing the name of the Roggeveld, and runs east in the Komsberg and Nieuwveld mountains. Bearing north of east under the name of Sneeuwbergen, one peak of which, the Compassberg, is 7,800 feet high, the highest point in the Cape Colony, the mountain line is carried on by the Stormberg range, until it becomes the Quathlamba or Drakensberg mountains, the best defined mountain-range in South Africa, whose course is due north-east, strictly parallel to the coast, and which forms the inner boundary of the easternmost districts of the Cape Colony, and of Natal, the outer boundary of Basutoland and the Orange Free State.

This semi-circle of mountains is the dividing range for the waters of the Cape Colony. On the inside the rivers run into the Orange River, on the outside they run west, south, or south-east into the sea. In the latter case the

The subsidiary ranges.

larger streams, as a rule, find their way in Kloofs or ravines through one or more intermediate lines of mountains lying between the main range and the sea, and parallel to the one and the other. In the north-west the main range, the Kamiesbergen, is the only mountain line between the interior and the sea; but, lower down on the western side, the Cedarberg and Olifants River mountains form a second and subsidiary barrier, parallel to the sea coast and parallel also to the main mountain range. These mountains culminate in the Great Winterhoek, a point between six and seven thousand feet high; and, being carried on, they round the corner of the continent under the name of the Drakenstein and Hex River mountains, directly fronting the Cape peninsula. The corner being turned and the land running west and east, there are now, for many miles, two subsidiary ranges instead of one, clearly defined, parallel to the sea, to the main range, and to each other. Of these two ranges, the one nearest the sea is known successively as the Langebergen, the Outeniqua, and the Langkloof mountains, ending on the borders of the Uitenhage division, not far short of Port Elizabeth. Behind them the second line is the Zwartebergen, continued east as the Baviaan's Kloof mountains, the Cockscomb mountains, and the Zuurberg. As the coast turns up to the east, the mountains become more irregular in their grouping, but the Winterberg and the Amatola mountains form an intermediate barrier between the main range of the continent and the sea; and similarly through the Transkei Territories, and on the border-line between Pondoland and Griqualand East, where are well defined points such as Mount Frere and Mount Ayliff, the traveller from the sea to the main mountain range which guards the interior would cross at least one line of hills or mountains. Only it should be borne in mind that in the south the chief feature of South African geography, the rising of the land by distinct steps from the sea to the interior, is most clearly marked, and

PART II. that at every point the innermost range is the main range, the source and the dividing place of the larger rivers.

The rivers.

The Orange River.

The greatest river system in the Cape Colony is that of the Orange River. The chief feeders of this river are on the northern side, the Caledon, the Vaal, and the tributaries of the Vaal. On the southern side it is fed by many streams, but none of great size, and the further it flows west, the less water it receives. Rising amid the highest and easternmost points of the Drakensberg, it flows for over a thousand miles to the Western Sea, draining, with its tributaries, an estimated area of 300,000 square miles; but it varies in volume, it runs for a great part of its course in an inaccessible channel, it is of comparatively little use to the land through which it passes, of no use when it reaches the sea. The other rivers of the Cape Colony are of small importance. Most of them alternate between flood and drought, and are devoid of navigable estuaries. On the west coast are the Olifants and the Berg River. On the south coast are, among others, the Breede, the Gauritz, the Knysna, the Gamtoos, and the Sunday Rivers; and on the south-east the rivers are numerous, including the Great Fish River, the Keiskamma, the Buffalo, the Kei, the Bashee, the Umtata, and the Umzimvubu.

South Africa is much less accessible and more wanting in natural means of communication than Canada or Australia.

The coasts of South Africa are difficult of access. Inside the coast-line there is a succession of mountain barriers. The rivers when constant are usually rapid, and the streams of the plateau are dry during a great part of the year. For irrigation purposes, many if not most of the South African rivers are of little value, uncertain in volume, and flowing in deep channels; while in the whole of the Cape Colony there is not one river which can fairly be called a navigable water-way. Of all the lands on the earth's surface there is none where the obstacles to colonisation have been greater than they have been in South Africa; there is none where colonists, having at length entered it, would, as they dispersed, be more cut off from one another; and there is none where

modern engineering has been of more priceless value, as giving the means of communication which nature has refused.

Canada opens towards Europe in the gulf of St. Lawrence. It has lakes and rivers almost innumerable which have been highways of colonisation; and up to the line of the Rocky Mountains there stretches an even continent. Australia, not unlike a larger South Africa in some points in its geographical outline, is yet far better furnished with harbours and far less barred by mountain ranges. Nature, in short, has given no helping hand to the colonising of the Cape Colony. Possibly, posterity will judge that, for that very reason, this difficult land has been well and strongly colonised.

Rainfall of the Cape Colony.

The best-watered districts of the Cape Colony are the coast districts from the Cape peninsula eastward. In the north-west there is a nearly rainless zone, the annual rainfall at Port Nolloth not exceeding two to three inches. To the eastern districts of the colony the south-easterly winds in the summer season bring rain from the Indian Ocean. In the Cape peninsula and in the western districts the winter months are the rainy months, and rain comes from the Atlantic with westerly and north-westerly winds. Inland, the curving mountains intercept the rain from west or east alike, and on the Karroos behind them the fall is much less than on the side which faces the sea. Throughout the colony the rainfall varies very much from year to year, but at the Cape-town observatory there is recorded an average annual rainfall of about twenty-eight inches, and at King Williamstown of about twenty-six. The average therefore in the south and south-east is much the same as in the United Kingdom, but the difference from year to year is considerably greater, and the evaporation is much greater also. Inland, on the Karroos, the annual rainfall may be said to be from ten to twenty inches, increasing from west to east, but rarely rising to twenty and often falling below ten. Here the rain is very

PART II. intermittent, and often comes in the form of thunder-showers. Beyond the Orange River, at Kimberley, the annual rainfall is about eighteen inches, but further north, at Mafeking in British Bechuanaland, it is larger and reaches thirty inches.

Temperature. The mean annual temperature of the Cape Colony is estimated to be 63°, being much the same temperature as that of Sydney or Melbourne. At the Capetown observatory the mean is 61°, the mean maximum being 71° and the mean minimum 53°. But any general statement of the climate of a territory so extensive and so varied in surface is somewhat misleading. Mafeking, on the northern frontier of the colony, is 870 miles by rail north-east of Capetown, and therefore nearer by hundreds of miles to the tropics. On the other hand, the temperature of the inland districts is modified by their height above the sea and by the dryness of the air; and the rainfall as well as the altitude of the west is lower than that of the east in the same latitudes. The climate of Capetown, in spite of storm and wind, is a mild English climate; and that of Grahamstown, 1,800 feet above the sea, is for Englishmen, in point of healthiness, all that could be desired. But it is on the Karroos, the open plains beyond the mountains, that the typical South African climate is experienced, very dry, very bracing, with a far greater difference of temperature between day and night than is the case on the lower levels.

The Karroo. The meaning of the word Karroo is a bare place, and exposed these plateaus are to the full strength of the sun, to all the freshness of the air. The Karroo proper is an intermediate plateau, lying between the Zwartebergen on the south and the main mountain range of the continent on the north. Its average level is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet. Beyond the main mountain range the level of the continental plateau, sometimes known, as far as the Orange River, as the Upper Karroo, is from 3,000 to 5,000 feet. It is essentially a life-giving and invigorating climate, this inland climate of South Africa. The physique of Europeans in the Cape Colony is

as fine as it is, in the case of the Dutch Boers it is finer than it is, in their old northern home [1].

The Pastoral industry of the Colony.

The plains of the Karroo, including both the Karroo proper and the Upper Karroo, from Calvinia in the west to Middelburg in the east, and from the line of the Zwartebergen to the Orange River, are pastoral districts, where, except in times of unusual drought, sheep thrive upon the stunted bush which forms the normal vegetation of these plains. The Fraserburg, Beaufort West, and Victoria West divisions are typical sheep-farming districts of the Karroo. Still larger numbers of sheep, however, are to be found in the grass country to the east of the Karroo, in the divisions of Queenstown, Cathcart, Stutterheim, Wodehouse, Aliwal North, and Barkly East. In the Transkei Territories too there is a large and growing number of sheep, and some of the best sheep farms are in the long settled districts in the south-west of the colony, in Swellendam, Caledon, and Bredasdorp. The sheep are mainly of the merino breed, more valuable as wool producers than the old type of Cape sheep which is dying out except among the natives; and the great bulk of the wool is exported from Port Elizabeth and East London. Wool, as a product of the Cape Colony, is supplemented by mohair; and angora goats, which yield the latter article, are pastured in many districts, especially in the inland divisions behind Port Elizabeth, such as Somerset East and Graaf Reinet. Wherever there is feed in the colony for cattle, cattle are found, more especially perhaps in the coast districts, in the eastern and north-eastern grass lands, and north of the Orange River; but the number of cattle in the Cape Colony hardly tends to increase, for, with the development of railways and the improvement of roads, oxen are year by year less required for purposes of transport; and at no distant time the

Sheep-farming.

Angora goats.

Cattle.

[1] For the climate of South Africa, see a paper by Dr. Symes Thompson on *South Africa as a health resort*. Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute, vol. xx. 1888–9.

PART II. trekker in his ox-waggon will become the exception, where he was once the rule. Nor is the climate or the soil of South Africa, taken as a whole, very suitable for dairy farming, and butter and cheese are still imported from beyond the sea.

Ostrich farming. Ostrich farming is a speciality of South Africa. In the Cape Colony the largest ostrich farms are in the Oudtshoorn division, in the south of the colony behind Mossel Bay; but the industry is also carried on in the districts round Port Elizabeth, the divisions of Uitenhage, Albany, and Somerset East.

Agriculture. Turning from the pastoral resources of the colony to its agricultural wealth, it must be noted that the Cape Colony has no pretensions to be one of the grain-producing territories of

Corn. the world. It has neither the soil nor the climate of the north-west of Canada, and corn hardly appears in the list of exports. Yet the colony produces grain of all kinds, from wheat to maize and Kaffir corn, wheat notably in the south-west corner, where from very early days of European settlement Malmesbury and Piquetberg have been the corn-grower's special districts, and maize or mealies in those parts of the colony, such as the Transkei, where there is a large

Wine. native population. Next to corn comes wine. There was a time when wine was the best-known product of the Cape, and when Constantia fetched a monopoly price in Europe. That time has long since passed, but wine is still exported from the Cape; and, if the export is small, it is not the grape which is to blame so much as the manufacture of the wine. The wine-growing districts are the Cape peninsula itself, which contains the famous vineyards of Constantia, and the neighbouring divisions of the mainland, Stellenbosch, Paarl, Malmesbury, Worcester, and Robertson. These were the scenes of the earliest outlying settlements, where the French refugees from a land of vines brought their skill and knowledge

Fruit. to bear upon wine-growing in South Africa. Fruit of all

kinds grows well in the Cape Colony, varying with the level of the land. In the southern districts is the largest growth, and in the south too, especially in the division of Oudtshoorn, tobacco is cultivated. *Tobacco.*

There is forest land in the Cape Colony, not on the bare central plains, nor now to any extent on the western side of the colony, though the name of the Cedarberg mountains in the Clanwilliam division tells of the cedar forests which once clothed this region. The best-known forest area is in the centre of the southern coast, where the rainfall is plentiful, in the George, Knysna, and Humansdorp divisions. Here there is a belt of timber, 150 miles long with a depth inland of from ten to twenty miles, valuable, among other reasons, as a preserve for elephants. The other chief forest region is further to the east, among the Amatola mountains behind King Williamstown. The timber includes yellowwood, stinkwood used in making waggons, and boxwood. *Forests.* *The Knysna forests.* *The Amatola bush.*

Of the minerals found within the range of the colony, the diamonds of the Kimberley district take the first place, and the copper of Namaqualand comes second; coal is found and mined to the north of Queenstown in the north-eastern districts, at Indwe, Fairview, Cyphergat, and Molteno. A little gold is mined in the Knysna division on the southern coast, but nearly all the gold which swells the export returns of the Cape Colony comes from beyond its borders. *Minerals—diamonds, copper, coal, gold.*

Dividing the colony by geographical features, climate, and products, there is a desert tract in the north-west—Namaqualand, whence little comes but copper. To the south of Namaqualand, along the coast, is the division of Clanwilliam, through which the Olifants River flows. It is in most parts a dry area, but contains grazing lands, and, where water is more plentiful, grain and fruit farms. Its population is small and scattered, and it contains but one small town which also bears the name of Clanwilliam. South of this division are Piquetberg and Malmesbury, corn-growing districts between *Divisions of the Colony. Namaqualand. Clanwilliam. Piquetberg and Malmesbury.*

PART II.

the mountains and the sea, watered by the Berg River, with a considerable population of Dutch farmers. Malmesbury, the chief centre in these districts, is a small country town with between 2,000 and 3,000 inhabitants, about forty miles north of Capetown, with which it is connected by rail, this branch-line being the westernmost railway in the Cape Colony with the exception of the Copper Company's line from Ookiep to Port Nolloth.

The Cape division, Stellenbosch, and Paarl.

South of Malmesbury are what would in England be called the home counties, the Cape division, Stellenbosch, and the Paarl. These are the scenes of the original Dutch and French settlers in or near the Cape peninsula, townsmen, vine and fruit growers. In addition to Capetown and its suburbs, there are in the peninsula the watering place of Kalk Bay, and the naval station of Simonstown; and outside it are the old Dutch country town of Stellenbosch, with 3,000 to 4,000 inhabitants, the chief educational centre, outside Capetown, of the western districts of the colony, the Paarl with a population of 8,000, Wellington, and Fransche Hoek 'the French corner.'

The Southern Divisions.

Following the line of the southern coast, between the Zwartebergen and the sea, and traversed throughout their length by the coast range of the Langebergen, are Caledon and Robertson, Bredasdorp and Swellendam, Riversdale and Ladismith, Mossel Bay and Oudtshoorn. These are corn-growing, fruit-growing, and pastoral districts, including most of the lands watered by the Breede River and its tributaries.

Oudtshoorn.

Oudtshoorn, which lies behind Mossel Bay, north of the coast range, south of the Zwartebergen, is perhaps the most important division, a fertile and well-watered area where a large amount of fruit is grown in addition to the tobacco planting and ostrich farming industries. The town of Oudtshoorn has a population of over 4,000.

George, Knysna, &c.

East of Mossel Bay and Oudtshoorn are the timber-producing districts of George and Knysna, with Uniondale immediately behind them. The

forest belt runs east into the Humansdorp division, next to which is Uitenhage and the division of Port Elizabeth on Algoa Bay. Uitenhage and Humansdorp are agricultural and pastoral districts, and the town of Uitenhage on the Zwartkops River is one of some importance, chiefly owing to the wool-washing industry. Its population in 1891 numbered over 5,000.

Uitenhage and Port Elizabeth.

Having traced the coast districts round from the mouth of the Orange River to Algoa Bay, if a straight line be drawn from that Bay to the Orange River, it will be found that nearly all the inland territory to the west of that line consists of Karroo country. It may be noted too, in passing, that the only mineral districts in the western half of the colony and south of the Orange River are the copper-bearing area in Namaqualand, and the small gold-bearing area in the Knysna division. Inside Namaqualand and Clanwilliam, going from west to east, and keeping north of the main dividing range, we have Calvinia, Fraserburg, Carnarvon, Prieska, and Victoria West, large tracts of territory, in great measure desert land, little populated, bare and dry, but with extensive sheep and goat runs, improving from west to east. Through Victoria West runs the railway from Capetown to the Transvaal gold-fields. East of these divisions are Richmond, Hopetown, Hanover, and Colesberg, still north of the dividing range, still west of the longitude of Algoa Bay. High above the sea, dry and bracing, these districts, like the divisions previously mentioned, are mainly pastoral and mainly wool-producing districts; but they are at once less dried up than the more western territories, and more within the range of civilisation, as railways come into and through them from Capetown in one direction, from Port Elizabeth on the other. Thus they contain more towns than are to be found further west, though the towns are all of small size. Among them are Hopetown upon the Orange River, Colesberg near to it, Hanover, and Richmond, the

The Upper Karroo divisions.

PART II. last three places all being between 4,000 and 5,000 feet above the sea.

The divisions of the Great Karroo.

South of the inland divisions which have been specified above, and separated from them by the dividing range, is the Karroo proper, the Great Karroo of Cape Colony history. In the south-west corner of this area, however, shut in by circling mountains, there are tracts which belong neither to the coast region nor to the Karroo, parts of the Worcester and Tulbagh divisions, lying between the Drakenstein mountains and Great Winterhoek on the one side and the Hex River mountains on the other. Here are fertile corn and wine-growing valleys, the town of Worcester with over 5,000 inhabitants, Tulbagh, and Ceres. East and north-east the land rises to the Karroo, comprising the divisions of Prince Albert and Beaufort West, Willowmore, Aberdeen, Jansenville, Murraysburg, Graaf Reinet, and Middelburg, all, roughly speaking, south of the dividing range, though here and there they stretch across the mountains[1]. Typical towns of this Karroo district are Beaufort West with about 3,000, and Graaf Reinet with about 6,000 inhabitants, each a centre of the pastoral industry, the former on the railway from Cape-town to the interior, the latter connected by rail with Port Elizabeth. In old Dutch times Graaf Reinet was the most remote settlement in the Cape Colony, the home of the malcontent Boers, who resented the irksome rule of the Netherlands Company. Now it is, in geographical position, perhaps the most central point in the colony, on the border line between the east and the west, the north and the south.

Worcester, Tulbagh, &c.

Beaufort West. Graaf Reinet.

The districts behind Port Elizabeth.

Due north of Port Elizabeth and Algoa Bay are half-way districts between the Karroo country of the west and the grass lands of the east, such as Somerset East and Cradock; and, the further the distance is from the sea, the more the plateau

[1] The division of Beaufort West, for instance, extends beyond the dividing range, and Middelburg is north of the Compassberg though apparently in the southern watershed.

of the Upper Karroo extends towards the east, including the division of Albert with its town of Burghersdorp, and the division of Aliwal North.

The coast districts between Port Elizabeth and the Great Fish River.

The coast districts in the region of Algoa Bay as far east as the Great Fish River, Alexandria, Albany, and Bathurst, are the old border districts of the colony, the scene of the Albany settlement, watered by the Sunday, the Bushman, and the Kowie Rivers. Near the coast is sandy soil with the jungle known as the Addo Bush, and inland too there are tracts of forest, between the Sunday River and the Great Fish River, and along the intermediate streams of the Bushman and the Kowie. In Albany is Grahamstown, not so many years ago a border station, now in a sense the capital, though not the commercial centre, of the eastern half of the Cape Colony. Standing 1,800 feet above the sea, with beautiful surroundings, with a fertile soil and an equable climate, easily accessible by rail both from the coast and from the interior, with greater facilities for education than most South African towns possess, it is eminently a home for Englishmen in South Africa. At the last census it had a population of 10,500.

Grahamstown.

The districts between the Fish and the Kei Rivers.

Between the Fish River and the Kei, near the coast, are Peddie, a district with a large native population, Kaffirs who settled down under British rule or were transplanted from other areas, East London, and King Williamstown, the latter a town of over 7,000 inhabitants. In this part of the colony there is a strong German element, dating from the time when the military settlers of the German legion were brought over to South Africa. Behind King Williamstown is the Amatola region, a tract of mountains, woods, and ravines, where for many years the Kaffir tribes held out against the onward movement of European colonisation. The inland divisions between Algoa Bay and the Kei, rising ever towards the north, include Bedford, Fort Beaufort, Stockenstrom, Victoria East, Stutterheim, Cathcart, Queenstown, Tarkastadt, Dor-

The inland Eastern districts.

PART II.

drecht, Wodehouse, and Barkly East. Sheep-farming is the great industry of these districts, but there is good agricultural land also in parts, and in the north-east, in the Stormberg range, are the only coal-mines of the Cape Colony. The largest town in this area is Queenstown with over 4,000 inhabitants.

Queenstown.

The further the Cape Colony extends to the east, the more strongly marked is the main dividing range, rising high in the summits of the Drakensberg, but less definite are the intervening lines of hills or mountains. Thus in the Transkei Territories it is not so easy to distinguish the separate terraces as it is further west. All these territories lie between the main range and the sea, they all slope upwards towards the Drakensberg, they are watered by rivers flowing parallel to each other, they contain a warm coast region, and inland there is broken undulating country, comparatively fertile and well watered. The Transkei Territories have one after another been definitely annexed to the Cape Colony, the last semi-independent district, Pondoland, having been incorporated in the colony in 1894. They include districts which were Fingo and Galeka reserves, Tembuland, Pondoland, on the coast of which is the Port of St. John, and Griqualand East, behind and on a higher level than Pondoland, having its administrative centre at Kokstadt. The principal products of these territories are cattle, sheep, and maize, and the population consists almost entirely of natives, superintended by white officers, and influenced by the mission stations which for many years have been planted among them. The northernmost districts of the Transkei are nearer to and more akin to Natal than to the colony to which they politically belong.

The Transkei Territories.

North of the Orange River, on the main plateau of South Africa, are two provinces of the Cape Colony, Griqualand West and British Bechuanaland. Through Griqualand West flows the Vaal River in a south-westerly direction, bringing

Griqualand West.

with it the waters of the Harts River from the north, of the Modder from the east. Griqualand West is for the most part a dry and dusty land, but the find of diamonds has created a large town in the middle of little more than a desert. This is Kimberley on its eastern frontier, standing over 4,000 feet high, and with a population which at the last census numbered nearly 29,000. Beaconsfield, rather over two miles to the south-west, is a suburb of Kimberley, and contains over 10,000 residents. Kimberley has of late been somewhat overshadowed by the gold-mining centres of the Transvaal; but, in addition to its diamond mines, it has importance as the one large town on the railway route from Capetown to the far interior. Twenty miles to the north-west is Barkly West, also connected with the diamond industry; but diamonds here are won not so much from 'dry diggings' as by washing the alluvial soil on the banks of the Vaal. Apart from its one source of mineral wealth, there is little to be said of Griqualand West. Yet its climate is not unhealthy, its soil is not unfruitful, and, where a water supply can be obtained, agriculture prospers.

Kimberley.

North and west of the last-named province is British Bechuanaland, the latest acquisition of the Cape Colony, with an estimated area of 51,500 square miles. Its eastern boundary is the frontier of the South African Republic, its western boundary is the 20th meridian of east longitude, which is the frontier line of the German Protectorate. Griqualand West and the Orange River bound it on the south, and on the north its frontiers are the Nosop or Oup River, the Molopo, and the little stream known as the Ramathlabama Spruit. For purposes of administration there have hitherto been five organised districts in the territory: on the eastern frontier, taken from south to north, Taungs, Vryburg, and Mafeking; due west of Taungs, Kuruman; and in the far south-west the Gordonia district, with its centre at Upington upon the Orange River. On the extreme western frontier is

British Bechuanaland.

PART II. an area known as the Mier district, mainly occupied by bastards or half-breeds, the chief settlement in which is Rietfontein, where for many years there has been a station of the Rhenish mission. British Bechuanaland is a section of the central plateau of South Africa, having an average elevation of 4,000 feet above the sea. Its climate is dry and bracing, with a wide range of temperature, the summer days being very hot, the nights in winter very cold. The rainfall in the eastern districts of the territory averages twenty-five inches a year, at Mafeking thirty, the rain falling mainly in the summer months, from November to April; but on these upland plains evaporation is so rapid that the water supply is not proportioned to the amount of rain which falls. Water is fairly plentiful on the eastern side, and, if not visible on the surface, can usually be obtained by sinking wells; but further to the west, in the Kalahari desert, a small rainfall, coupled with rapid evaporation, has produced a dry and desert land. Thus the Molopo River, which forms for a long way the northern boundary of the territory, gives high up on its course, where it flows into Bechuanaland out of the South African Republic, a fairly constant supply of water; but, while its channel reaches the Orange River after a southerly course of very many miles, most of the water which it should contain disappears on its passage through the desert. The principal settlements are consequently in the east. Here are the two towns of the territory, Vryburg and Mafeking, 100 miles apart, both on the railway; and here are organised Native Reserves, as at Taungs in the south-eastern corner of the territory, and at Setlagoli, between Vryburg and Mafeking, the total area of demarcated Reserves being nearly 5,000 square miles. Till a few years ago the best-known settlement in the Bechuana region was the missionary settlement of Kuruman, where an unfailing supply of water favoured continuous mission work; but Kuruman lies westward of the main route to the north, and at a distance from the railway

which links Bechuanaland to the rest of the Cape Colony. Taungs and Kuruman are the districts in which the native population is largest, while the Europeans, who at the 1891 census numbered over 5,000 and have since considerably multiplied, are to be found mainly in the districts of Vryburg and Mafeking. Bechuanaland, on its eastern side, consists mainly of grassy uplands, very well adapted for grazing cattle but not so suitable for rearing sheep. Cattle have been in the past the principal product of the territory, but, wherever there is water, grain, fruit, and vegetables grow well; and, more especially, a considerable quantity of maize is raised. Timber was more plentiful a few years ago than it is at the present day, the trees having been wastefully cut down to be used as fuel at Kimberley. There are indications of mineral wealth in certain districts, especially of coal in the Setlagoli reserve, but no mines have yet been worked, and it is as a pastoral land that Bechuanaland has hitherto prospered in quiet sort. While under the Imperial Government its administration was, to a large extent, paid for by the British tax-payer, but the revenue has been expanding of late years, farmers have come in from over the border and taken up land, and the railway has created trade. As a part of the Cape Colony, the territory bids fair to pay its way, with its two growing townships, its farms and cattle runs, and clans of natives who, under British rule, have known years of peace and lived on allotted ground in security and content.

Such is the Cape Colony, a varied land with a long coast-line and great inland plateaus. Its great drawbacks are want of harbours and want of water both for transport and for irrigation. It is in the main a land of pastoral industries. Its towns are few and of no great size. Diamonds and copper represent its mineral resources. The spread of colonisation has depended largely on railways, which have given the needed access to markets and facility of moving in a much divided area from place to place. Railways multiply *Railways.*

PART II. from year to year, and there are now about 2,500 miles of rail open in the colony. The three main lines are the line from Capetown towards the far north, the line from Port Elizabeth towards the Transvaal gold-fields, and the line from East London also towards the gold-fields. The first line from Capetown to Mafeking has a length of 870 miles within the area of the colony. It reaches the Karroo by the Hex River valley; running east and north-east it crosses the great dividing range at Nels Poort, a little beyond Beaufort West; it crosses the Orange River near Hopetown, at a point 570 miles distant from Capetown; and it is carried north through Kimberley and Vryburg. The second line, from Port Elizabeth, runs north through Cradock, Middelburg, and Colesberg: and a little to the north-east of Colesberg it crosses the Orange River into the Free State, being carried on to Bloemfontein, Johannesburg, and Pretoria. The distance by rail from Port Elizabeth to the Orange River is about 329 miles. The third line, from East London, runs north and north-west through Cathcart, Queenstown, and Burghersdorp. Branching beyond Burghersdorp it reaches the Orange River at two points, at Aliwal North on the east, 280 miles distant by rail from East London, and at the Bethulie Bridge on the west, two or three miles further from East London than is Aliwal North, where the line crosses the river and, in the territory of the Orange Free State, joins the main line from Port Elizabeth at Springfontein. These three railway routes to the north are connected by cross-lines, the first and second by a line sixty-nine miles long, which leaves the Capetown Railway at De Aar Junction, and, passing by Hanover Road, joins the Port Elizabeth Railway at Naauw Poort; the second and third by a line eighty-three miles long, which leaves the Port Elizabeth Railway at Middelburg Road and joins the East London Railway at Stormberg Junction.

These three trunk lines, with their connecting links, are the

basis of the railway system of the colony. Of the more purely local railways the longest is the line from Port Elizabeth to Graaf Reinet through Uitenhage. Its total length is 185 miles, the first seven of which are over the main line. All the leading railways of the colony are owned by the State, though a few of the minor lines—the copper line from Ookiep to Port Nolloth, the line from Worcester to Robertson and Ashton, and the line from Grahamstown to the sea at Port Alfred—belong to private companies[1]; and reference to the map will show that, away from Capetown and the adjoining districts, the western half of the colony is wanting in railway communication.

Revenue.

Railway receipts are the largest source of revenue to the Colonial Government. The total revenue of the Cape Colony in 1893–4 (excluding British Bechuanaland) amounted to £5,321,352, to which railway receipts contributed £2,528,297, or nearly one half; and customs duties, including harbour dues, £1,540,260, or between one quarter and one third.

In 1894–5 the total revenue amounted to £5,390,170, railway receipts producing £2,672,854, and custom duties £1,465,263. About thirty-five per cent. of the annual revenue is derived from taxation. On December 31, 1894, the total Public Debt of all kinds amounted to £27,675,178, and on December 31, 1895, to £27,533,978. British sterling is the currency of the colony.

Public Debt.

Trade.

In 1894 the imports were valued at £11,298,645, out of which the sum of £8,877,632 was credited to the United Kingdom. The exports in the same year, excluding specie, were valued at £13,696,538, of which the exports to the United Kingdom were valued at £13,352,658. Far the largest export was gold, the product not of the colony but of the South African Republic, the value of which was

[1] In 1895, 2,253 miles of rail were owned by the Government, against 181 miles owned by private companies.

PART II. £7,147,308; and next to gold came the following articles of export:—

Diamonds valued at	£3,013,578
Wool	1,599,632
Ostrich feathers	477,414
Angora hair	421,248
Skins (sheep and goat)	340,947
Copper ore	284,800

The corresponding figures for the year 1895 are as follows:—

Value of total imports	£13,612,405
Value of total exports	16,798,137
Value of imports from the United Kingdom	10,427,201
Value of exports to the United Kingdom	16,316,001

Principal articles of export:—

Gold valued at	£7,975,637
Diamonds	4,775,016
Wool	1,695,920[1]
Ostrich feathers	527,742
Angora hair	710,867
Skins (sheep and goat)	363,408
Copper ore	246,597

Taking the 1895 figures, the principal conclusions to be drawn as to the trade of the Cape Colony are, that the colony deals mainly with the mother country, that mineral produce accounts for three-fourths in value of its exports, that nearly one-half in value of its exports represents produce brought from beyond the borders of the colony, and that, of the produce of the colony itself, the larger half in value consists of diamonds and ostrich feathers, which may be deemed articles of luxury.

Population. At the census of 1891 the total population of the Cape Colony was returned at 1,527,224, the colony at that date not including either British Bechuanaland or Pondoland.

[1] For purposes of comparison, the total wool export of New South Wales was in 1894 valued at £9,628,000, and in 1895 at £9,976,000. The total wool export of Victoria was in 1894 valued at £4,743,000, and in 1895 at £5,151,000.

These returns gave nearly seven persons to the square mile, but the population was and is very unequally distributed, the dwellers in the north-western divisions of the colony—Namaqualand, Calvinia, Carnarvon, Fraserburg, and Prieska—not numbering one to the square mile. Of the total population 376,987, or nearly twenty-five per cent. were white, and 1,150,237, or slightly over seventy-five per cent. were coloured. Of the white population 230,000 approximately were estimated to be of Dutch or Huguenot descent, and 130,000 of British origin. Two centuries before, in 1690–1, the European population of the Cape did not exceed 1,200 to 1,300 all told; and in 1791 the number of Europeans was not larger than 14,000 or 15,000. Of the native population, which also grows in numbers, in 1891, 608,000 were of Kaffir or Bechuana origin; 230,000 were Fingos, also of Kaffir race; 248,000 were returned as of mixed origin; the Hottentots and Bushmen numbered 50,000; and the Malays 14,000. The Malays are a living record of the times of the Netherlands East India Company, and of the close connexion which then existed between the East Indies and the Cape. They are to be found mainly in or near Capetown, and form a large proportion of the fishermen of the colony. In all the districts, outside a few of the towns, the coloured races largely outnumber the whites, but especially is this the case in the territories beyond the Kei, where the white men are little more than one in fifty.

The census of British Bechuanaland in 1891, excluding natives who paid the hut tax, gave a population of 12,736, of whom over 5,000 were Europeans. The members of the Bechuana clans were estimated to number 60,000, making the total population of the territory, on a very rough estimate, about 73,000. The number of inhabitants in Pondoland has been estimated at 200,000; and the total population therefore of Cape Colony, as at present bounded, but on the basis of the census returns of 1891, is about 1,800,000.

PART II.

Religion.

Of the white population an overwhelming majority are Protestants in religion. The 1891 census showed that in the colony, again excluding British Bechuanaland and Pondoland, nearly 95 per cent. of the whites were Protestants, of whom over 60 per cent. belonged to the Dutch Reformed church, 18½ per cent. were members of the Church of England, nearly 6 per cent. were Wesleyans, and over 3 per cent. were Presbyterians. In the country districts the Dutch Reformed church has far the greatest number of adherents. In some of the principal towns the Church of England is rather the stronger of the two denominations. A very large percentage of natives are classed as of no religion, and among the Kaffirs and Fingos the Wesleyans claim the largest number of native Christians. The Mohammedan community consists principally of the Malays.

Education.

Education is very far indeed from being general, as might be expected in a land where natives are so numerous. Three-fourths of the population in 1891 were returned as unable either to read or write; in other words, most of the white inhabitants are to a certain extent educated, but very few of the natives. There is no compulsory system of education, and government support is mainly given in the form of grants in aid. Higher education is provided for by the University of the Cape of Good Hope, an examining body on the lines of London University, and by colleges at Capetown, Rondebosch, Stellenbosch, Port Elizabeth, Grahamstown, Graaf Reinet, and Somerset East. Among missionary institutions, Lovedale, in Victoria East, near the Chumie River, is a noble memorial to the religious and educational enterprise of the Free Church of Scotland. An education Act was passed in 1865, and at the close of the following year the number of schools in the colony was returned at 392. At the end of the year 1894–5 there were 2,195 schools in existence, in addition to colleges. Educational work has therefore of late years made good progress in the Cape Colony.

Lovedale.

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CHAPTER II.

NATAL.

ON the Eastern coast of South Africa, on the outer slope of the Drakensberg mountains, and between those mountains and the Indian Ocean, lies the colony of Natal. Like the Cape Colony it is a self-governing colony, complete self-government having been granted in 1893. The Legislature consists of the Governor, a nominated Legislative Council, and an elected Legislative Assembly. The Legislative Council is composed of eleven members, nominated by the Governor on the advice of his ministers, and distributed between the eight counties into which the colony is divided. A member of the Legislative Council must be thirty years of age, a resident in the colony of ten years' standing, and possessed of immovable property within the colony to the net value of £500. He holds his seat for ten years. The Legislative Assembly consists of thirty-seven members, elected by ballot to represent thirteen constituencies. The qualification for membership of the Assembly is the same as the electoral qualification. Electors must be twenty-one years of age, and possess immovable property to the value of £50, or rent such property to the annual value of £10, or have resided three years in the colony with an income of not less than £96 per annum. The life of the Assembly lasts for four years, if it is not previously dissolved by the Governor. Members of the Council and Assembly are not paid, but are entitled to a travelling allowance.

The Legislature.

PART II.

The Executive.

The executive power is in the hands of the Governor and his Executive Council, the latter consisting of the Ministers for the time being. They are not more than six in number, and may sit and speak in either house, but vote only in the house of which they are members. Under the Constitution Act a Civil List is reserved, one item in which is the sum of £10,000, to be devoted annually to promoting the welfare and education of the natives.

Municipal Institutions.

The towns of Durban, Pietermaritzburg, and Newcastle have Municipal Councils, and there are Local Boards at Ladysmith and Verulam. The Port of Durban is under the management of a Harbour Department, presided over by the Minister of Lands and Works.

Law and Justice.

Roman Dutch law is the basis of the legal system of the colony, supplemented by the ordinances passed by the colonial legislature. The law is administered by a Supreme Court consisting of a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges, and by Resident Magistrates. In ordinary criminal matters the natives are amenable to the criminal law of the colony; offences of a political character or connected with native law or custom, and all civil actions between natives living under native law, are now tried by the Supreme Court of the colony, or, subject to the jurisdiction of that court, by officers styled Administrators of native law.

Area and Geography.

The northernmost point of Natal is in about 27·20 degrees of south latitude, its southernmost point is just beyond the thirty-first parallel. On the east it touches 31·30 east longitude, and on the west 28·50 east longitude, the source and the mouth of the Tugela River being respectively the westernmost and easternmost points. The territory is diamond shaped, with an extreme length from north to south of about 250 miles, and an extreme breadth from west to east of about 160. The length of its coast-line is 170 miles, and it has an area of 20,461 square miles. Its size is therefore about two-thirds of that of Scotland, or, to compare

other British colonies, about four-fifths of the size of Ceylon or Tasmania. On the east it is bounded by the Indian Ocean, on the north-east by Zululand, from which it is separated by the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers, on the north by the South African Republic, on the north-west by the Orange Free State, on the west by Basutoland, on the south-west and south by the Cape Colony. Thus this small colony abuts on nearly all the other South African states.

The coast-line.

The coast-line of Natal, like that of the Cape Colony, is somewhat wanting in natural harbours. Many rivers run into the sea within its borders, but few have navigable estuaries.

The Port of Durban.

The main port[1] is the port of Durban, which, till a few years ago, was always known as Port Natal. It has the great advantage of being in the centre of the coast-line. It consists of a shallow land-locked bay with an area of between seven and eight square miles. The entrance faces north-east; on its southern side is the Bluff of Natal, as it is called, over 200 feet high, and on its northern side is a low-lying tongue of land, known as Sandy Point or the Point. A bar of sand runs across the mouth, and has in past times prevented ships of any size from entering the bay; but much has of late years been done by dredging and by the construction of breakwaters on either side, which narrow the entrance to about a quarter of a mile in breadth, to deepen the water-way and make it available for large vessels.

The Town of Durban.

On the north side of the bay stands Durban, the largest town in the colony. The centre of the town is nearly two miles from the Point, and it is overlooked on the western—the mainland side by the wooded Berea Hills, the slopes of which form a residential suburb of the town.

Durban is about 930 statute miles distant from Cape

[1] A small port, Port Shepstone, is also coming into being in Alfred county, at the mouth of the Umzimkulu River, where, as at Durban, there is a bar to be dredged.

PART II. Town, 1,760 from Mauritius, 300 from Delagoa Bay, and 1,830 from Zanzibar.

The Inland configuration of Natal. The land of Natal, like South Africa generally, rises in terraces from the sea. Durban is nearly at the sea level. Pinetown, seventeen miles inland, stands 1,100 feet above the sea. Pietermaritzburg, seventy miles by rail from Durban, is 2,200 feet above the sea. Seventy-five miles by rail to the north-west of Pietermaritzburg, Estcourt stands 3,800 feet high. Ladysmith, forty-four miles further north than Estcourt, is on a somewhat lower level, though well over 3,000 feet. Beyond Ladysmith, on the west the Van Reenen pass, over the Drakensberg into the Orange Free State, is 5,500 feet high; and on the north, Charlestown, near the frontier of the South African Republic, stands on a level of nearly 5,400 feet.

The Drakensberg Mountains. In the centre of the western frontier of the colony the Drakensberg mountains rise to their highest level, their peaks being loftier than any other mountain tops in South Africa. The Giant's Castle and the Mont aux Sources, both on the boundary line between Natal and Basutoland, are respectively over 9,000 and over 11,000 feet high, while just beyond the boundary and within Basutoland the Cathkin Peak or Champagne Castle rises to over 10,000 feet. The Mont aux Sources, the highest of the three peaks, stands in an angle of the frontier, and from this point to the extreme north of the colony the same line of mountains runs due north-east at a somewhat lower level than before, the summits being in no case as high as 8,000 feet. From the Drakensberg subsidiary ranges run across the colony towards the east, the north-east, or the south-east. Such are the Biggarsberg Mountains, which cut off the northernmost corner of Natal—the Newcastle district—from the rest of the colony; the Mooi River heights, which can be traced in a north-easterly direction from the Giant's Castle to the valley of the Tugela; and two other ranges which also start

Subsidiary mountain ranges.

from the Giant's Castle, and, dividing at Spion Kop, run in the one case across the Umvoti county to the lower Tugela, in the other, in a south-easterly direction to the sea, ending in the Berea Hills behind Durban. Thus the main mountain system of Natal consists of the Drakensberg, with transverse ranges running out from it like the fingers of a hand; but there are also isolated groups of mountains in the colony, such as the Ingeli mountains in the extreme south-west, and the Mahwaqa mountains in the west, and single mountain tops which in Natal, as in Zululand, stand out on the landscape as solitary beacons.

Rivers.

Natal is a well-watered land. Its rivers are many, but most of them are of little use for purposes of navigation. The largest is the Tugela, which rises on the slopes of the Mont aux Sources[1], and flows for 200 miles before it reaches the sea, draining, with its tributaries, nearly half the colony. It begins with a waterfall and ends with a bar, and for many miles of its course it is a strong stream flowing in rocky ravines. Among its feeders are the Buffalo, the Klip River, the Sunday's River, and the Bushman and Mooi Rivers. Of the other river systems in the colony the two largest are the Umzimkulu and the Umkomaas.

The Tugela.

The Counties.

Natal is divided into eight counties. On the coast, taken from north to south, are Victoria, the chief settlement in which is Verulam, founded by Wesleyan colonists from St. Alban's; Durban; Alexandra, containing the settlement of Umzinto; and Alfred, a border district on the south, which was annexed to Natal in 1866, and whose administrative centre is the inland village of Harding. Behind the four coast counties are the two midland counties of Umvoti and Pietermaritzburg; Umvoti on the north-eastern side of Natal, with Greytown for its centre; and Pietermaritzburg in

[1] The Mont aux Sources was well named by the French missionaries in Basutoland. From it the Tugela flows in one direction, and the Caledon in another.

PART II. the centre and south, including about one quarter of the whole colony. At the back of these two counties is Weenen, taking its name from the village of that name[1], and having Estcourt within its borders; while beyond the Tugela, including the whole of the northern portion of the colony, is Klip River county, containing the towns or villages of Ladysmith, Dundee, Helpmakaar, Newcastle, and Charlestown. This county is bounded on the east by the Buffalo River, and in it are Rorke's Drift and the battlefields of the Boer war.

Climate. Natal is nearer to the tropics than the southern portion of the Cape Colony, and the climate of Durban is warmer than that of Capetown; but in both colonies the main factor in determining the climate is the height of a given place above the sea. In Natal there are the coast districts, the midlands, and the uplands of the north and north-west. The climate of the coast is sub-tropical, warm, and moist, the average annual temperature at Durban being 69° to 70°, and the average annual rainfall about 40 inches. At Pietermaritzburg, over 2,000 feet higher than Durban, the average annual temperature and rainfall are both somewhat lower, the temperature being 64° to 65°, and the rainfall 37 to 38 inches. Higher up again, on the slopes of the Drakensberg, the climate is dry and bracing, very hot under the summer sun, cold at night-time. Throughout the colony the summer season, from October to March, contributes three-quarters of the rainfall; throughout the colony there is a wide range of temperature, and the amount of rain varies very greatly from year to year.

Products. On the lowlands, by the coast, subtropical products thrive.

Sugar. Natal is one of the sugar-growing colonies, and as such is one of the colonies where East Indian coolies form an important element in the population. This is perhaps its most distinctive feature as compared with other South African territories. In the counties of Victoria, Durban,

[1] See Part I, pp. 195, 197.

and Alexandra, notably in Victoria and in the Umzinto district in Alexandra, there are some 36,000 acres under sugar cultivation. In these same coast counties a little coffee is grown, and an increasing amount of tea. The cultivation of cotton, from which much was hoped in the earlier days of the colony, has practically ceased, but there is hardly any tropical product which cannot be raised in the lowlands of Natal. Of grain crops, maize is universal throughout the colony, and wheat, barley, and oats are grown on the higher levels, the acreage under oats being much larger than that under wheat or barley; but, if maize and Kaffir corn be excepted, Natal can hardly claim to be as yet a grain-producing colony. All kinds of fruits and vegetables are grown, tropical and subtropical, as well as those which belong to the temperate zones; and some good timber is still to be found, though the forests have been largely cut down. The Black Wattle is being extensively planted, and its bark, which is used in tanning, has become an established article of export.

Grain.

Fruits and vegetables.

Timber.

Natal has the advantage of great variety of climate within a comparatively limited area, and, as far as the fruits of the earth are concerned, the number of its products is out of all proportion to the size of the territory. But its wealth has hitherto been mainly derived from pastoral industries, and the list of exports shows that wool is still the most important product of the colony, though not so important as once it was. The sheep farms are in the midland and upland districts, in the counties of Pietermaritzburg, Umvoti, Weenen, and Klip River; and on the higher and drier lands of Weenen and Klip River angora goats are pastured. Cattle are found everywhere, but principally in the inland counties. They are valued for transport purposes, their hides are exported, and dairy farming is being carried on to an increased extent.

Wool.

Cattle.

Natal contains a large coal-field, in the Klip River county at the northern end of the colony, the mining centres being

Coal.

PART II.

Gold.

Dundee and Newcastle[1]. Gold is found in the Tugela valley and at Umzinto. Silver, copper, lead, and iron ore all exist within the colony, and in the south, on the Umzimkulu River, is a field of white marble.

Transit trade.

The commercial prosperity of Natal, however, depends largely on the trade which passes through its territory to and from the lands which lie beyond the mountain barrier. No

Railways.

country has profited more by railway communication, and it was an important era in the history of the colony when, towards the end of 1895, the railway between the port of Durban and the Johannesburg gold-fields was at length finally completed. In 1860 a little line was opened between the Point and Durban town, afterwards carried on to Umgeni village; and for many years this was the only railway in the colony. On January 1, 1876, a beginning was made of the line to Pietermaritzburg, which was opened in 1880. That line is now carried on into the Orange Free State on the north-west: into the South African Republic on the north. The dividing point is Ladysmith, 190 miles from Durban. The line to the Orange Free State runs for thirty-six miles from Ladysmith to the Van Reenen pass, where it crosses the Drakensberg, and leaving Natal reaches Harrismith, sixty miles distant from Ladysmith. The other line runs north-east and north from Ladysmith, past Glencoe Junction, whence a short branch is carried for eight miles to Dundee and its coal-fields, past Newcastle, until just beyond Charlestown, 304 miles from Durban, it crosses the frontier and takes its way through the South African Republic to Johannesburg and Pretoria, the distance from Durban to Johannesburg being 483 miles. This is the main railway thoroughfare of Natal; but along the coast two short lines run north and south from Durban, the northern line for nineteen miles to Verulam, hereafter to be extended towards

[1] Newcastle does not take its name from the coal-field, but is called after the Duke of Newcastle, formerly Secretary of State for the Colonies.

the Tugela and Zululand, the southern line for eleven miles to Isipingo. In all there are nearly 400 miles of rail open in Natal, all belonging to the Government, and connecting the sea level with a height of 5,500 feet.

Finances.

The currency of Natal is British currency. In the year which ended on June 30, 1894, the revenue of the colony amounted to £1,011,016, and in the year ending June 30, 1895, to £1,169,780. The chief items of the revenue are railway receipts, customs duties, and native hut tax. These produced in the two years in question—

	1893–4	1894–5
Railway receipts	£446,989	£536,409
Customs	191,235	189,929
Native hut tax	82,366	84,868

Railway receipts should show a large increase in future years, now that there is through communication between Durban and the gold-fields of the Rand.

On June 30, 1894, the net Public Debt of the colony was rather under eight millions sterling, and on June 30, 1895, the figures were almost identical with those of the preceding year.

Imports and Exports.

The imports by sea for the year ending June 30, 1894, were valued at £2,171,322, out of which imports to the value of £1,630,709, or 75 per cent., came from the United Kingdom. The exports for the same year were valued at £1,184,650, the exports to the United Kingdom being valued at £725,640, or 61 per cent. of the total. For the year ending June 30, 1895, the corresponding figures were as follows:—

Total value of imports by sea	£2,370,022
Value of imports from United Kingdom (nearly 70 per cent. of total)	1,637,865
Total value of exports	1,216,430
Value of exports to United Kingdom (between 54 and 55 per cent. of total)	665,843

PART II.

Thus in the later year the imports and exports both slightly increased in value, but there was a falling off in the proportion of trade with the United Kingdom.

The chief products of the colony which were exported in the two years under consideration were wool, sugar, coal, silver ore, and hides.

Their value was as follows:—

	1893-4	1894-5
Wool	£444,155	£408,983
Sugar	99,093	66,000
Coal	67,191	62,946
Silver ore	49,388	29,378
Hides	31,864	32,454

The export of wool has greatly declined of late years. On the other hand the export of some minor products, such as wattle bark, fruit, and tea is rising in value. One important article of export, viz. gold[1], is not included in the list given above. It is Transvaal gold—not the produce of the colony; but, with the railway now complete, this export is likely to increase, as Durban is now no longer only the harbour of Natal, it has also, for practical purposes, become a port of the South African Republic.

Population.

The population of Natal, according to the census returns of 1891, numbered in that year 543,913, or rather under twenty-seven to the square mile. The white population, including soldiers and sailors, numbered 46,788; the East Indians, 41,142; while the estimated number of natives was 455,983. The natives, therefore, outnumbered the whites in the proportion of more than nine to one, and the total coloured population exceeded the white population by more than ten to one, the excess of coloured over white men being much larger than in the Cape Colony. The town population of Natal is small. The two largest towns are Durban

[1] Valued in the year ending June 30, 1895, at £225,732 against £221,108 in the preceding year.

and Pietermaritzburg, the former having at the present time a population of about 28,000, and Pietermaritzburg about 20,000. The strongest element numerically in the white population is British, predominating more especially in the towns. In the interior the farmers are mainly of Dutch extraction. Not a few Germans have found a home in the colony, and such names as New Germany, Hermannsburg, New Hanover, and Kirchdorf bear witness to German settlement; while at Marburg, in Alfred county, a small colony of Norwegians has been established. The East Indians, 41,000 in number, are the result of the indentured coolie system. In 1860 coolies were first imported to work under contract on the sugar plantations, and, as has been the case also in the West Indies and to a phenomenal extent in Mauritius, many of these East Indian labourers, having once arrived, have elected to stay. In 1891 the number of Indians in the colony not under terms of indentured service was 30,000, as against 11,000 indentured coolies, the large majority living in the warm coast districts where their labour is most in demand.

The bulk of the native population of Natal is to be found in the native locations in various parts of the colony. These locations include in all an area not far short of 4,000 square miles. Especially on the eastern frontier towards Zululand, in the Umvoti county and on the lower Tugela, the native clans are strong. In the locations they live under their own chiefs, and to a large extent under their own laws and customs, but are supervised by European officers. There are many tribes, all of Kaffir origin, some indigenous to the soil, not a few immigrants since the days when Chaka and his Zulu warriors laid the land desolate, and a large proportion are Zulus or closely akin to the Zulus.

Religion.

The various religious denominations are represented in Natal, including the Church of England, somewhat divided since the days of Bishop Colenso, the Dutch Reformed

PART II. Church, Wesleyans, Roman Catholics, and other sects. The native population is mainly heathen, but mission stations are numerous among them, the area of mission lands in the colony being about 250 square miles.

Education. Education is under the Management of a Minister of Education. It is not compulsory, but is free for the children of the poor. There are government schools and aided schools; farmhouse centres in the country districts, where the settlers' families are too few and scattered for the maintenance of a regular school; schools for natives, and schools for Indian immigrants. Higher education is provided for by High Schools at Durban and Pietermaritzburg. In 1895 there were 448 schools in the colony under government inspection, only twenty-two of which, including the two High Schools, were purely government schools, the rest being in receipt of grants in aid. The aggregate attendance was 17,317, of whom 7,608 were Europeans educated at 287 schools, sixty of which were 'fixed' schools and 227 farm centres; 6,790 were natives, educated at 133 schools; and 2,919 were East Indians, educated at twenty-eight schools. In addition there were estimated to be about 1,600 European children taught privately or at schools not in receipt of a government grant.

NOTE. Since the above chapter was written, the following statistics have come to hand for the year ending June 30, 1896:—

Revenue	£1,457,338 including
Railway receipts	745,703
Customs	265,369
Native hut tax	76,847
Total value of imports by sea	3,550,125
Total value of exports	1,551,358

CHAPTER III.

ZULULAND.

Government and Law.

ZULULAND is a Crown Colony of the strictest type. The Governor of Natal, appointed by the Crown, is Governor also of Zululand, and he legislates for Zululand by Proclamation. There is no Legislative or Executive Council. The territory is administered by a Resident Commissioner, acting under the immediate instructions of the Governor. The Resident Commissioner is also Chief Magistrate, and under him there are Resident Magistrates in the different districts. Natal law has been proclaimed to be in force, so far as it is applicable to the circumstances of Zululand; but among the natives native law and custom prevails, and the authority of the chiefs over their respective tribes or clans is recognised.

Area and Geography.

Zululand is bounded on the south by Natal, from which it is separated by the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers, on the west and north-west by the South African Republic and Swaziland, on the north by Portuguese territory and Amatongaland, and on the east by the Indian Ocean. The territory is very irregular in shape. It stretches furthest inland along the Natal frontier, where an area of land, constituting the Nqutu district, runs out in a north-westerly direction into the South African Republic as far as the Blood River, a remnant of Zululand as it once was, before the country was dismembered and a large portion of its interior incorporated in the South African Republic. On the north, too, another peninsula now runs out in a due northerly direction, west of the Pongola

PART II. River, and between Swaziland and Amatongaland, meeting Portuguese territory at the Usutu or Maputa River. This district includes the native territories annexed in 1895. The southernmost point of Zululand, the mouth of the Tugela River, is in about 29° 12′ south latitude, and its northernmost point is a little south of 26·30 south latitude. Its extreme length is between 180 and 190 miles. Its greatest breadth inland, in the Nqutu district, is about 100 miles, and in the centre of the territory, from seventy to eighty miles. The length of its coast-line may be taken very roughly to be between 160 and 170 miles. The area of the whole territory is, on a very rough estimate, about 13,000 square miles, being rather less than two-thirds of the size of Natal.

In Zululand, as elsewhere in South Africa, the land rises from the coast towards the interior, but the geographical features are not so distinctly marked as, for instance, in Natal. A large proportion of the whole territory is coast region, low-lying and alluvial. Towards the north this coast-belt widens out and stretches further inland, becoming at the same time, as it nears the tropics, hotter and more unhealthy. A great part of it, amounting to about a quarter of the whole of Zululand, is, owing to malaria and cattle sickness, uninhabited. Inside this plain there is higher ground, with lines or groups of hills rising to about 2,000 feet, and behind them the country rises again towards the high veldt of the South African Republic; but except in the south, where the territory runs far inland, British Zululand hardly touches the main South African plateau.

The coast-line. The actual coast is fringed by sand-hills, mostly covered with bush, inside which is the plain already referred to. There is no harbour, almost the only landing place being

Port Durnford. Port Durnford, in the southern part of the territory, between the mouths of the Umlalazi and Umhlatuzi Rivers, where a small stream runs down a ravine into the sea, ending in a sandy surf-beaten beach only available in fine weather.

From Port Durnford the coast-line runs due north-east to Cape St. Lucia, near the mouth of the Umfolosi River, where it turns more towards the north outside the large lagoon known as Lake St. Lucia. This lake is separated from the open sea by a strip of land, whose average breadth is three miles, with sand-hills rising to a height of from 300 to 500 feet. About half-way in its course, but nearer the southern than the northern end, is a further inlet known as False Bay. St. Lucia Lake is about thirty-five miles in length, with an average breadth of ten miles. It is little more than a muddy swamp, nine to ten feet deep, fed by various rivers, unhealthy, and hardly accessible. Its area has been estimated at 680 square miles. Its opening to the sea is at its southern end, by St. Lucia Bay and St. Lucia River, the river being a channel, about twelve miles long, parallel to the sea, with an opening entirely blocked by sand in the dry season, and in time of flood obstructed by breakers on a shallow and impossible bar. At the southernmost corner of the lake is a tract of dense bush, known as the Dukuduku forest, covering an area of 130 square miles, a mixture of swamp and reeds, a refuge in time of war, but not a living place for either white or black men. Immediately north of St. Lucia Bay is the inlet known as Sordwana Bay. It is not a bay, but merely an opening in the coast which communicates with two small and shallow lagoons, useless for any purposes of communication between land and sea. Thus the coast-line of Zululand is very unfavourable. Where there are not regular cliffs there are sand-hills, and where there are openings and river mouths they are blocked with sand, and, in the north, lead only into swamps.

Lake St. Lucia.

The Dukuduku bush.

Sordwana Bay.

There is a large number of rivers in the territory. Most of them have short courses, and most of them vary between torrents in the rainy season and little more than rivulets in the dry. Inland, as they come down from the mountains, they flow with a strong current in deep channels, and when

Rivers.

PART II. they reach the coast level, the majority of them lose themselves in marsh and lagoon. The southernmost and largest is the Tugela, the border river between Zululand and Natal. North of the Tugela are the Amatikulu, the Umlalazi, and the Umhlatuzi, the last-named river flowing into a small lagoon, a little north of Port Durnford. Next comes the Umfolosi, the main river of central Zululand, formed by the confluence, at a point thirty miles from the coast, of a northern tributary, the Black Umfolosi, and a southern tributary, the White Umfolosi. The combined streams flow into the southernmost extremity of St. Lucia Lake. In the north of Zululand are two rivers, which rise in the South African Republic and cross the line of the Ubombo mountains. The more southerly of the two, the Mkusi, flows west and east and enters the northern end of St. Lucia Lake. The other, the Pongola, after crossing the Ubombo range, flows almost due north until it joins the Maputa River running into Delagoa Bay.

The Umfolosi.

The Zululand rivers, with the exception of the Pongola, flow west and east. The mountains are difficult to define and describe. With the exception of the Ubombo or the Lebombo mountains, they are not so much mountain ranges, as groups of high land, with here and there isolated tops such as the Isandhlwana hill. The Ubombo mountains form a distinct line, running due north and south, and separating the northern end of Zululand from Swaziland and from the South African Republic. Their height does not exceed 2,000 feet; they are more precipitous on the western than on the eastern side; and below the Mkusi Poort, where the Mkusi River finds its way through the range, they slope away in undulating ground into the plain which surrounds the St. Lucia Lake. Further south, and near the frontier of the South African Republic, are the Ubani hills; and to the south again, in the Ndwandwe district, there is a short range of hills or mountains known as the Nongoma range, like the

Mountains.

The Ubombo mountains.

Ubombo, running north and south and more precipitous on the western side than on the east. Below the head-waters of the White Umfolosi are the Entonjaneni hills on the western frontier, while near the sea, behind Port Durnford, are the Ingoye hills, well wooded on their upper levels. Again, further south, where British Zululand stretches furthest into the interior, there are several clusters of mountains or hills, one behind the other. On the inland side of Eshowe are the Entumeni hills, rising to nearly 3,000 feet. Immediately behind them are the Nkandhla uplands, rising to a height of 4,500 feet, thickly wooded in parts, having deep ravines and flat-topped hills with precipitous sides, the hitherto almost impenetrable strongholds of native clans. North-west of this difficult broken country, near the junction of the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers, are the Kyudeni hills, also forest-clad and rising to a height of from 4,500 to 5,000 feet; while furthest inland is the Nqutu range, running east and west across the innermost district of the territory, and cutting the communication with Vryheid and Utrecht in the South African Republic. Zululand, in short, may be said to consist of plain and swamp near the sea, most extensive in the north; of hill slopes and valleys of rivers inside the plain; and, on the inner frontier, of high table-land, more or less open except in the south, where the mountains are highest, the country is most broken up, and the forests are most extensive.

The districts.

The districts into which Zululand is divided for magisterial and administrative purposes are, in the south, the Nqutu district which is furthest inland, the Nkandhla district, and the district of Eshowe. All these three districts border on Natal, separated from it by the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers; and the two first border also on the South African Republic. Next come the two districts of central Zululand, the Entonjaneni district inland bordering on the South African Republic, and the Lower Umfolosi district touching the sea. North of these two districts are the districts of Ndwandwe and Hlabisa,

PART II. and further north again is the Ubombo district, and the district formed out of the lately annexed Trans-Pongola territories, which bears the name of Ingwavuma. Within the limits of the Entonjaneni district, between the upper waters of the Umhlatuzi and the White Umfolosi Rivers, and abutting on the Vryheid district of the South African Republic, is the area known as Proviso B. It was a part of Zululand in which Boer farmers had established themselves between the years 1882 and 1886; and when, in the last named year, it was excluded from what was then the New Republic, but is now the Vryheid district of the South African Republic, the Boer occupants were, by a special proviso, left in undisturbed possession of their farms subject to a nominal quit rent[1].

Townships, Roads, &c. The chief township in Zululand and the seat of administration is Eshowe, and the only other township in the territory, deserving the name, is Melmoth in the Entonjaneni district. The two are connected by the main road of Zululand, which enters from Natal by the lower Tugela drift, is carried north and north-west by a somewhat circuitous route, now being rectified, through Eshowe and Melmoth, passes due north through the Ndwandwe district, and finally enters the South African Republic. There are other roads in existence, a coast road in the lowlands, and, far inland, roads that start from Rorke's Drift; but Zululand is still in its infancy as an organised colony, and it has yet to reap the advantages of good communication by road and rail, of easy gradients over its mountains, and bridges over its rivers. It may be added that Ulundi, the old royal Kraal, is situated a little to the north of the White—the southern Umfolosi, and that the valleys drained by the two Umfolosi rivers, together with the hills and ravines of the Nkandhla district, may be taken as having been in the past the special strongholds of the Zulu race.

Forests. A report on the forests of Zululand by Colonel Cardew,

[1] See Part I, p. 303 note.

published early in 1891[1], divides them into high timber forest, thorn bush, and coast forest. The finest high timber forests are in the south, on the Kyudeni, Nkandhla, and Ingoye hills, and in the neighbourhood of Eshowe. They contain yellow wood and hard timber of various kinds, such as is found in Natal also, but the valuable trees at the time when the report was written had been sadly diminished by indiscriminate felling. The thorn bush or mimosa trees grow on lower levels, in the valleys, and clothing the banks of the rivers; while the coast forests, stunted in size but with a dense undergrowth and interspersed with palms, are found in patches along the sand-hills which line the coast, and near the mouths of the rivers, the most extensive tract of this bush or forest being the Dukuduku.

Climate.

The climate of the coast districts in Zululand is semi-tropical, and, owing to the prevalence of swamp and lagoon, malarious and unhealthy—more so than is the case with the coast country in Natal. The highlands are far healthier, often very cold and bleak in the winter season, from March to September, which is also the dry season. The prevailing wind is from the south-east, but now and again a hot wind from the north-west blows over the inland districts. In the summer season thunderstorms are frequent, and heavy rains make the rivers impassable.

Products.

The soil of the country, except in the coast-belt, is not rich. The Zulus are a pastoral people, and their main wealth has hitherto consisted in cattle; but a kind of cattle disease, especially in the lowlands, has of late years diminished their stock. Sheep thrive on the highlands, though grass is often scarce in winter, and near the coast in the south of Zululand, outside the zone of bush and swamp. The area under cultivation has increased of late, losses in cattle having induced the Zulus, especially near the Natal frontier, to pay more attention to tilling the ground. They are taking to the use

[1] Colonial Reports, Miscellaneous, No. 2, C. 6,270–1, April, 1891.

PART II. of the plough, whereas till lately cultivation was confined to small garden plots broken up by Kaffir hoes in the hands of women[1]. A new drawback to agriculture has, however, made its appearance in the form of locusts. The crops, such as they are, consist chiefly of maize, Kaffir corn or millet, sweet potatoes, and tobacco. The same sub-tropical products that are grown on the coast-line in Natal can be grown also in the southern coast districts of Zululand, but the land has not yet been opened for planting industries under European management, the occupation of land by Europeans for agricultural purposes not being allowed outside Proviso B.

Minerals. *Gold.* Mining is making way in Zululand, gold and coal having both been found in considerable quantities. The gold-fields contain alluvial gold as well as gold-bearing quartz reefs and banket beds. There are gold-fields in the north-west of Zululand, viz. the Nondweni gold-fields in the Nqutu district; in the west near Ulundi, and near Melmoth in the Entonjaneni district, and on the upper waters of the Umhlatuzi and Insuzi Rivers in the Nkandhla district, the gold being mainly found not far from the border of the South African Republic. The *Coal.* coal measures are in the north-west in the Nqutu and Kyudeni hills, and also, in the form of anthracite coal, in the Hlabisa district near St. Lucia Bay. Zululand contains also iron, copper, and other minerals, but they have not yet been worked.

Finances. From the date when it was proclaimed a British Colony, Zululand has made steady progress, and the annual revenue more than covers the ordinary expenditure. In 1888, the first full year of its existence as a British Colony, the revenue amounted to nearly £33,000; in 1894 to over £45,000; in 1895 to nearly £52,000; while the estimate for 1896, additional territory being now included, is nearly £60,000. The main source of revenue is the hut tax paid by the natives, which

[1] As to Kaffir cultivation, see Part I, p. 170, note 1.

yields more than two-thirds of the total annual receipts. By special arrangement Natal takes the customs duties on goods which enter Zululand across her border, and pays in lieu to the Zululand administration a sum of £1,800 per annum. The land revenue is growing in consequence of the opening up of the gold-fields, and postal receipts show an increase. On the expenditure side, the civil administration, including the Zululand police and public works, are the principal items; the net result being a considerable balance on the right side and no Public Debt. The currency of the country is British sterling. There are no trade returns owing to the arrangement aforesaid, by which all customs dues on the southern frontier are paid in Natal.

Population.

The native population of Zululand in 1895 was estimated at 198,000, and there were over one thousand European residents. In 1894 the natives numbered about thirteen to the square mile, or, excluding the uninhabited districts of the territory, between seventeen and eighteen to the square mile; but this estimate was framed before the colony and its population was enlarged by the incorporation of the Trans-Pongola districts. The very large majority of the natives are Zulus, but there is also in the Nqutu district a sprinkling of the Basuto race. The Zulus are showing themselves intelligent and not devoid of enterprise, seeking work and making money in many cases beyond their own land, more especially in the gold-fields of the Transvaal.

Religion.

Four Christian mission agencies have been for some time established in Zululand, by the English Church, the Norwegian Missionary Society, the Church of Norway Mission Society, and the Swedish Missionary Society [1]. Their schools are subsidised by the Government, and education has hitherto been entirely conducted on the grant-in-aid system. The English Church has the largest number of schools, including one industrial

Education.

[1] The Salvation Army also has a mission in Zululand, and the Roman Catholics have very recently begun mission work in the territory.

PART II. school at Eshowe, and one school at the same place for European children only. The Norwegian missionaries have also an industrial school at Eshowe, in which the natives are taught artisans' work in wood and iron. The growing increase in the European population due to the gold discoveries is creating a demand for more schools, and future years should show a considerable advance in educational work.

So far the record of Zululand under British Government has been distinctly satisfactory, and the condition of the people is wonderfully different from what it was in Chaka's days or under the later rule of Cetewayo. No longer organised to destroy, no longer banded in regiments or forbidden to marry except in accordance with the will of a fighting despot, the Zulu people are living in contentment and peace, and the strong qualities which made them a terror to their neighbours are now finding play, under European guidance, in the continuous development of the country and the steady improvement of its people.

AMATONGALAND.

Between the north-eastern frontier of Zululand and Portuguese territory, and between the Pongola River and the sea, lies that portion of Amatongaland which is under the Protectorate of Great Britain. The country and the people are at present little known, though white men in search of concessions have found their way into it, and British officers have been sent there on political missions. Its area has been stated to be about 2,000 square miles, and its population about 40,000. On its coast, in 26·53 south latitude, is the opening of the Kosi River, which has been sometimes talked of as a possible port in the future. The country is a continuation of the lowlands of northern Zululand, not rising above 300 feet,

sandy and swampy, thickly wooded in the interior, but badly watered and very unhealthy. In the wet season, from October or November to May or June, it is a fever-stricken land, to be shunned by Europeans. Less warlike than the Zulus and not of such fine physique, the Amatonga or Maputas, as they are also called, are more intelligent and more industrious, skilful with their hands, cultivating the ground to a much larger extent than the Zulus, and also going forth to work in Natal, the gold-fields, or at Delagoa Bay. Mealies or maize, millet, and ground-nuts are the chief articles of food, and palm wine is extracted from the trunks of the wild palms. Cattle thrive in the land but not horses, and wild game of various kinds is, or was till lately, to be found in the jungle. The trade of the country has been hitherto principally with Delagoa Bay.

The first step towards British administration of Amatongaland has been taken, by the passing of an Order in Council, dated June 29, 1896. This Order empowers the Special Commissioner of Amatongaland or Maputaland, acting under instructions from the Imperial Government, to appoint subordinate Executive and Judicial officers, and to legislate by Proclamation, due regard being had in civil matters to native law and custom. The Special Commissioner is the Governor of Zululand.

CHAPTER IV.

BASUTOLAND.

PART II.

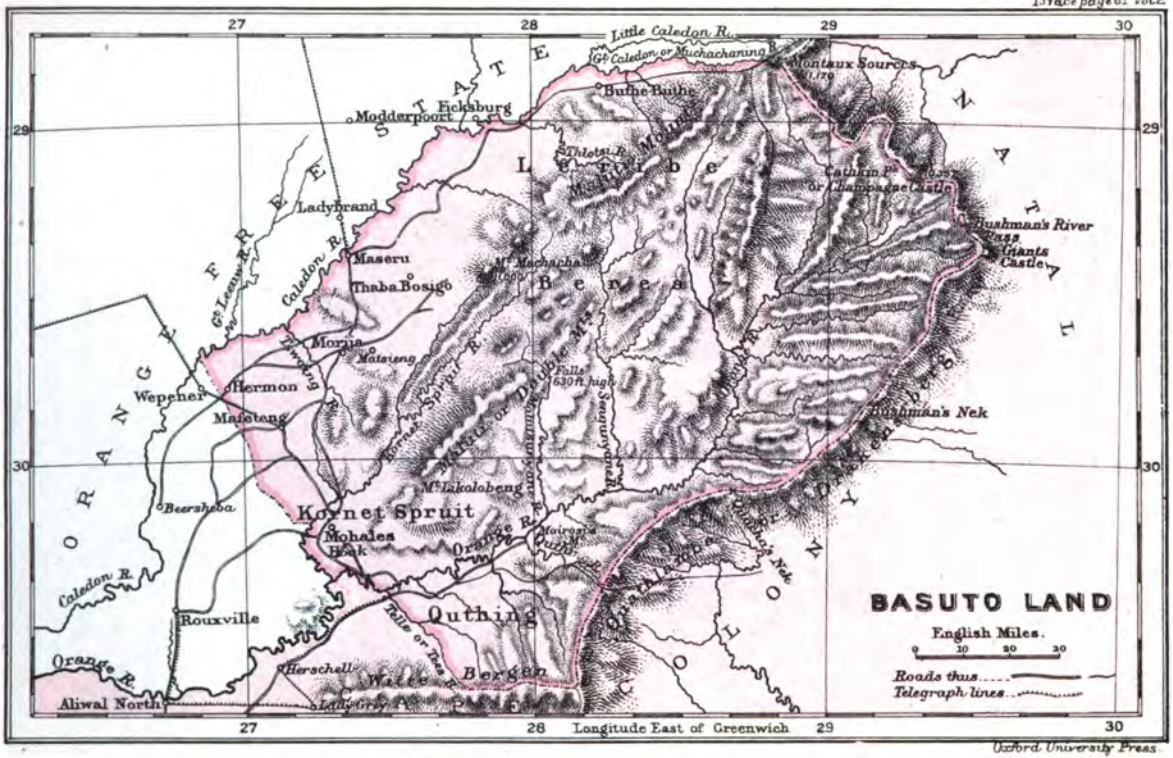
Recent history.

BASUTOLAND became British territory, and the Basutos British subjects, on March 12, 1868, under a Proclamation issued on that day by Sir Philip Wodehouse, who was then Governor of the Cape and High Commissioner. Moshesh, the great Basuto leader, to whose courage and statesmanship the Basutos owed their very existence as a people, was still alive at the time, but constant war with the Boers of the Orange Free State had brought him and his followers to the last stage of distress. Two thousand Basuto warriors had been killed, cattle had been carried off, native homes had been broken up and crops destroyed. The tribe was reduced to the position of starving refugees, and nothing could save them but the protection of the British Government, which they had repeatedly implored. That protection was at length given, in spite of the strong protests of the Orange Free State; by the Convention of Aliwal North, signed on February 12, 1869, a new boundary was defined between the Free State and the Basutos' country; and, narrowed in limits, Basutoland was acknowledged by the Boers to be a part of the Queen's dominions[1].

The Convention of Aliwal North.

At the time when Sir Philip Wodehouse put forth his Proclamation, it was contemplated to incorporate the Basuto territory with the colony of Natal, but to such a scheme Moshesh objected strongly, preferring annexation to the

[1] See Part I, p. 247.



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Cape Colony, and most of all desiring that his country should be kept as a native reserve under the direct control of the High Commissioner. For some two years this third course was adopted, and the Basutos were left very much to themselves under the supervision of an agent of the High Commissioner, who was mainly concerned in keeping peace on the border. The Imperial Government, however, desired that a more permanent arrangement should be made, and that Basutoland should be transferred either to the Cape Colony or to Natal. The question was referred to the Cape Parliament, and eventually that Parliament passed the Basutoland Annexation Act of 1871, by which the territory, whose boundaries were defined in the Act, was declared to be annexed to the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope. At the same time it was provided that the general law of the Cape Colony should not extend to Basutoland, but that the power of making laws for the territory should be vested in the Governor of the Cape.

Basutoland annexed to the Cape Colony.

For some years after the annexation Basutoland prospered, in charge of Colonel Griffith as the governor's agent, though the old chief Moshesh had passed away, leaving none to succeed him of equal character and influence. In 1879 troubles began. Moirosi, a chieftain in the south-eastern corner of the land, defied the officers of the law who had arrested his son, and broke out into open rebellion. Some difficult campaigning ensued, before his mountain stronghold was taken at the end of the year; and, when the fighting was over, a proposal by the colonial government to break up the disturbed district and introduce European settlers gave offence and caused alarm to the other Basuto clans. This discontent was increased in 1880 by a proclamation applying to Basutoland the Cape Peace Preservation Act of 1878, which involved the disarmament of the natives; and an attempt to enforce the Act brought on a general revolt, which spread into the other native territories on the eastern frontier

PART II.

of the Cape Colony. In the war which followed the colonial forces met with little success; and in 1881 the High Commissioner, Sir Hercules Robinson, arbitrated between the Cape Government and the Basutos, fining the latter 5,000 head of cattle, and ordering compensation to be paid by the tribe in general to those members of it who had not taken part in the uprising and had suffered in consequence. The award was accepted, but its terms were not fully carried out, by the Basuto people; the Cape Government made concessions, disarmament was abandoned, and a constitution was offered to the tribe. Still the Basutos were not reconciled to the colony and its government, and on their side the colonial ministers were tiring of an expensive and thankless charge. Accordingly, as a choice of evils, the Imperial Government consented provisionally to take over charge of the country, provided that the Basutos gave evidence of their desire to remain subjects of the British Crown, that the Orange Free State undertook to co-operate in maintaining the peace of the frontier, and that the Cape Colony agreed to contribute to the cost of administration a sum representing the value of the customs duties on goods imported for use in Basutoland. These conditions were fulfilled by all the parties concerned. A national gathering of the Basutos, held in November, 1883, assented to the change; the Cape parliament passed an Act for the disannexation of Basutoland from the Cape Colony, undertaking, by the terms of the Act, to pay over a sum not exceeding £20,000 per annum to the Imperial Government; and from March 13, 1884, Basutoland became, as it still remains, a British Colony under the direct control of the Crown.

Basutoland placed under the direct control of the Crown.

Government.

All legislative and executive authority over Basutoland is exercised by the High Commissioner in the name of the Queen. All laws of the territory are made by Proclamation of the High Commissioner, and all appointments, including those of Resident Commissioner, Assistant Commissioners, and

other officers, are made by him in the name and on behalf of Her Majesty. Under the High Commissioner there is a Resident Commissioner in the territory, whose headquarters are at Maseru; there are Assistant Commissioners in the different districts, a government secretary, medical officers, and officers of police. The country, however, is governed, as far as possible, through such native organisation as exists, being divided between different clans or groups of the tribe under their different chieftains, and Lerothodi, grandson of Moshesh, being recognised as paramount chief over the whole. A Pitso, or national assembly, is held once a year to discuss and explain matters of common interest.

Law and Justice.

The law of Basutoland, as enacted by the Proclamations of the High Commissioner, is, as nearly as the circumstances of the country permit, the law in force in the Cape Colony; but native law is administered by the native chiefs in both criminal and civil cases within certain defined limits. No suit to which an European is a party can be adjudicated upon by a native chief, except by consent of all parties concerned. Outside the limits of native jurisdiction, judicial and magisterial authority is vested in the Resident Commissioner, the Assistant Commissioners, and the inspectors of police. An appeal in purely native cases lies to a court composed of the chief who heard the case and of an Assistant Commissioner, and the ultimate court of appeal in all cases[1] is the Resident Commissioner.

Stringent regulations have been enacted for safeguarding Basutoland as a native reserve. Natives domiciled elsewhere in South Africa are not allowed to enter the country without passes, and residents in Basutoland who wish to leave the country must also provide themselves with passes. No person is allowed to trade in Basutoland without a license,

[1] Except in cases when an European has agreed to accept the jurisdiction of a native chief. In such a case he is debarred from any right of appeal.

PART II. and the introduction of spirituous liquors is strictly prohibited.

Area and Geography. Basutoland lies between 28·45 and 30·40 south latitude, and between 26·50 and 29·30 east longitude. In shape it is between a quadrilateral and an oval, its line of length being due north-east and south-west. Its extreme length is about 160 miles, and its extreme breadth under 100. Its area is given at 10,293 square miles, being about half the size of Natal and two-thirds of the size of Switzerland, a land of high mountains like itself. It is a purely inland territory, lying between the Orange Free State on the west and north, Natal on the north and east, and the Cape Colony on the east and south. The Caledon River bounds it on the north, and from the sources of the Caledon it is encircled east and south by the Drakensberg mountains. It is in the very heart of the highest mountains of South Africa. Where it borders on Natal are the Mont aux Sources, the Cathkin Peak or Champagne Castle, and the Giant's Castle, all rising to over or to nearly 10,000 feet[1]. Turning round the easternmost corner of Basutoland, the main range of the Drakensberg runs due south-west; and within Basutoland, parallel to this main range, run two subsidiary ranges, known as the Maluti mountains. These mountains with their outskirts occupy a large proportion of the total area of the territory.

The Drakensberg mountains.

The Maluti mountains.

Rivers. The chief rivers run south-west, parallel to the mountain ranges. The border river on the northern side is the Caledon, divided near its source into the Great and Little Caledon. Between the two lines of the Maluti mountains runs the main feeder of the Kornet Spruit River, which river joins the Orange River on the south-western boundary of Basutoland. Between the more southerly range of the Maluti mountains and the main range of the Drakensberg

[1] The exact heights are—Mont aux Sources, 11,170 feet; Cathkin Peak or Champagne Castle, 10,357 feet; Giant's Castle, 9,657 feet.

flow the head-waters of the Orange River, for both the Orange River and the Caledon rise among the high mountains which divide Basutoland from Natal. Into the Caledon, the Kornet Spruit, and the Orange River flow smaller streams from either side, their courses being for the most part at right angles to the main mountain ranges and the main river channels.

The greatest extent of comparatively open country is on the northern and western side of the territory, between the Caledon River and the Maluti mountains; the wildest and most completely mountainous districts are in the north-east and east, in the angle of the Drakensberg. The country, as a whole, is a plateau about 6,000 feet high, very rugged, very broken, encircled and intersected by high mountain ranges between which are upland valleys, fertile, well watered, and bare of wood and scrub.

The districts.

For administrative purposes the territory has been divided into six districts, each under an Assistant Commissioner. The residencies of three of these districts are on the north-western side of Basutoland. Of the three, Leribe is the northernmost district, next to which is Berea, and next to Berea Maseru. The other three districts are Mafeteng in the west, Kornet Spruit or Mohale's Hoek in the south-west, and Quthing in the south. There are also officers in charge at Butha Buthe in the extreme north, and Qacha's Nek in the extreme east.

Maseru.

The chief village and centre of administration is Maseru by the Caledon River, near to the Berea plateau well known in Basutoland history, and to Thaba Bosigo, once the stronghold of Moshesh[1], and over against Ladybrand, in the Orange Free State. The second village in size and importance is Mafeteng.

Climate.

Lying so high above the sea, Basutoland has a fine bracing climate. The winter, from May to August, is dry, with frosts at night. The rain falls principally in the summer time. In the year 1894–5 the average

[1] See Part I, pp. 190, 221.

PART II. rainfall of the territory was between 34 and 35 inches, but in some years the fall exceeds 40 inches. In the same year the maximum temperature registered 100° and the minimum 18°. The mean annual temperature is about 60°, but at times there is a very wide range of temperature, as much as 50° in the twenty-four hours.

Products. In spite of its mountains, Basutoland is a land of corn and a land of cattle and horses. The soil is good, the grass is rich, and the territory is the chief grain-producing area in South Africa. The Basuto horsemen, in the days of Moshesh, played a great part in the annals of South African warfare, and, unlike other natives of South Africa in this respect, the Basutos are at the same time agriculturists to a much greater extent than most of the Kaffir tribes. Coal has been found in the country, together with traces of iron and copper, and the coal is worked to a small extent for local purposes; but Basutoland has hitherto been fortunate, as far as its native inhabitants are concerned, in not having attracted European speculators on the ground of possessing great mineral wealth.

Finances. The revenue of the territory has largely increased since it was placed under the control of the Crown. In 1894–5 the total receipts amounted to £44,627. Nearly half of this total was contributed by the hut tax; and the other principal item is £18,000 paid over in lieu of the duties collected at the ports of the Cape Colony, Basutoland being, with the Cape Colony and the Orange Free State, a member of the South African Customs Union. Among minor items of revenue are licenses and post office receipts, though the posts and telegraphs, which are, for accounting purposes, under the Postmaster-General of the Cape Colony, do not yet pay their way. In 1895–6 the revenue amounted to £45,653.

On the expenditure side the heaviest items are the civil establishments and the police; and appreciable sums are laid out year by year on public works and roads, and on

education. There are balances from past years, and the country has no Public Debt. The currency is British sterling.

Trade.

The trade of Basutoland is almost entirely with the Orange Free State and the Cape Colony, the heights of the Drakensberg being a barrier to easy communication with Natal. The railway is reached at Winburg or Bloemfontein in the Orange Free State, and at Aliwal North in the Cape Colony. Telegraph lines have been carried into Basutoland, and both Maseru and Mafeteng have now telegraphic communication with Capetown. The imports are mainly goods from the United Kingdom, supplied through the ports of the Cape Colony. In the list of exports wheat stands first, bought for consumption in the neighbouring territories, and representing in value more than half the amount of the total exports. Mealies or maize take the second place, wool the third, and among minor articles of export are Kaffir corn, mohair, cattle, and horses.

Population.

At the census of 1891 the population of Basutoland numbered 218,902, of whom 218,144 were aboriginal natives, and 578 Europeans. The most populous districts were those of Leribe, Maseru, and Mafeteng. The native population has since increased rapidly, by immigration as well as by natural increase, and in 1895 was estimated at 250,000. There is now a danger of over-population, as the habitable and cultivable area is limited. Land which was formerly reserved for grazing is being ploughed up, and the live stock which, like the population, has largely increased in numbers, is deteriorating from want of sufficient pasturage. The same pressure of population upon the land tends to keep alive, and sometimes to embitter, the intertribal disputes which are the bane of Basutoland. Questions of chieftainship and inheritance, and of demarcation of land between different clans and families, absorb much of the attention of the Resident Commissioner and his officers, and the more the land is taken up the more such disputes are likely to

PART II. recur. For, progressive and industrious as the Basutos are—beyond any other natives in South Africa—they are conservative and tenacious as regards their country, their land claims, and their tribal customs, suspicious of interference, and quarrelsome towards one another. They are not an easy people to influence and control; they make money in and out of their own land; they accumulate wealth and property, and know its value; they are essentially native owners, and jealously guard their own. To keep the peace, to prohibit drunkenness, to facilitate trade by improving and multiplying roads and other means of communication, to promote industrial education, for which a demand has arisen among the natives themselves, to improve the breed of the livestock, and to induce better methods of agriculture, these are at the present time the main objects of the administration[1].

Religion. Missionary influence has for many years been strong in Basutoland, indeed missionaries played no small part, as friends and advisers of Moshesh, in consolidating his power and organising his people. The chief mission agency has been the Paris Evangelical Mission Society, which, according to the census returns of 1891, claimed an average Sunday attendance of 13,450, against an attendance of 1860 at Roman Catholic places of worship, and 1,080 at the missions of the Church of England. Morija, in the west of Basutoland between Maseru and Mafeteng, is the head station of the French Pro-

Education. testants. Out of nearly 150 schools in the territory only two are undenominational schools belonging to the Government; all the others are connected with the missionary societies, and are in receipt of grants in aid, the very large majority having been established by the French Protestant missionaries. Attention is given to industrial training for boys and girls

[1] It is a sign of the progress which is being made that agricultural shows have lately been held with success at the magisterial stations in Basutoland.

alike, and a number of boys are sent by the Government to be trained as artisans at the Lovedale institution in the Cape Colony.

If growth of population, and increase of pastoral and agricultural wealth, are a sure index to the progress being made by a native community, then Basutoland has thriven in a very marked degree under the control of the British Government. The success which has been attained is the result of tact and good management on the part of the officers in charge, who have won the confidence of the natives, and governed them through their recognised chiefs, as arbitrators and advisers rather than as white men lording it over black. Basutoland is a country with turbulent elements, where in a limited space native difficulties are constantly arising, not easy to adjust; but, owing to the influence which a very few British officers have exercised over the mountaineers of South Africa, the territory affords pleasing evidence of the extent to which native races, when wisely handled, grow in numbers and in substance under European supervision.

CHAPTER V.

THE BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE, MATABELELAND AND MASHONALAND.

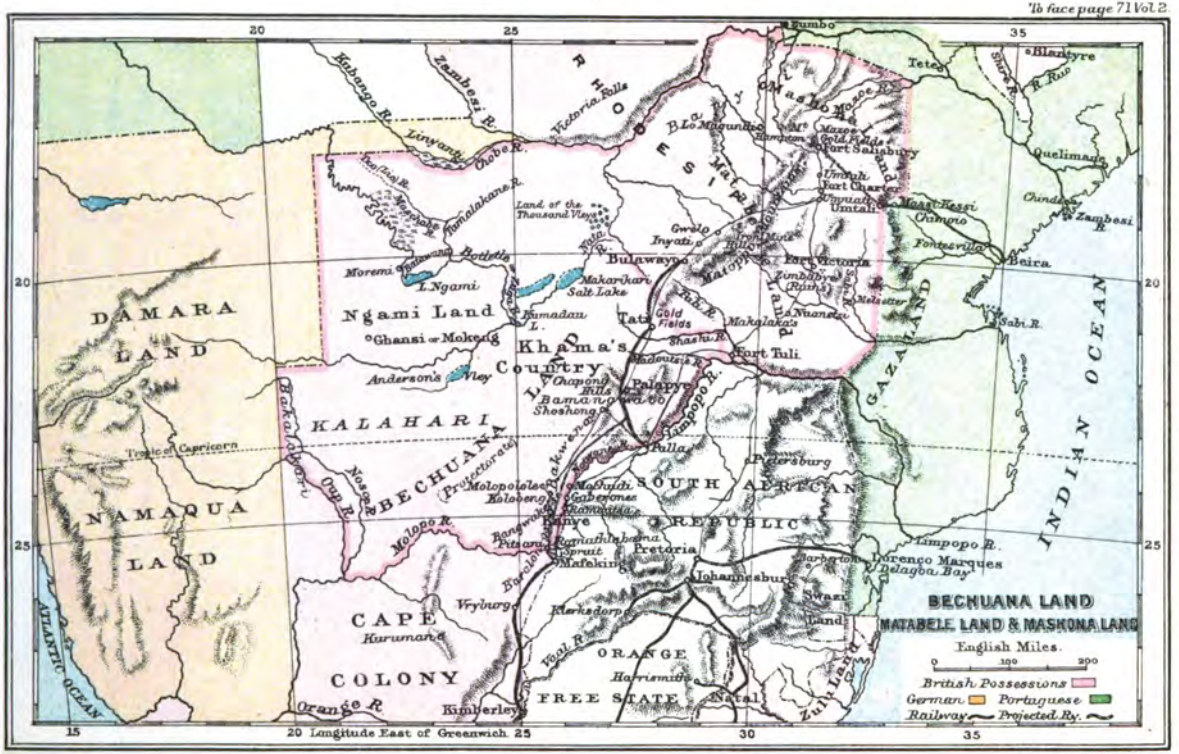
PART II.

NORTH of the Cape Colony, in which British Bechuanaland is now included, a British Protectorate stretches to the Zambesi. It extends also beyond the Zambesi, but that river may be taken to be geographically the northern limit of South Africa. This territory has for its western boundary the German Protectorate. On the north it is bounded by the rivers Chobe and Zambesi. On the east, between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, it is conterminous with the Portuguese possessions in East Africa; and, when the Limpopo is reached, it is bounded on the south and east by the South African Republic.

Boundaries.

Area.

The total area between these limits is estimated to be over 400,000 square miles. Of this total, some 220,000 square miles are comprised in the western section, the country of the Bechuanas, while the remainder, amounting to 192,000 square miles, represents the north-eastern portion of the territory, the plateau of Matabeleland and Mashonaland, the area of Matabeleland being estimated at 78,000 square miles, and that of Mashonaland at 114,000. Matabeleland and Mashonaland form two out of the three provinces into which the British South Africa Company have divided their territories, the third being Northern Zambesia, and the three together being given by the Company the common name of Rhodesia. The whole of Matabeleland and Mashonaland is



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administered by the Company, subject to the terms of their charter, to Orders in Council, and to such conditions as have recently been laid down by the Imperial Government.

The Bechuanaland Protectorate.

The northernmost town of the Cape Colony is Mafeking on the Molopo River, about seventeen miles south of the border. A straight line drawn due north from Mafeking will pass through the Victoria Falls on the Zambesi. Mafeking is very little to the north of 26° south latitude, and the Victoria Falls are just north of 18°. The Falls therefore are about 550 miles due north of Mafeking. The straight line drawn as suggested will run through territory owned or claimed by Bechuana tribes, but far the greater part of the area in question is desert land, and the Bechuana kraals or towns are to be found mainly on its eastern side, towards the frontier of the South African Republic.

The Bechuana clans.

The Baralong.

The Bangwaketse.

Kanye.

Taking the clans from south to north; the Baralong, whose best-known chief was Montsioa, are the southernmost, located on either side of the Molopo. North of the Baralong are the Bangwaketse and the Bamalete. Bathoen is the chief of the Bangwaketse, and his town is Kanye, in 24·57 south latitude, sixty-six miles due north of Mafeking, to the west of the railway and telegraph route. It stands on a plateau, about 200 feet above the surrounding country, and 3,750 feet above the level of the sea, the slopes of the hill being wooded, steep, and on two sides precipitous. Below the hill are detached villages and a church and mission station, and below it also is the water supply, which is fairly plentiful. East of Kanye, on the direct route to the north, seventy-seven miles from Mafeking, is Ramoutsa the town of the Bamalete, whose chief is Ikaneng; and nineteen miles due north of Ramoutsa is the station of Gaberones. Beyond the country of the Bangwaketse and the Bamalete is the country of the Bakwena and of the Bakhatla, the latter being a small clan which has moved out of the South African Republic and occupied a corner of the Bakwena territory on

The Bamalete.

Ramoutsa.

PART II.

the Transvaal border. Sebele is the chief of the Bakwena, and his town is Molepolole, but Gaberones is also within his borders. The Bakhatla town is Mochudi, and Lenchwe is heir chief. Molepolole, situated in 24·26 south latitude, is, like Kanye, a large native centre, lying to the west of the direct route to the north. It stands 4,000 feet above sea level. It is over fifty miles north of Kanye, and about forty miles west of Mochudi, Mochudi being on the main telegraph and railway route, twenty-six miles north of Gaberones, and forty-five miles north of Ramoutsa. In Bakwena territory, about twenty miles south-east of Molepolole, is the old mission station of Kolobeng, where in years gone by David Livingstone lived and taught[1]. North and north-east of the Bakwena and the Bakhatla is the Bamangwato country, ruled over by Khama, the strongest and best-known of the Bechuana chiefs. His old town was at Shoshong, on the slopes of two parallel ranges of hills, about 120 miles north-east of Molepolole, at the junction of the northern trade route to the Zambesi and the north-western route to Lake Ngami; but, the water supply being short and the sanitary conditions unsatisfactory, he moved a few years ago over forty miles to the north-east, to his present town of Palapye. Palapye, in 22·37 south latitude, stands on the northern slopes of the Chapong hills, at an elevation of 3,150 feet above the sea. In order to avoid overcrowding, the town is widely spread, being four miles in length, it has a supply of wholesome water and is fairly healthy. From Mochudi it is 171 miles distant, and from Mafeking 293. Its distance from Bulawayo is 210 miles. Beyond Palapye the Bamangwato country, as defined in 1895, extends towards the east across the Macloutsie River, a little above its junction with the Limpopo, to the confluence of the Shashi and the Tuli Rivers. On the north it is bounded by the Shashi River up to its source, whence the boundary line runs in a northerly direction

The Bakwena.

Molepolole.

The Bakhatla.

Mochudi.

The Bamangwato.

Palapye.

[1] See Part I, p. 217.

to the rivers which flow, or rather whose channels lead, from the north-east into the Makarikari Salt Lake. The line then skirts the eastern and southern shores of that lake to the point where the Botletle or Zuga River joins that lake, and thence follows the course of the Botletle to the north-west, to its junction with the Tamalakane River, less than fifty miles distant from Lake Ngami. The north-eastern district of this territory, between the Macloutsie and the Shashi Rivers, was a few years ago in dispute between the Bamangwato and their constant foes the Matabele. Close to Khama's boundary line, but outside it, are the Tati gold-fields, about ninety miles due north of Palapye; while Fort Tuli, belonging to the British South Africa Company, is also just beyond the border, 138 miles north-east of Palapye. North of the Bamangwato territory and the Makarikari Lake a more or less desert land extends to the basin of the Zambesi.

Tati.

The cattle posts of the Bechuana tribes which have been enumerated above, the Bangwaketse, the Bakwena, and the Bamangwato, are carried far to the west into the Kalahari desert. The Kalahari extends for hundreds of miles, with a very few nomad inhabitants, Kaffirs and Bushmen, who live by hunting, and who, under the general name of Bakalahari, are in some sort serfs of the Bechuana chiefs and their peoples. In short, with one exception, the Bechuana Protectorate[1], so far as is at present known, consists of a strip of country on the eastern frontier, where, at long intervals, there is a series of Bechuana settlements, and of an enormous tract of little-known territory, in great measure arid desert, uninhabited or most sparsely peopled by a few nomads. The exception is Ngamiland in the north-west, Lake Ngami being about 500 miles from the nearest point on the northern trade route. Near its shores an offshoot of the Bamangwato established themselves a generation or more ago. They are known as the Batawana, and their present chief Sekhome is

The Kalahari.

Ngamiland.

The Batawana.

[1] The term is here used as exclusive of Matabeleland and Mashonaland.

PART II. a nephew of Khama. Raided by the Matabele, Sekhome's father Moremi found a refuge in the malarious swamps which surround the lake; but of late years the tribe have come more into the open, claiming the lands round the lake, and the territory which lies to the north between the lake and the Chobe River, and raiding in their turn the weaker native tribes who come within their 'sphere of influence.' Feverish and unhealthy as is the immediate neighbourhood of Lake Ngami, there is a district about 100 miles south-west of the lake, which has been lately reached by a band of trekkers, and found to be in climate and in other respects suitable for *Ghansi.* settlement by white men. This is the Ghansi or Mokeng district, where, for a radius of sixty miles round the Ghansi pan or vley, there is good grazing country on a flat surface, well supplied with open pools though not with running water, fairly well timbered, and healthy for men and cattle, though not for horses. The natives of this far-off district are Bushmen, who have suffered much at the hands of the people of the lake.

The whole of the territory now being described is part of the continental plateau of Africa, and its average level is at least 3,000 feet above the sea. The eastern part is fairly fertile in parts, and in parts well wooded; it is plain country broken by occasional ranges of hills. The Kalahari desert is no doubt in great measure desert properly so called; but, as knowledge spreads, grass and timber are found where they were not supposed to exist. The greater part of the Kalahari, and the southernmost section of the inhabited part of the Protectorate, drains, if it drains at all, to the Orange River through the channels of the Oup, the Nosop, and the Molopo. North of Kanye and Ramoutsa, on the eastern side of the Protectorate, the land slopes downwards to the north-east, and drains into the Limpopo, the chief feeders of that river within the Protectorate being the Notwane, which flows in a north-easterly direction, and joins the Limpopo near the station of Palla almost on the Tropic of Capricorn, and

the Macloutsie River further north, flowing with an easterly course into the Limpopo. Far north of Palapye, at about 22° south latitude, the watershed of the Zambesi is reached; but there is an intervening tract of country stretching away to the westward, which, as far as is known, has no outlet to the ocean, except, it may be, at times of unusual overflow. At one end of this land-locked basin is the Makarikari Lake or salt pan, from which the head-waters of the Macloutsie River have sometimes been held to flow, and at the other end is Lake Ngami, the two lakes being connected by the channel of the Botletle River, which flows out of Lake Ngami, that lake being in turn fed by a branch of the Kubango river[1]. There are numerous other lakes or vleys scattered through the Kalahari, such as Anderson's Vley, due south of Lake Ngami, and Kumadau Lake, south-west of the Makarikari, on the line of the Botletle River; and the desert district north-east of the Makarikari has been known as the land of the Thousand Vleys. But to write of this region is to write of a hardly known land, and of a land whose geographical features have changed and are probably still in course of change.

Climate.

The greater part of the Bechuana Protectorate, including Khama's country and Ngamiland, is within the tropics; the climate is therefore hot, but it is a dry heat, and not unhealthy except in the neighbourhood of the great rivers, the Limpopo and the Zambesi, and in the marshes round Lake Ngami and along the course of the Botletle River. The great difficulty is ever the want of an ample supply of good water, and the trade routes lead from pool to pool, often with long distances intervening.

Population and condition of the people.

The native population of the whole Protectorate probably does not much exceed 100,000, of whom more than half, say 60,000, live in its southern section. In the north Khama's

[1] Lake Ngami is said to be gradually drying up. The area of open water is less than 100 miles in length.

PART II. subjects number about 25,000, of whom some 15,000 have their dwelling-place at Palapye, while another 10,000 are scattered at various hamlets and cattle stations within a radius of 200 miles from the town. The population of Ngamiland may be taken to be about 10,000. In addition to the natives, some four to five hundred Europeans, trekkers, traders, missionaries, and employés of the Government or of private companies may be computed at any given time as living within the limits of the Bechuana Protectorate. The natives tend their cattle or grow their crops of maize or of native corn, but of late the cattle have been killed off in large numbers by rinderpest, and drought and locusts preclude agriculture on any extensive scale. Such trade as now exists is in cattle, hides, and grain; ivory and other produce of the chase having almost disappeared with the extinction of large game. The development of Matabeleland and Mashonaland has led to a considerable amount of transit traffic, and, especially among the Bamangwato, employment has been found for waggons and draught oxen; but, with the construction of the railway, this business is likely to decrease. No minerals in any paying quantities have been found within the Protectorate. Boundary disputes between the respective chiefs and their followers have been frequent from time to time, and have been arbitrated upon by the officers of the Queen. Jealous of their lands and of possible European encroachment, the Bechuanas have shown themselves on the whole very amenable to the authority and guidance of the High Commissioner and his deputies, looking to the Imperial Government for advice and protection, and accepting their decisions with loyalty and confidence. That Christianity has been a real force in the land is shown by the example of Khama, who in earlier days risked much for his religion, and who, under the guidance of Mr. Hepburn, a missionary now no longer with him, ruled and still rules his people firmly and well; a determined foe of strong liquor,

Missionary Work.

a friend of education, and an enlightened and far-seeing man. In many cases it may be allowed that the Christianity engrafted upon the Bechuana tribes has a considerable alloy of native superstition; but none the less it has had a softening and a civilising influence, even where the conversion may only have been skin-deep. The chief share of the work must be credited to the London missionaries, but other agencies have also been in the field. At Mochudi there is a minister of the Dutch Reformed Church, and at Ramoutsa there are German missionaries. What will be the future of the Bechuana peoples, when a railway runs through their midst, it is difficult to forecast. At present, living pastoral and agricultural lives on what are large native reserves, removed from towns and mining centres, they dwell safely under the tribal system to which they have ever been accustomed, occasionally disputing among themselves, often suffering from bad seasons, but no longer raided either by black or by white men.

Matabeleland and Mashonaland.

Matabeleland and Mashonaland[1] lie between the Zambesi and the Limpopo on the north and south, between the Bechuanas' country and the Portuguese possessions on the west and east, the eastern frontier being defined by the Anglo-Portuguese agreement of 1891. The western part is Matabeleland proper. The eastern section of the territory is Mashonaland, where, with the permission of King Lobengula, who claimed it, the British South Africa Company first established themselves. The territory is accessible either from the east or from the south. On the east the starting-point is the Pungwe river in Portuguese territory, with the port of Beira at its mouth. Forty miles[2] up the river is

The Eastern route to Mashonaland.

[1] By a Proclamation of the Chartered Company, dated May 1, 1895, 'The territories now or hereafter placed under the control of the British South Africa Company shall be named collectively Rhodesia. The provinces at the present time included in the territory of Rhodesia are Mashonaland, Matabeleland, and Northern Zambesia.'

[2] Thirty-five and a half by railway trace, forty-five by river.

PART II. Fontesvilla, the starting-point of a railway constructed by the company, and now being extended at both ends down to the sea at Beira and inland towards Fort Salisbury. At the time of writing the line is open for 118 miles, from Fontesvilla to Chimoio, crossing the low country infested by the tsetse fly, which is deadly to animals of transport. From Chimoio to Umtali, the first township on the eastern side of the Chartered Company's territories, is a distance of 77 miles, and from Umtali to Salisbury 149 miles, the whole distance from Beira to Salisbury being thus 384 miles, rather less than the distance from London to Edinburgh. Fort Salisbury is the chief town in Mashonaland properly so called. From the south the Chartered Company's railway is being carried through the Bechuanaland Protectorate as already described, the distances being from Mafeking to Bulawayo, in round numbers, 500 miles, rather less than the distance from London to Aberdeen; and from Mafeking to Salisbury via Tuli, Victoria, and Charter, 819 miles. There is also a route through the South African Republic, the distance from Pretoria through Pietersburg to the Chartered Company's station at Tuli, near the Limpopo River, which divides their territories from the Transvaal, being about 350 miles. The total distance by this last route from Pretoria to Bulawayo is about 500 miles, the same distance as from Mafeking to Bulawayo; and the distance from Pretoria to Salisbury is about 740 miles.

The routes from the south.

Within the territory itself, Bulawayo is the western centre, Salisbury the north-eastern, and Tuli the southernmost station. From Tuli to Bulawayo is a distance of 140 to 150 miles. From Tuli to Salisbury is a distance of 388 miles, the route passing through Nuanetsi, Victoria, and Charter. Victoria is 200 miles north-east of Tuli, and 188 miles due south of Salisbury; and between Victoria and Salisbury is Fort Charter, 123 miles due north of Victoria, 65 miles due south of Salisbury. From Bulawayo to

Distances within the territory.

Salisbury there is a more northerly and more direct route, 278 miles in length, passing through Gwelo, which is about 110 miles from Bulawayo, and joining the former route at Fort Charter.

Geography.

Matabeleland and Mashonaland consist in the main of a large plateau, which is really a continuation of the plateau of the South African Republic, and which has an average level of 3,500 to 4,000 feet. It is reached by a gradual ascent from the south and west, but is steep towards the north and east, and in the Umtali district, on the eastern frontier, some of the mountain tops rise to a height of 7,000 and 8,000 feet. The plateau is crossed diagonally by the range of the Matoppo mountains, which run for some 400 miles from the Tati district in the south-west to Mount Hampden in the north-east. This range is the water parting between the streams which run north to the Zambesi, and those which run south to the Limpopo and Sabi Rivers. Tati, which is not within the limits of the Company's territory, lies at the foot of the mountains at their south-western end, at a height of from 2,600 to 2,700 feet above the sea. The level of Bulawayo, on the northern slope of the range, is about 3,500 feet. Victoria, on the south-eastern side of the mountains, is 3,670 feet high, and at their north-eastern end, the ground on which the town of Salisbury stands just reaches the level of 5,000 feet. Granite boulders and kopjes or knolls are widely scattered through the table-land, the rivers are many, there is in parts fine timber, there is rich pasturage, a fertile soil, and there are abundant indications of mineral wealth.

The Matoppo mountains.

Climate.

The whole of the territory is within the tropics, but, in spite of the heat, the climate, owing to the height of the land above the sea, is in most parts and at most times of the year healthy for Europeans. The high veldt of Matabeleland is said to be more healthy than some of the Mashonaland districts, as having been more depastured; for, where the

PART II.

grass is higher and the vegetation more luxuriant, the end of the rainy season threatens malarial fever. The average range of temperature on the plateau has been stated to be from 36° to 86°, though the thermometer rises at times to over 100° in the shade. At Bulawayo the average temperature is about 70°, and the average annual rainfall nearly 40 inches. The rainy season is from November to the end of March; the winter months are from May to August; the prevailing wind, cold in winter, is from the south-east.

Pasturage and agriculture.

The table-land of Matabeleland is well suited for sheep-farming, and that cattle thrive there, as a rule, in spite of rinderpest and other forms of sickness, has already been proved by the large herds which were owned by the Matabele. There is also specially good pastoral country in the eastern districts of Mashonaland, in and above the Sabi valley. These last districts promise well for agriculture, the reports from the Melsetter[1] settlement 100 miles due south of Umtali, to the east of the Sabi River and on the frontier of Gazaland, being very encouraging. Here is a fertile soil, rich grass country, high table-lands, and wooded valleys with a plentiful water supply. The timber of the district is fine, and among other trees are those whose bark can be used for tanning. It may fairly be said of the whole territory that it has considerable pastoral and agricultural capabilities. All kinds of grain, including wheat, can be grown, and all kinds of vegetables, European as well as sub-tropical. In the neighbourhood of Bulawayo and Salisbury market gardening has been carried on to a considerable extent; and in some parts, such as the Melsetter district, tobacco has been successfully grown. The drawbacks to agriculture hitherto have been, in addition to difficulty of transport, locusts and occasional deficiency of rainfall. But as a rule the water supply is quite adequate, and there are ample facilities for irrigation.

The Melsetter Settlement.

[1] Melsetter, the scene of the Moodie Trek, takes its name from an estate in the Orkney Islands.

It is a land where European farmers can live and work in health and strength, and where, as far as can be judged at present, nature will well repay the handiwork of man.

Minerals.

It is, however, to the mineral wealth of the region, actual or prospective, that public attention has been mainly directed. The traces of old workings, found throughout the country, testify to its having been in past times exploited in search of gold. Hitherto mining has been hampered by long distances and want of communication, implying the absence of adequate machinery, but the existence of gold and other minerals in large quantities is beyond dispute. Gold is the principal mineral, but others also are plentiful. There are large coal areas, iron is indicated by the name of Iron Mine Hill, and lead and copper ore have been discovered. Gold is found throughout the territory from the extreme south-west to the extreme north-east, on the eastern frontier near Umtali, and towards the south-east near Victoria. The principal gold-bearing districts are those of Bulawayo and Gwelo in Matabeleland, and in Mashonaland, Lo Magundi, Manica or Umtali, Mazoe, Salisbury, Umfuli, and Victoria. The number of claims registered and the number of companies formed to work the claims is legion, but it is too soon to attempt to estimate the value of the mines in the Chartered Company's territories.

Population.

In the Company's report for 1894–5 the native population of Matabeleland was estimated at 160,000. No estimate has been given of the native population of Mashonaland. From the date when the Matabele kingdom beyond the Limpopo was established between fifty and sixty years ago, until Lobengula's regiments were broken by the South Africa Company's forces, the native races of these territories were constantly raided by the Matabele, and large numbers must have been exterminated or carried into slavery. Three separate peoples, other than the Matabele, have their home between the Limpopo and Zambesi, all of Bantu stock and

PART II. akin to one another, but differing alike from the Zulus and the Bechuanas. In the south, between the Matoppo mountains and the Limpopo, are the Makalakas; in the north-west the Banyai; and in the north-east the Mashonas. The Matabele themselves are no longer of pure Zulu blood, but have become intermixed with the tribes which they have conquered and enslaved. In Eastern Mashonaland there is also a certain number of Barotse immigrants of Bechuana origin from beyond the Zambesi, and Basutos have found their way across the southern frontier into the Tuli district.

The Mashonas may be taken to be the typical native race in this part of South Africa. Degraded by Matabele oppression they are not strong physically or morally. On the other hand they are industrious agriculturists and clever in native handicrafts, not unpromising subjects for British rule. The white population of Matabeleland and Mashonaland has grown rapidly. At the end of March 1895, the town of Bulawayo contained 1,500 European residents, and the town and district combined over 3,600. At the same date the town of Salisbury, which had suffered by the rise of Bulawayo as an European township, contained 500 Europeans, and the town and district combined over 700. Victoria had about 60 European residents, the Umtali district between 200 and 300, and some 300 farmers had settled in the district of Melsetter. At the present time, in spite of the recent disturbances, the total European population of Matabeleland and Mashonaland is estimated at nearly 6,000, Bulawayo containing over 1,600 European civilian residents.

Administration. Rhodesia has been governed by the British South Africa Company on Crown Colony lines. The powers of the Company, subject to recent modifications, are defined in their Charter and in Orders in Council. The supreme authority, under the Imperial Government, is vested in the Court of Directors in London. In South Africa there is an Adminis-

trator, whose appointment requires the Secretary of State's approval, and he is assisted by a Council consisting of four members, who must also be approved by the Secretary of State. One of the four is the judge of the territories, who is a Member of Council ex officio; the other three are nominated for two years only.

Law and justice.

Justice is administered by a High Court and by magistrates, the territories being divided into magisterial districts. The law is, as nearly as the circumstances of the country permit, the law which was in force in the Cape Colony on July 18, 1894, when the Matabeleland Order in Council was passed, except so far as it had then been modified by Order in Council, Proclamation, or Ordinance, and so far as it has since been modified by Orders in Council and Proclamations made by the High Commissioner under such Orders, by Ordinances of the Company which have been approved by the Secretary of State, and by Regulations of the Administrator in Council which have been approved by the High Commissioner, published in the Gazette, and not disallowed within one year by either the Company or the Secretary of State. In civil cases between natives, the judges and magistrates are guided as far as possible by native law and custom, and may be advised by native assessors. The police and any armed forces are now under the direct control of the Imperial Government.

The various distri ts into which the territories have been divided are in ch:rge of Civil Commissioners, most of whom are also magistrates. There are mining commissioners and native commissioners. Public works and survey departments have been organised, and the post offices and telegraphs give constantly growing work, telegraph communication being steadily carried on to the north beyond the Zambesi through the intervening strip of Portuguese territory.

Schools have been opened, churches have been built, and various missions are at work, the Church of England, the

PART II. Dutch Reformed Church, the Wesleyans, and the Roman Catholics all being represented. Medical officers are stationed at the principal centres, and the hospitals include a fine building at Bulawayo erected in memory of those who fell in the Matabele campaign.

Ancient remains in Mashonaland.

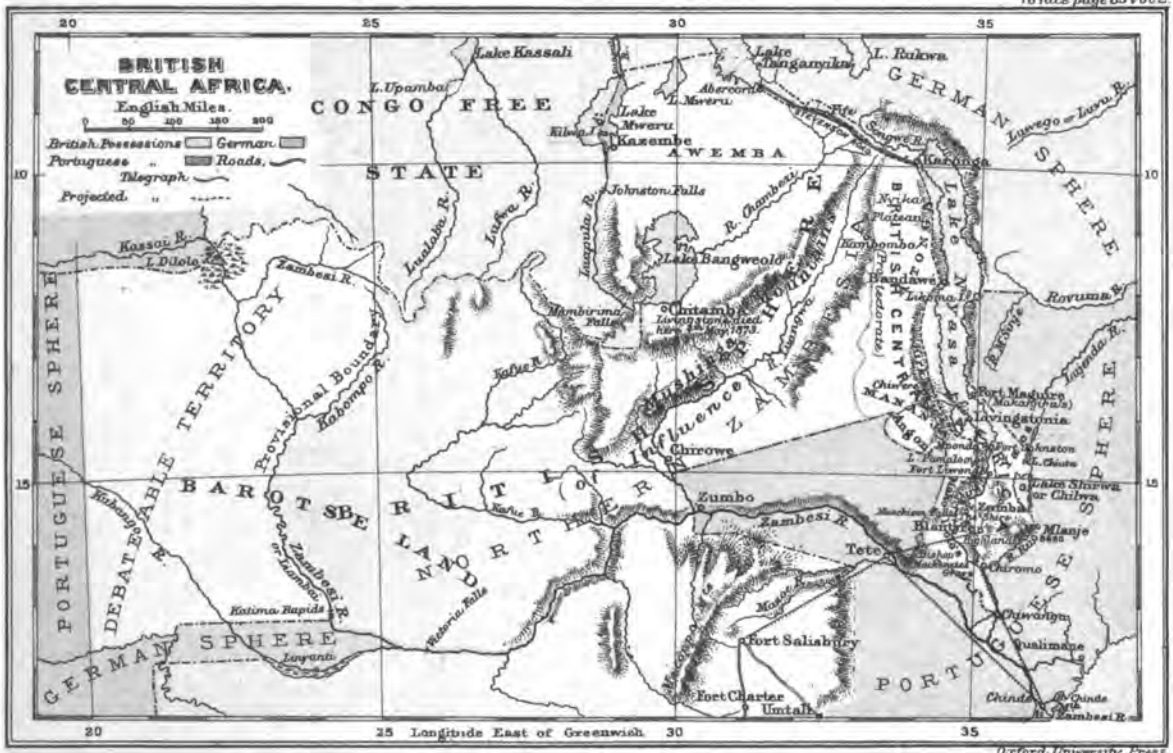
Interesting in its present development and in its future prospects, this region between the Limpopo and the Zambesi has an interest also for the antiquarian. Near Victoria, on sloping grounds, are the ruins of Zimbabye with circular walls and a conical tower, the remains of ages long gone by, and other ruins have been found elsewhere in the territory. Pieces of sculpture and pottery have been discovered, and the judgment of experts is that they are the work of Sabaean Arabs before the days of Mohammedanism and long before the time when Europeans first set foot in South Africa. Early gold seekers, we may believe, found their way into this land which a Chartered Company has opened anew, and it is not wholly fanciful to identify Rhodesia with the Land of Ophir.

Note.—The following is the present position of railways and telegraphs in Rhodesia (October 1896).

1. East Coast railway. The section from Chimoio, the present terminus, to the Portuguese boundary (about 55 miles) is now in hand and is expected to be completed by the end of 1896. A contract for the further section from the frontier to Umtali is being arranged, and this line is expected to approach completion by June 1897.

2. Bechuanaland railway. Palapye will, it is hoped, be reached by March 1897, and Bulawayo by December 1897.

3. The telegraph line north of Rhodesia has reached Zomba in the British Central Africa Protectorate. The break between Tete on the Portuguese frontier and Salisbury will, if conditions of labour are favourable, be completed by the end of 1896. The line will then be extended northwards from Zomba to Fort Johnston, thence to Karonga at the head of Lake Nyasa, thence to Abercorn; and it is anticipated—provided conditions of transport and labour be favourable for continuous work—that the line could be finished as far northward as Lake Tanganyika by September 1897.



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SECTION II.

BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA.

BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA nowhere touches the sea. Hence, unlike the Cape Colony, with which it is now united by a continuous stretch of territory under British rule or influence, and unlike British East Africa, the coast-line of which has been known since the days of the early Portuguese sailors, it has no ancient history. Like British East Africa, it contains great lakes and is the birthplace of a mighty river, but the lakes alike in East and Central Africa are far removed from the coast, and in both cases were only discovered when the present century was well advanced. European knowledge of the region, which is now British Central Africa, dates from the journeys of David Livingstone [1].

Livingstone's discoveries.

In November, 1853, Livingstone left Linyanti, situated in what is now German Protectorate south of the Zambesi; and, with the help of the king of the Barotse country, worked his way up the Zambesi or Liambai, as the river is called in its course through Barotseland. The upper part of the Zambesi he found to be lined with thick forest; the climate

[1] The Portuguese had stations on the Zambesi, and the Jesuits had a station as far up as Zumbo. In 1798, a Dr. Lacerda penetrated as far as Kazembe's country, near Lake Mweru, and in 1802–11 two Portuguese half-castes crossed the continent from Angola to Tete, but neither politically nor geographically did these expeditions leave any traces. Indeed, Livingstone found that the Portuguese were quite ignorant even of the course of the Shire, and it may be considered certain that none of the great lakes were discovered by them.

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was unhealthy; the navigation difficult even for canoes. Pushing on through the marshes of the Luvale country, he entered the Portuguese Sphere, and finally reached St. Paul de Loanda, the capital of Portuguese West Africa.

Returning in 1854, he travelled down the Zambesi and discovered the Victoria Falls. In the course of this journey he found that the Portuguese, on the eastern side of Africa, had no post higher up than Tete, having abandoned Zumbo, which was not reoccupied till 1879. He reached the sea in safety, and came back to England in 1856. At home he was received with enthusiasm, and a lecture which he delivered at Cambridge resulted in the founding of the Universities Mission to Central Africa. The Government appointed him to be Her Majesty's Consul at Quelimane for the East Coast of Africa south of Zanzibar and for the independent districts of the interior, and he was at the same time placed in charge of an exploring expedition, to which was attached Dr. Kirk, afterwards Sir John Kirk, for many years British Consul at Zanzibar.

In 1858 he started up the Zambesi again, and in the following year traced the course of the Shire River, then quite unknown, as far as the Murchison Rapids; discovered the salt lake Chilwa or Shirwa; and, crossing over the Shire Highlands, found Lake Nyasa.

In 1860 he once more pushed up the Zambesi, finding that the alien Makololo power in Barotseland was already breaking up[1]; and in 1861, having helped the new Universities Mission under Bishop Mackenzie to establish themselves at Magomero, to the east of the Shire Highlands, he went on to explore the western shore of Lake Nyasa. Owing partly to the inherent difficulties of the undertaking, partly to inexperience and consequent mismanagement, the new mission met with a series of disasters. Bishop

[1] Sekeletu, the Makololo king, died in 1864, and the Barotses then reasserted their independence.

Mackenzie died, with other members of the mission, and his successor, Bishop Tozer, removed the seat of the mission to Zanzibar.

Livingstone's last journey.

In 1863 the British Government ordered Livingstone home, and next year he was again in London. In 1866 he started on his last journey, with the rank of Her Majesty's Consul to the chiefs and tribes of Central Africa. He struck inland up the Rovuma River, now the boundary between the Portuguese and German Spheres in East Africa, and, working round the southern end of Lake Nyasa, journeyed to the north-west and north. He crossed the Luangwa River, one of the chief tributaries of the Zambesi, the range of the Mushinga mountains, and the Chambezi River, which flows into Lake Bangweolo, and emerges from it under the name of Luapula; and at length he reached the southern end of Lake Tanganyika. From that lake he went west and south, and, after visiting Lake Mweru or Moero and Kazembe's fertile country, discovered Lake Bangweolo. Deeply impressed with the belief that the sources of the Nile could be traced in what is now known to be the Congo Basin, he continued his work of discovery, in spite of failing health, to the west in what is now the Congo Free State, and to the east beyond Lake Tanganyika in lands now within the limits of German East Africa. Stanley found him in 1871 at Ujiji on the eastern shores of the lake, but he refused to return, and died at Chitamba to the south of Lake Bangweolo in the spring of 1873.

His death.

Results of his work.

The results of Livingstone's work, whether to Europe or to the land for which he lived and in which he died, can hardly be over-estimated. Before the date of his discoveries little was known of the Zambesi, and practically nothing beyond. He laid bare once for all the principal geographical features of South Central Africa. But he did more than add to the sum of scientific knowledge. Beyond all other men he gave an impulse to missionary effort in the interior of

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Africa, beyond all other men he was a pioneer in these regions of British influence and British trade. The outcome of his work has been the establishment of a British administration, which has already done much to check slave-raiding, the evil against which he ceaselessly warred, the chief bar to civilisation, to industry, and peace.

Missions in Central Africa. The Universities Missions.

The first missionary enterprise in Central Africa, that of the Universities Mission, ended, as has been seen, in failure. The failure, however, was only temporary. At Zanzibar, where the missionaries found a temporary resting-place, the study of native languages, and especially of Swahili, the lingua franca of the East African coast, was vigorously prosecuted; and under Bishop Steere (1874–82) stations were established on the mainland to the north of the Rovuma River. In 1885 the mission planted itself in the island of Likoma in Lake Nyasa, which is still its headquarters, and in 1892 a Bishop of Nyasa was appointed.

The Free Church Mission and Church of Scotland Mission.

The enthusiasm, which in England gave rise to the Universities Mission, led in Scotland to the establishment of two missions which have exercised a most important influence upon the development of the Protectorate. They were the Livingstonia Mission of the Free Church of Scotland, whose work has mainly been on the western side of Lake Nyasa, and the Church of Scotland Mission, whose field of operations lies to the south of the lake. In 1875 an expedition despatched by the Free Church, under the command of Mr. Young, R.N., took a steamer up the Zambesi, and, carrying it round the Murchison Rapids on the Shire River, reached Lake Nyasa. The mission was temporarily established at Cape Maclear, but in 1878 a settlement was made at Bandawe, where the headquarters of the mission now are. Bandawe is half-way up the lake, on its western side, over against the island of Likoma.

The Church of Scotland Mission was founded in 1876. The Shire Highlands were fixed upon as a suitable field for

work, and a healthy spot was selected, and named Blantyre after Livingstone's birthplace on the Clyde. SECT. II.

For years the missions continued to work under great difficulties. Communication with the coast was slow and uncertain, and the country was disturbed by constant slave raids. In 1880 the current price for slaves on Lake Nyasa was quoted as follows :— *Progress of Mission work.*

For a strong young man	40 yards of calico
For a young unmarried girl	56 „ „
For a toothless old man	2 „ „

The efforts of the missionaries, however, though powerless to keep peace through the region generally, sufficed to give security to the districts more immediately round their stations, and the stations became the nucleus of native settlements. The work was by no means confined to religious teaching. The medical departments of the missions contributed very largely to their success. At Blantyre experimental gardens were formed and kept up, and the coffee raised there by Mr. Buchanan has now developed into a considerable industry. A fine church at the same place has been erected entirely by native labour. Slowly but steadily the missions grew in strength and influence, and were supplemented in 1878 by a company formed at once for commercial and for philanthropic objects, the African Lakes Company. *The African Lakes Company.*

In 1887 the so-called Arab slave-traders—often men who have but little Arab blood in their veins—renewed their activity, devastating the region at the northern end of Lake Nyasa, threatening the missions, and actually besieging the station of the African Lakes Company at Karonga, which however held out successfully. The action of the Portuguese at the time also increased the difficulties in which the company and the missions were involved, and eventually hastened the establishment of a British administration. *Renewal of slave-raiding.*

The Portuguese empire in East Africa, now but a fraction

PART II.

Difficulties with the Portuguese.

of what it once was, had never at any time extended much beyond the coast and the banks of the lower Zambesi[1]. The navigation of the Zambesi had been free to all comers for many years past, but in 1887, alarmed by the progress which other European powers were making in Africa, the Portuguese attempted to close the river, and to compel all vessels, which plied along it, to be registered under the Portuguese flag. The 'James Stevenson,' a ship belonging to the African Lakes Company, was detained, and ammunition, urgently required by the British settlers, was prevented from passing up stream. These proceedings, accompanied by claims on the part of Portugal to the whole continent between their East coast and their West coast possessions, roused considerable resentment in Great Britain and elicited strong remonstrances from the British Government. Diplomatic correspondence ensued, and meanwhile a Portuguese expedition under Serpa Pinto, the African explorer, marched into the Shire country. 'Peaceful and scientific' the expedition was styled, but it was well armed, and the Makololo chiefs, who remembered Livingstone, resented its advance. As a counter move, the acting British Consul, Mr. Buchanan, declared a British Protectorate over the Makololo country and the Shire Hills beginning at the river Ruo. The position of matters was critical, and some decided step was necessary. Accordingly the British Government formally declared that they should look upon any attempt by the Portuguese to exercise dominion over the British settlements in the Shire districts or on Lake Nyasa as an invasion of the rights of the British Crown, and, following up this declaration, Lord Salisbury, in January 1890, threatened to recall the British minister from Lisbon, unless Portugal agreed to withdraw all or any Portuguese military forces which were actually on the Shire River, or in the territory of

[1] See p. 85, note 1. Some account of the Portuguese power in East Africa is given in the next chapter.

the Makololo, or in the Mashona country south of the Zambesi. Ultimately, a settlement was effected by the Anglo-Portuguese treaty of June 1891, by which the free navigation of the Zambesi, the Shire, and their affluents was secured for ships of all nations, and the limits of the British and Portuguese Spheres were defined, both north and south of the Zambesi.

The treaty of June 1891, between Great Britain and Portugal.

The first article of the treaty specifies the western limits of Portuguese East Africa, north of the Zambesi. Under its provisions, Great Britain recognises as within the dominion of Portugal all the country south of the Rovuma River[1] and east of Lake Nyasa down to 13·30° south latitude. Thence the frontier line runs in a south-easterly direction, past the eastern shores of Lakes Chiuta and Chilwa, to the eastern-most affluent of the river Ruo. Carried on to that river, it follows its course down to its confluence with the Shire River. Next it follows this latter river to a point just below Chiwanga, then, turning westward to the watershed between the Shire and the Zambesi, it takes a north-westerly and northerly direction, following the watershed between the two rivers and between the Zambesi and Lake Nyasa, until the fourteenth parallel of south latitude is reached. From this point it runs in a south-westerly direction, till it meets the river Luangwa on the fifteenth parallel of south latitude, and finally follows the Luangwa River down to the Zambesi. The net result of this article of the treaty is to give an irregular shape on the map to the dominions of the two Powers in question north of the Zambesi. Portugal is left with a triangular piece of territory west of the Shire region and in the middle of the British Sphere; while this same Shire region runs out to the south, like a kind of British peninsula between lands

The boundary on the eastern side of Africa.

[1] More accurately, in the words of the treaty, the northern boundary of the Portuguese Sphere is 'a line which follows the course of the Rovuma from its mouth up to the confluence of the river Msinje, and thence westerly along the parallel of latitude of the confluence of these rivers to the shore of Lake Nyasa.'

PART II. which have been assigned to Portugal. The islands in Lake Nyasa are reserved to Great Britain by a separate article in the treaty.

The boundary on the western side of Africa.

The fourth article of the treaty provides for a boundary line between the British and Portuguese Spheres on the western side of the continent. The line follows the course of the Upper Zambesi from the Katima rapids to the point where the territory of the Barotse Kingdom is reached, and it is laid down that that territory shall remain within the British Sphere, its westward limits being left to be decided by a Joint Commission. Pending the report of such a commission, the frontier has been provisionally taken to be the Zambesi up to its confluence with the Kabompo River, and thence the course of the Kabompo.

The Anglo-German Agreement of July 1890.

Nearly a year before the Anglo-Portuguese treaty of 1891 was signed, the British and German Governments, on July 1, 1890, came to terms with regard to their respective Spheres in Africa. Under the agreement, an outlying strip of German South-west Africa touches but does not cross the Zambesi, where it forms the southern boundary of Barotseland. Another article of the same agreement prescribes the boundary between German East Africa and British Central Africa. Starting on the south from the Portuguese boundary, the Rovuma River, the German Sphere includes the eastern shore of Lake Nyasa north of Portuguese territory, together with the northern shore of the lake. Then from the point where the Songwe River flows into the lake, the frontier line between the British and German Spheres runs almost due north-west to Lake Tanganyika, the Stevenson Road being left on the British side of the line. The southern end of Lake Tanganyika is also within the British Sphere.

The Agreement with the Independent

On its north-western side British Central Africa borders on the Independent State of the Congo. Here the frontier has been defined by an agreement dated May 12, 1894[1].

[1] The third article of the agreement, providing for a lease to Great

Congo State, May 1894.

Starting from a point at the south-western end of Lake Tanganyika, at about 8·15 south latitude, the boundary line runs nearly due west to where the Luapula, one of the main head-streams of the great Congo River, flows in a north-westerly course out of Lake Mweru. Thence it is drawn directly down the lake, deflected only so as to assign the island of Kilwa to Great Britain, to where the same river enters Lake Mweru at its southern end. From this point it follows the Luapula in its semi-circular course to where the river issues from Lake Bangweolo, and thence is carried due south to the watershed between the Congo and the Zambesi. Finally it follows that watershed in a westerly direction up to the Portuguese frontier.

The British Central Africa Protectorate and Northern Zambesia.

In October 1889 the British South Africa Company received its charter from the Crown, and in February 1891 the charter was extended so as to cover the territory under British influence north of the Zambesi, with the exception of Nyasaland. Nyasaland, which was excluded from the sphere of the Company's operations, was, on May 14, 1891, formally declared to be under the Protectorate of Great Britain[1], and by a later notification, dated February 22, 1893, was given the official name of the British Central Africa Protectorate. Thus British Central Africa, north of the Zambesi, falls into two sections. Far the greater part of the territory, including the whole of Barotseland, forms a Sphere of British Influence, over which the British South Africa Company exercises such rights as have been entrusted to it by Her Majesty's Government, while the eastern districts, including the western and southern shores of Lake Nyasa and the Shire Highlands, form a British Protectorate, directly controlled by the Crown through an Imperial Commissioner.

Britain by the Congo State of a strip of territory between lakes Tanganyika and Albert Edward, was, owing to objections raised by the German Government, subsequently withdrawn.

[1] The exact limits of the Protectorate are given in the London Gazette of May 15, 1891

PART II. By special arrangement between the Company and the Crown, the Imperial Commissioner acted on behalf of the company north of the Zambesi, the Company paying an annual sum of not less than £10,000 for the cost of the police; but this arrangement was terminated in 1895, and the Company's territories, under the name of Northern Zambesia, now form a third province of Rhodesia, the other two being Matabeleland and Mashonaland.

Sir H. H. Johnston. The first British Commissioner in Central Africa was, and is, Mr., now Sir H. H. Johnston. He had been British Consul at Mozambique, and in 1891 was appointed Her Majesty's Commissioner for Nyasaland, acting also for a time, as already stated, in the capacity of Administrator for the whole of British Central Africa. On taking up his appointment, he found the whole territory disorganised by slave raiding, and the record of his administration has been in the main a record of continuous and successful struggle against the raiders. At the southern end of Lake Nyasa he built a fort—Fort Johnston—to hold in check the chief Mponda now deposed; and on the eastern side of the lake, within the British Sphere, but close to the Portuguese frontier, he attacked the Yao chief Makanjira, an inveterate and defiant dealer in slaves. Makanjira's town was burnt, and three of the dhows, in which he ferried his captives over the lake, were destroyed; but on a second expedition, in the autumn of 1891, Captain Maguire, the brave commander of the Sikh force engaged, was killed, and his steamer, which had run aground, was with difficulty rescued. Not till the autumn of 1893 was the power of this troublesome chieftain finally broken, and his country controlled by the erection of Fort Maguire. Other and similar enterprises have been successfully carried out, and other forts have been built. On the Upper Shire Liwonde and his followers have been forced to submit. More lately, on the Mangoche mountain, south-east of Lake Nyasa, Zarafi's stronghold has been stormed.

Towards the northern end of the lake Arab marauders, who tried to block the route to Tanganyika, have been dispersed, and gradually throughout the whole region of Nyasaland law and order are being substituted for the slave raiders' tyranny. In January 1896, Sir H. H. Johnston was able to report: 'As far as I am aware, there does not exist a single independent avowedly slave-trading chief within the British Central Africa Protectorate, nor any one who is known to be inimical to British rule[1].'

Area of British Central Africa.

The total area of British Central Africa, north of the Zambesi, has been estimated at 300,000 to 350,000 square miles, of which some 60,000 square miles are included in the British Central Africa Protectorate, while the rest is covered by the charter of the British South Africa Company. The area is less than three times the size of the United Kingdom, and approximates to that of New South Wales, being probably rather larger than that colony. The line of length is from north-east to south-west, from the boundary of German East Africa at the head of Lake Nyasa to the outlying arm of German South-west Africa which touches the Upper Zambesi. The extreme length between these two points, as measured on the map, is over 850 miles. The length of the Eastern frontier, where the Protectorate is carried to the south down the Shire River, is about 520 miles. British Central Africa is of very irregular shape, and the boundary on the western side has yet to be accurately delimited, but it will be seen by looking at the map that the territory is narrowed in the centre by the Congo State stretching down from the north-west, and by Portuguese East Africa stretching up from the south-east, so that a comparatively narrow waist is formed, on the south-western side of which is Barotseland, while on the north-eastern side is the region of the lakes.

The Lakes.

The lakes are the most striking geographical feature of British Central Africa. On the extreme north is the southern

[1] C. 8,013, 1896, p. 25.

PART II. end of Lake Tanganyika; on the north-western frontier is Lake Mweru, between which and Tanganyika there is a salt lake also called Mweru; on the west is Lake Bangweolo; on the east is Lake Nyasa, and, south of Lake Nyasa, Lakes Chiuta and Chilwa, and the smaller lake Malombe or Pamalombe. The area of some of these lakes can hardly be determined, being much larger in the wet than in the dry season; and in many, if not most, of them the water is either salt or brackish. Lake Nyasa, however, is a pure fresh-water lake. Among all the lakes of Africa the Victoria Nyanza comes first in size, Lake Tanganyika second, and Lake Nyasa third. Lakes Tanganyika and Nyasa are similar in configuration, long and comparatively narrow, running north and south. The length of Tanganyika is over 400 miles, and its breadth varies from sixty to thirty. Its southern end is over 200 miles north-west of the northern end of Lake Nyasa. Nyasa, which is *the* lake par excellence of British Central Africa, is 360 miles long and from fifteen to forty-five miles broad. Its area is given at over 14,000 square miles, being rather less than half the size of Lake Superior, and more than sixty times as large as the Lake of Geneva. Bangweolo, very variable in size at different seasons of the year, is credited with an area of between 1,600 and 1,700 square miles. Lake Mweru has a length of sixty-eight miles and an average breadth of twenty-four, while Lake Chilwa is about fifty miles long and fifteen to sixteen miles broad, but in the dry season part of its area is no more than marsh[1].

[1] The figures given above are taken mostly from Sir H. H. Johnston's Report of the first three years' administration of the Eastern portion of British Central Africa, C. 7,504, August 1894. For the sake of comparison, the following dimensions of lakes are taken from the Encyclopaedia Britannica.

	Length.	*Breadth.*
Superior . . .	350 miles	100 miles
Caspian . . .	600	50
Erie	220	48
Geneva . . .	45	8·7

Rivers.

The main rivers of British Central Africa are the Zambesi and its affluents, and the head-waters of the Congo. The dividing line between the Zambesi and the Congo basins runs in a south-westerly direction from the high plateau between Lakes Tanganyika and Nyasa. The Zambesi forms a water-way into British Central Africa, being connected with Lake Nyasa by the Shire River. From the Chinde mouth of its delta on the Indian Ocean it is navigable at all times of the year for vessels of very light draught up to its confluence with the Shire.

The Zambesi.

The Shire.

The Shire, flowing south out of Lake Nyasa over a sandbar, which in the dry season is an obstacle to steamers of any size, takes its course through the muddy Lake Malombe, and at some distance further south comes down from the highlands in the Murchison Falls or Rapids, which make a complete break in the navigation of the river, cutting off the Upper from the Lower Shire. The rapids extend for a considerable distance, and in their course the river descends a thousand feet. Below them the Shire receives the waters of the Ruo River, and up to this point there is for small boats uninterrupted navigation from the Zambesi at all times of the year, though larger craft are in the dry season stopped at a point a little distance above the main confluence of the two rivers, where a cross channel from the Zambesi enters the Shire.

Tributaries of the Zambesi.

Higher up than the entrance of the Shire, the navigation of the Zambesi is intermittent, broken by falls and rapids, the most notable of which are the far-famed Victoria Falls. Its main tributaries from the north are the Luangwa, the Kafue, and the Kabompo, little known rivers but, as far as known, only partially navigable.

The Upper Congo.

In the Congo basin the chief river of British Central Africa is that which, under different names, is really the Upper Congo. Rising on the Nyasa-Tanganyika plateau it flows south-west, bearing the name of the Chambezi, into

PART II. Lake Bangweolo, navigable, at any rate in a great part of its course, for light vessels. From Bangweolo it issues under the name of Luapula, and, flowing south and west, is broken in its course by the Mambirima Falls. Beyond these falls it flows north-west and north to a further series of rapids or falls, named the Johnston Falls, at about 10·30 south latitude, beyond which point it is navigable into Lake Mweru. After leaving the lake it takes a north-westerly course under the name of the Lufwa, and joining the Lualaba, which flows from the south-west, and the Lukuga, which flows due west out of Lake Tanganyika, becomes the great Congo River.

Altitudes and Mountains.

Lake Nyasa, a deep depression in an upland plateau, lies rather over 1,500 feet above the sea. The height of Lake Tanganyika is nearly 2,700 feet, of Bangweolo nearly 3,800 feet, and of Mweru about 3,000. The channel of the Zambesi just above the Victoria Falls is some 2,500 feet above the sea. British Central Africa, as a whole, is a plateau whose level ranges over 3,000 feet. In the valley of the Zambesi the level is lower, as also along the course of the Luangwa, flowing down between the highlands to the west of Nyasa and the Mushinga Mountains, which form the easternmost edge of the Congo basin, and which rise to a height of about 5,000 feet.

On the western side of Lake Nyasa, away from the immediate neighbourhood of the lake, the average height of the Angoniland plateau is over 4,000 feet; and towards the north-western end of the lake the level of the Nyika plateau reaches 7,000 feet. Between Nyasa and Tanganyika the table-land is about 4,500 feet high; and south of Nyasa the Kirk Mountains on the west of the Shire River range up to 7,000 feet, while the level of the Shire Highlands on the east of the river is over 3,000 feet. In different parts of the territory various mountain tops rise to at least 6,000 or 7,000 feet, the highest mountain at present known within British Central Africa being Mount Mlanje, east of the Shire

Highlands and due south of Lake Chilwa, estimated to be 9,650 feet in height. SECT. II.

Climate.

The valley of the Zambesi is malarious and unhealthy, but on the plateaus, such as the Shire Highlands, Europeans can live for some time with little or no injury to health. Though in the heart of the tropics, the temperature on the higher levels is not extreme, nor is the rainfall excessive. The average annual rainfall for the eastern part of British Central Africa is about fifty inches, at Blantyre in the Shire Highlands about fifty-five, at Zomba over forty. The rainy season is from December to April, the first three months of the year contributing two-thirds of the annual rainfall.

Vegetable Products.

The forests of British Central Africa, in Nyasaland once more extensive than they are at the present day, contain valuable timber, notably a kind of cypress, resembling a cedar, which grows on Mount Mlanje above the level of 5,000 feet, and which is used for building purposes. Various kinds of palms are found, including the oil palm and the cocoanut; ebony is found, India-rubber trees, bamboos, and on the lower ground the papyrus rush. The variety of altitude and temperature permits of most kinds of fruits and vegetables being grown, European as well as tropical, and also most kinds of cereals. Wheat, oats, and barley are produced as well as maize and rice. Potatoes grow notably well on the Shire Highlands. Cotton, sugar, tobacco, ground nuts, and oil seeds are cultivated, and among the exports is the seed of the strophanthus[1]. The product, however, which has the most commercial value at the present time is coffee, grown in the Shire Highlands within an area of rather over 3,000 square miles. For the last two or three years the export of coffee and the amount of land planted has largely increased, and, the supply of native labour being

Coffee.

[1] Strophanthus seed furnishes natives with arrow poisons, and Europeans with a valuable drug used, like digitalis, especially in cases of heart disease. The strophanthus belongs to the dogbane family.

PART II. plentiful, coffee-planting promises to be the staple industry of British Central Africa. Locusts latterly made their appearance in these regions, doing much damage to the food crops, though fortunately not attacking the coffee plantations, but in 1896 they disappeared.

Pastoral Products. To pastoral industry the great drawback is the tsetse fly, which infests most parts of the low country, making the importation of horses and cattle a difficult matter. The fly, it is stated, disappears with the disappearance of wild game and with the spread of human settlement, and even under present conditions is not in evidence upon the high ground. High up too, certain poisonous plants, which elsewhere prove fatal to live stock, are not to be found, so that it is possible that hereafter large tracts of land in British Central Africa may be utilised for grazing. The extermination of wild animals, however, which is the inevitable result of European settlement, unless stringent regulations be enforced, would mean not merely the extinction of living creatures, which have scientific interest; it would mean also the loss of articles valuable in commerce, of hides and horns, and especially of ivory which has hitherto stood first in point of value in the list of exports from British Central Africa. At present wild animal life abounds in many forms, even the giraffe being still found in the valley of the Luangwa.

Wild Game.

Minerals. The mineral resources of British Central Africa are not yet explored. Coal and iron are certainly plentiful, coal having been found near the Shire River and on the north-western shores of Lake Nyasa. Copper is known to be a product of the territory, and gold also; but whether or not the region north of the Zambesi is, like the South African peninsula, rich in precious metals, has yet to be proved.

Population. The total area of British Central Africa, on the roughest of estimates, has been stated above to be from 300,000 to 350,000 square miles. An equally rough estimate of the number of human beings living within its limits is two to

three millions. In Sir H. H. Johnston's reports the territory east of the Kafue River is given approximately at 210,000 square miles, estimated to contain a growing native population of 844,000. Mostly to the west of the Kafue lies the Barotse country, said to contain a large population, who have not suffered, as the natives in the Nyasa districts and the valley of the Luangwa have suffered, from continual slave raiding.

The Kafue River, in Sir H. H. Johnston's words, 'practically marks the limit of East African and Arab influence[1],' but both east and west of it the native tribes are all of Bantu stock. Some of them are peaceful and industrious, such as the Mañanja, who are widely distributed through Southern Nyasaland, and the Atonga on the western side of Lake Nyasa. Others have learnt from the Arabs to ravage and enslave, the most prominent among these predatory tribes being the Yaos, who have come down from the north-east, and who held the districts round the southern end of Lake Nyasa in terror, until their power was broken by the British administration; and the Angoni, of mixed Zulu blood, on the high land behind the western shore of Lake Nyasa. Among other tribes are the Awemba, who hold the plateaus between Lakes Nyasa, Tanganyika, Mweru, and Bangweolo, and the Wahenga and the Wankonde in the North Nyasa districts. British Central Africa has been dominated partly from the east and partly from the south. From the east have come Arabs and Swahilis with the slave trade in their train. From the south have come invaders and settlers of Bechuana, Basuto, and Zulu blood. The Barotse nation is of Bechuana origin, and for a while they were subjected to Basuto rule, the rulers being the Makololo, trained in the Zulu military system. Rather more than a quarter of a century ago the Makololo were overthrown, and the Barotse people more than regained their former strength, being, under their present king

[1] P. 30 of C. 7,504.

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The races for which a great future is predicted in Central as in East Africa are the East Indian. The fighting and police work in Nyasaland has mainly been done by Sikhs under British officers; and Indian traders, known as Banyans, and Indian agriculturists are taking root in the country. The number of white residents grows, but they are necessarily under present conditions but a handful, consisting of missionaries and their families, government officers, and a few merchants and planters. About half of the total white population are Scotchmen, drawn to the land which their great countryman Livingstone made known.

Missions. Some eight mission societies are at work in British Central Africa, all of them Protestant societies, with the exception of the Algerian mission. Reference has already been made to the Universities Mission, the Church of Scotland Mission, and the Free Church Mission, with their headquarters at Likoma, Blantyre, and Bandawe respectively. The work of the London Missionary Society is mainly in the region of Lake Tanganyika; of the Dutch Reformed Church Mission in Angoniland; of the Zambesia Industrial Mission, whose efforts are specially directed to training natives for industrial life, in the Blantyre district and Southern Angoniland; and of the Nyasa Baptist Industrial Mission, in the Shire Highlands.

At the northern end of Lake Nyasa, outside the British Protectorate, German mission stations have been established. The record of the mission societies in Central Africa has been a noble one. Large numbers of native children are taught in their schools, learning not only the doctrines of the Christian religion but trades and handicrafts, to print, to build, to cultivate the ground. The Societies' boats and steamers are to be found on the lakes and rivers, and they carry through a region, which the slave raiders were wont to desolate, a higher civilisation and a message of peace.

Towns, Ports, &c.

The most important township in the Protectorate is Blantyre, about a hundred miles in a straight line due south of Lake Nyasa. The seat of administration is at Zomba, about forty miles north-east of Blantyre. Blantyre will soon have direct telegraphic communication with South Africa through Tete, which lies about 130 miles distant in Portuguese territory south of the Zambesi. Tete has telegraphic communication with Chinde at the mouth of the Zambesi, and the telegraph lines from the eastern coast have also reached Chiromo. Chinde on the sea coast in Portuguese territory, and Chiromo in the British Protectorate at the junction of the Shire and Ruo Rivers, about seventy miles south of Blantyre, are the chief ports of British Central Africa for the purposes of communication with the outer world. Chinde is about 90 miles distant from Beira, over 700 from Delagoa Bay, and over 1,000 from Zanzibar. The town stands a mile from the open sea on the one navigable mouth of the Zambesi delta, having a good harbour, except for a bar at the mouth, which very large steamers are unable to cross. By treaty the navigation of the Zambesi and Shire Rivers with all their branches and outlets is entirely free for the ships of all nations, and the Portuguese Government has also granted to the British administration the concession of two pieces of land at Chinde on the south bank of the river, one with a quarter of a mile of river frontage, where goods in transit can be

PART II. transhipped free of such duties as are levied at the ports of Portuguese East Africa. The chief customs station of the British Central Africa Protectorate is at Chiromo, between which port and Chinde two British lines of light river steamers, belonging respectively to the African Lakes Corporation and Sharrer's Zambesi Traffic Company, carry goods and passengers.

Administration. The cost of the British Protectorate is partly borne by the Imperial Government, but the revenue is steadily growing. Customs duties, a hut tax in certain districts, licences, land sales and rents, and Postal receipts are the principal items of revenue. The Postal service is rapidly being developed, and now extends to the Luapula River. Roads are being made, telegraph lines carried forward, administrative divisions with their respective centres have been formed, and British rule is enforced and freedom ensured by the Sikh corps, supplemented by native police, and supported by Imperial gunboats on the Zambesi and Shire Rivers and on Lake Nyasa. A light railway from the port at Chiromo to Blantyre is noted as a pressing necessity, in order to give adequate means of transport to the coffee planters of the Shire Highlands; and a line is projected from the Portuguese seaport of Quelimane to the British frontier. Much has been done in very short time, and very much more remains to be done, if the future is to fulfil the promise of the past. It remains to be seen how far the health of man and beast will be benefited by clearing the jungle and providing speedy communication across the lower levels, malarious and infested by the tsetse fly. Whether Nyasaland will be one of the great plantation districts of the world, whether European colonisation will take root on the high plateaus, whether on lower ground the East Indian race will prosper and multiply under British protection can only be proved in years to come. But already by British rule well and strongly administered, by private enterprise, religious and

commercial, and more especially by the tenacity of Scotchmen, Central Africa is being converted from a hunting ground of slave-traders into a secure dwelling-place for white and coloured men. Through the agency of the British South Africa Company, it is no longer an isolated Sphere of British Influence, but the fortunes of the larger half, west of the Kafue River, are linked with those of South Africa; while, east of the Kafue, languages, commerce, customs, and ties of race connect it rather with East Africa and Zanzibar.

BOOKS, PUBLICATIONS, ETC. RELATING TO BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA.

For Central Africa in the past reference must be made principally to Livingstone's own works, or to Sir H. H. Johnston's and other books relating to the great explorer and his discoveries.

Of Central Africa, since it came under British influence, a most admirable and interesting account, as far as the eastern territories are concerned, is given in Sir H. H. Johnston's report for Parliament of 1894, C. 7,504, and in his later report of 1896, C. 8,254. The latter report contains three valuable Appendices, especially one on missionary work in British Central Africa. The information contained in Stanford's Compendium of Geography, Africa, vol. ii. [A. H. Keane], is very full and valuable. The Colonial Office List should also be consulted on the subject.

SECTION III.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

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Distances.

FROM the mouth of the Zambesi the African coast runs north-east and north for over a thousand miles, until the island of Zanzibar is reached. Zanzibar is 1,600 miles distant from Delagoa Bay, nearly 1,200 from Mahé in the Seychelles archipelago, 1,550 from Mauritius, 2,000 from Aden, and nearly 3,000 miles from Bombay. It marks the beginning of the British Protectorate in East Africa. The island itself, with its dependency the island of Pemba, is under a British Protectorate, but the coast over against which it lies is in German hands, and the British Sphere on the mainland only begins at the Umba River, a little to the north of Pemba.

Want of unity in British East Africa.

British East Africa is not a colony, either in the popular sense or according to the statutory[1] definition which declares a colony to be any part of the Queen's dominions exclusive of the British Isles and of British India. It is an aggregate of tribes and countries, a great part of which is directly under British Protectorate, while the rest is within the Sphere of British Influence. Not only does it lack the unity which is impressed on a people by a uniform administration, but neither in geography nor in history nor yet in religion can it be regarded as one. Though it has three considerable rivers running into the Indian Ocean, and though the Nile itself rises within its limits, the barren strip of land which forms the background to the fertile coast has kept the

[1] 52 and 53 Vic. c. 63.

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interior from contact with civilisation almost down to our own day.

The Arab, who is predominant on the coast, gives way in the interior to various African races, Bantus, negroes, and others; while the Mohammedan religion, which was long the symbol of such civilisation as existed at Zanzibar, seems destined among the Waganda[1], the most progressive of the tribes of the interior, to be superseded by Christianity, and the mass of the natives in other parts are heathens.

The country lies on the Equator, but it contains snow mountains; and some of the high land lying between the coast and the Victoria Lake is said to be fit for European colonisation. It is bordered by the great lakes of Africa, yet much of the Sphere, especially the parts towards Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie, is waterless.

Three main geographical divisions of British East Africa.

Geographically, British East Africa may be classed roughly under three heads: (1) the coast, which is low and often unhealthy though fertile; (2) the great slope up from the coast, in some places mere desert, in others a series of undulating grassy plains, sometimes thickly wooded but on the whole bare and very sparsely populated; (3) the lofty central plateau in which lie the three great Nyanza Lakes, Victoria, Albert Edward, and Albert. These lakes are drained to the north by the Nile, and enclose a country in the main fertile and comparatively well peopled.

The different periods in its history.

Historically, there is again a want of unity and continuity. The interior was a blank till the middle of the present century. Not until that date did Swift's satire[2] lose its point.

> 'So geographers on Afric maps
> With savage pictures fill their gaps
> And o'er unhabitable downs
> Place elephants for want of towns.'

[1] The Waganda are the people of Uganda. Wa is the prefix used in Swahili (the tongue of the mongrel Arabs of the coast, which constitutes the lingua franca of East Africa) to denote the people; Ki, the language (Kiganda); M' the individual (M'ganda).

[2] Swift. On Poetry, 1733.

PART II. The history of the coast, on the other hand, falls into several well-defined periods. First, the period which is known from the writings of the Greek and Arab geographers, a time richer in geographical than in historical knowledge, but more prolific in conjecture than in either geography or history. Secondly, the period of the Portuguese dominion, when East Africa broke suddenly with its past. Thirdly, the time of the Omani[1] rule, when Mohammedan influence, after having been interrupted for two hundred years, became again paramount. Fourthly, the age of the greatness of Zanzibar, when East Africa was no longer a mere dependency of Oman. Lastly, the present day—the time of the 'scramble for Africa,' the time when the powers of Europe have been and still are portioning out the Dark continent among themselves, the period of the re-establishment of European influence and authority. It is only within the last two periods that the interior has come within ken, and it is only in the last ten years that it has assumed any great importance.

Earliest notices of the East African coast and of the interior.

From very early days there must have been trading relations between Arabia and the western shores of India on the one hand, and the eastern shores of Africa on the other, for the trade winds make the passage to Africa from India and the Persian Gulf very easy at stated times of the year. Moreover, if Ophir is to be identified with Mashonaland[2], it must be assumed that the Phoenicians visited East Africa as far back as the days of Solomon. Of the interior the Greeks and Romans practically knew nothing[3]. Most interesting, how-

[1] Oman is a country in the south-east of Arabia, whose principal town is Muscat. Holding, as it does, a central position between Persia, India, and East Africa, it has always enjoyed a considerable trade, and its inhabitants are the most commercial of the peoples of Arabia.

[2] See above, p. 84. Heeren says:—'Ophir was the general name for the rich countries of the South, lying on the African, Arabian, and Indian coasts, as far as at that time known.' (Historical Researches, Asiatic Nations, Phoenicians, chap. iii.)

[3] The inquiries which Herodotus (bk. ii.) made in Egypt as to the sources of the Nile elicited nothing. Euripides (Hel. 1–3) says that the Nile springs from snow mountains, but his language appears

ever, is the short description given by Seneca of an expedition sent by the Emperor Nero to discover the sources of the Nile[1]. 'We came,' said the two centurions despatched on the quest, 'to immense marshes, whose issue neither the natives knew nor could any one hope to reach, so tangled is the vegetation in the water, through which it is impossible to force a way whether on foot or in a boat, because the muddy and obstructed shallows will only admit of little boats carrying one person. There we saw two great rocks from which a great volume of water fell.' It is remarkable that these were the very difficulties with which Sir Samuel Baker had to contend in ascending the White Nile in 1863.

Ptolemy the geographer.

To the geographer Ptolemy, who lived in the times of Hadrian and Antoninus Pius, are due the Nile Lakes and the Mountains of the Moon which figured on maps of Africa almost to our own day. How far Ptolemy's account is guess work, and how far due to the information of travellers, has been much debated, but now that the existence of the lakes and of snow mountains has been proved, it is difficult to resist the conclusion that Ptolemy had some basis of genuine information for his statements.

to be only poetical imagery. Seneca (Nat. Qu. iv. 2) tells us that Anaxagoras the philosopher had the same opinion as the poet. Aristotle (Hist. An. xii. p. 597, Bekker), speaking of the Nile, mentions 'the marshes above Egypt, whence the Nile flows, where are the pigmies.' Lucretius (vi. 735) writes, 'Perhaps too it gets its increase high up from the lofty mountains of the Ethiopians, when the all surveying sun, with his thawing rays, constrains the white snow to descend into the plains;' but Horace's 'fontium qui celat origines Nilus' (Od. iv. 14, 46) is typical of the attitude of antiquity on the subject. Virgil apparently thought that the Nile rose in India (Georgics iv. 293); while Strabo, who held that it ran underground near its sources (vi. vi. 9), says that some people imagined that the source was in Mauretania (xvi. iv. 4). He also tells us that Alexander seeing crocodiles in the Hydaspes (the Jhelum, one of the rivers of the Punjaub) fancied for a time that he had discovered the sources of the Nile (xv. i. 25). Lucan's explanations (x. 189, 331) are not happy. Pliny (Hist. Nat. v. 10. See also viii. 32), apparently from Carthaginian information, says that the Nile rose from a mountain in Lower Mauretania, near the ocean, and at once flowed through a lake.

[1] Nat. Qu. vi. 8.

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The coast was known to the ancients for some distance below the Equator, and from Ptolemy and the author of the 'Circumnavigation of the Red Sea[1]' (Indian Ocean) are learnt the names of many ports. Rhapta is mentioned as an important place, and is supposed to have been on the Pangani River or perhaps Kilwa; Menouthesias or Menouthias is taken to be Zanzibar or Pemba; while the coast to the north was called Barbaria, and the country more inland was known as Azania and believed to abound in elephants. Whether or not particular places can be identified, the names are at least interesting evidence of the existence of some considerable commerce.

Notices by Mohammedan writers.

After the rise of Mohammedanism the connexion between East Africa and Arabia continued, but it appears for a long time to have been rather commercial than political. Notices of various towns on the coast are found in the Arab writers. Massoudi, writing in the tenth century, speaks of the east coast as known down to Sofala, and of Mussulman colonists. Edrisi, who in the twelfth century lived at the court of King Roger of Sicily, mentions Mombasa and Melinde, but apparently without any accurate knowledge on the subject. The great traveller Ibn Batuta in 1331 visited Magodoxo, then a place of considerable prosperity and importance, and a centre of Mohammedan influence, and he also passed a night at Mombasa, where he found the people all 'very pious, chaste, and virtuous.' Mombasa, however, was then of much less importance than it was in Portuguese days, and Kilwa would seem to have been the principal port on the coast before the arrival of Europeans.

The Portuguese.

In 1497 Vasco da Gama set out on his far-famed voyage to India round the Cape. He was the first European in modern times to sail up the east coast of Africa. At most

[1] This work was written by a Greek merchant settled at Berenice, in South Egypt. The information contained in it is on the whole full and accurate, and it dates probably from the end of the first century A. D. (see McCrindle's edition).

places he was received with suspicion and distrust, and at Mombasa, which, like Kilwa, was a 'great city of trade with many ships,' a treacherous attempt was made to wreck his vessels. The sheikh of Melinde, however, the enemy of Mombasa, received him most hospitably, and made a treaty of peace which was kept with scrupulous good faith. On his return voyage Da Gama touched at Zanzibar. Everywhere along the coast the Portuguese found evidences of commercial prosperity. The Mohammedans dominated the principal towns, a regular trade was established with the Malabar coast of India, and the king of Melinde, which is described as 'a great city of noble buildings and surrounded by walls,' told Da Gama that wheat (which was not grown in the country) was brought for him by merchants from Cambay. To the Portuguese the east coast of Africa must have seemed to be well worth acquiring for its own sake, apart from the fact that its acquisition in whole or part was indispensable to them, in those days of small, slow sailing vessels, as the stepping-stone to India. Nor was there any power on the coast capable of serious resistance. The individual cities may have been rich, but they had no organisation which could cope with the military resources of Portugal. The Portuguese, therefore, soon became masters of the principal points on the eastern shores of Africa. Don Francisco de Almeida, who sailed from Lisbon in 1505 to be Viceroy of India, took and fortified Kilwa on his way, and attacked and burnt Mombasa. This town, unlike Melinde whose sheikhs were consistently friendly, was a constant thorn in the side of the Portuguese, and the importance of its position and the turbulence of its rulers are proved by the repeated sieges which the town has undergone. Almeida, with the assistance of Tristan da Cunha, established the Portuguese power on the coast of India; and when Albuquerque succeeded him, Socotra, Muscat, and Hormuz, the key of the Persian Gulf, were Portuguese. Already, in 1501, the king of Portugal

PART II. had assumed the title of 'Lord of the navigation, conquest, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and India,' and the title was justified, when off Diu, in 1508, the Soldan of Cairo's fleet was encountered and destroyed. That fleet had been equipped by Venetian money, for the merchants of Venice foresaw the closing of the Red Sea; and its annihilation left the Portuguese for many years without rivals in the Indian Ocean. They were supreme in all the eastern seas, when in 1580 Portugal passed to the Spanish Crown.

Their dominion, however, was in the main a coast dominion, and nowhere more so than in East Africa. In 1528, one of their captains, Nuno da Cunha, son of Tristan, again took and burned Mombasa; but, except for some expeditions to Monomotapa[1], they do not appear to have tried to penetrate into the interior. Their tenure even of the coast proved to be very insecure, as soon as it was put to the test. As early as 1586, a single Turkish ship (the Turks being by that time masters of Egypt), under one Ali Bey, who had already sacked Muscat, raised the whole coast in revolt between Magadoxo and Mombasa, Melinde alone remaining loyal; and, though the rising was at the time suppressed, Ali Bey returned in 1589, and entrenched himself at Mombasa, which was only re-taken by the Portuguese with native help. In 1592 Mombasa again gave trouble, a Portuguese fortress was established there, and the town became the capital of the northern province, Mozambique being capital of the southern.

The end of the sixteenth century saw the beginning of the decline of the Portuguese power in the East, and other

[1] There was an expedition in 1569 under Barreto, and others later, none of which resulted in any permanent extension of Portuguese power. The empire of Monomotapa, which is described by the old Portuguese writers as a brilliant and powerful state, seems to have covered pretty well what is now called Matabeleland. The accounts of its greatness, however, appear to be very fanciful and untrustworthy.

European nations began to appear in the Indian Ocean. In 1591–3, the first English voyage to the East Indies had taken place under Captain Lancaster, who stayed for several months at Zanzibar; and four years later the Dutch made their first voyage under Houtman. In 1607, the Dutch burned the town of Mozambique, though they failed to take the citadel, and they attacked it again with a similar result in the following year. These attacks were, however, the exception. English and Dutch alike were too much occupied in the Persian Gulf, in India itself, and in the far East, to find time for interfering on the East Coast of Africa. The Portuguese therefore remained in possession, as it were, on sufferance. Their posts were few and weak; Mozambique and Mombasa alone could claim to be fortresses of any considerable strength. At the latter there was a Custom House, and a ship was sent up every year as far as Cape Guardafui to collect dues. Everywhere else the Portuguese lost ground, partly because the tax on the strength of so small a people was too great, partly because their maladministration alienated the natives, partly owing to the disastrous influence of the union of Portugal to the Spanish crown, involving, as it did, the hostility of the Dutch. Hormuz fell in 1622; Malacca in 1640; thirty years later the Portuguese had nearly been driven out of India. In 1651 they were expelled from Muscat, and then the Arabs began to dislodge them from the East Coast of Africa. The task was not difficult, and the inhabitants of most of the towns, particularly Mombasa, welcomed the invaders. In 1698, the Imâm of Muscat, Seif bin Sultan, established his authority at Mombasa, and all semblance of Portuguese authority disappeared north of Cape Delgado.

The Imâms of Muscat.

The Imâms of Muscat ruled over part of South-eastern Arabia. The title Imâm has a half religious signification, but, to whatever reverence its holders may have been entitled from the true believer, their position was endangered by

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continual conspiracies and feuds. It was not likely that such rulers would exercise any very strict authority over the towns of the East African Coast, and, in point of fact, their dominion was most precarious. In 1728, Portugal even succeeded in regaining for a moment possession of Putta and Mombasa. But the Portuguese were not the chief troublers of the peace. Continual petty warfare disturbed the coast, and Mombasa fought with Zanzibar or Putta, while the Imâm contented himself with sending ships at intervals to collect ivory or slaves or to make an occasional assertion of his authority. Hence the Arab dominion down to the present century offers but few points of interest. Like that of the Portuguese it was essentially weak and superficial, the prosperity which Vasco da Gama found had to a great extent disappeared, and the importance of Zanzibar was yet to be developed.

The Sultanate of Zanzibar.

With the present century a new era began. Seyyid Said became possessed of power in Muscat. He appears to have realised how great were the capabilities of Zanzibar, and setting to work to consolidate his African dominions he ultimately took up his residence, with occasional visits to Muscat, entirely at Zanzibar. The process of consolidation involved the subjugation of many recalcitrant Sheikhs. Mombasa, as usual, proved particularly troublesome, and, though the town was ultimately secured, its resistance has a particular interest attaching to it in that the British flag was actually hoisted there for a short time. In 1823, Captain Owen, who was engaged at the time in surveying the coast in His Majesty's ship *Leven*, arrived at the port and, subject to the approval of His Majesty's Government, accepted an offer from the party opposed to Seyyid Said to cede the island and its dependencies to Great Britain. He then sailed away, leaving an officer with a few men in the fort. Seyyid Said protested energetically, declaring that 'the sun is not more manifest than is my love and constant attach-

Captain Owen at Mombasa.

ment to your Majesty's Government and to that branch especially that rules over Hindostan, in whose confidence and good-will I increase daily.' He argued that Mombasa had been conquered by Oman, and that the Omani Government had always appointed the Wali or Governor; and he complained that Captain Owen had employed his visit, the object of which had been announced to be a marine survey, in a different and a hostile manner. These arguments prevalled, and Captain Owen's action was not upheld.

Severance of Zanzibar from Arabia.

During Seyyid Said's long reign the importance of Zanzibar increased greatly. For an Oriental ruler he was a man of considerable enlightenment, greatly attached to Englishmen and everything English. He died at sea in the year 1856. His sons disputed as to the succession, but the Government of India was interested in maintaining peace, and the Viceroy induced the claimants to submit to arbitration. Under Lord Canning's award Seyyid Majid was declared ruler of Zanzibar and of the African dominions of Seyyid Said; and henceforth the political connexion with Muscat, which passed to another son, was severed for ever; for, though the ruler of Zanzibar was required to pay a yearly subsidy of 40,000 crowns to the ruler of Muscat, it was laid down that this annual payment was not to be understood as in any way modifying the independence of Zanzibar. The decision was for the best interests of both countries, as the connexion had never at any time been mutually advantageous. It is true that there had been a considerable influx of Arabs into East Africa, and that Zanzibar had prospered greatly during Seyyid Said's reign, so much so that, whereas the port had been described in 1834 as having little or no trade, in 1860, its trade was worth a million and a half sterling; but this prosperity was largely due to the fact that Seyyid Said neglected Oman, which was more than usually turbulent in consequence. In fact the distance between the countries was

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Beginnings of modern European interference in East Africa.

From about the middle of the present century dates a new era in East African history, characterised by the active interference of Europeans. Europeans, as has been seen, had already at one time held the coast, but they had been driven away, leaving few traces behind. The new intervention of Europe took in the first instance the form of geographical, philanthropic, and missionary enterprise; but it brought in its train the establishment of European administration, the administration of English, Germans, and Italians, instead of Portuguese.

Missionaries and Travellers.

It was just before the close of the first half of the present century that the missionary Rebmann discovered Mount Kilimanjaro, and the missionary Krapf discovered Mount

Burton.

Kenia. In 1858, Captain, afterwards Sir Richard, Burton, and Captain Speke penetrated to Lake Tanganyika, and the

Speke and Grant.

latter was the first European to see the Victoria Nyanza. In 1863 Captains Speke and Grant made their way through what is now the German Sphere to the Victoria Nyanza, through

Baker.

Uganda to the Nile, and down the Nile to Egypt. Meanwhile Mr. Baker (afterwards Sir Samuel Baker) forced his way with great difficulty up the White Nile to Gondokoro, where he met Speke and Grant. He then marched overland to the Albert Lake, through which he discovered that the Nile flowed. In 1871, he was sent by the Khedive Ismail to annex to Egypt the upper reaches of the Nile, and to suppress slave-raiding, on which occasion he penetrated as far as Masindi in Unyoro, meeting with great opposition from Kabbarega, the King of Unyoro, an active opponent of Europeans.

Stanley.

In 1875, Mr. Stanley, in crossing Africa, travelled round the Victoria Nyanza and visited Uganda; and his description of the country and the people had great effect in arousing missionary effort. In 1889, after marching up the Congo and through the great forest which clothes its upper basin, he

reached the Albert Lake, discovered Mount Ruwenzori, and explored the Albert Edward Lake. Captain Lugard in the same region, Mr. Thomson in Masailand, Count Teleki round Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie, and many other explorers, have now brought to light all the principal features of what is now British East Africa.

Prosperity of Zanzibar.

While the interior was being explored, Zanzibar continued to flourish as a place of considerable commerce. It was the usual starting-point for all expeditions, and it enjoyed unbroken peace, chiefly due to the Government of India, who, having important interests to protect, maintained a Resident there. It has been noticed that from early Arab times there had been a close connexion between East Africa and India, and the East Coast of Africa had gradually become settled with Indian traders. In 1873, Sir Bartle Frere, who was sent on a special mission to Zanzibar to inquire into the slave trade, reported that, though the slave trade in the far interior was almost exclusively in the hands of Arabs or Arab half castes, all banking and mercantile business throughout the Zanzibar coast-line passed through Indian hands. The Indian traders made advances to the caravans starting for the interior as well as to the landowners, and they controlled the customs throughout the Sultan's dominions. At Zanzibar itself the Sultan's[1] power was absolute, except over the greater Arabs who regarded themselves as in some sort his equals, but his hold over the mainland coast from Cape Delgado to Warsheik, the most northerly post actually occupied, is described by Frere as having been most superficial. He laid claim indeed to the interior, and his name appears to have had some influence as far as Lake Tanganyika. But there was no attempt at administration, and even near the sea he held little more than posts in which weak garrisons were stationed.

East Indians at Zanzibar.

[1] It is to be remarked that the so-called 'Sultan' of Zanzibar was not known to the Arabs either as Sultan or Imâm, but simply as Seyyid, i. e. Lord, a title first borne by Seyyid Said.

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Such a State could offer little resistance to pressure from a European power, and, writing as late as 1893, Sir Gerald Portal declared that, only two years before, Zanzibar was an instance of the worst type of Arab despotism. But any account of Zanzibar before the last few years would be incomplete without a sketch of the slave trade, which has so often led directly or indirectly to British interference.

The East African slave trade.

It would be vain to attempt to trace the origin of the slave trade on the East Coast of Africa. In some form the traffic no doubt existed from the earliest times, and the advent of the Portuguese administration in no way checked it. Linschoten, the pioneer of the Dutch in the East, whose work was published in 1596, expressly states that 'from Mozambique great numbers of Caffres (negroes) are carried into India, and many times they sell a man or a woman that is grown to their full strength for two or three ducats.' Other travellers testified to the existence of a great slave market at Goa. It is probable, however, that the slave trade, at least in Arab hands, was never so flourishing as in the present century, when the suppression of piracy in the Indian Ocean and the Persian Gulf had rendered the traffic safe.

British attempts to check the trade.

The first attempt to check the trade was made by the English in 1820, when a clause was inserted in a treaty restraining Arab chieftains in the Persian Gulf from carrying off slaves from the coast of Africa, such action being declared to be piracy.

In 1822 a treaty was concluded by the British Government with the Imâm of Muscat, which was intended to abolish the foreign slave trade. The sale of slaves to any Christian nation was prohibited, and British cruisers were authorised to seize any offending vessels to the East of a line drawn from Cape Delgado, past the eastern end of Socotra, to Diu at the head of the Gulf of Cambay. The Imâm also agreed to the establishment of a British agent at Zanzibar to watch the trade. These engagements were renewed and confirmed in

1839, and at the same time the area within which the trade was allowed was further restricted. By another treaty, concluded in 1845, the export of slaves from Seyyid Said's African dominions was forbidden, together with the importation of slaves from any part of Africa into his Arabian dominions. Her Majesty's ships, and the ships of the East India Company, were authorised to seize any vessels with slaves on board, which were not engaged merely in transporting slaves from one part of the Sultan's African territory to another, between Kilwa to the south and Lamu to the north. By a decree of 1868, the transport of slaves between Kilwa and Lamu during the monsoon was also forbidden, and in the same year the Government of India found it necessary to issue a warning to natives of India against slave-owning or slave-trading. All these measures, however, as was expressly stated in the later treaty of 1873, failed to effect their object, and though British cruisers, at great cost of money and men, rendered slave-trading a hazardous occupation, they quite failed to suppress it.

Difference between the East African and West African slave trade.

The slave trade on the East Coast differed radically from that on the West Coast of Africa. It was not found very difficult to stamp out the West African traffic in slaves, when once its suppression had become a settled policy. The slave was carried from the West Coast to America as a special kind of merchandise, but on the East the trade was inextricably mixed up with legitimate commerce. The master of an Arab 'dhow,' with a cargo of ordinary merchandise, would frequently take a slave or two on board to complete the freight, and it was often difficult or even impossible for naval officers to distinguish the slave from the freeman. Moreover, whereas the West African slave trade was in the hands of Europeans, the East African slave-traders were mainly Arabs, who found nothing in slavery repugnant to their laws, or their religion. Sir Bartle Frere reported in 1873, that the treaty of 1845 had been broken ever since it

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was made. Framed with the intention of not interfering with the status of domestic slavery, it resulted in enabling the slave-trader to escape the cruisers entirely as far as Lamu. In 1867–9, 116 dhows were taken with 2,645 slaves on board, while it was calculated that dhows carrying 37,000 slaves must have evaded detection. How unsuccessful were the attempts made to crush the slave trade by cruisers at sea is shown by the fact that, in 1890, the Directors of the Imperial British East Africa Company claimed during the short period of the Company's existence to have assured the liberation of over 4,000 slaves, while not more than an average of 150 were then annually released by cruisers. Sir Bartle Frere found that the Indians were gravely implicated in slave-trading; indeed, he avowed his belief that there were few classes at Zanzibar, except the better kind of Europeans and Americans, who were entirely exempt from connexion with the traffic. On the other hand, rather less than twenty years later, Sir Gerald Portal reported that he had never seen the slightest sign of Indians being concerned in the trade.

The Zanzibar treaty of 1873.

The new treaty, which was concluded in 1873, declared that the export of slaves from Africa, whether for transport from one point of the Sultan's dominions or not, was to cease, and that all public markets for buying or selling imported slaves were to be closed. By a further treaty of 1875, however, domestic slaves were allowed on board a ship if really used for the service of the vessel. Since that date, various edicts have been issued, notably one of great stringency on August 1, 1890, forbidding under severe penalties all traffic in slaves and allowing any slave to purchase his freedom; and there is no doubt that the persistent efforts of the British Government for many years past have resulted in a decrease in the number of slaves at Zanzibar, while the export of slaves from the mainland of British East Africa is practically extinct.

The European powers have solemnly pledged themselves

to free Africa from the evil of the slave trade. In 1886, by the general Act of the Conference of Berlin, the slave trade was forbidden in the conventional basin of the Congo; and in 1890, by the general Act of the Brussels Conference, all the principal powers of the world, the Sultan of Zanzibar included, 'equally animated by the firm intention of putting an end to the crimes and devastation engendered by the Traffic in African slaves,' declared certain measures, principally the establishment of a settled administration, the construction of roads and railways, and restrictions on the importation of fire-arms, to be the most effectual means of crushing the trade. Each power undertook by these or other means gradually to deal with the slave trade in its own possessions. If these large promises are kept, the traffic, which has been indigenous in Africa since the dawn of history, must in time disappear, and Great Britain may fairly claim that these international engagements are no more than an elaborate recognition by the world of a policy which she had been endeavouring for more than half a century to carry out.

International provisions against the slave trade.

In 1872, the British India Steam Navigation Company, whose chairman was Mr. (afterwards Sir William) Mackinnon, had established regular communication between India, Zanzibar, and Europe; and in 1877, the Sultan actually offered to Mr. Mackinnon a concession of the whole of the Zanzibar coast-line. As the English Government, however, did not look on the project with any favour the matter dropped.

A concession offered by the Sultan of Zanzibar to Sir W. Mackinnon

Within the next few years the Germans began to appear upon the scene, making treaties with chiefs on the mainland despite the protests of the Sultan; and the grant of a charter by the Emperor of Germany to the Society for German Colonisation showed that the Imperial Government intended to lend its support to the schemes which its subjects had taken in hand. Meanwhile English enterprise had not been idle, and it became necessary to settle by International agreement what belonged to the Sultan, and in what Spheres

The Germans in East Africa.

PART II.

The Anglo-German agreement of 1886.

the English and Germans respectively should be at liberty to extend their influence. The agreement of 1886, between England and Germany, was important as at once settling the exact limits of the Sultanate of Zanzibar and defining, at least on the coast, the Spheres of Influence of the two powers. By this agreement the Sovereignty of the Sultan of Zanzibar was confirmed over the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, Lamu, Mafia, and other smaller islands, and on the mainland over a strip of coast ten miles deep from Tungi Bay to Kipini. North of Kipini the stations of Kismayu, Brava, Meurka, Magadoxo, and Warsheik were recognised as belonging to Zanzibar. The arrangement between England and Germany was confined to the country between the Rovuma and Tana Rivers, and a line was drawn from the mouth of the Umba, past Lake Jipe, skirting the northern base of Kilimanjaro, to the point where the eastern side of Lake Victoria is intersected by the first degree of south latitude. England agreed not to make acquisitions of territory, accept protectorates, or interfere with the extension of German influence to the south of this line, and Germany made a similar engagement with regard to the north. In 1862, France and England had both engaged to respect the independence of Zanzibar, and Germany now adhered to that declaration.

A further effect of this agreement was that the Sultan leased to the German Company the customs of the ports of their Sphere of Influence, and in 1887 a similar concession on the coast between the Umba River and Kipini, near the mouth of the Tana, was granted to the British East African Association. This Association afterwards received a royal charter, being incorporated on September 3, 1888, under the name of the Imperial British East Africa Company, and to its efforts, guided by Sir William Mackinnon, the spread of English influence in East Africa has been mainly due.

The Imperial British East Africa Company.

Competition between the

But it was evident that the arrangement which had been made with Germany could not be final, because it contained

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English and the Germans.

no definite provision for the partition of the far interior, whereas the new masters of Africa valued the coast not merely for its own sake but also for the sake of the country which lay behind. The rivalry was keen, and the English Company, though placed somewhat at a disadvantage (for the Germans had not only established themselves to the south of them, but also at Witu to the north) spared neither exertions nor expense in endeavouring to establish British influence in the interior, especially in Uganda. A fresh agreement between Great Britain and Germany became necessary, and was concluded on July 1, 1890. Under its provisions, the British Sphere is bounded to the south by a line drawn from the Umba River to Lake Victoria, leaving Kilimanjaro to Germany; the boundary is then continued along the first parallel of south latitude as far as the frontier of the Congo Free State, which is on the thirtieth degree of east longitude. The Congo Free State, with the western watershed of the basin of the Upper Nile, was to form the western limit. Germany also gave up Witu and retired definitely south of the Umba River, agreeing to recognise a British Protectorate over those parts of the Zanzibar Dominions which lay between the Umba and the Juba Rivers. Already, on June 14, 1890, the Sultan had accepted the Protectorate of Great Britain, and by declarations between Great Britain and France dated August 5 following, the agreement of 1862, which had guaranteed the independence of Zanzibar, was modified; and in exchange for the recognition by Great Britain of a French Protectorate over Madagascar, France recognised a British Protectorate over the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba.

The Anglo-German agreement of 1890.

British Protectorate over Zanzibar recognised by France in August 1890.

In 1891, an agreement was signed with Italy, making the boundary between the British and Italian Spheres the thalweg or mid-channel of the River Juba up to the sixth degree of north latitude. The port of Kismayu with its territory on the right bank of the river is thus left to Great Britain. The

Anglo-Italian agreement of 1891.

PART II. boundary follows the sixth parallel of north latitude till it intersects the meridian 35° east of Greenwich. This meridian is then followed up to the Blue Nile.

The agreement between Great Britain and the Congo Free State, 1894.

These various arrangements completed for the time being the delimitation of the British Sphere; and, until the agreement with the Congo Free State was signed on May 12, 1894, no further boundary questions with foreign powers arose. By this last agreement[1] the frontier of the Sphere of Influence of the Independent State of the Congo, to the north of the German Sphere, is taken to be the thirtieth meridian east of Greenwich up to the watershed between the Congo and the Nile, which watershed is then followed in a northerly and north-westerly direction. The country between the Nile, the Congo watershed, and the twenty-fifth meridian of east longitude, as far as the tenth degree of north latitude, is leased to King Leopold as sovereign of the Congo State, and that part of it which lies west of the thirtieth meridian to his successors, so long as the Congo territories remain an independent state or a Belgian colony under the sovereignty of the present royal family of Belgium. Provision is also made for giving the Congo State access to the Albert Lake at Mahagi; and a declaration is added to the effect that no political rights in the Nile basin will be sought by the Congo State except such as are conceded by the terms of the treaty.

The British Sphere in East Africa.

The area of territory reserved to Great Britain, as gradually delimited by the successive treaties, was and is immense. Legitimate trade there was none, except on the coast, nor could such trade be expected when the cost of carriage from the lakes to the sea averaged about £300 a ton, a price which prohibited the transport of everything except ivory. Local administration of any kind was almost non-existent, and there was a complete absence of roads. To deal with all the difficulties which presented themselves, there were but two organisations of any importance, the East Africa

[1] For other provisions of the agreement, see above, pp. 92–3 and note.

Company and the missions, and the missions were unfortunately weakened by dissensions among themselves. In East Africa, as in many other parts of the world, territorial acquisition has been thrust upon the British Government without being sought. That of its own motion the government would never have taken over this great tract of land admits of no reasonable doubt. At any time during half a century Great Britain might have secured the area which it now holds or claims, and in fact a far larger area, without risk of serious opposition; yet not only was the effort never made, but when the opportunity offered, it was deliberately rejected. It was only under pressure of foreign competition that the rulers of England reluctantly moved forward, adding with no light heart a new province to a heavily weighted empire.

Work of the Imperial British East Africa Company and terms of its charter.

No attempt was made at first to introduce the direct administration of the Crown: but before the whole of British East Africa, as now marked on the maps, had been acquired, the English turned instinctively to the familiar machinery of a Chartered Company. It has already been stated that in 1887 the British East African Association received from the Sultan of Zanzibar the concession of the coast between the Umba River and Kipini, and that in 1888 it was incorporated by royal charter as the Imperial British East Africa Company. The reasons for the grant, which were advanced by the petitioners and stated in the charter itself, are worthy of notice. Mention was made of the Sultan's concession, and of agreements made with chiefs and tribes in the territories beyond the limits of that concession. The improvement of the condition of the natives and the suppression of the slave trade were put forward as objects to be attained, and the advantage to British commercial interests in the Indian Ocean especially involved in the possession of Mombasa was not overlooked. The Charter authorised the Company to hold and retain their various grants and

PART II.

concessions, and to exercise the powers necessary for government, for preserving public order, and protecting their territories. The Company were further empowered to make fresh treaties and acquisitions subject to the approval of the Secretary of State.

From the first the Directors had an up-hill task. In 1888, a general revolt against the establishment of German authority on the coast of the German Sphere, which was followed by a combined blockade of the coast by Great Britain and Germany, was only prevented with difficulty from spreading to the English Sphere, and the fears of the Arabs and their hatred of the missions, whom they accused of harbouring runaway slaves, threatened an outbreak, which was only averted by the tact of the administrator, Mr. Mackenzie. Notwithstanding these difficulties, no time was lost in proceeding with the work of opening up the interior. Expeditions under Emin Pasha, whom Stanley had brought back to the coast in 1889, and Dr. Peters, who was moving up the Tana River, gave ground for fear that Uganda would be annexed by Germany. The Company therefore determined to take immediate steps to secure that territory for Great Britain.

The English in Uganda.

Uganda was visited in May, 1890, by an expedition under Mr. Jackson; and in December of the same year, when the Anglo-German agreement had been already signed, Captain Lugard crossed the Nile and encamped at Mengo, the capital of Uganda.

The kingdom of Uganda, though in the very heart of Africa, had been, for some years, far better known than many parts nearer the coast. Speke had passed through it and described it, and Stanley, in 1875, had roused the missionary enthusiasm of Europe by his account of its people. The Church Missionary Society, which since 1837 had maintained a mission on the coast, whose pioneers were Krapf and Rebmann, responded to the appeal; and in April, 1876, the first missionary party started for Uganda. Since that day

Missionaries in Uganda.

the Mission has never entirely ceased its work, though frequently exposed to every kind of difficulty and persecution. To its success no man contributed so much as Alexander Mackay. Mackay was a Scotchman by birth, who gave up his profession as an engineer in order to devote himself to missionary work. Endowed with great courage and tenacity of purpose, he also commanded the admiration of the natives by his mechanical skill and ingenuity. From his arrival in 1878 until his death in 1890, he remained at work, and his devotion to the duty which he laid upon himself makes a bright page in the gloomy history of the time.

Alexander Mackay.

Shortly after the establishment in Uganda of the Church Missionary Society, a Roman Catholic mission was also established there, and the proximity of the two missions led afterwards to unfortunate consequences. During the reign of King Mtesa the Christians, though often in difficulties, made considerable progress; but, when he died in 1884, his successor Mwanga persecuted the infant churches with great ferocity, and in 1885 caused the murder of Bishop Hannington when travelling through Usoga to Uganda. Mwanga's rule became so intolerable that in 1888 he was driven out, and the Arabs set up a nominee of their own in his place, expelling the missions. The Christians united to restore Mwanga and break up the Mohammedan domination, which object they successfully achieved in 1890.

Persecution of the Christians, and feuds between the Protestants and Roman Catholics.

Murder of Bishop Hannington.

Such was the condition of affairs when Captain Lugard arrived at Mengo and concluded a treaty with Mwanga, under which the authority of the Company was recognised. The Protestant and Catholic factions, which were to some extent political, being known respectively as the English and French (Wa Ingleza and Wa Franza) were, despite their recent alliance, very bitter against each other, and Lugard found continued difficulty in maintaining peace. The two parties united, however, to repel the attacks of the exiled Mohammedans, supported by Kabbarega, the king of Unyoro.

Captain Lugard.

PART II. Leaving Captain Williams to take command of Kampala, the Company's fort in Uganda, Captain Lugard himself marched through Buddu, the southern province of Uganda, and Ankoli, which was annexed to the Company's territory, as far as the Albert Edward Lake. Here he constructed a fort to protect a salt lake[1], which he considered of great value, and later went northwards along the base of Ruwenzori, the great snow-capped mountain lying between the Albert Edward and Albert Lakes, over the rich valley of the Semliki, to the Albert Lake, establishing a chain of forts along the frontiers of Southern Unyoro. A considerable force from the old Egyptian garrisons of the Equatorial province, who had served under Emin Pasha, were encamped near the lake at Kavallis[2]. These men he enlisted in the Company's service. In his absence Captain Williams had with difficulty succeeded in keeping the peace in Uganda between the rival factions of Protestants and Catholics, and soon after Captain Lugard's return civil war broke out. On January 20, 1892, a Catholic murdered a Protestant. The king, Mwanga, who was then under the influence of the Catholic party, refused justice, and a few days later the whole country was in a blaze. Considering the Catholics to be the aggressors, Lugard lent the Protestants his support, and ultimately obliged the Catholics to come to terms, a treaty being signed, by which they were confined to the district of Buddu as long as they bore arms, though allowed to remain in other parts of the country if unarmed. Subsequently, by the exercise of great tact and courage, he induced the Mohammedan pretender to the throne, Mbogo, to surrender and come to Kampala. He then left to return to Europe on June 16, 1892.

[1] Opinions have differed as to the value of the lake.—See Sir G. Portal in C. 7,303, p. 17.

[2] So called from the name of the chief. Except in Uganda it is customary to name places in this way. The custom often gives rise to great confusion owing to the continual change of name.

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At home, meanwhile, events had been moving fast. The Company was beginning to feel the excessive drain on its resources, not supplemented, like those of the German East African Company, by government aid; and, in the summer of 1891, the directors resolved to withdraw their establishment in Uganda, at any rate for a time. When their decision became known, public attention was attracted, and the Church Missionary Society raised £16,000 from its supporters to enable the Company to retain their ground. This they engaged to do till the end of 1892, and the withdrawal was further postponed till March 31, 1893, at the special request of Her Majesty's Government, who undertook to repay expenses, intending to give time for a Special Commission of Enquiry to reach Uganda. Considerable interest was also aroused in England in the railway which it was proposed to construct from Mombasa to Lake Victoria. The Company hoped for the assistance of government in this task, which was clearly beyond their means; but the only help given by the State was the sum of £20,000 voted by Parliament, in March, 1892, for a survey, which was subsequently made by Captain Macdonald, and which proved the feasibility of the work from an engineering point of view.

The Company resolve to abandon Uganda.

Withdrawal postponed at the request of the Government.

The news of the civil war in Uganda, which reached England in 1892, gave rise to much controversy; and, when a change of government occurred later in the year, rumours were circulated that it was intended to withdraw altogether from Uganda. The idea was almost universally condemned. The religious and commercial worlds were united on the subject, and it was felt that, whatever might have been urged against the acquisition of the country in the first instance, it would be impossible without dishonour to recede from the pledges given to the native populations. The Special Commissioner chosen to proceed to Uganda was Sir Gerald Portal, then Consul-general at Zanzibar, who had previously served in Egypt and had carried out a difficult mission to

Public opinion in England opposed to the abandonment of Uganda.

Sir Gerald Portal's mission.

PART II. Abyssinia. Instructed 'to frame a report as expeditiously as may be on the best means of dealing with the country, whether through Zanzibar or otherwise,' he started on his journey on January 1, 1893, crossed the Nile on March 12, and entered the fort of Kampala five days later. He found that no fresh disturbances had occurred during Captain Williams' administration, and concluded a new treaty with King Mwanga. By this treaty it was stipulated, in view of the definite withdrawal of the company, that Uganda should enjoy British protection, that no warlike operations should be undertaken without the leave of Her Majesty's representative, who was also empowered to act, if he thought fit, as a Court of Appeal to the natives, and that slave-trading and slave-raiding should cease. The whole arrangement was, however, made subject to the approval of Her Majesty's Government. Leaving Captain Macdonald, who had originally been employed in the Railway Survey, as Acting Commissioner in Uganda and its dependencies, Usoga and Kavirondo, Sir. Gerald Portal started for the coast on May 30. His return journey was interrupted by a Mohammedan rising in Uganda, complicated by a fear of mutiny among some of the Soudanese troops; but the outbreak was quelled without much difficulty, and he resumed his march, not following the ordinary route to Mombasa but descending the Tana River. The difficulties which he encountered showed that the river was not available as an alternative route into the interior.

His report. At Zanzibar he wrote his now historical report, dated November 1, 1893, and presented to Parliament in the following March. In it he expressed a decided opinion against abandoning the country. 'The withdrawal of all English control,' he said, 'from Uganda and the surrounding countries would mean that the trust of these peoples in English promises and English credit, which has hitherto formed a marked contrast to their opinions of other European countries, would be so completely broken that any

future extension of British enterprise will be impossible, except by force of arms, until confidence may be restored in a future generation.' It would mean, he continued, imperilling the missionary work already done, and would shake the position of Europeans throughout East and Central Africa. His opinion that civil war would certainly come was supported both by Bishop Tucker, the Anglican Bishop of Eastern Equatorial Africa, and by Monseigneur Hirth, the Roman Catholic Vicar-Apostolic of the Nyanza. He further pointed out that the intervening country was mainly valuable as the road to Uganda, and that withdrawal from Uganda would therefore practically entail the restriction of British influence to the coast, and 'a renunciation on the part of England of any important participation in the present work of development, in the suppression of slavery, and in the future commerce of East and Central Africa.' Administration either directly or indirectly by Zanzibar he condemned, whereas the establishment of a regular colonial administration would, he considered, be ruinously expensive. He therefore recommended that control should be maintained over the Sphere of Influence by the appointment of Commissioners, with a sufficient force and staff at their disposal to assure their safety, their political ascendancy, and the security of other Europeans living in the country. He pointed out, however, that any system of administration or plan for the improvement of the country must be of the nature of a makeshift, unless a railway was laid down for at least part of the way into the interior. Such a railway, he maintained, would not only efficiently check the slave trade, but also attract the commerce of all the lake countries. His opinion was clear that the Company had on the whole failed, although to its founders belonged 'the sole credit of the acquisition for the benefit of British commerce of this great potential market for British goods,' an acquisition made without bloodshed and by their own unaided efforts; and he recommended that the

Importance of a railway.

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Company should cease to exist as a political or administrative body, either in the interior, that is, in the great Sphere reserved to their operations by the Royal Charter, or within the narrower limits of the concession granted to them by the Sultan of Zanzibar.

Position of the Company.

When the report was written, the Company only held two stations outside the Sultan's concessions, one on the way to the lake at Kikuyu, and a smaller station at Machakos. In July, 1893, they had withdrawn from the administration of Witu, though still maintaining their rights over the territory, and thus had ceased to administer any of the coast north of the Tana. Their withdrawal from Witu had largely been due to the turbulence of the Sultan Omari, against whom military operations were later found necessary.

They surrender their charter.

Eventually, after lengthy negotiations between the Company and the Foreign Office, the former reluctantly agreed, in March, 1895, to the proposal of the Government that they should surrender their charter and their concession from Zanzibar, together with all their property and rights in East Africa, with the exception of certain cash, debts, and loans, for the sum of £250,000. Of this sum Zanzibar was to find £200,000, in return for the surrender of the concession and the Company's property, while the balance of £50,000 was to be granted by the Imperial Parliament as compensation for the loss of the charter. British East Africa is therefore now no longer in the keeping of a Chartered Company.

British Protectorate proclaimed over Uganda in 1894.

Before these negotiations were concluded, indeed immediately upon the publication of Sir Gerald Portal's report, the Government announced their intention to establish a British Protectorate over Uganda, leaving open the question of a railway. The Protectorate was proclaimed on the spot, at the end of August, 1894, and was officially declared to comprise 'Uganda Proper bounded by the territories known as Usoga, Unyoro, Ankoli, and Koki.' Before the year 1894 closed, Colonel Colville, acting British Commissioner in

Uganda, found it necessary to take forcible measures against Kabbarega the truculent king of Unyoro, and the operations initiated by him and completed by Major Cunningham ended in the complete defeat of the king and in the pacification of the country. SECT. III.

At present the British position in East Africa may be summed up as follows. Zanzibar and Pemba are still formally governed by the Sultan under British Protectorate; a British Protectorate has been proclaimed over Uganda, which, as notified on June 30, 1896, includes also Unyoro, Usoga, and other territories to the West and East; while, by the notice of August 31, 1896, supplementing a previous notice of June 15, 1895, 'all the territories in East Africa under the Protectorate of Her Majesty, except the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba and the Uganda Protectorate, are for the purposes of administration included in one Protectorate, under the name of the East African Protectorate.' The main efforts of the Government have been directed to giving security to the coast region, and to opening and maintaining communication between the lakes and the sea. It has been decided to make a railway into the interior, and a committee appointed to consider the subject has reported that a line from Mombasa to the Victoria Lake, 657 miles in length, might be constructed for £1,755,000, or nearly £2,700 a mile, though it is probable that to build a thoroughly satisfactory line a sum of £3,000,000 will be required. *The projected Uganda railway.*

The total area of British East Africa has been taken to be over 1,200,000 square miles, being rather more than one-third of the size of the Canadian Dominion; but this estimate is worth very little, for the inland boundary on the north-west is quite indefinite. This great province adjoins German East Africa on the south, the Italian Sphere on the north, and the Congo Free State on the west. *Area of British East Africa.*

Below its southernmost boundary on the mainland, British Protectorate covers the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, *Zanzibar and Pemba.*

PART II. together with the islet of Tumbato. Zanzibar is over 600 square miles in area, about four-fifths of the size of Mauritius; and the area of Pemba is between 350 and 400 square miles.

The mainland. The southernmost limit of the mainland territory is the mouth of the Umba River, in 4·40 south latitude; and its northernmost limit on the coast is the mouth of the Juba River, a few miles south of the Equator; but far the greater part of British East Africa is north of the Equator, and therefore north of the point where its coast-line ends. The line of greatest length into the interior is from south-east to north-west.

The coast-line. The coast between the Umba and the Juba Rivers runs in a north-easterly direction, the distance between the two points being about 400 miles. About 160 miles from the Umba River, and 240 from the Juba, the main mouth of the Tana River runs into the sea, dividing the coast-line into two sections. To the south of the Tana are Melinde and Mombasa, both in old days towns of importance, though *Mombasa.* the former is now of small account. Mombasa is the chief port on the coast, and was selected by the Imperial British East Africa Company as their administrative centre. It lies in 4° south latitude, about fifty-five miles north of the Umba River, and about 150 miles from the town of Zanzibar. The town of Mombasa is on the eastern side of a small island, about three miles in length, by one and a half in breadth, connected with the continent by a causeway. Behind the island two arms of the sea run into the mainland, forming excellent harbours. Mombasa is a place of considerable and growing trade, a starting-point for the interior, and the terminus of the projected railway to Uganda. Sixty-five miles north of Mombasa, past the mouth of the Kilifi River, *Melinde.* is Melinde, near the mouth of the Sabaki River, with a fair anchorage; and forty miles beyond Melinde the Tana enters the sea. At the northern mouth of the Tana Delta is Kipini and the Witu coast; and about thirty miles north of Kipini

is Lamu island and harbour, in 2·15 south latitude. Lamu is the second port in point of trade on the coast of British East Africa, coming next in importance to Mombasa, from which it is about 150 miles distant. Further north, the coast is lined, almost up to the Juba River, by a series of coral reefs and islets, the only two anchorages of any note being Port Durnford, and Kismayu. Kismayu is a bay about twelve miles south of the mouth of the Juba, and the settlement upon it, of comparatively recent origin, is likely to grow with the development of the Juba districts.

Lamu.

Kismayu.

Taken as a whole, the coast of British East Africa is more accessible than the shores of South Africa, having convenient islets lying off the mainland; but here, as in Southern Africa, there is a want of open estuaries and of easy river communication into the interior. The Juba, the Tana, and the Sabaki are the principal rivers which run to the Indian Ocean in these latitudes. Both the Juba and the Tana, like other African rivers, have bars at their mouths; and, though they have in either case been ascended by a light steamer for between 300 and 400 miles, they offer no great facilities for navigation. Still less valuable as a water-way is the shorter and smaller Sabaki River, navigable for small boats only for not more than sixty or seventy miles from the sea. In its upper course it is known as the Athi, to the north of and roughly parallel to the future railway to Uganda.

The rivers on the coast-line.

As British Central Africa contains the head-waters of the Congo, so within the limits of British East Africa are to be found the sources of the Nile. The Somerset or the Victoria Nile is the outlet of the Victoria Nyanza. Flowing out of the northern end of the great lake, and beginning its downward course with the Ripon Falls, it takes its way to the north and north-west through marsh and lake, and subsequently, turning due west, it descends abruptly in the Murchison Falls, and enters the northern end of the Albert Nyanza. The Albert Nyanza is the receptacle of the

The head-waters of the Nile.

PART II. Semliki River, which in turn drains the Albert Edward Nyanza, and flows from the latter lake to the former with a north-easterly course of some 150 miles. Gathered into the Albert Nyanza, the furthest to the north of the group or chain of lakes which modern discovery has brought to view in Central Africa, the head-waters of the Nile start on their long course to the Mediterranean, a wonder still though no longer unknown.

Mountains. Great in extent, East Africa is great also in its natural features. It is a land of high mountains and of inland seas.

Kilimanjaro. The highest mountain probably in Africa, Kilimanjaro, lies on its southern frontier, but just outside the boundary line. It consists of two volcanic peaks, the higher of which reaches an altitude of nearly 20,000 feet. Within British East Africa, due north of Kilimanjaro and immediately under the Equator,

Kenia. is Kenia, snow-clad where on the steep cone snow will lie, nearly 19,000 feet in height, on whose slopes are the sources

Ruwenzori. of the Tana River. Due west of Kenia, far away beyond the Victoria Nyanza, between the Albert Edward and the Albert Nyanza, towering on the eastern side of the Semliki Valley, are the Ruwenzori mountains, explored by Stanley on his last expedition. These mountains too, though close to the Equator, have upon them perpetual snows, and their tops, as far as has been estimated, range from 16,000 to 18,000

Mount Elgon. feet. One other mountain may be specially mentioned, 14,000 feet high, Mount Elgon, volcanic and cavernous, lying due north of the eastern shore of the Victoria Nyanza.

The great lakes. In the Partition of Africa, the English have gained or retained access to nearly all the great lakes of the interior. The western and southern shores of Lake Nyassa, the southern end of Tanganyika, nearly the whole of Bangueolo, the half of Mweru are within British Central Africa. Further north, the boundary line between British and German East Africa runs across the Victoria Nyanza, leaving the northern half of the lake within the British Sphere. The eastern

shores of the Albert Edward Lake, and all the shores of the Albert Lake, are within the British Sphere, and wholly within it are Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie. The Victoria Nyanza, next to Lake Superior, the largest fresh-water lake in the world, lies 3,800 feet above the level of the sea. It is nearly 800 miles in circumference, and has an area of about 27,000 square miles: in other words it is not far short of the size of Scotland. West and north-west respectively of the Victoria Lake are Lakes Albert Edward and Albert, continuing the line of Nyasa, Tanganyika, and the comparatively small intervening Lake Kivu. They are both small lakes, when compared with the immense Victoria Nyanza, the open water of the Albert Lake, the larger of the two, being about 100 miles long with a breadth of twenty-five miles. The Albert Edward Lake is about 3,000 feet above the sea, and the Albert Lake, further north, about 2,300. About 300 miles north-east of the Victoria Nyanza lies Lake Samboru or Rudolf, and a little to the north-east again is the smaller Lake Stephanie. Lake Rudolf is about sixty miles long with an average breadth of twenty miles, and has an area of some 3,000 square miles. These are brackish lakes and land-locked, unconnected with the Nile Basin and having no regular outlet to the sea. They lie at the northern end of a deep volcanic depression, which runs north and south parallel to the great inner chain of lakes, and which is marked by a series of smaller lakes such as Baringo, Naivasha, and others, continued south into the German Protectorate.

The Victoria Nyanza.

Lakes Albert Edward and Albert Nyanza.

Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie.

The great rift.

Roughly speaking, the interior of British East Africa, as at present known, falls into two main divisions, the upward slope from the coast to the central plateau of the continent, which is cleft from north to south by the depression to which reference has just been made; and the plateau itself, on which lie the great lakes. The lakes drain northwards in the channels of the Nile; and immediately to the west of them the surface of the land slopes downwards to form the Congo Basin. On

The interior of British East Africa.

PART II. the northern and north-western side of the Victoria Nyanza is Uganda, west of the Somerset Nile, which divides it from the territory of Usoga; and behind Uganda, on the eastern side of the Albert Lake, is Unyoro. The distance from the coast in the neighbourhood of Mombasa in a straight line to the north-eastern corner of the Victoria Nyanza is about 420 miles, and to Uganda about 520 miles. By the ordinary caravan road the distance from Mombasa to the lake is 703 miles, and by the projected railway route the distance is 657 miles.

The traveller, who leaves the hot rich country of the coast on his way to Uganda, soon comes to a waterless desert, except at a few spots like Taveta on the slopes of Kilimanjaro, and Kibwezi, where a flourishing Scotch industrial mission has been established. For the first half of the distance between Mombasa and the great lakes, the country has little rainfall and little timber. The highlands of Ukambani and Kikuyu, however, which are next reached—Kikuyu being about 300 miles from the sea—are much cooler and more productive, covered in many parts with dense forest. It has even been suggested that these regions are suitable for European colonisation; and, as there is a considerable population, though the natives known as the Wakikuyu have at present a bad reputation for treachery, the supply of labour would be plentiful. Beyond Kikuyu the climate is cool, the water is abundant, but the country is almost uninhabited; and next, beyond the subsidiary line of lakes, the Mau Escarpment is reached, forming the eastern edge of the Central African plateau and rising to nearly 9,000 feet. From this point the ground drops towards Kavirondo and the north-eastern corner of the Victoria Nyanza, and the route circles round the northern end of the lake into Uganda.

Uganda. Uganda itself is a country of rounded hills, often covered with banana groves, separated by marshes and sluggish streams overgrown with vegetation, which, in the absence of

bridges, are a serious impediment to transport. The average level of the land is over 4,000 feet above the sea. The mean annual temperature does not exceed 70° Fahrenheit. The rainfall, which averages about fifty inches in the year, is distributed more or less over the whole twelve months of the year, and Sir Gerald Portal noted that during his stay in the country no twenty-four hours passed without thunder and lightning. The wettest months are April, May and June, and again November and December.

Unyoro.

Unyoro, which has been sometimes considered as part of Uganda, is a table-land from 3,000 to 4,000 feet above sea level, more rugged than Uganda, and falling sharply down to the Albert Lake.

Climate and Products.

The climate of the coast-line of East Africa has a bad repute for unhealthiness, but to the north of the Tana River it is dryer and healthier than further south. Inland, the healthiness or unhealthiness of the territory depends mainly upon the height above the sea. At present, while East Africa is but half explored, its resources do not appear to be very striking. There are rich low-lying lands on the southern section of the coast; there are river valleys, though not so extensive as in the Zambesi region, whose alluvial soil favours cocoa-nut and India-rubber trees, the lake country is fertile and well suited for various plantation products such as rice, cotton, and coffee, but the distance from the sea is under present conditions prohibitive to cultivation for commercial purposes. The high plateaus, which the Masai have hitherto held, are described as consisting of grassy plains and rolling hills, well watered and with fine timber, well suited for cattle ranching and sheep-farming. The northern part of the British Sphere is little known, but the country round Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie was found by the explorer Count Teleki, in 1887, to be chiefly desert, and the parts near the Juba River are overgrown with dense forest. There is iron in the lake regions,

PART II. but no precious minerals have yet been found to attract miners and speculators to British East Africa. Ivory has been in times past the one great product brought down from the interior to the coast, but the trade has of late years very rapidly decreased.

Races of British East Africa.

Very various are the native races of British East Africa. This part of the continent is the meeting ground of Bantus, Negroes, and the Hamitic and Semitic stocks of Northern Africa, over and above aboriginal dwarfish tribes corresponding to the Bushmen of the far south. On the coast are to be found a considerable number of Arabs, though rarely of pure blood, and the intermixture of the Eastern and African races has produced the Swahilis, who, with the East Indians, are the principal traders of the coast. Between the Tana and the Juba Rivers are Somalis and Gallas, pastoral peoples of Hamitic origin: and probably akin to the same group are the warlike Masai, marauding nomads of fine physique and great natural intelligence, masters of the highlands which intervene between the upper waters of the Tana and the lake regions. It may be said generally that the ruling native races in East Africa are the pastoral peoples who come from the north-east, while the more settled agriculturists, whom they have dominated, are of Bantu or Negro blood. Thus in Uganda the ruling class are the Wahuma or Wakuma, of Hamitic origin, shepherds and cattle owners, whose strength, like that of all the other pastoral tribes in East Africa, has declined owing to the devastations caused by cattle plague. Distinct from them in physical features and in mode of living are the mass of the population, the Waganda, a Bantu people, tillers of the ground, skilled in metal work, in making pottery, and in various handicrafts, which are evidence of considerable intellectual power and of capacity of being trained in the ways of civilisation. East Africa, in short, is a land peopled by different races, in different stages, and with different

religions, a land which has been marauded but not ruled, though here and there the semblance of states has been created under savage despotisms or a barbarous feudal system. What is wanted is what the Romans gave in old times to their provinces, and what the English in later centuries have given to various parts of the world, viz. law and roads. SECT. III.

General Summary.

Africa, as a continent, as one whole, may be said to have been, as far as history is concerned, non-existent before the present century. With the exception of one corner, it was hardly more than a coast-line, and a coast-line divided into at least three sections wholly unconnected with each other. In Egypt alone, in old times, there was something more than a seaboard, there was the valley of a great river, which flowed down from the unknown, testifying to the existence of inner lands not yet explored; and almost alone of African countries, Egypt had an individuality of its own, standing apart from other quarters of the world, though nearly allied to Asia[1]. Outside Egypt, the northern coast of Africa was and is little more than the southern limit of Europe, the lower frontier of the Mediterranean world, The West coast of Africa, when once made known in modern times, became through the slave trade little more than a dependency of America; and the traffic, which bound it to the New World, kept all behind the coast-line a locked up land, a barbarous preserve for the slave hunter. The southernmost peninsula of Africa was visited, tenanted, and administered only with a view to the East Indies; and the Eastern coast of Africa was not so much a part of the African continent as the western shore of the Indian Ocean, linked to the opposite lands of Arabia and India.

Modern discoveries in the interior of Africa, coupled with

[1] Gibbon (chap. i.) says of Egypt—'By its situation that celebrated Kingdom is included within the immense peninsula of Africa; but it is accessible only on the side of Asia, whose revolutions, in almost every period of history, Egypt has humbly obeyed.'

PART II.

Modern discoveries have unified Africa.

such measures as the abolition of the slave trade, which in fact to a great extent made the discoveries possible, have done far more than bring to light snow-topped mountains under the Equator, the sources of great rivers, immense lakes, new native races, and the like. They have given unity to Africa, they have raised it into a continent from being a mere appendage to other continents. This work of creating and unifying, for it is hardly an exaggeration to use these terms, has been in the main the work of explorers, of missionaries, of men who, like Livingstone, have been at once explorers and missionaries; and the lasting thanks of those who care for civilisation are due at once to the individual men and to the societies, scientific, philanthropic, and religious, which backed their efforts.

Connexion between East Africa and Asia.

The connexion between West Africa and America, dishonourable and dishonoured, has been severed. It consisted in forced emigration from the Old World to the New, in the exportation of the native inhabitants of West African lands to work, and in time to people, American soil. The connexion between East Africa and Asia was somewhat different in kind, and has survived. It consisted in part no doubt in a slave trade, hardly yet stamped out, in carrying off Africans to the East rather for domestic than for praedial servitude. But it consisted too in Asiatic immigration, in Arab trade and settlement, and in the introduction of Mohammedan rule and the Mohammedan religion. The sultanate of Zanzibar is an offshoot from Arabia, and Arab blood and influence involving, be it remembered, if uncontrolled, slavery and the slave trade, is still potent in East Africa. To the Arabs have been superadded, especially in later times, East Indians, traders and agriculturists too. As far south as Natal Indian coolies and Indian settlers form a considerable proportion of the population. In Nyasaland the armed forces of the Government are Sikhs, and East Indians are trading and tilling the ground. At Zanzibar British India

has many representatives, and elsewhere on the East African coast the East Indian more than holds his own.

The Phoenicians in old days came trading down from the north. When modern history opened, an European people, the Portuguese, found their way up from the south. As long as the Portuguese kept the coast of East Africa, they kept it with a view to India and as part of their Indian Empire. Their arrival made no break in the connexion between East Africa and Asia. Again, the British hold on Zanzibar was mainly derived from India; and, when the first beginnings were made of a new British province in East Africa, they originated with the chairman of the British India Steamship Company.

We have then in East Africa a continuance of the old historic connexion with the East side by side with the opening and development of the African continent. In the foregoing pages stress has been laid upon the fact that, in the absence of railways, trade and colonisation moves from the coast inland along the water-ways, and that the great drawback to Africa has been the absence of water-ways, so that there has been little or no natural communication between the sea and the interior. Modern discoveries have unfolded a line of lakes in the centre of Africa. They by no means form a complete chain, but they are sufficiently within reach of one another to be already of great service to communication, and are likely to be of more use in the coming time. But they run from south to north, and only through the Shire and the Zambesi have they connexion at any point with the eastern sea. The northernmost group, the Nyanzas, drain to the Nile and Egypt, not in the direction of Mombasa or Zanzibar. The result is that in East Africa the ocean and the lakes are cut off from each other, and engineering science is asked to provide by rail the missing link. On the other hand, this very fact makes in a sense for the unity of Africa. On the map the eye follows the lakes

Water communication in Central Africa.

PART II. up the length of the continent from south to north, not diverted at this point or that to the coast, and it becomes more evident than before that Africa is one.

The English in Central and Eastern Africa.

How strong a hold Great Britain has secured upon these great lakes has been already noticed, and it will be borne in mind that, as a colonising power, she has long known in North America the value of inland seas. If it be asked why are the English in their present position in Central and Eastern Africa, the answer is that they are there, as in other parts of the world, through instinct and policy combined. The British colonial empire of old was confined to seaboards, peninsulas, and islands. The English never overran a continent, in the manner in which the Spaniards conquered Central and South America. Their continental possessions have come rather by gradual extension inland from the sea, except when pressure of foreign competition has quickened the movement, and state policy has taken the course which national instinct indicated. Strenuous once as slave-traders, in later and better times equally strenuous against the slave trade, the English in this century had long kept watch in East African waters. Off East Africa there lie islands such as have always attracted a seafaring and commercial race, such as, in the far East for instance, in the case of Singapore, of Penang, and of Hongkong, have become strong outposts of the British Empire, and great emporia of trade. Of these Zanzibar is the largest and most noteworthy, but Mombasa too is an island with harbours behind it, and Lamu and others might be quoted. There existed, therefore, to some extent in this coast-line a natural attraction for the English. Meanwhile, far away in the interior, the explorer by his discoveries excited men's imaginations and caused commercial restlessness; the missionary and philanthropist proclaimed aloud the duty laid on England to root out slavery by land as well as by sea; high policy subsequently came into play, and the doctrine of Sphere of Influence

marked out in advance a continental dominion. The mainspring of action was the competition of Germany, a new colonial power, active from having come late into the field, specially active in Africa, because in Africa there was room for a new comer. Lest Central Africa should pass wholly or mainly into the keeping of another European power, lest the people whose interests were predominant on the Lower Nile should be cut off from the head-waters of the river, the English resolved to go forward. As has been told, and as might have been in the case of England at any time foretold, private enterprise moved in front of the Government, and a Chartered Company played its part. Its charter was not long lived, its career was not fortunate, but it did its work in securing British interests; and if in after times, through British rule and influence, good comes out of or into East Africa, it must not be forgotten that something is owed to the men who projected the Imperial British East Africa Company.

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