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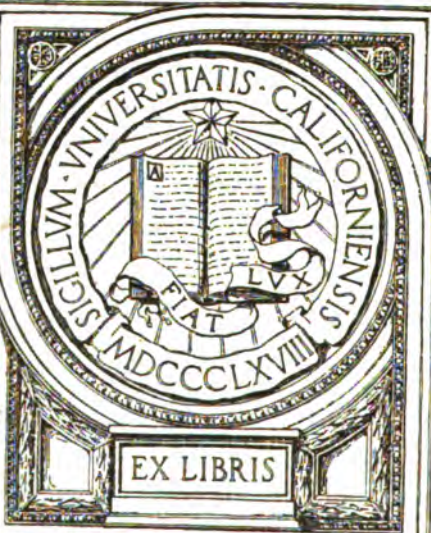
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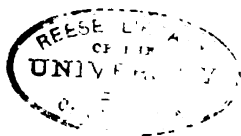
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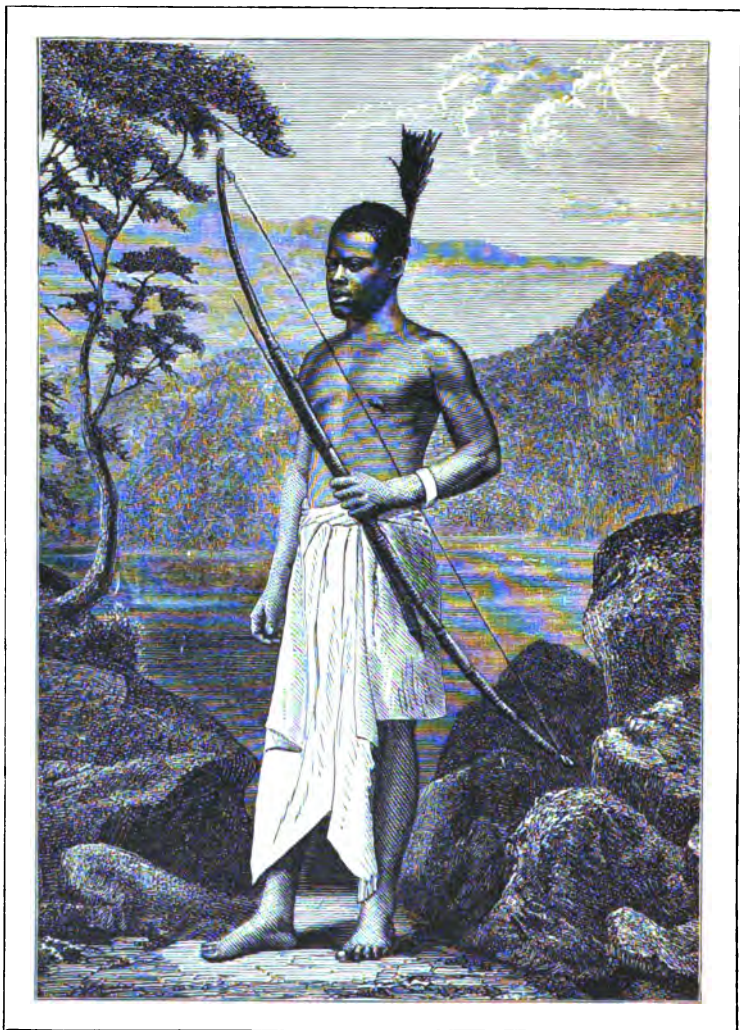
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'CHUMA,' LIVINGSTONE'S SERVANT: OF THE WAHIAO TRIBE.

(From a Photograph.)

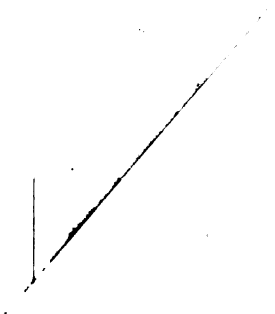
Chuma was released from the slave-traders on the Shiré river by Bishop Mackenzie and his party, and was constantly with Dr. Livingstone during his last nine years of travel. He accompanied Livingstone's remains to England, and has subsequently served with Bishop Steere in the Nyassa country.

ANNALS

SOCIETY OF AMERICA

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STANFORD'S
COMPENDIUM OF GEOGRAPHY AND TRAVEL
(NEW ISSUE)

A F R I C A

VOL. II. •

SOUTH AFRICA

BY

A. H. KEANE, F.R.G.S.

AUTHOR OF 'ASIA' IN SAME SERIES; 'EASTERN GEOGRAPHY,' ETC. ETC.

MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

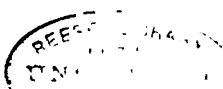


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PREFACE

IN the new issue of this series the single volume formerly thought sufficient for the treatment of African geography is replaced by two, each somewhat larger than that work. Yet the more than doubled space has seemed scarcely adequate to a proper exposition of the facts, both of a geographical and political order, which have accumulated with surprising rapidity since the leading Powers resolved, a few years ago, to transform this continent to a political dependency of Europe. Occurrences of far-reaching consequence have followed in such swift succession that in the preparation of this work the chief difficulty has been to keep pace with the shifting scenes. In some instances many carefully-prepared pages have had to be greatly modified, and even re-written, owing to the unexpected turn taken by events in various parts of the continent.

From the contents it will be seen that a somewhat wider scope is here given to the subject of geography than has hitherto been usual. Such an enlargement, however, is not only in harmony with the broader views now generally entertained by the leading exponents of geographical science, but may perhaps be regarded as specially desirable in the case of a region where everything is new, and where information on closely-allied subjects may be welcome to students unable to consult the innumerable books of travel, scientific periodicals, and memoirs in

which this information is dispersed. Hence the space here given to history, political questions, and ethnology, without detriment, it is hoped, to more strictly geographical topics, such as the physical features, hydrography, and natural history of the continent.

Of the original work by the late Keith Johnston nothing remains except a few passages, which appear as ordinary quotations, and some of the Ethnological Appendix, which is absorbed with much fresh matter in the body of the work.

Of the illustrations in the original edition only the frontispiece and three small figures in the text have been retained in this Volume. The new illustrations have been chosen from the most recent and authentic sources available, and it is hoped may be found to add interest and value to the text. Of these a considerable number have been redrawn from copyright photographs, and special thanks are due to Sir John Kirk, Mr. F. L. Moir, and the Rev. A. Wookey of the London Missionary Society, for their kind permission to copy several from their collections. For the remainder the works of Mr. H. M. Stanley, Vincent's *Actual Africa*, Farini's *Through the Kalahari Desert*, Bryden's *Gun and Camera in Southern Africa*, Dr. Brown's *Story of Africa*, and the *Tour du Monde*, have been put under contribution. Several have been reproduced from the photographs of Mr. W. Coates Palgrave; the "Victoria Nyanza Chief," on page 513, is from a photograph kindly lent by Mr. M'Dermott of the Imperial British East Africa Company; and the "Giraffes," on page 398, by kind permission of Messrs. Henry Dixon and Son, of Albany Street.

A. H. KEANE.

79 BROADHURST GARDENS, N. W.,
September 1895.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

THE CAMEROONS AND SOUTH-EAST ATLANTIC ISLANDS

	PAGE
General Survey—The Cameroons—German Annexation—The Cameroon Mountain—Rivers—Climate, Floro, Fauna—Inhabitants—The Bantu Races—The Cameroon Bantus—Stations, Trade, Prospects—The Gulf of Guinea Islands: Fernando Po; Prince's; St. Thomas; Annobon—The British South-East Atlantic Islands: Ascension; St. Helena; Tristan da Cunha; Diego Alvarez (Gough)—Table of the Gulf and South-east Atlantic Islands	1

CHAPTER II

FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA

(GABOON AND OGOWAY BASINS; LOWER CONGO)

General Survey—Results of Geographical Research—Physical Features—The Coast Ranges—River Basins; Gaboon, Ogoway, Knilu, Chiloango—Climate of the West Equatorial Seaboard—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—The Indigenous Bantus—The Ba-Kalai and Fans—The Cannibal Zone of Equatorial Africa—The Pygmy Races—Stations	35
---	----

CHAPTER III

THE CONGO FREE STATE

	PAGE
General Survey: Formation of the Free State—Progress of Geographical Research—Boundaries, Extent, Population—Physical Features—The Congo Basin—The Livingstone Falls and Congo Estuary—The Middle Congo and its Affluents—The Upper Congo, its Lakes and Tributaries—Lake Tanganyika and the Lualaba—Climate of the Congo Basin—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants and Native States—Garenganze, Katanga—Lunda, the Muata Yamvo's Kingdom—The U-Rua State—Manyuema and the Arabs of the Lualaba—The Ba-Lolo, Ba-Ngala, and Ba-Yansi Nations—The Ba-Luba and Tu-Shilange Territories—The Va-Chibokwe and Kwango Ba-Ngalas—Table of the Congo Tribes and Nations—Bantu and Negro contrasted—Mission of the Congo Free State—Railway Projects—Trade and Free-trade Area—Administration	69

CHAPTER IV

PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA

(ANGOLA—BENGUELA—MOSSAMEDES—HINTERLAND)

Extent, Boundaries, Population—Portuguese Administration, the Slave Trade—Exploration—Physical Features—Rivers Coanza, Cunene—Climate, Flora, Fauna—Inhabitants: the Congo Empire: the A-Bunda Nation; the Ganguellas; the Aborigines—Table of the Chief Angolan Tribes—Towns, Stations—The Boer Immigrants—Resources; Government; Prospects	131
--	-----

CHAPTER V

GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA

(OVAMPO, DAMARA, AND GREAT NAMAQUA LANDS)

German Annexations in South-West Africa—Boundaries, Extent and Population of the Protectorate—Geographical Research—Physical Features—Characteristics of Soil and Climate—Changed Climatic Conditions—Natural Resources; Minerals—Inhabitants; Bantu and Hottentot—The Ova-Mpo—The Boers;	
---	--

Upingtonia—The Ova-Herero and Hill Damaras—The Namas—The Hottentot Race and Language—Table of the Chief Tribes in German South-West Africa—Population according to Races—German Policy ; Prospects of the Colony—Seaports and Inland Stations—Administration—Walvisch Bay	163
---	-----

CHAPTER VI

CAPE COLONY

Extent, Boundaries, Coast-line—Dependencies ; Areas, Populations—Historical Survey ; the Portuguese Pioneers—The Dutch in South Africa—The English in South Africa—The Kafir Wars ; Kafir Genealogies—Geographical Research—Physical Features—The Karroos—River Systems—The Orange Basin—Climate—Fauna—Flora—The Native Populations—The Cape Hottentots—The Bantus—The Kafirs—The Bushmen—Chief Tribal Divisions—Towns and Stations—Railway Development—Griqualand West and its Diamond Fields—Resources : Tillage, Pasturage, Industries, Trade—Education, Finance, Religion, Communications—Administration—Political Forecast ; Confederation	194
---	-----

CHAPTER VII

SOUTH-EAST AFRICA

(NATAL WITH ZULULAND ; ORANGE FREE STATE AND TRANSVAAL)

General Survey : Areas and Populations—Historic Retrospect : the Zulu Military System ; the Great Trek ; History of Natal and the Boer States—Physical Features—Rivers ; the Limpopo—Climate—Natural Resources : Mineral Wealth—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—The Coolies, Zulus, and Whites of Natal—Inhabitants of the Orange Free State—Inhabitants of Transvaal—Towns, Stations—Swazi and Tonga Lands	279
---	-----

CHAPTER VIII

BRITISH SOUTH CENTRAL AFRICA

General Remarks—Political Divisions : I. BECHUANALAND SOUTH AND NORTH—Geographical Exploration—Physical Features—The Kalahari Wilderness—Fluvial Systems : Lake Ngami—Inhabitants of Bechuanaland—Table of the Chief Bechuana Nations—The Bushmen—Stations and Trade Routes—Material
--

Progress—II. ZAMBESIA SOUTH AND NORTH—Political Divisions, Boundaries, Extent—Historic Retrospect—The Zimbabwe Ruins—Geographical Research—British Occupation of Mashona and Matabili Lands—The Barotse and Makololo States—Physical Features of South Zambesia; Mineral Wealth—Matabililand Scenery—Climate—Fauna—Inhabitants—NORTH ZAMBESIA: Physical Features—Rivers of Zambesia—The Zambesi—The Victoria Falls—Lake Nyassa—The Shiré Basin—Lake Shirwa—Climate of North Zambesia—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—Table of the Chief Tribes and Nations in North Zambesia—The Ba-Lundas, Barotse, Mambundas, Ba-Shukulumbwe, Ba-Tonga, Manganja, Makololo, Awamwamba, Awawandia—The Stevenson Road	332
---	-----

CHAPTER IX

PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA (GAZALAND; MOZAMBIQUE)

Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Population—Portuguese Maladministration—Historic Retrospect; Present Relations—Physical Features; the Namuli Highlands—Rivers; Zambesi Delta—The Sabi, Pungwe, and Rovuma Rivers—Climate—Flora—Fauna—Natural Products—Inhabitants of Gazaland: Tongas; Ba-Lempas; Banyans; The Portuguese Half-breeds—Inhabitants of Mozambique: Wa-Yao; Makua—Table of the Chief Tribes and Nations in Portuguese East Africa—Towns and Stations: Lourenço Marques; Delagoa Bay; Inhambane; Sofala; Quillimane; Mozambique; Angosha; Fernão Vellozo; Ibo; Zumbo; Tete; Sena	448
---	-----

CHAPTER X

GERMAN EAST AFRICA

Historic Retrospect—Boundaries; Extent; Prospects—Geographical Exploration—Physical Features—Kilimanjaro—Rivers and Lakes; Sources of the Nile—Lakes Manyara, Eiassi, Victoria Nyanza, and Rukwa—Climate—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—Wa-Zambara; Wa-Zeguha—Wa-Sagara; Wa-Hehe; Ma-Kondé; Wa-Swahili; Wa-Taveita; Wa-Gweno; Karagwe; Wa-Huma Migrations—Table of the Chief Tribes and Nations in German East Africa—Towns; Stations—Kiloa; Dar-es-Salaam; Bagamoyo; Mpwapwa; Taborah; Ujiji	480
--	-----

CHAPTER XI

BRITISH EAST AFRICA

	PAGE
General Survey; Extent, Population, Political Situation—Geographical Exploration—The Tana, Juba, and Sabakhi Basins—Exploration of Masai and Kavirondo Lands—Exploration of the Equatorial Lake Region—Physical Features; the Coastlands—Masailand—Lakes Naivasha, Baringo and Samburu—The Kenia and Aberdare Highlands—Kavirondoland—Uganda; the Victoria Nile—Unyoro, Koki, Ankole—The Albertine Nile; Lake Albert Edward—The Semliki River; Lake Albert Nyanza—Ruwenzori—Inhabitants—Table of the Chief Tribes and Nations of Ibea—General Ethnical Relations in Ibea—The Bantus of the Tana Basin—The Masai; Wa-Kwafi; Andorobo—The Waganda; the Kitwara Empire—Political and Social Institutions—Kingdom of Unyoro—Towns; Stations—Progress and Prospects—The Zanzibar Protectorate . . .	528

CHAPTER XII

ISLANDS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

“Lemuria”; The Indo-African Continent—Madagascar—Historic Retrospect—Physical Features—Rivers; Climate—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—Social Progress; Spread of Christianity—Administration—Topography—Antananarivo; Tamatave; Diego Suarez—Nossi-Bé and the Comoro Group—The Mascarenhas: Mauritius; Réunion; Rodrigues—The Seychelles—The Cargados and Amirantes	597
--	-----

CHAPTER XIII

THE WEST AFRICAN ARCHIPELAGOES

Madeira; The Canaries; Cape Verd Islands; The Azores	636
INDEX	657

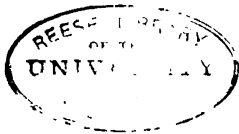
LIST OF MAPS

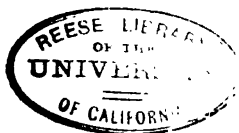
1. Orographical Map of Africa	<i>To face page 1</i>
2. German Cameroon	34
3. Congo Free State and French Congo	162
4. German South-West Africa	192
5. Cape Colony, Natal, Orange Free State	278
6. South African Republic, Bechuanaland, etc.	330
7. Rhodesia, British Central Africa, and Portuguese East Africa	442
8. German East Africa	526
9. British East Africa	596
10. Madagascar, Mauritius, etc.	634
11. West African Archipelagoes	654

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

	PAGE
1. "Chuma," Livingstone's Servant	<i>Frontispiece</i>
2. The Cameroon Mountain	5
3. Fernando Po	22
4. Jamestown, St. Helena	32
5. Rapids of the Ogoway	41
6. Falls of the Ivindo	43
7. Head of a Gorilla	48
8. Hippopotami	49
9. Ishogos	51
10. A Ba-Teke Native	55
11. Wambutti Pygmies at Home	61
12. View of Loango	64
13. Native of Cabinda	67
14. Village on the Lower Aruwimi	78
15. Stanley Pool	80
16. Yellala Falls	81
17. Banana Point	83
18. Seventh Cataract, Stanley Falls	84
19. Cascades of the Nepoko	90
20. South End of Lake Tanganyika	96
21. Herd of Elephants	104
22. Bantu Types from the Congo	122
23. Kavalli, Chief of the Ba-Biassi	124
24. The Songue Antelope	144
25. São Paulo de Loanda	153
26. Mossamedes	159
27. Banks of Orange River—Great Namaqualand	168
28. Bethany—Great Namaqualand	169
29. Hill Damara	178
30. Ova-Herero Woman, Namaqualand	180
31. Nama Hunts	185
32. Okahanja—Kamaherero's Kraal	191
33. Table Mountain, from Table Bay	217
34. The "Hundred Falls"—Orange River	224
35. Zebra	233
36. The Secretary Bird	234
37. A Kafir Kraal	244
38. Kafirs taking Snuff	246
39. Cape Town and Table Mountain	253
40. Main Street, Port Elizabeth	255
41. De Beers Mine, Kimberley. Open Workings at the Present Time	265

	PAGE
42. The Vaal River at Barkly West	293
43. A Zulu	308
44. Johannesburg	322
45. General View of Pretoria	323
46. Durban and Port Natal	325
47. The Principal Street of Durban	328
48. Molopolole, Town of the Bakwena Tribe	343
49. Molopo River	348
50. Pool on the Maritsani	349
51. The Upper Limpopo River	351
52. Masinya's Kraal—Ngamiland	363
53. Ruins at Zimbabwe	374
54. Salisbury	380
55. Two-Horned Rhinoceros	397
56. Giraffes	398
57. Blantyre Church	403
58. Zambesi at Shupanga	411
59. Victoria Falls of the Zambesi	415
60. Falls of Zou on the River Ruo	421
61. Baobabs on the Island of Chisumulu	426
62. Chief's House, Wankonde Tribe	432
63. The Governor-General's Palace, Mozambique	450
64. Rock Hills, Usambara	492
65. Kilimanjaro	495
66. Lake Uruji	500
67. South-West Extremity of Lake Victoria Nyanza	502
68. The Flower of the Baobab Tree	507
69. Euphorbia Candelabrum	508
70. Colobus Guereza	510
71. Victoria Nyanza Chief	513
72. Ivory at Bagamoyo	523
73. Ujiji, General View	528
74. View of Ripon Falls	552
75. South End of Albert Nyanza	561
76. Ruwenzori from Karimi	563
77. King Mutesa's Daughter	578
78. Uganda Boy	581
79. Mombasa, from the North Shore, with Custom-House and Fort	589
80. Landing Place, Zanzibar	594
81. Brown Mouse Lemur	598
82. The Traveller's Palm	613
83. Madagascar Oxen	617
84. Betsimisaraka Women	619
85. A Hova	620
86. The Palace of the Queen of Madagascar	624
87. General View of Tamatave	627
88. Chanarel Falls, Mauritius	632
89. Funchal	639
90. The Burning Mountain, from Yaiza, Lanzarote	643
91. Peak of Teneriffe	645
92. Las Palmas	649





SOUTH AFRICA

CHAPTER I

THE CAMEROONS AND SOUTH-EAST ATLANTIC ISLANDS

General survey—The Cameroons—German annexation—The Cameroon mountain—Rivers—Climate, flora, fauna—Inhabitants—The Bantu races—The Cameroon Bantus—Stations, trade, prospects—The Gulf of Guinea Islands: Fernando Po; Prince's; St. Thomas; Annobon—The British South-east Atlantic Islands: Ascension; St. Helena; Tristan da Cunha; Diego Alvarez (Gough)—Table of the Gulf and South-east Atlantic Islands.

General Survey

ABOUT the head of the Gulf of Guinea the northern and southern divisions of the continent are clearly separated by a great volcanic fault, whose main axis runs for about a thousand miles in the direction from south-west to north-east. At one extremity the Pico do Fogo ("Fiery Peak") rises to a height of 3250 feet above the island of Annobon; at the other stands the lofty Mount Alantica, culminating point of the Adamawa highlands (10,000 feet). Between these extremes the cones of the other islands in the Gulf—St. Thomas, 7000; Prince's, 2700; Fernando Po (Clarence Peak), 10,100—together with the

superb crests of the Cameroon group on the opposite mainland, 13,000 to 13,500 feet, are all disposed along the line of fault in the same north-easterly direction. The islands themselves, which stand at intervals of about 120 miles one from the other, lie in comparatively shallow waters, everywhere under 1000 and at Fernando Po falling to less than 350 fathoms. Hence it cannot be doubted that they form part of the same igneous system with which the more remote volcanic islets of Ascension and St. Helena may also have been connected.

But this volcanic insular and continental borderland between North and South Africa is distributed politically amongst no less than four European Powers. Ascension and St. Helena in the Atlantic, as well as the still more remote Tristan da Cunha group in the austral seas, are British Crown Colonies. Within the sphere of influence of the same Power comes the magnificent upland region of Adamawa, a recognised dependency of the Fulah empire of Sokoto, which is now a British protectorate, but which, belonging to the northern division of the Continent, does not come within the scope of the present volume. Of the chain of gulf islands the two central links, St. Thomas and Prince's, are Portuguese, the two outer, Annobon and Fernando Po, are Spanish possessions. All the rest—that is, the Cameroon highlands, with their unexplored hinterland stretching north-eastwards to Adamawa—forms part of the German colonial empire.

The Cameroons

Till recently the Cameroon highlands were commonly supposed to form a dependency of the British Empire, and they certainly came within the "sphere of British influence." They had been mainly explored by English

travellers, and English missionaries had long been engaged in evangelising the natives, and had for some years maintained the flourishing station of Victoria on the south coast. English traders also had for generations largely monopolised the local traffic, to such an extent that English was and still is the common medium of communication between the whites and the coast tribes.

But a few German traders had also of late years established factories and acquired lands on the slopes of the mountains; and when the German nation resolved to create a colonial empire this was considered sufficient ground for hauling down the British flag, which had already been hoisted at some points of the interior, and proclaiming the whole region a German protectorate. After protracted diplomatic negotiations the British Government accepted the "accomplished fact"; the distinguished traveller, Dr. Nachtigal, was sent out as Imperial Commissioner; the missionaries were dismissed, their vested interests being duly respected; and the Cameroons became German territory by agreement with Great Britain in 1885. At the same time an amicable arrangement with France resulted in the cession to that Power of certain German factories or trading stations on the Senegambia seaboard in exchange for all French claims south of the Niger delta and north of the Gaboon.

The northern frontier of the German domain towards the British Niger protectorate has been fixed at the Rio del Rey (Fiari), and beyond that river by a conventional line running north-eastwards to a point above Yola on the Benue. Southwards it is separated from French territory by the Rio del Campo (Etembué), giving to the Cameroons a coast-line of about three hundred miles, round what was formerly known as the Bight of Biafra. By the Franco-German Agreement of March 1894, the

frontier line of the French and German spheres of influence in the interior runs from the southern boundary to the Ngoko river, which is followed to 2° N. lat.; it is then drawn straight to the Sanga river, which it follows for eighteen miles, and then runs direct to a point at 4° N. lat. near Bania, whence it follows the 15th degree of east longitude to $8^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat., and then runs westwards across the Mayo Kebi straight to 10° N. lat., which parallel forms the boundary as far as the Shari river; the frontier is continued along the course of this river to Lake Chad.

Since the German occupation, several short expeditions have been made to the interior, especially by Schwarz and Knuston, who, in 1885, advanced some seventy miles north-eastwards to Lake Mbu; by Lieutenants Kund and Tappenbeck, who, despite much opposition from the natives, were able to determine the upper courses of several streams flowing to the Gulf of Guinea; by Knuston and Venau, who, in 1887, surveyed the uplands inhabited by the Bamboko nation; by Mr. H. H. Johnston, who, in 1888, ascended the Cross river, and collected much valuable geographical and ethnological information regarding the border lands between the British and German domains; by Dr. Zintgraff, who, in 1889, penetrated from the Cameroons north-eastward to Adamawa, where a junction with Flegel's route was effected at Donga; lastly by Lieutenant Morgen, who, in 1890-91, crossed from the Batanga coast along the course of the important river Sannaga (Mbam) to the powerful Fula kingdom of Tibati in Adamawa, and thence through Gasheka and across the Bakundi (Tarabba) valley to the Benue at Ibi. Nevertheless, only a very small portion of the region claimed by Germany as her "Hinterland" has been visited, while the territory brought under the

direct jurisdiction of the High Commissioner is estimated at less than 12,000 square miles, with a population of about half a million.

The Cameroon Mountain

The great geographical feature of this region is the Cameroon mountain, which in the terminal peaks known



THE CAMEROON MOUNTAIN.

as the "Three Sisters" attains an altitude of nearly 14,000 feet, and which is probably the culminating point on the west side of the continent. It is doubtless greatly exceeded in height by the giants of the Ruwenzori group, as well as by Kilimanjaro, Kenia, and the Abyssinian Semen on the eastern seaboard. But, springing sheer from the water's edge, it presents a more imposing sight than any of these eminences, which already stand on

plateaux several thousand feet above sea-level. The *Mongo-ma-Loba*, or "Mountain of the Gods," as it is called by the natives, was first scaled in 1847 by Merrick, who, however, failed to reach the summit. This exploit was reserved for Burton, Mann, and Calvo, who, in 1862, mounted to the terminal craters, from the highest of which (Victoria Peak) smoke was rising.

Thus was determined the igneous character of the Cameroon mountain, which in fact consists of an intrusive volcanic mass, everywhere presenting heaps of ashes, numerous lava streams, and recent scorix, besides dozens of lateral cones, the whole standing on an isolated base some 700 or 800 square miles in extent. The lower slopes are clad to a height of 6000 feet with a magnificent forest vegetation, succeeded higher up by grassy slopes, and towards the summit by bare lavas, which are at times streaked with snow. No native habitations rise higher than about 3500 feet, which also marks the limit of the cultivated plants, such as the coco-nut, banana, and oil-palm. Beyond these follows a tangle of bombax and other large African species bound in the coils of huge lianas, and gradually yielding to woodlands of an almost European character. But there is a remarkable dearth of Alpine forms, which may, perhaps, be explained by the comparatively recent origin of this West African igneous system.

North and south of the volcanic mass the prevailing formations are sand or gravel underlying a thick layer of alluvial mud, while here and there gravel heights with fragments of porphyry and quartz relieve the monotony of the level mangrove swamps fringing the fluvial estuaries, and extending to the foot of the hills. "Here are often discernible the traces of an ancient shore-line, showing that this continuous fringe of flat marsh-land which

borders so much of Western Africa was clearly formed by the constant alluvial deposit of the many streams and torrents perpetually coming down from the interior tableland" (H. H. Johnston).

Rivers

The Cameroons are almost everywhere encircled either by marine or fluvial waters. The rivers, though numerous, have generally short courses, none except the Sannaga (Mbam) rising far inland, and all converging in broad creeks or estuaries, such as those of the Rio del Rey, the Memeh (Ndobe), the Mungo, and the Cameroon. The last mentioned, the estuary of which is by far the largest on this part of the coast, gives its name to the whole region, and was itself so named by the early Portuguese navigators from the abundance of *Camerãos* or "prawns" found on its muddy banks. It was surveyed in 1886 by Johnston for some sixty miles to the point where it trends south-eastwards, rushing between gneiss walls over the falls formed by the outer escarpment of the plateau. Some miles below the falls, the Wuri, as the natives call the main headstream, sweeps round a large island, beyond which its united waters develop a spacious estuary, which is joined on the north by the Mungo, on the south by the Lungasi, Donga, and Kawkwa coast streams.

By far the most important of all these rivers are the Sannaga or Mbam, which rises in the very heart of Adamawa, and which is navigable for forty miles to the falls of Idia, and the Mungo, whose sources lie nearly 100 miles inland. After receiving the overflow of the Balombi-ma-Mbu, or "Elephant Lake," the Mungo descends through a series of rapids a total height of about eighty feet, beyond which it continues its south-westerly

course to the Cameroon estuary, where it develops a large delta. One branch of this muddy plain is the Bimbia, which enters the Gulf of Guinea at the station of Bimbia, and which is accessible to vessels of large draught. Throughout its lower course of over seventy miles, the Mungo is navigable by large boats, and is here obstructed only by one somewhat difficult rapid.

All the rivers following south from the Cameroon are, like it, interrupted by falls in their middle or lower course, and all present the same formation at their mouth where the alluvial, mangrove-covered banks are all disposed in the same direction from south to north under the influence of the marine current, which here sets normally from the equator towards the Gulf of Guinea. Such are the Edea, which is accessible to boats for over thirty-five miles; the Moanya, navigable by small steamers to the falls twenty-four miles from its mouth; and the Lobé or Great Batanga, whose picturesque cascade seen from the sea looks like a silver thread suspended athwart the stream, but which is really a copious river precipitated from a rocky ledge over fifty feet high. The Rio del Campo in the extreme south, and the Rio del Rey in the extreme north, are more important as political frontiers than as fluvial basins. The latter, which has been carefully surveyed by Johnston and Knuston, was long supposed to mingle its waters with the Memeh, which is now shown to be an independent coast stream reaching the gulf in a separate channel to the south both of the Rio del Rey and of the Rumbi.

Climate—Flora—Fauna

The regret felt in England at the cession of the Cameroons to Germany was partly due to the prevalent belief that these highlands might serve as a sanatorium or health resort for Europeans exhausted by the enervating climate of West Africa. But such a belief seems to have rested on no solid foundation of fact, and further experience has shown that these uplands, like Sierra Leone and so many other high grounds near the equator, afford little immunity from the effects of malaria and a uniformly high temperature combined with moisture. The Cameroons lie just beyond the zone of double rains along the Upper Guinea seaboard; but the numerous streams and exuberant vegetation are sufficient indication of an abundant rainfall, a condition which within the tropics may always be regarded as unfavourable to the physical constitution of the white race. It is not the heat but the saturated hot atmosphere that is so oppressive, and in the Cameroons the hot atmosphere is not only saturated but also often charged with malarious vapours rising to a considerable height from the surrounding marshy coastlands.

Higher up, the summer rains, usually lasting from May till September, are followed by fierce winter gales, and the volcano is seldom clear from fog except during the prevalence of the dry harmattan blowing from the Sahara across the Sudan to the Gulf of Guinea. It is obvious that the slopes of the great mountain are not a desirable residence for invalids. Owing to the porous nature of the soil, there is also a great deficiency of springs, none occurring higher than about 9000 feet. Hence the zone suitable for health resorts is considerably

restricted, and such establishments could be founded only at the few points within this zone that afford a supply of spring-water. Here have been settled for some time a few Swedish colonists, some of whom, such as Knuston and Benau, have done much useful exploring work in the surrounding districts.

Besides the already-mentioned banana, oil-palm, and coco-nut, the chief cultivated plants are ground-nuts, the wine-palm, manioc, yams, sweet potatoes, and the edible colocasia. The latter, locally known as "coco," is really the same tuber as the taro which is so widely diffused throughout Polynesia, whence it was probably introduced by English traders. All these useful plants thrive well on the rich alluvial plains and lower slopes of the uplands. The indigenous vegetation includes the mangrove of the low-lying coastlands and estuaries, the raffia palm and pandanus, also on the lowlands, and a varied growth of tropical and sub-tropical forest trees matted together by huge creepers on the higher slopes. One of these creepers is the *Landolphia florida*, which grows to a length of 180 or even 200 feet, and from which the Swedish settlers extract a kind of caoutchouc.

The elephant, formerly numerous on the seaboard, has mostly withdrawn to the interior, where large herds are still met in some of the woodlands fringing the banks of the streams, especially in the Mungo basin. But the tusks are coarse-grained, and the ivory collected in this region is of a brownish colour and of slight commercial value. Resident traders speak of the gorilla and chimpanzee, but none of these large anthropoid apes have yet been seen, although smaller monkeys are numerous in the wooded tracts. On the other hand, there is an immense variety of the lesser fauna, including several new species of venomous and harmless snakes,

batrachians, chameleons, and tortoises described by the zoologist Buchholz. A curiosity of the marine fauna is a peculiar species of yellow shrimp (*Thalassina*), which in the months of August and September almost chokes the Cameroon and neighbouring estuaries. These crustaceans, doubtless the Camerãos of the Portuguese navigators, are taken by the basketful, dried, smoked, and forwarded in vast quantities to the inland populations. The insect world is equally abundant, the ground glittering with the metallic sheen or phosphorescent light of beetles and fireflies, while the prodigious flocks of butterflies produce at a little distance the effect of a tremulous haze in the atmosphere. The Cameroons do not come within the zone of the true tsetse fly, which is here represented by the *Glossina*, an apparently closely-allied but harmless species.

Inhabitants

For the ethnologist there are few more interesting regions than the Cameroons. With the exception of the Southern Ibeas and of some Efik Negroes on the banks of the Memeh, this region is exclusively occupied by tribes of Bantu speech, and we now know from Johnston's careful survey that the lower course of the Rio del Rey coincides very nearly with the parting-line between the true Negro and the Bantu races on the west side of the continent. North and north-west of this river the Negro domain extends almost uninteruptedly through Upper Guinea and Senegambia to the Sahara; south of the same river the Bantu domain stretches across the continent southwards to the Hottentot-Bushman territory in the extreme south-west.

The significance of this great ethnological fact for the

future destinies of Africa can scarcely be overrated. It probably means that the south will eventually control the north, for the true Negro is of himself incapable of upward development, and without miscegenation cannot even be raised to the somewhat higher stage of culture represented by the Mohammedan Arabs of North Africa. All the intelligent and dominating peoples of Sudan—Fulahs, Toucouleurs, Kanuri, Haussas, Mabas, Dasas, Nubians—are mixed races, where the Negro element is in inverse ratio to the material and moral progress of the people. Where that element exclusively or mainly prevails, as amongst the Ashanti and others of Upper Guinea, the Battas of Adamawa, the Mosgus of the Chad basin, the Nubas of Kordofan, the Bari, Shilluks, and others of the White Nile, there is practically no progress.

On the other hand, the higher Bantu groups—that is, those in which the Negro element is least pronounced—are of themselves capable of advancement, and without miscegenation can under judicious European control be elevated to a relatively high degree of social culture. Here, again, the non-Negro element is in direct ratio to the advancement of the people, as witness the present condition of Basutoland under healthy European influences and of North Bechuanaland under that remarkable personality Khama, ruler of the powerful Bamangwato nation.

The Bantu Races

What is this non-Negro element? A satisfactory answer to this question will go far to solve the complex problem of South African ethnology, and cannot fail to be of great practical service to those European statesmen and chartered corporations who have recently accepted

the responsibility of controlling the future destinies of half the continent.

On the constituent elements of the Bantu races the present writer remarked in the year 1884 :—

“The Wa-Huma, to whom the attention of ethnologists has scarcely yet been seriously directed, present some points of great anthropological interest, probably affording a solution of the difficulties connected with the constituent elements of the Bantu races in East Central Africa. Speke had already observed that the chiefs of the Bantu nations about the great lakes were always Wa-Huma, a pastoral people evidently of Galla stock, and originally immigrants from the Galla country. Since then it has been ascertained that several Wa-Huma communities live interspersed amongst the mixed Bantu nations of the lacustrine plateau; and J. M. Schuver was recently informed that the Negro inhabitants of the Afils country were governed by a Galla aristocracy.

“From these and other indications it seems highly probable that in point of fact the Bantu peoples are fundamentally Negroes in diverse proportions affected by Wa-Huma or Galla—that is, Hamitic—elements. The Wa-Huma, who, under the name of Wa-Tusi, are found as far south as the U-Nyamezi country, are by recent observers unanimously described as a very fine race, with oval face, straight nose, small mouth, and, generally speaking, regular Caucasian features. Such a type is found everywhere cropping out amid the surrounding Negroid populations throughout the southern half of the continent, and the conclusion seems irresistible that it should be referred to those Wa-Huma, or Hamitic Gallas, probably for ages advancing as conquerors from the north-east into the heart of the continent.

“No distinct mention is made of the Wa-Huma

speech. It is known, however, to differ from that of the Bantus proper; and when we hear that the late King M'Tesa of Uganda spoke Galla as his mother-tongue, and was proud of his Galla ancestors, little doubt can remain on this point. The Wa-Huma are also distinguished by their intense love both of personal freedom and political autonomy, sentiments which are but feebly developed amongst the true negro populations. Such is their horror of captivity and a foreign yoke that those who have failed to maintain their independence are no longer regarded as true Wa-Huma. The very women who have the misfortune to fall into the hands of the Arab slave-dealers are looked upon as degraded for ever, and, should they escape from bondage, are burnt alive by their own people. Traits of this sort would almost alone suffice to suspect at least a very large infusion of non-Negro blood in the Wa-Huma race. This element we may now trace with some confidence to the Hamites of North-East Africa as its true source."¹

The Bantus may therefore be regarded as a Negroid—that is, a modified Negro—race, in which the Hamites of North-East Africa constitute the modifying element. The modification itself is obviously a question of degree, naturally greater in the east than in the west, with every shade of transition in the intervening central regions. This conclusion is amply confirmed by Stanley, who has had more opportunities of studying the various Bantu populations than any other living observer. In *Through the Dark Continent* (i. 251) he speaks of the Wa-Kerewé of Ukerewé Island, in the Victoria Nyanza, as “a mixture of the Ethiopic [Hamitic] and Negro type”; and again in *Darkest Africa* we are told that certain Wa-Huma chiefs of Usongora “were as like in features to the finest of the

¹ *Ethnology of Egyptian Sudan*, Stanford, 1884, pp. 9, 10.

Somali types and Wa-Galla as though they were of the same race" (ii. 317). We now see that they were, in fact, of the same race, for both Somalis and Gallas are Hamites; and when it is further remembered that the Hamites themselves are one of the main divisions of the primæval Caucasian stock, we begin to understand the comparisons so frequently drawn by travellers between certain South African groups and our own European races.¹

At the same time, the term Bantu is far more intelligible in a linguistic than in an ethnological sense. We can confidently speak of a Bantu stock language, for all the Bantu idioms bear the closest family likeness, and are admittedly derived from a single source. But we cannot speak of a Bantu stock race, for we have seen that these populations are essentially mixed; the physical type nowhere presents any uniformity, but is continually shifting from group to group according to the predominance of the Negro, Hamitic, or possibly even other elements; for the world is very old, and who can say what migrations and interminglings may not have taken place during the countless ages covered by the expression "prehistoric times"?

The Cameroon Bantus

In this region there appear to be two distinct tribal groups—the primitive or indigenous Bantus, who occupy the central parts, and who are supposed to represent the first waves of migration, probably from the east; and the more recent intruders from the south, who now hold the northern plains as far as the Negro domain, and the southern slopes to and beyond the Cameroon river. The

¹ See article "Caucasic Races," in Cassell's *Storehouse of Information*.

distinction is based, not on physical appearance, which is nowhere sufficiently marked for purposes of classification, but on linguistic grounds, the indigenous tribes speaking archaic Bantu idioms degraded by long contact with their Negro neighbours, while all the later arrivals except the Ibeas speak comparatively pure Bantu tongues connected by imperceptible transitions along the seaboard with those of the Lower Congo. Subjoined is a tolerably complete list of all the Cameroon tribes grouped according to this distinction, which was first indicated by H. H. Johnston :—

Indigenous—

Bayoñ	Extreme north-east.
Ndob and Nsõ	Interior, north slope Ndob Pinda Mountains.
Boñkeñ	About sources of the Wuri.
Basa	Between the Wuri and Lungasi rivers.
Baluñ (Balong)	Lower Mungo river.
Abo and Buduman	Between the Mungo and Upper Wuri rivers.
Barombi	Upper Mungo basin.
Wuri	Middle Wuri river.

Intruders—

Barondo and Bafarami	North-westernmost of all Bantu tribes, near the Rio del Rey.
Bakish	Left bank of the Mameh.
Bakundu	Northern slopes Upper Mameh, and thence east to the Mungo.
Bumboko, or Bambuku	Western slopes and coast between the Memeh and Bimbia.
Bakwiri (Bakwili)	Southern slopes, north from the Bimbia.
Isubu	About the Bimbia.
Dnala	Lower Wuri and Cameroon estuary.
Bakoko	} Coastlands between the Cameroon estuary and the Rio del Campo.
Banoko and	
Bapuko, or	
"Great Batanga"	
Bafindi	
Ibea or Mabea	

Amongst the northern Bakundus a social movement is now in progress, which possesses much interest in

connection with the question of domestic slavery. This agricultural nation imports all its slaves from the far north—that is, probably from the Benue basin—and to these robust and intelligent Negro or Negroid serfs is left the entire cultivation of the land. They occupy separate residences, and in some places even form little independent States within the State. The result is that they are gradually turning the tables on their enervated masters, and acquiring not only the actual possession of the land, but the political supremacy itself (Richardson).

Of all the Cameroon tribes the best known are the Bakwiri and their Duala neighbours, who dwell in the vicinity of the European factories and missionary stations. The latter are typical Bantus with regular, almost European features, and, what is still more remarkable, with well-developed lower extremities, in this respect presenting a striking contrast to the characteristic Negro races. Nor can their fine physical qualities be attributed to contact with the whites, for they are so proud of their racial purity that until recently they killed off all half-castes, regarding such fair-skinned offspring as a disgrace to the nation.

Both the Dualas and the Bakwiri are well skilled in the "drum language," which is so prevalent along the western seaboard. This curious "phonographic system," the knowledge of which is jealously guarded from slaves, women and the whites, is no mere code of signals, but a well-developed method of "tam-taming," by which sustained conversation can be rapidly carried on at great distances. Words and sentences are distinctly expressed by the varied notes of the drum, and amongst the Bakwiri by the horn, whose echoes resound from hill to hill, and communicate intelligence of war, peace, or any important event to the remotest confines of the land.

Till recently cannibalism in a mitigated form, or as a

religious ceremony, was still prevalent amongst most of these tribes, none of which, despite their long intercourse with Europeans, have advanced much beyond the social state represented by witchcraft, ordeals, and human sacrifices. Nobody is supposed to die a natural death, and as custom exacts life for life, every death, however brought about, requires a fresh victim, usually by fire, water, or poison. This practice resulted some years ago in the total depopulation of the islet of Ambas, near Victoria, where, the bulk of the people having exterminated each other by their daily ordeals, the few survivors took refuge on the mainland. They represented the old Amboz (Zambus) tribe, from whom the Cameroon mountain was by the Portuguese originally named Terra dos Ambozes.

The Ibeas (Mabea, or "Brush People") speak a very different language from the Dualas and other later Bantu immigrants from the south. They appear to have arrived still more recently, not from the south, but from the east. Like the Fans of the Ogoway basin, they have long been moving from the interior towards the coastlands, and have already reached the seaboard at the Lobé river. They bring down ivory from the unexplored inland regions which stretch away towards the hypothetical "Lake Liba," and beyond it towards the Congo-Chad water-parting. It is doubtful whether they are Bantus at all, and further research may show that their affinities are rather with the Fans or the Zandehs (Niam-Niams), whose domain extends from the Congo-Nile divide for an unknown distance westwards.

Stations—Trade—Prospects

The Portuguese seem never to have held any permanent posts in this region, where the most important,

if not the earliest, European settlement is *Victoria*, founded in 1858 by the English Baptist missionaries after their expulsion by the Spaniards from the neighbouring island of Fernando Po. *Victoria* stands on *Ambas Bay*, at the south-west extremity of the mountain, whence a superb view is commanded of the neighbouring wooded shores and of the Fernando Po peaks in the hazy distance. It is accessible to vessels of average size, and might be converted into an important naval station by cutting a short canal across the muddy neck of the promontory separating *Ambas Bay* from the deep and well-sheltered inlet of *Man-of-War Bay*. Since the German occupation the English missionaries have been replaced by others from Switzerland, whose efforts to substitute the German for the English language have caused much mental confusion amongst their few Bakwiri converts.

North of *Victoria* the only post is the fishing-village of *Bibundi*, to which the German traders are endeavouring to divert the produce hitherto forwarded to the English factories in the Calabar river. A more important place is *Bimbia*, near the entrance to the *Bimbia* branch of the Mungo. Although of somewhat difficult access, especially during the rainy season, when the surf breaks fiercely over the neighbouring bar, *Bimbia* serves as the outlet for the numerous Bakwiri villages dotted over the surrounding heights. Farther inland are *Mbinga*, on the Mungo delta, and the American missionary station of *Bakundu-ba-Nambele*, in the territory of the Bakundu nation.

On the south side of the Cameroon estuary, here navigable by large vessels, is a group of ten or twelve native villages, such as *King Akwa's Town*, *King Bill's Town* (here all the tribal chiefs are "kings"), which are

collectively known as the *Cameroons*. This place has been selected as the seat of the new administration, the Governor's residence occupying a neighbouring terrace, while a kind of sanatorium has been founded at *Kaiser Wilhelm's Bad* on the sandy beach at Point Swellaba, near Cape Cameroons, on the north side of the entrance to the estuary.

In the Batanga and Ibea territory, between the Cameroon estuary and the French frontier, there are no European settlements beyond a few factories near the mouth of the Moanya river. In exchange for European textiles, hardware, spirits, firearms, and ammunition, these and the other factories in the Cameroons take such native products as ivory, caoutchouc, ebony, dye-woods, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, palm oil and ground-nuts. Some of the factories are managed by natives, and all the coast tribes are keen traders and mostly "middlemen"; that is to say, they stand between the European dealers and the producers of the interior. Hence their extreme jealousy of all travellers, and their open and secret opposition to all expeditions organised to explore the "Hinterland." After leaving the seaboard travellers suddenly find themselves beset by all kinds of unforeseen difficulties; the guides lose their way, the porters throw down their loads and disappear in the bush, the explorer himself is even occasionally carried off by a dose of poison, or "a gourd of bad water," as the untoward event may be reported at the coast stations.

Under these adverse conditions the Hamburg merchants may continue to develop a flourishing trade in spirits, which are here called "rum," and which have hitherto constituted two-thirds of all the imports. But for German immigration, a primary object of the occupation, there is no field in the Cameroons region. The

country is absolutely unsuited for European colonisation, and in any case no white peasantry could compete with the native cultivators, who are inured to the climate, who employ slave labour, and whose plantations, as in the Bakundu territory, are as carefully tended as a Midlothian farm. The present political masters of the land can scarcely hope to do more than retain a fair share of the local trade, and even here they are threatened with the increasing competition of the native middlemen. There were only about 150 Germans in the colony in 1894, in which year the revenue scarcely exceeded £30,000; imports (spirits, firearms, gunpowder, salt, rice), £232,000; exports (palm-oil, kernels, rubber), £238,000.

The Gulf Islands

Of the south-east Atlantic islands by far the most important is FERNANDO PO, whose area and (undeveloped) economic value greatly exceed those of all the others taken collectively. The present name is merely the Spanish form of Fernão do Po, its Portuguese discoverer, who himself named it *Formosa*, or the "Beautiful," a term amply justified by its imposing appearance, luxuriant vegetation, and charming sylvan scenery. Clarence or Isabel Peak, the culminating point (10,000), is an extinct or quiescent volcano, which, with the Cameroon mountain on the opposite side of the intervening strait, about eighteen miles wide, forms a magnificent gateway leading to equatorial Africa.

This passage, which in clear weather presents one of the grandest marine panoramas on the globe, nowhere exceeds 280 to 290 feet in depth, and the shallow waters extend some distance beyond the island before

the soundings suddenly reveal depths of nearly 600 fathoms. The Fernando Po volcano thus appears to rest on the same pediment as the Cameroons, and evidently formed part of the mainland within a comparatively recent geological epoch.

From the summit, which was first ascended by Becroft,¹ numerous torrents descend in cascades and



FERNANDO PO.

streams to every part of the coast, sustaining a vigorous tropical vegetation, which is specially remarkable for its prolific growth of underwoods, orchids, ferns, and mosses. The flora corresponds, according to elevation, with that of the mainland, and nearly twenty species on the uplands have been identified with those of the temperate zone on the Abyssinian highlands on the opposite side of the continent. The cinchona has been successfully

¹ The feat has even been performed by a lady, the Polish novelist Hajota, who accompanied her husband, Lieut. Ragozinski, to the summit in January 1890. On the peak they found a bottle with enclosed note left by a previous climber, Julian Pellou, dated April 3, 1860.

introduced; coffee, cotton, tobacco, and the sugar-cane thrive well on the plantations, and maize, rice, the banana, manioc, and yams yield an abundant supply for the local consumption.

Three species of apes, formerly indigenous, have disappeared, and the large fauna is now exclusively represented by horned cattle and other domestic animals. An antelope, however, still survives on the higher grounds. There are several species of snakes, and birds and insects are met in considerable variety.

It is uncertain whether Fernando Po was inhabited at the time of its discovery, probably about the year 1486. But the stone implements that have been found in various parts show that it was occupied at some time by men of the neolithic period. The Bubi, as the present natives are collectively called, seem to have immigrated from the mainland about 400 years ago. According to Johnston, they belong to the indigenous group of Bantus who reached the Cameroons from the east at some unknown epoch. The term Bubi, written "Boobies" by the English, means "men"; and these men, numbering about 30,000, are scattered in five or six distinct tribal groups over the interior of the *Achimama*, or "universe," as they call their island home. They are a feeble folk, who were long oppressed by their Portuguese and Spanish taxmasters. But they got rid of the former by poisoning all the wells and running waters, and nearly compelled their Spanish successors to retire by refusing to supply them with provisions. Now, however, harmony prevails, and the chief native "king," who resides on the east side of the island, recognises the suzerainty of the Spanish governor.

The Spaniards have been in possession since 1778, when the island was ceded to them by Portugal. But

in 1827 the English occupied *Clarence Town (Santa Isabel)*, on the north coast, as a naval station for the suppression of the slave trade. Richard Lander, the African explorer, lies buried in a neighbouring cemetery. This is the only town in the island: but a kind of health-resort has been established at the village of *Basileh*, which lies a few miles inland from Clarence Town at an altitude of over 1000 feet above sea-level. With a heavy annual rainfall of from 100 to 120 inches, and a normal temperature of about 78° F., Fernando Po is necessarily unsuitable for European colonisation. The only white residents are a few English and Portuguese traders and planters; but the foreign trade is slight, and has recently even diminished.

About midway between Fernando Po and St. Thomas lies the *Ilha do Principe*, or **PRINCE'S ISLAND**, so named by its Portuguese discoverers because it was granted about the year 1500 to a prince of the Braganza dynasty. It is an extremely fertile volcanic rock, the "garden of Africa," less than half the size of the Isle of Wight, watered by countless streamlets, all flowing northward from the southern heights which culminate in a peak nearly 3000 feet high. During the days of slave labour it was a flourishing sugar-plantation, and also an important depôt of slaves destined for the American market. Now all its prosperity is gone, and its few Negro inhabitants are mostly centred in the little port of *Santo Antonio*, on a sheltered inlet on the north-east coast.

Beyond Prince's follows the far larger and even more lovely island of **ST. THOMAS**, which in the wooded peak of the same name on the west side rises to an altitude of 7000 feet. St. Thomas lies almost on the equator, which separates it from the neighbouring *Rolas*, or Dove islet, at its southern extremity. But, thanks to the cool

southern current by which it is enveloped, it enjoys a relatively mild temperature, and is by far the healthiest of the Gulf Islands. The low-lying coast is certainly dangerous; but the higher grounds, despite an excessive rainfall, are regarded as a sort of sanatorium by the European residents on the malarious West African sea-board. The Agoa Grande, one of the numerous streams fed by the tropical rains, tumbles over the romantic Blu-Blu cascade just before reaching *Cidade*, capital of the island, on the north-east coast.

These streams, which water every glen, nourish a rich and diversified flora comprising nearly 450 species, mostly allied to those of the mainland. But the fauna presents some remarkable features implying long separation from, if not complete geological independence of, the continent. Of the eighteen species of land molluscs, all but one are peculiar to the island, which has also an indigenous monkey as well as a bat found nowhere else.

St. Thomas enjoys the distinction of being one of the few African tropical lands where the white race has succeeded in establishing itself. Soon after its discovery, towards the close of the fifteenth century, it was occupied by some Portuguese settlers; and their descendants, though long harassed by French corsairs, and afterwards by Angolan blacks from the mainland, have become perfectly acclimatised on the uplands. The Angolans also still survive on the west side, where they preserve their Bantu speech and national usages. In recent years the population has rapidly increased, and is chiefly occupied on the flourishing coffee, cacao, and sugar plantations. Since its introduction some years ago the cinchona has thriven well, and as many as a million of these valuable trees now cover the slopes up to a height of 4500 feet.

ANNOBON, last member of the Gulf volcanic chain, is a

three-crested wooded rock inhabited by some 3000 blacks, descendants of castaways or slaves introduced by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, but now Spanish subjects. The only anchorage is on the north side, where stands *San Antonio da Praia*, residence of the governor. Annobon is the Spanish form of the Portuguese *Anno Bom*—that is, “Good Year”—so named because discovered by Escobar and Santarem on the first day of the year 1471. No settlement took place till 1550, and in 1778 it was ceded with Fernando Po to Spain. The island has good water, and produces excellent oranges and other fruits, which it supplies to passing vessels.

The British South-East Atlantic Islands

ASCENSION lies about 960 miles south-west of Cape Palmas, the nearest point on the African mainland. It is a rugged volcanic rock of oval shape, seven or eight miles long, and apparently of recent origin, resting on the “Challenger Bank,” a submarine ridge which forms the “divide” between the deep south-eastern and still deeper south-western Atlantic waters. From the culminating point of the Green Hills, on the west side (2650 feet), a view is commanded of some forty now extinct cones and craters scattered in disorder over the whole surface. European fruits and vegetables thrive in the fertile valleys of the Green Hills, which enjoy a healthy climate, with a normal temperature of 73° F., falling on the higher summits to 60° F., but rising to 84° at *George Town* on the north-west side. Owing to the excessive heat of this station, which stands on Clarence Bay, the only frequented anchorage, the British Government a few years ago built a hospital or convalescent home on a neighbouring wooded eminence, 2000 feet

high, for troops serving on the West African seaboard. A conduit over a mile long conveys good water from this place to George Town.

The chief resource of Ascension are its gigantic green turtles (*Testudo viridis*), some of which weigh 10 or 11 cwt. The flesh is consumed by the inhabitants, and large numbers are shipped for England to supply the tables of the wealthy classes with turtle soup.

Ascension appears to have been discovered in 1502 by Juan de Nova, surnamed Gallego—that is, the Galician—at that time in command of a Portuguese fleet. It remained unoccupied till the year 1701, when Dampier was here wrecked. He and his crew would have perished of thirst but for some wild goats, by following whose track they discovered in the Green Hills the running waters still known as “Dampier’s Spring.” After a three weeks’ residence they were rescued by an English vessel, and the incident was regarded as an act of possession. But formal occupation was deferred till the year 1815, when the British Government placed a small garrison in the island to prevent other Powers from making it a base of operations to facilitate Napoleon’s escape from St. Helena.

Ascension lies right in the track of the south-east trades, under whose influence, perhaps increased by the occasional crash of huge icebergs from the Antarctic regions, the Atlantic billows, twenty to thirty feet high, break with fury against the windward coast. But the uplands are not sufficiently elevated to intercept the moisture-bearing clouds from that quarter. Hence the rainfall is insufficient to nourish a large indigenous flora, which comprises only two flowering shrubs (*Hedyotis ascensionis* and *Euphorbia origanoides*¹), besides less than

¹ The *hedyotis* differs little from other African species, while the

twenty smaller cryptogamous species. But a considerable increase of moisture has been observed since the introduction of numerous exotics by Mr. Bell, who has converted the Green Hill slopes into a vast garden of acclimation for the eucalyptus, araucaria, juniper, acacia, and hundreds of other foreign plants. This experiment shows that at least in some localities the planting of the land may have beneficial results on the climate.

Dampier's goats were not indigenous, but had been landed to stock the island by some passing navigators. The cat, dog, pheasant, poultry, guinea-fowl have been introduced in the same way, and, like the goats, many have reverted to the wild state. As in so many other islands, snakes are unknown, and the native fauna is very poor.

Nominally a Crown Colony, Ascension is practically a sort of naval station occupied only by a few officers, sailors, soldiers, and provision dealers, and administered like an English arsenal by an almost absolute governor.

Some 830 miles south-east of Ascension on the direct route to the Cape, from which it is distant 2000 miles, lies the larger and more famous island of ST. HELENA. Before the opening of the Suez Canal, which diverted most of the sea-borne traffic from the southern waters, St. Helena enjoyed considerable importance as a victualing station and port of call for shipping plying round the Cape between Europe and the East. In the days of sailing-vessels it even served, like Tierra del Fuego and some other isolated points, as a sort of oceanic post-office, where letters were called for and left by passing vessels under a basalt block which is still preserved.

euphorbia " belongs to a group of littoral, mostly shrubby species, widely spread in Polynesia, with one species in the West Indies and the Bermudas, and two on the western coast of tropical Africa " (*Challenger Expedition*, vol. i. Botany ; Report III. p. 65).

The formation is entirely igneous—basalts, pumice, and other old and recent volcanic rocks, with no trace of metamorphic or sedimentary deposits. Hence the island is clearly of oceanic origin, and can scarcely at any time have formed part of the mainland. On the other hand, there are abundant evidences of vast denudation, showing that it must have formerly occupied a much larger area than at present. The submarine bank on which it stands, and which at one time rose above the surface, extends all round the periphery for a distance of two or three miles, and then the sounding-line plunges abruptly from depths of 400 or 500 feet into abysmal waters over 2000 fathoms deep. Owing to the extreme hardness of the plutonic rocks, the work of erosion, carried on simultaneously by the marine and running waters, must have lasted vast ages, and it has been estimated that the waves must have taken from 40,000 to 50,000 years merely to reduce certain headlands to their present fragmentary state.

The whole surface of the island is of an extremely rugged character, scored with deep ravines such as Gregory's Valley, strewn with fantastic blocks such as "Lot and his Wife," surmounted by long-extinct craters and a chaos of peaks, some over 2000 feet high and culminating in Diana's Peak (2720 feet) near the former centre of eruption at the back of Sandy Bay on the south side.

Notwithstanding its intertropical position within 1100 miles of the equator, St. Helena enjoys an equable climate with a normal temperature ranging from about 50° to 80° F., and a moderate rainfall of fifty inches on the uplands and twenty-eight to thirty at Jamestown on the north coast. These favourable conditions, which make the island quite suitable for European settlement, are due to

its position within the zone of the cool Antarctic current and invigorating south-east trade-winds.

The moisture suffices to support an exuberant vegetation, and at the time of the discovery, the whole island was forest-clad from the water's edge almost to the highest summits. But this natural flora, which included the ebony, a distinct species of tree-fern, and nearly eighty other peculiar forms, has mostly disappeared, and is now replaced by such economic plants as tea, coffee, sugar-cane, cotton, indigo, the vine, apple, pear, besides the European oak, cypress, and some other forest growths.

European domestic animals, ox, sheep, goat, poultry, have also driven out most of the indigenous fauna, which presented even more independent forms than the vegetable kingdom. It comprised a plover (*Charadrius pecuarius*) elsewhere unknown, besides nearly fifty distinct species of butterfly, and eleven land molluscs whose nearest congeners are found in the remote islands of the Indian and Pacific Oceans.

The first inhabitants of St. Helena were some Portuguese mutineers, landed, with a few slaves, by Albuquerque in 1513; that is, eleven years after its discovery by Juan de Nova. But no further settlement was made by the Portuguese, who were succeeded in 1651 by the Dutch, and these in 1666 by the English, who have become perfectly acclimatised. They are even distinguished by personal beauty, though lacking the florid complexion of the race, which may possibly be due to mixture with the African slaves, Chinese and Malay coolies introduced at different times. But since the ruin of the export trade caused by the opening of the Suez Canal, the population has steadily decreased, especially by emigration to the Cape. Nevertheless, England cannot afford to abandon this oceanic Crown Colony, whose pros-

perity must always revive whenever the overland route to India becomes temporarily blocked by naval operations in the Mediterranean. "England, the great carrying Power of the world, may find it more advantageous to trust to her own strength and the security of the open seas than to run the gauntlet of the numerous strategical positions in the Mediterranean, each of which is capable of affording impregnable shelter to a hostile fleet; and though the ultimate key to the Indian Ocean is in our own hands, our passage to it may be beset with a thousand dangers."¹

The only centre of population is *Jamestown*, the capital, situated on the west or leeward side, at the outlet of a deep gorge, which is occasionally swept by freshets. The station is defended by military works crowning the neighbouring Ladder Hill, so called from the long flight of steps by which it is approached from the town. The track leads thence over Rupert Hill eastwards to *Longwood*, where Napoleon was kept under arrest for six years till his death in 1821. His remains, which had been interred in the neighbouring "Valley of the Tomb," were removed to Paris in 1840. Another memorable site is Mount Halley (2420 feet), so named from the illustrious English astronomer, who set up his observatory on this peak in 1676, and thus began the observation of the southern heavens which was afterwards continued by Herschel, and is now being prosecuted with such brilliant success by Dr. David Gill at the Cape.

In the extreme south-east Atlantic are two other British islets, TRISTAN DA CUNHA and DIEGO ALVAREZ. The latter, discovered early in the sixteenth century by the Portuguese pilot Alvarez, whose real Christian name

¹ Sir R. Lambert Playfair, Address to the British Association at Leeds, 1690.

was *Gonçalo*, is often called GOUGH, from the English mariner who rediscovered it in 1713. It is a rugged mass 4400 feet high, whose sheltered creeks, fertile dales, and well-stocked waters have never attracted any settlers



JAMESTOWN, ST. HELENA.

beyond some American seal-fishers who have occasionally resided on the island during the season.

Gough lies 245 miles south-east of the little Tristan da Cunha group, which is distant 1840 miles west of the Cape. Although discovered in 1506 by the Portuguese navigator whose name it perpetuates, it was never occupied

till the beginning of the present century ; but it has been frequently visited by sailing-vessels, which, by deflecting their course so far south, fall in with the west winds, and are thus enabled more easily to double the Cape.

The group consists of three volcanoes—Tristan da Cunha, 8500 feet high ; Inaccessible, about 20 miles to the south-west ; and Nightingale, 12 miles to the south-east of the latter—all composed entirely of lavas and terminating in craters now flooded by blue lakelets. Of the collective area, some 20,000 acres, two-thirds are comprised in Tristan, whose perfectly circular snow-clad cone is visible in clear weather for a distance of nearly 100 miles. Notwithstanding its relatively high latitude ($37^{\circ} 10' S.$) it enjoys a remarkably mild but damp climate, with a temperature varying from about $58^{\circ} F.$ in winter to 68° in summer.

Like that of so many other oceanic islands which have never been connected with the mainland, the flora presents some peculiarities, such as the forests of huge algæ, 150 to 200 feet long, fringing the coast to a width of nearly half a mile. There are also some heaths and a prickly grass growing in dense, tufted masses on the lower slopes, besides a solitary indigenous tree (*Phyllica arborea*) which here and there reaches a height of twenty feet. European fruits and vegetables, and even maize, thrive well in the sheltered valleys.

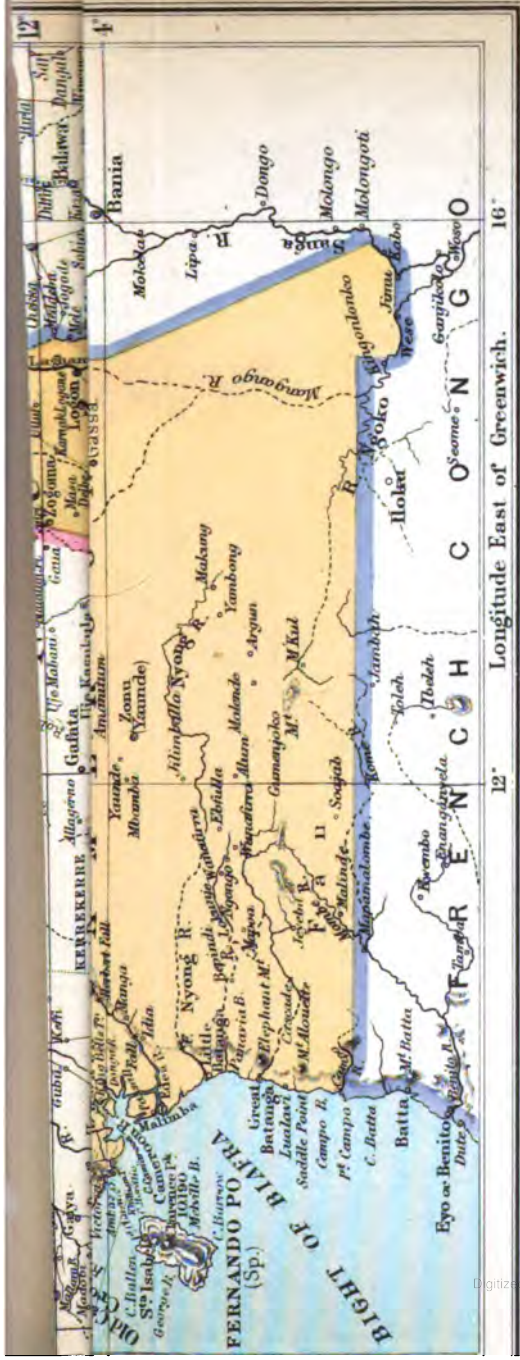
There appears to be absolutely no indigenous fauna except penguins and other aquatic birds. But the island is now well stocked with cattle, sheep, pigs, poultry, and other European animals.

The first permanent settlers were some Americans, who arrived in 1811. The garrison placed here by the British Government in 1816 to watch the prisoner of St. Helena was withdrawn after his death, and since then

the little colony has been chiefly recruited by shipwrecked sailors, a few Boers from the Cape, and half-caste women from St. Helena. This mixed community, which is thoroughly acclimatised, forms a little English-speaking republic under a "president," who recognises the suzerainty of Great Britain.

Subjoined is a Table of all the Gulf and south-east Atlantic islands:—

		Area in Square Miles.	Population.
Spanish	{ Fernando Po . . .	830 . . .	28,000
	{ Annabon . . .	7 . . .	2,000
Portuguese	{ Prince's . . .	60 . . .	2,500
	{ St. Thomas . . .	370 . . .	18,000
British	{ Ascension . . .	35 . . .	360
	{ St. Helena . . .	47 . . .	4,116
	{ Tristan da Cunha . . .	45 . . .	110
	{ Gough . . .	30 . . .	—



London: Stanfords Geog. Estab.

London: Edward Stanford, 28 & 27 Cockspur St. Charing Cross, S.W.

SCALE 1:5,977,382, OR 1/64 ENGLISH MILES TO 1 INCH.



CHAPTER II

FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA

(GABOON AND OGOWAY BASINS ; LOWER CONGO)

General Survey—Results of Geographical Research—Physical Features—The Coast Ranges—River Basins : Gaboon, Ogoway, Kuilu, Chiloango—Climate of the West Equatorial Seaboard—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—The Indigenous Bantus—The Ba-Kalai and Fans—The Cannibal Zone of Equatorial Africa—The Pygmy Races—Stations.

General Survey

WITH the exception of a few points claimed by Spain, the Portuguese enclave of Cabinda, and a strip of territory reserved to the Congo Free State on the north side of the estuary, the whole of the seaboard from the Cameroons to the Lower Congo has fallen to the share of France in the recent partition of the continent. This seaboard has a coast-line of about 900 miles, and with it, of course, go the backlands, as far as they can be defined in a region much of which has never yet been visited by a single white explorer. The frontiers towards the German Cameroons have been defined at pp. 3, 4. A convenient boundary towards the Free State is formed by the Rio Campo to its mouth in the Congo, and thence by the Congo itself to Manjanga, below Stanley Pool. From this point an irregular con-

ventional line, running mainly west to the Atlantic below the mouth of the Kuilu, separates French Equatorial Africa from the Free State and Cabinda.

The whole territory thus delimited may have an area of about 220,000 square miles, with a population variously estimated at from two to five millions. But most of it is so little known that M. Cholet, Colonial Administrator of the French Congo, was the first to survey the course of the Sanga in the summer of 1890, although that affluent of the main stream lies considerably nearer the coast than the Ubangi.

As indicated by such names as Lopo Gonzalvez (Cape Lopez) and Fernão Vaz, the seaboard was first visited by the Portuguese, who had already penetrated south of the equator in the year 1470, and had even formed permanent settlements in the Gaboon and at other points in the sixteenth century. But no attempt appears to have been made to open up the interior till towards the middle of the present century. The occupation of a station by the French on the north side of the Gaboon estuary in 1842 forms the starting-point of the systematic exploration of West Equatorial Africa, which thenceforth proceeded at a rapid rate without being yet completed.

The northern districts between the Rio del Campo and the Gaboon estuary have been chiefly surveyed by Iradier and other Spanish travellers, who have crossed the country in various directions, penetrating at some points over 100 miles inland. The most conspicuous names associated with geographical research in the Gaboon, Ogoway, and Kuilu basins, are those of Du Chaillu, Walker, Serval, Aymès, De Compiègne, Marche, Oscar Lenz, both De Brazzas, Rouvier, and Ballay. After the French Government surveys of the Komo and Ramboé

coast-streams, the Gaboon was twice visited by Paul Du Chaillu (in 1856 and 1865), and his accounts of the gorilla, largest of anthropoid apes, and of the Obongo dwarfs, at first received with incredulity, have been fully confirmed by the researches of later travellers.

The main results of all these explorations were highly disappointing to the French, who had supposed first that the Gaboon and then that the Ogoway must be the outlets of great water highways, by which they would obtain easy access to the heart of the continent. But the Gaboon was soon found to be merely a broad tidal estuary receiving a few short affluents from the coast ranges. The Ogoway also, notwithstanding its large delta, proved to be navigable only as far as the same ranges, where it became obstructed by numerous falls, and beyond which it dwindled to an insignificant stream flowing from the low water-parting towards the Congo basin. This water-parting was crossed in 1878 by Lieutenant Savorgnan de Brazza, who thus came upon the Alima and several other rivers flowing south to the Congo. It was by following the course of the Alima, two years later, that he reached the right bank of the Congo, and made a treaty with one of the "makokos" or riverain chiefs, in virtue of which France afterwards successfully asserted her claim to the whole region from the Gaboon to the lower course of the great artery. Within this region lies the Kuilu (Kwilu) basin, which, though much smaller than that of the Ogoway, was found to afford greater facilities for penetrating beyond the coast ranges into the interior. Hence the attention of the French has now been diverted both from the Gaboon and the Ogoway to the Kuilu, which has the further advantage of lying at a greater distance from the equator, and much nearer to the Congo and to the district through

which must run the future railway from the coast to Stanley Pool above the cataracts.

Physical Features of French Equatorial Africa

A little below the equator the South African coast-line projects farthest seaward at the island of Cape Lopez (properly Lopo Gonzalvez), which almost forms part of the mainland, at the north-western extremity of the Ogoway delta. In fact the headland itself is the creation of the Ogoway, whose alluvial deposits have here encroached considerably beyond the true coast-line. Farther inland the low-lying coastlands soon begin to rise in a series of escarpments to the great central tableland, which as it approaches the northern section of the continent, here falls to a mean altitude of probably not more than 3000 feet. The escarpments themselves, which, seen from below, assume the aspect of long, parallel ridges, with a uniform trend from north to south, nowhere rise to great altitudes.

In the extreme north the system appears to culminate in the conspicuous peak of Mount Batta (5000 feet?), east of which the parallel *Siete Sierras* ("Seven Ranges") converge towards the south in the Serra do Cristal, or "Crystal Mountains," of the early Portuguese writers.¹ This range, with peaks from 4000 to 4500 feet, reaches southwards to the right bank of the Ogoway at the equator, beyond which the coast hills gradually fall to a height of little over 1000 feet in the Kuilu basin. Even the Igumbi Ndele peak, highest point in the hills about the southern branch of the Ogoway delta, falls far below

¹ *Serra* is the Portuguese form of the Spanish *Sierra*, a saw, applied originally to jagged mountain crests, such as those of the Pyrenees, and afterwards to mountain ranges generally.

4000 feet, and here the whole system has an average elevation of less than 3000 feet.

In the outer escarpments the prevailing formations are chalk and jurassic (oolitic) strata, in some places underlying old eruptive rocks. But notwithstanding the reports of "burning mountains," the "fetish" hills and rocks of the natives, there do not appear to be any recent volcanic cones or craters in this region. The calcareous rocks are succeeded in the central ranges by gneiss and quartz, beyond which the plateau assumes the aspect of a perfectly level sandy plain.

The seaboard, although broken by several conspicuous headlands, such as Capes St. John and Lopez, is absolutely destitute of any islands, except the Elobey islets in Corisco Bay, and even these rocks are evidently mere fragments detached in comparatively recent times from the mainland.

Rivers : Gaboon, Ogoway, Kuilu, Chiloango

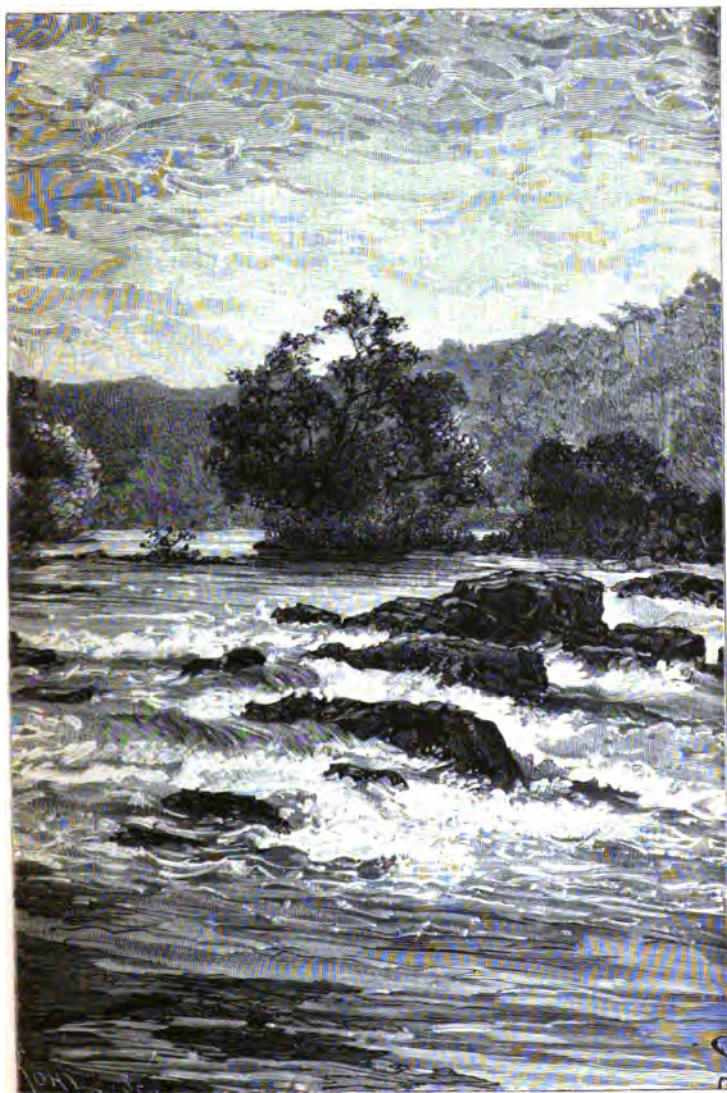
West Equatorial Africa falls within the zone of perpetual rains, which give rise to the three considerable fluvial systems of the Gaboon, Ogoway, and Kuilu, besides feeding several coast-streams, such as the Rio del Campo (Etembwe), San Benito (Eyo), Angra ("Danger"), Muni, Sette Camma, and Nyanga, which reach the sea in independent channels.

The Gaboon—that is, the Portuguese *Gabão*, or "Cabin"—presents a curious resemblance to the Gironde, and although, like it, obstructed by a bar, is nevertheless one of the finest havens on the West African seaboard. It lies just north of the equator, and is accessible to the largest vessels through four well-marked channels from twenty-five to thirty-two feet deep at low water. Its

two chief affluents, the Komo and Remboé, with their tributaries the Maga and Bogwé, are also navigable for some distance by river craft; but the estuary itself penetrates not more than forty miles inland, to the foot of the first escarpments.

Although no longer ranking with the great continental arteries, the Ogoway (French spelling, Ogooué) is still an imposing river, with a course of over 700 miles, a catchment basin of nearly 130,000 square miles, and an average discharge of perhaps 360,000 cubic feet per second, rising, according to some authorities, to 1,000,000, or even 1,750,000, during the floods. It may also claim to be not only the largest river on the west side of the continent between the Niger-Benue and the Congo, but also by far the largest strictly equatorial stream in the world, for its course, with many windings, lies mainly east and west on and about the equator. Thus, while the delta terminates at Cape Lopez, just below the line, the farthest sources of the main head-stream, visited by De Brazza in 1878, lie a few miles north of the same parallel, within 120 miles of the Congo.

In one respect the Ogoway may be described as a typical African river, with well-defined characteristic upper, middle, and lower courses. Thus, the higher reaches, like those of the Nile (Shimîyu), flow at a slight incline along the plateau, where, below the Passa confluence, they are already navigable by boats—at least, in the rainy season. Then follows the middle course, where the Okanda, as the main head branch is called, becomes entangled in the intricacies of the escarpments of the plateau, and consequently develops a long line of almost continuous falls and rapids, again comparable to the numerous cataracts of the Nile valley between Lake



RAPIDS OF THE OGOWAY.

Victoria and Upper Egypt. Lastly, on escaping from the ravines and gorges of the outer ridges of the plateau, the Ogoway, again like the Nile, resumes its placid course through the low-lying coastlands to its vast delta below the equator.

Even here the parallelism is continued, for if the Egyptian stream has its Fayyûm depression and Birket el-Qarûn, the Lake Moeris of the Ancients, the Lower Ogoway has also its Zonenghway (Jonanga) lagoon or reservoir, a lateral depression over 200 square miles in extent, which receives the overflow from the main branch during the periodical floods. Lake Moeris had its islands, temples, labyrinth, and other works of man, as became that marvellous artificial basin; Lake Zonenghway in the same way has its natural insular eminences, one of which, the abode of a potent "medicine-man," is regarded as a holy island by the surrounding Ivili, Galoa, Ba-Kalai, and other tribes. These natives are far below the state of culture already reached by the subjects of Amenemhat III.; but they also hold in equal reverence the great *eliva*, or inland sea, which receives and controls the excess of annual flood-waters, and thus preserves from destruction the villages and plantations maintained in the delta by the fertilising stream.


Without rivalling the size and grandeur of the middle Zambesi or Somerset Nile cataracts, some of the Ogoway falls, such as those of Dumé, where the stream turns abruptly to the west, and those of Bowe below the confluence of the Ivindo from the north, are of a very wild and romantic character. At several places the stream is obstructed by the so-called "fetish stones"; that is, rocky barriers almost impassable at low water, and dangerous during the floods. One of these, specially known as "Fetish Point," at the confluence of the Ngunie, indicates



FALLS OF THE IVINDO.

the place where, till recently, all white travellers were stopped by the natives and prevented from ascending higher up. From Nazareth Bay, where the main branch of the delta reaches the coast, the lower course of the Ogoway is navigable by steam-launches drawing four feet for nearly 200 miles, and the Ngunie, the largest tributary from the south, is accessible to small craft for sixty miles, as far as the Samba Falls, one of the most dreaded fetish stones in the whole Ogoway basin.

Including Cape Lopez island, the whole delta covers an extent of nearly 2000 square miles. It is intersected in all directions by numerous backwaters and shifting channels, and by the three navigable branches at Nazareth Bay, Cape Lopez, and Fernão Vaz in the extreme south. The Nkomi lagoon, spreading southwards, may be regarded as an extension of the delta in this direction, being in fact a backwater of the Wango or upper course of the Fernão Vaz. But the Rembo Obenga ("River Obenga"), which it receives at its southern extremity, is not a branch of the delta, as is generally supposed, but an independent coast-stream rising on the south slope of the Ashankalo hills which separate its basin from Lake Zonenghway. The Nkomi lagoon communicates directly with the sea through the Fernão Vaz.

Beyond the Ogoway follow the Sette Camma estuary, the Nyanga, which rises on the seaward slope of the Ashango hills (2420 feet), and the Kuilu, whose farthest sources lie within sixty miles of the Congo north of Stanley Pool. The Niadi (Niari), as its upper course is called, makes two great bends, first to the south, then to the north, thus describing a figure  along the line of least resistance through the schistose escarpments barring its passage seawards. It has a total length of 370 miles, and after piercing the hills through a series of tremend-

ous gorges, where the channel contracts at some points to little over twenty feet, it becomes navigable for forty miles to its mouth at Rudolstadt, just below Loango. The Kuilu gives access to a district in the interior, which is reported to possess rich copper and lead mines; but in other respects its economic value appears to have been singularly overrated by French writers.

Midway between the Kuilu and the Congo occurs the little Chilongo coast-stream, which was chosen by the Convention of 1885 as the frontier line between Portuguese Cabinda and the Free State, and higher up between the Free State and French Congo.

Climate of the West Equatorial Seaboard

As shown by De Bort's chart indicating the distribution of cloudiness and moisture throughout the continent, French Equatorial Africa lies entirely within the zone of greatest rainfall, which on the west side extends from beyond the Niger delta to the Congo estuary. Nevertheless, within this zone itself there is a steady diminution of moisture as we proceed from north to south. Thus, the annual precipitation falls from over 120 inches above the Gaboon estuary to 98 or 100 about the Ogoway delta. Beyond this region the decrease is even more rapid, but also less uniform, varying greatly from year to year, and falling from over 60 to under 20 in exceptional seasons about the lower Kuilu district. As the moisture-bearing clouds follow the course of the sun between the tropics, there are here necessarily two rainy seasons, which have their respective maximums about December and May. The latter is the season of the great rains, which coincides with the highest floods in the Ogoway and other fluvial basins.

The temperature, which is considerably influenced by the cool marine current setting steadily from the Antarctic waters along the west seaboard, is, however, subject to even greater oscillations than the rainfall. Even at the equator it ranges from over 90° F. to about 60°, and below Loango from nearly 100° F. to under 60°. Here the average in the hottest months (March and April) is not more than 85°, and about 78° in the comparatively cool month of August.

Thanks to its sandy bed, the Ogoway is more healthy than the marshy Gaboon estuary. But fever may be said to be endemic on the whole seaboard, and even the slopes of the escarpments are affected by the malarious exhalations borne inland from the swampy, low-lying coastlands by the daily sea breezes, which here alternate regularly with the land winds prevailing during the night. But the cool, untainted atmospheric currents are themselves to be dreaded, for they necessarily give rise to dangerous chills, as they do in all regions where the heat and moisture are abnormally high. This is the reason why throughout the greater part of intertropical Africa little immunity is afforded from sickness either by altitude or by apparently salubrious plains and uplands. They are hot and moist, and under these conditions even slight exertion is apt to occasion sudden chills, by far the most fatal of all African plagues. Miasma is of course the direct and sole cause of much illness; but draughts, because less heeded and even courted, are far more murderous to Europeans obliged to undergo physical labour in tropical Africa. Hence no astonishment need be felt at the statement, for instance, that "a comparison of the sick lists of the different [missionary] stations revealed after a time the surprising fact that the breezy hill stations were far more fever-

stricken than the low-lying riverside ones where miasmatic influences might be supposed to abound!"¹ This is said in reference to the Congo region; but it is true everywhere throughout tropical, and to some extent even temperate, lands. Even in England, with a climate free from all extremes, how often is heard the remark, "Oh! he caught a chill and was gone in no time!" Apart, therefore, from marsh fevers, the climate of Equatorial Africa differs mainly rather in degree than in kind from that of other regions. But between tropical and temperate lands this difference must always be exceedingly great, owing to the higher normal temperature of the torrid zone.

Flora and Fauna

H. H. Johnston's physical map of the west coast of Africa² shows a botanic zone, like the rainfall, diminishing in density from the forest regions of the Gaboon and Ogoway southwards to the sandy wastes beyond the Cunene river. Dense woodlands reaching almost continuously to the Kuilu basin are followed by savannahs, interspersed with oil-palms, whose southern limit coincides nearly with the course of the Cuanza. Beyond this latitude (about 10° S.) treeless savannahs merge gradually, through tracts of scanty vegetation, in the deserts of Ovampo and Damara lands.

But this broad generalisation is not entirely applicable to French Equatorial Africa, where, despite the copious rainfall, extensive treeless tracts, due to the sandy nature of the soil, occur especially in the Ogoway basin. The whole of the Gaboon, however, is essentially a forest

¹ Mrs. H. Grattan Guinness, *The New World of Central Africa*, London, 1890, p. 495.

² *The River Congo*, London, 1884, p. 13.

zone, where the huge dracænas overtop the more valuable ebonies (both green and black), oil and wine palms, dye-woods, such as the red varwood, camwood (*Baphia nitida*), caoutchouc-yielding lianas, ground-nuts, and other economic plants. Farther south the Ogoway forests abound in the *dika* ("Gaboon Chocolate"), whose large, green fruit supplies the staple food of several tribes. "From the Gaboon it has been reckoned that of



HEAD OF A GORILLA.

sandalwood and ebony 40,000 tons are yearly exported under French, English, and American flags."¹

So vast and oppressive are these equatorial woodlands, "always green, always wet, always fireproof," that as a rule they are not favourable

to the development of the higher forms of animal life. "For months," writes a traveller quoted by Moloney, "I have trodden its labyrinths, and seen only a diminutive deer, a grey monkey, and a few serpents." Nevertheless the Gaboon is the true home of the gorilla, as well as of more than one species of chimpanzee. The term gorilla, applied by its discoverer, Du Chaillu, to the *rijina* of the natives, was originally used by the Carthaginian navigator, Hanno, in reference to certain hairy

¹ Alfred Moloney, *Sketch of the Forestry of West Africa*, London, 1887, p. 137.



HIPPOTAMUS.

women seen by him during his exploration of the West African seaboard. This largest and most ferocious of anthropoid apes appears to be restricted to a comparatively narrow range, extending along the seaboard from Loango northwards to the San Benito river. Even this range has been contracted since Du Chaillu's time, the gorilla having withdrawn from Cape Lopez inland, and from several forest tracts where he was met by the early explorers.

Of the chimpanzee at least two species occur in the west equatorial region, *Troglodytes calvus* and the Kulu, the latter being described as the most human in appearance of all the quadrumana.

The roar of the lion is never heard in the gloomy equatorial forests, while the panther, like the crocodile, rarely attacks man. The hippopotamus abounds in most rivers, and even in the shallow marine estuaries, as about the Bisagos islands on the coast of Senegambia. But the elephant, said by some authorities to be a distinct species, is disappearing from all the coastlands. Rodents, however, are numerous, and include two remarkable squirrels—the kendo, smallest member of this family, and the mboko, called *Sciurus eborivorus* from its habit of gnawing ivory.

Some of the birds peculiar to this region are noted for their gorgeous plumage, such as the *Suimanga magnificus*, a species of thrush with feathers of metallic sheen, and the *Chrysococcyx smaragdineus*, all aglow with gold and emerald hues, as indicated by the name. Most of the snakes are more or less venomous, and several species of ants are of a peculiarly ferocious character, though less dreaded than the jigger, which, since its introduction from America, is spreading all over the West African seaboard.

Inhabitants

There can be no doubt that the Mpongwes, Ashangos, Bakelai, Ishogos, and other coast and riverain tribes in the Gaboon and Ogoway basins, as well as the Cabindas of the Lower Congo, are of Bantu speech, while here, as



ISHOGOS.

elsewhere, presenting all shades of transition from the Negro to the Hamitic type. Even the Fans, the Pahouins of French writers, who, like the Ibeas of the Cameroons, are recent intruders from the interior, are said to speak a somewhat differentiated Bantu idiom,¹ although their

¹ Windwood Reade (*African Sketch-book*, i. 108) says: "It is like Mpongwe (a pure Bantu idiom cut in half); for instance, *njina* (gorilla) in Mpongwe is *nji* in Fan." The collective national name *Fan*, "Man," appears to be the same word as *Bantu*, and the plural is formed in the usual Bantu way by the prefix *ba*: *Ba-Fan*, i.e. "Men." Nevertheless, Oscar Lenz, who has published the most comprehensive treatise on the

scarcely Negroid physique is one of the puzzles of African ethnology.

But their tribal relations have been greatly obscured throughout West Equatorial Africa by two distinct tides of migration that have been converging on this region for generations, possibly for ages. One, represented formerly by the Bakalai, at present by the Fans, has been setting from the interior of the continent towards the seaboard; the other, represented chiefly by the Ivoli and kindred Ba-Vili of the Lower Ogoway and its Ngunie affluent, have been creeping up the Congo estuary towards the equator. The result of these conflicting currents has been a general dislocation of the aboriginal tribal groups, such as the Mpongwes of the Gaboon, and Mbengas of the Muni basin, which have either been driven continually seawards, or broken into detached fragmentary groups, or else absorbed or extirpated by the intruding peoples.

But although, under such conditions, no systematic classification is possible, all these heterogeneous populations may still be grouped under three main divisions, comprising (a) the indigenous or settled Bantu tribes; (b) the intruding Fans and others from the interior and south coast; (c) the Obongo and other dwarfish aborigines.

Of the indigenous Bantus—that is, those that were found already settled in the country at the arrival of the whites—the most important are the

Mpongwe	.	About the Gaboon estuary.
Mbenga (Benga)	}	. Corisco Bay and islands.
Mbushu		

ethnology of the Gaboon-Ogoway region (*Skizzen aus West Afrika*, Berlin, 1878), describes the Fan language as "entirely different from that of the other Negro tribes," p. 35. More information is needed before a definite opinion can be formed.

Bapuka . . .	North from Corisco Bay.
Osekiani . . .	Inland from the Mbenga territory
Galloa . . .	Just above Ogoway delta.
Ivinga . . .	{ Lower Ogoway from the Galloas to the Ngunie confluence.
Okanda	} Left bank Middle Ogoway, about the Cataracts.
Jalimbongo	
Apinji	
Ashango	} . . . About the Ngunie affluent.
Ishogo	
Oshebo, Aduma,	} Upper Ogoway and thence to the Congo water-parting.
Osaka, Awanshi,	
M b a m b a, Ba-	
Ngwe	
Ajuma . . .	About Lake Azingo.
Apfuru, Ba-Teke . . .	Alima basin to right bank Congo.
Ba-Lumbo (Ba-Vili)	Lower Nyanga river and Banya Lagoon.
Ba-Yaka . . .	Inland from the Ba-Lumbo.
Ma - Yombe, Ba-	} Kuilu basin and Cabinda territory.
Kunya, Ba-	
Kamba	
Ba-Fyot	} { Between the Lower Kuilu and the Congo estuary.
Cabinda	

Of all these settled Bantu peoples, the best known and at one time the most powerful are the vainglorious and somewhat eccentric Mpongwes, whose name must be familiar to all readers of missionary reports. They have long been in contact with both the Protestant and Catholic missionaries, and many round about the stations claim to be Christians. Their typical Bantu language, of which they are very proud, is widespread amongst the Ajumas and many other surrounding tribes, and has been reduced to writing by their religious teachers. But the Mpongwes, who characteristically call themselves "Ayogo" or the "Wise," are mostly indolent ne'er-do-wells, who have acquired a taste for drink and other European vices, hence they are of little "economic value," and have to be replaced on the plantations by coolies imported from the Upper Guinea coast. Formerly they occupied a far more

extensive territory than their present narrow domain about the Gaboon estuary, but, like the Mbengas of Corisco Bay and many other coast tribes, they have been gradually driven seawards by the continual pressure of the peoples attracted to the ocean by the reports of white men arriving in winged boats full of rum, firearms, salt, and other good things.

Some of these tribes, such as the Ba-Ngwe of the Ogoway basin, are so fond of salt that they will swallow it in handfuls as our children do sugar. Others, like the formerly powerful Okandas in the same region, have been almost ruined by their indulgence in *alugu*, as rum and all other "fire-waters" are here called, and in the still more injurious *liamba* (*diamba*), or Indian hemp, a drug now widely consumed throughout the Ogoway and Lower Congo regions.

Beyond the Ogoway-Congo divide the most powerful nation are the warlike but little-known Apfuru; they appear to occupy most of the Upper Alima basin, coming in contact lower down with the Ba-Teke, one of the chief populations of the Congo above Stanley Pool. The Ba-Lumbo or Ba-Vili of the coastlands south from the Ogoway delta are not a distinct tribe, but rather a miscellaneous group of refugees, runaway slaves and others from the Gaboon and Lower Congo factories. They are gradually moulding these diverse elements into a fresh nationality, which, however, is adopting the usages of their Ba-Yaka neighbours in the interior, and, like the "citizens" of Hayti, reverting to the savage state.

The only people in this region who have acquired any degree of culture are the Ba-Fyots,¹ who are the Cabindas

¹ The origin of this word *Fyot*, vulgarised to *Fyort* by some English Cockney writers, has been much discussed; but it seems most probably to be a corruption of *mfoti*, a Negro or black man, from *amfoti*, "black." See Rev. W. H. Bentley's *Dictionary and Grammar of the Kongo Language*, London, 1887.



A BA-TEKE NATIVE.

of the Portuguese, and who are the dominant race along the coast from Kuilu to the Congo estuary. The Ba-Fyots, who may be regarded as a northern branch of the Congo nation, may almost claim to possess a history, for their territory was formerly included in the empire of the great *Mfumu*, a sovereign of Congo-land, the first of the Bantu potentates who accepted Christianity. After the Congo realm was shattered by the invasion of the Yakka savages, the Kakongo, Lorengo, and other provinces lying north of the estuary, became independent kingdoms under the former *Muenes*, governors or vassals of the *Mfumu*.

In these kingdoms, which again became subdivided into smaller petty states, the ruling race has everywhere been the Cabinda, which still retains traces of the Roman Catholic religion professed for some generations by the *Mfumu*, whose capital, San Salvador, was the seat of a bishop. But in course of time Christian and heathen practices and beliefs became strangely intermingled, and the Nzambi, or chief deity of the Ba-Fyots, is now confounded with the Nogen, or with the universal mother earth. The worship of Christian saints and pagan fetishes was even associated with human sacrifices and witch-burning, practices which survived down to quite recent times.¹ In other respects the Ba-Fyots are at present an industrious and intelligent people, shrewd traders, skilful boat-builders, and the best native craftsmen on the west coast.

The Ba-Kalai and Fans

Of the intruding peoples by far the most powerful are the A-Kellai, or Ba-Kalai, mainly from the south-east,

¹ In 1887 a witch was burnt within sight of the European factories at Cabinda.

and the Fans from the east and north-east. The Ba-Kalai, whose westward migrations preceded those of the Fans, have themselves been hard pressed and driven forward by that warlike nation. They are now chiefly confined to the left bank of the Ogoway about the cataracts and the lower course of the Ngunie affluent, where they number considerably over 100,000 souls. Formerly skilled hunters, copper and iron workers, they have been compelled in their new homes to rely mainly on trade, and the Ba-Kalai are now the chief brokers and middlemen between the factories and the inland producers. Their language, a pure Bantu dialect, has thus become the principal medium of intercourse throughout the Ogoway basin. The Ba-Kalai are the Mpangwes of the settled tribes.

The Fans, who appear to have been first heard of by Bowditch, in 1819,¹ were still scarcely known in the Gaboon when the French established themselves there in 1842. Now they not only occupy the head of the Gaboon estuary and nearly all the left bank of the Middle Ogoway, but have even formed settlements at some points on the coast south of the Gaboon. Within the surveyed limits of the Gaboon-Ogoway region there cannot be less than 300,000 of these energetic and aggressive warriors, whose onward march to the seaboard nothing seems able to arrest. Captain Burton, Windwood Reade, Oscar Lenz, and all other observers, describe them as a race quite distinct from the Negro, well-built, tall, and slim, with a light brown complexion, often inclining to yellow, well-developed beard, and very prominent

¹ This traveller, who allies them to the Fulahs of West Sudan, calls them Paámways, and the name has assumed many other forms, such as Pahuin, Pa-Mue, Mpangwe, Panwe, Fanwe, etc. The *n* is a strong nasal, and might be represented by the Spanish ñ, thus: Fañ ; Ba-Fañ.

frontal bone standing out in a semicircular protuberance above the superciliary arches. Morally also they differ altogether from the Negro, being remarkably intelligent, trustworthy, truthful, and of a serious temperament, seldom laughing or indulging in the wild orgies of the blacks.

Yet many ethnologists ally them to the Zandehs (Niam-Niams) of the Welle-Nile watersheds, whom they certainly resemble in many of their usages and especially in their taste for human flesh. Since their arrival on the coastlands, this taste has been considerably restrained, and the practice is now in most places either restricted to the chiefs or else reserved as a religious rite for solemn occasions. But when they first emerged from the interior no such limitations existed, and at that time the Fans were as decided anthropophagists as the Zandehs or Schweinfurth's Monbuttus. They did not eat members of their own class, but they bartered the dead among themselves, and even disinterred them to be devoured.¹

The Cannibal Zone

Such pronounced cannibalism might be expected of a people who come from what may be called the "cannibal zone" in a pre-eminent sense. Anthropophagy was doubtless diffused in former ages all over Central and South Africa; but in recent times it has been mainly confined to the region stretching west and east from the Gulf of Guinea to the western headstreams of the White Nile, and from a little below the equator northwards in the direction of Adamawa, Dar-Banda, and Dar-Fertit. Wherever explorers have penetrated into this least-known region of the continent, they have found the practice fully

¹ *Heart of Africa*, ii. p. 18.

established, not merely as a religious rite or a privilege reserved for chiefs, but as a recognised social institution.

When Stanley first entered this zone during his memorable voyage down the Lualaba-Congo, his flotilla was attacked at many points for the avowed purpose of procuring a fresh supply of human food. This article of diet is here openly sold in the market-place; prisoners of war are killed and cured for future consumption, and herds of human cattle are "preserved and fatted for the table." So deeply rooted is the custom, that the victims themselves take it as a matter of course, and bide their time cheerfully, like those youths and maidens decked with wreaths of flowers and bright feathers who went jubilant to the shambles of the Mexican teocalli. A woman recently rescued against her will by a missionary in the North Congo region, returned of her own accord next day to the pen where her associates were all waiting patiently to be killed and eaten. Similar testimony is given by Herbert Ward, who states that during his residence in the Free State savage acts of cannibalism were constantly brought under his notice.¹

Père Angouard, another missionary, who is now endeavouring to found a station in the Ubangi valley, tells us that the people dwelling on the banks of that river, which flows through a great part of the "cannibal zone," eat human flesh because they prefer it to any other. "Nearly every day some slave is cut up and cooked for a village festival, the banquets being organised on the least pretext, sometimes even because a head or member of the tribe has had some good tidings. It is impossible to dissuade these people from their flesh-devouring proclivities."

This was in the year 1890, so that the practice still

¹ *Five years with the Congo Cannibals*, 1890, p. 132.

flourishes with unabated vigour, despite the denials of certain sentimental sympathisers with the lower races. Africa is not to be regenerated by concealing the truth, but by a frank statement of all the facts.

The Pygmy Races

When Du Chaillu first reported the existence of a pygmy people in the west equatorial forests his account was received with incredulity, and even with derision. A wider knowledge of the continent has revealed the presence not only of these pygmies (A-Bongo, O-Bongo; A-Koa, O-Koa) in the Ogoway basin, but of very much smaller pygmies in many other parts of Central Africa. Du Chaillu's Obongos vary in height from four feet six inches to about five feet; but the Wambutti met by Stanley in the Aruwimi forests were only four feet four inches, Schweinfurth's Akkas four feet six; the Batwa seen by Pogge and Wissmann south of the Congo four feet four, while those measured by Emin Pasha "never exceeded four feet one inch" (Jephson, p. 372). Most have the normal Negro features,¹ some to an exaggerated degree, although the colour is generally described as inclining rather to various shades of brown and red, chocolate, *café au lait*, burnt brick, etc., than to black.

Gathering up the threads of these independent accounts, which come from almost every part of the inter-tropical forest-lands, anthropologists have already come to the general conclusion that all the pygmy peoples belong to the same primitive stock, mostly broken into

¹ But Dr. L. Wolf noticed that the Batwa in the Ba-Kuba country, Kassai basin, "were all well shaped, had uniform dark, coffee-brown colour, and not apparently any pithecoïd signs whatever. Prognathism and also steatopygy were not developed more than with other African tribes" (*Proc. R. Geo. Soc.* 1887, p. 646).



WAMBUTTI PYGMIES AT HOME.

fragments, but in some places still surviving in continuous communities spread over the central forests of the plateau. They are found generally in contact, and often on friendly terms with the tall Negro and Negroid races, whom they probably preceded as the true autochthones of the equatorial regions. Thus the O-Koas, a timid, feeble folk, lurking in the recesses of the forests about the head-waters of the Ngunie, are treated with much kindness by the Ashango people of that district. They form small family rather than tribal communities, hunting the python with little darts, but living mostly on roots and berries, and dwelling in frail, leafy huts which escape observation amid the surrounding undergrowth. Next to nothing is known of their language, which is presumably distinct from the Bantu, except where the latter may have been adopted, as Malay idioms have been adopted by many Negrito tribes in the Malay Peninsula and Philippine Islands. The O-Bongos are also in some places gradually conforming to the customs of their Bantu neighbours, with whom, however, no alliances are ever contracted.

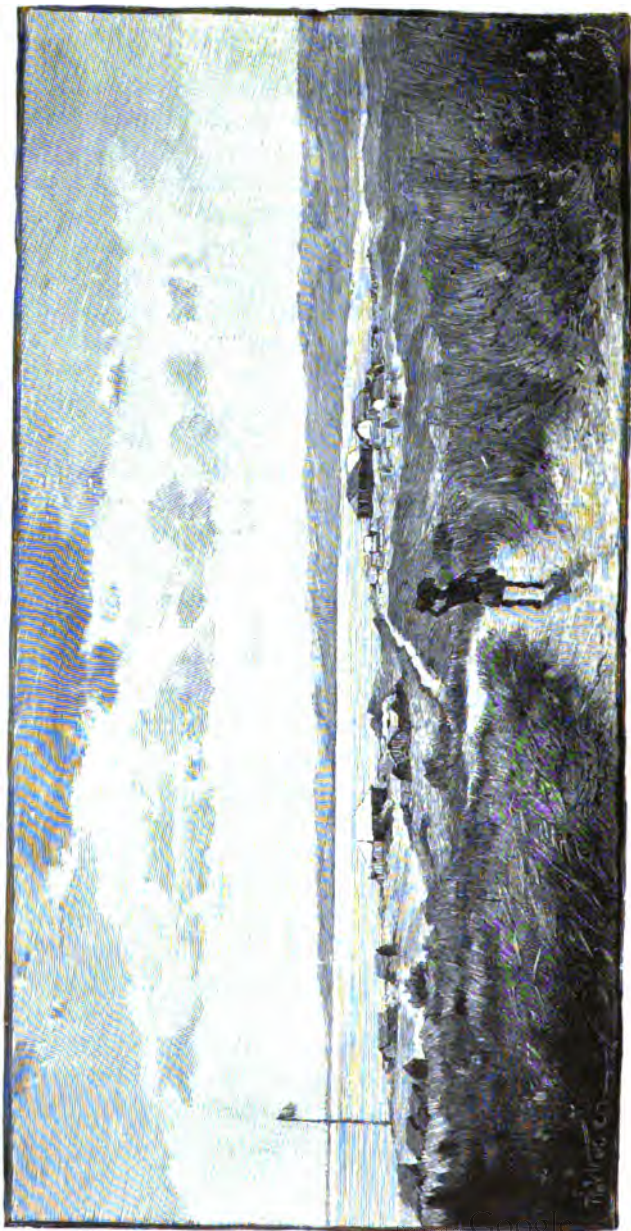
Stations of French Equatorial Africa—Trade—Prospects

Libreville, founded on the north side of the estuary soon after the occupation of the Gaboon, still remains the centre of French power in West Equatorial Africa. It takes its name, like Liberia on the Guinea coast, from the emancipated or rescued slaves settled here about 1850. But it has developed scarcely any trade, and its chief importance is derived from the large Roman Catholic Mission established here for evangelising and training the natives in various industrial arts. The rival American Mission of *Baraka* lies in the outskirts

close to *Glass*, where are the English and other foreign factories, which nearly monopolise the trade of the Gaboon. Thus Libreville continues to be a burden on the French Treasury, its revenue from import dues and other sources scarcely covering a fourth of the expenditure.

In the Ogoway and Alima basins there are no strictly European settlements, but only a few stations founded at the most favourable points for the future development of the country. Such are *Lambaréné*, also with a Catholic Mission and some factories, on the Wango midway between Lake Zonenghway and Fetish Point; *Njole*, above Fetish Point and just below the first cataracts, a garrison station and future capital of the Ogoway territory; *Franceville*, above the cataracts in the valley of the Passa affluent, whence the route leads across the water-parting down to the Alima and along that navigable stream to the Congo; lastly *Brazzaville*, on the French side of Stanley Pool.

On the coast between the Ogoway delta and Cabinda France has secured possession of the historic seaport of *Loango*, which had been claimed by Portugal as heir to the Emperor of Congo. Formerly capital of a province of that realm, and afterwards of the independent kingdom of Loango, when it had a population of 15,000 Loango is still an important place as the natural outlet for the whole trade of the Kuilu basin. The roadstead is sheltered by the westerly trend of the shore-line, and on the protected beach, where vessels can safely load and unload, several English, French, and other European factories have been established. Loango was the starting-point of Gussfeld's expedition of 1873, and of several other subsequent journeys to the interior. In the neighbourhood are the burial-places of the old kings of Loango, guarded by potent fetishes.



VIEW OF LOANGO.

France has now been in possession of West Equatorial Africa for nearly sixty years, but the country is still in a backward state. In 1893 all the exchanges fell short of £400,000, and the shipping was little over 95,000 tons. Nearly all the trade is with England and Germany, less than £50,000 representing the combined imports from and exports to the mother-country, which has to meet an annual expenditure of about £212,000, with an income of under £60,000 from all sources. Yet there is neither postal nor telegraph service, while scarcely 400 native children are receiving any kind of education in the eight schools for boys and two for girls. There are nowhere any roads beyond the native tracks, and the country is still mostly covered with dense forest, while the exports are mainly limited to the natural produce, such as ivory, ebony, caoutchouc, and palm oil, though some experiments have been made with coffee, cotton, tobacco, sugar and vanilla growing. The white population is limited to about 300, dispersed amongst the twenty-eight stations, mostly in the Ogoway basin. But none of these are settlers, the Gaboon-Ogoway being absolutely unsuited for European colonisation. The prospects of the colony are not bright, and as at present administered French Equatorial Africa seems incapable of development.

Spanish Possessions

The islands of Corisco, Great and Little Elobey, together with a considerable tract on the opposite mainland, constitute the Spanish claims in this region. The territory is nowhere strictly defined, and is rather a sphere of influence than a possession in the ordinary sense of the word. It is officially dependent on the

Government of Fernando Po, but Spanish authority is unrepresented by a single Custom-House officer. Even the foreign factories, all now concentrated in Little Elobey opposite the Muni estuary, trade freely with the natives without paying any imposts to Spain.

Corisco—that is, “Lightning,” so named from the thunderstorm raging at the time of the Portuguese discovery—is a low island, some six or eight square miles in extent, inhabited, like the neighbouring Great Elobey, by Mbengas, many of whom have been converted by the Protestant and Catholic missionaries long settled amongst them.

Portuguese Possessions—Cabinda

At the time of the foundation of the Congo Free State, Portugal made repeated attempts to secure permanent possession of both banks of the Congo estuary, which would have had the result of depriving the Free State of all direct communication with the sea. Fortunately the Portuguese pretensions were not recognised by the other Powers, and a compromise was effected by the Convention of 1885, by which the north side of the estuary was secured to the Free State, Portugal retaining possession of the little enclave of Cabinda wedged in between the Free State and French Congo.

This territory comprises the two circumscriptions of Landana in the north and Cabinda in the south, so named from their respective chief towns. *Landana*, a little below the mouth of the Chilongo, is, perhaps, the pleasantest place of residence on the whole West African seaboard. Its port, like those of Loango and Cabinda, is protected by one of those numerous headlands, all projecting westwards, which are characteristic of this

seaboard. To the Catholic Missions are attached some flourishing plantations and orange groves, said to be the finest on the west coast. But the great drawbacks are the miasmatic exhalations from the neighbouring lagoon, which has now been planted with the febrifugal eucalyptus from Australia.

Although lying nearly forty miles north of the Congo the spacious and well-sheltered port of *Cabinda* has already attracted some of the trade of this estuary. It seems destined to become the chief emporium of this region, and cannot fail to enter on a period of great prosperity when the projected railway is opened from the coast to Stanley Pool. The chief factory flies the British flag, and Cabinda is already the centre of the English



NATIVE OF CABINDA.

traffic between the Cameroons and Angola. Besides the intelligent Ba-Fyots it is inhabited by a community of Ma-Vambus, who have the reputation of being the Jews of Africa. By the Portuguese they are even called *Judeos pretos*, or "Black Jews," and their arched nose and cunning eyes certainly give them a curious resemblance to the Semitic type. There is a local saying to the effect that the Ma-Vambus were specially created to punish other men by their ruinous competition in trade.

For administrative purposes the Portuguese enclave north of the Congo is attached to the possessions south of the estuary, forming a separate province with the district bounded on the south by the river Loge. Of this province Cabinda is the capital.

CHAPTER III

THE CONGO FREE STATE

General Survey : Formation of the Free State—Progress of geographical research—Boundaries, extent, population—Physical features—The Congo basin—The Livingstone Falls and Congo estuary—The Middle Congo and its affluents—The Upper Congo, its lakes and tributaries—Lake Tanganyika and the Lualaba—Climate of the Congo basin—Flora and fauna—Inhabitants and native States—Garenganze, Katanga—Lunda, the Muata Yamyo's kingdom—The U-Rua State—Manyema and the Arabs of the Lualaba—The Ba-Lolo, Ba-Ngala, and Ba-Yansi nations—The Ba-Luba and Tu-Shilange territories—The Va-Chibokwe and Kwango Ba-Ngalas—Table of the Congo tribes and nations—Bantu and Negro contrasted—Mission of the Congo Free State—Railway projects—Trade and free-trade area—Administration.

General Survey—Formation of the Free State

THE creation of the Congo Free State will in future ages probably be regarded as one of the most memorable events in the social history of the human race. It is of too recent occurrence for the present generation to grasp its full significance; nevertheless even casual observers cannot fail to perceive that it ranks with the emancipation of the plantation slaves by the British Government as one of the two philanthropic measures which reflect most credit on the civilisation of the nineteenth century. The Emancipation Act directly affected the African populations transported beyond the seas. The formation

of the Free State, inspired rather by humanitarian than political motives, is intended to affect the African populations in their native land. The former measure has not realised all the hopes of its generous promoters; the latter enterprise may also possibly be doomed to partial failure. But even so both will always stand out as the noblest efforts ever made to improve the moral and material well-being of the least advanced section of mankind.

Soon after Stanley sailed down the Lualaba and found it the Congo, a "Comité d'Études du Haut Congo" was formed, under the auspices of Leopold II., King of the Belgians, for the purpose of studying the physical conditions, material resources, and ethnical relations of the vast region thus suddenly revealed to the outer world. In 1879 Stanley himself was commissioned to proceed again to the scene of his great exploit, and inquire on the spot into the best means of introducing orderly trade and European culture amongst the savage populations dwelling on the banks of the great artery. "I am charged," he wrote at the time, "to open and keep open, if possible, all such districts and countries as I may explore for the benefit of the commercial world. The mission is supported by a philanthropic society, which numbers noble-minded men of several nations. It is not a religious society, but my instructions are entirely of that spirit. No violence must be used, and wherever rejected, the mission must withdraw to seek another field. . . . I have fifteen Europeans and a couple of hundred natives with me."

Here, therefore, was a new departure in the history of European enterprise—an attempt to conquer by peaceful means, and for peaceful aims; to conquer also at least as much in the interest of the vanquished as of the

controlling power. A bloodless victory of prodigious magnitude was the outcome of this mission, which lasted altogether five years (1879-84), and which involved a vast amount of hard pioneering work especially in the region of the cataracts between the estuary and Stanley Pool. It was at Vivi, the base station at the foot of the last falls, that Stanley earned the title of *Bula Matadi*, or "Stone-Breaker," from the natives amazed at the energy with which he overcame all physical difficulties in the preliminary work of road-making, required to keep open the communications between the stations successively founded above Vivi at Isangila, Manyanga, and Leopoldville at Stanley Pool on the plateau itself.

The hardest task was thus successfully accomplished towards the close of 1881, and Leopoldville, terminus of the portages along the escarpments of the plateau, at once became the starting-point of the fluvial navigation for hundreds of miles along the main stream from Stanley Pool to Stanley Falls, and for thousands of miles along the countless affluents ramifying in all directions throughout the Congo-Lualaba catchment basin.

A steamer, well named the *En Avant*, was now launched for the first time on these inland waters; an event soon followed by the foundation of fresh stations at Mswata, chief Gobila's village, and a little higher up, at Kwamouth, the converging point of the great Kassai affluent, with its endless cortege of navigable secondary tributaries. Ascending the Kwa the pioneers, taking a wrong turning, missed the Kassai, but through the Mfini reached the considerable lacustrine basin now known as Lake Leopold II. After a brief visit to Europe to report progress, Stanley returned at the end of 1882 with increased powers to treat with the native chiefs, and acquire the lands and privileges necessary for the

consolidation and further development of the work already done.

Continuing its onward march, though with ever-increasing difficulties, the mission now ascended the great horseshoe bend of the main stream, founding stations at Wangata, on the equator, henceforth known as Equatorville, and at Stanley Falls, above the equator, at the eastern side of the bend, and at the head of the navigation of the Middle Congo.

The preliminary work of the Mission and of the "Comité d'Études" was now done; it remained for international diplomacy to accomplish the rest. Stanley returned to Europe in 1884, leaving his charge in the hands of Colonel Sir Francis de Winton, while the Comité became merged in the "African International Association." This body, still sustained exclusively by the private purse of the King of the Belgians, but now armed with 450 treaties made with various African chiefs, appealed to the civilised world for public recognition. England stood aloof; the energies of France and Portugal were chiefly displayed in the endeavour to seize vantage points in a region to the development of which they had contributed nothing. But the United States came forward and first recognised the "Congo Free State," which was at last formally constituted a sovereign power under international guarantees by the Congress of Berlin in the year 1885. The monarchical form of Government was adopted, Leopold II. being chosen its first king, with the Belgian capital as the seat of the administration. But in 1889 Leopold bequeathed to Belgium all his sovereign rights, and in 1890 the whole territory was declared inalienable, the right being reserved to Belgium of annexing the Free State after a period of ten years.

Progress of Geographical Exploration

The exploration of the Congo basin was now actively continued, chiefly by the European officials in the service of the State, but also by individual enterprise, and by the missionaries, who have not been slow to occupy a new field offering unlimited scope for their Apostolic labours. Even before Stanley's withdrawal from the scene, Lieutenant Wissmann and Dr. Pogge were already at work on behalf of the German African Association among the southern Congo affluents. Before the end of 1880 they had made their way from Loanda across Portuguese territory to Kikassa on the Kassai, and thence next year across the Lulua and through the Tu-Shilange territory to Lake Munkamba, reported to be "a vast sea," but now shown to be a small tarn scarcely three miles long. The expedition then pushed on to the Lubi and Lubilash, headstreams of the Sankuru, and after crossing the Lomami, then considered a branch of the same great Congo affluent, it crossed Cameron's route of 1874, reaching Nyangwe on the Lualaba in 1882. Here the explorers parted company, Dr. Pogge returning westwards and Wissmann continuing the journey across Lake Tanganyika to Saadani, on the Indian Ocean.

In 1884 Wissmann entered the service of the Congo International Association, and, in company with Dr. Wolf and Lieutenant Müller, resumed the survey of the Kassai waters, which had also, meantime, been visited by Buchner and Schütt. After founding the important station of Luluaberg, on the Lulua, some miles above its confluence with the Kassai, the flotilla formed at this station descended the Lulua, and, after encountering some rapids near its mouth, entered the Kassai and followed its whole course without further obstruction down to the

Sankuru confluence on the right and the Kuango on the left, and so on past the Mfini confluence to Kwamouth, in July 1885. Next to Stanley's descent of the Lualaba-Congo this was the most important expedition in the Congo basin, for it determined the true character of the vast Kassai hydrographic system, and showed that the Kwa, a sort of inland Humber, was not so much a river in the ordinary sense as a broad, deep channel through which a multitude of streams—Kwango, Kassai, Lulua, Lubilash, Sankuru, Lomami, with all their head-waters—converged on the left bank of the Congo above Stanley Pool.

This great fluvial system, ramifying in every direction on the south side, is, so to say, balanced on the north by the Ubangi (Mobangi), which was first ascended to the Falls by the Rev. Mr. Grenfell in 1885-6, and again in 1888 by Lieutenant van Gele. Dr. W. Junker, advancing from the White Nile regions, had, in 1883, already followed the course of the Welle-Makua to the station of Abdallah ($22^{\circ} 55' E.$, $4^{\circ} N.$), within sixty miles of the farthest point afterwards reached by Van Gele on the Ubangi. Thus was solved the last great hydrographic problem in Africa; for it now became evident that the Welle, supposed by its discoverer, Schweinfurth (1870), to drain through the Shari to the Chad basin, was, on the contrary, the upper course of the Ubangi, largest affluent of the Congo on its right bank. The connection was soon after completed by Van Gele, who steamed up the Ubangi to Abdallah's in 1890, and afterwards penetrated up the Mbomu, Mbili, and other affluents of the Welle-Makua. Treaties have already been made with the native chiefs and stations of the Free State founded in the Welle basin itself, most of which was a *terra incognita* before Junker's explorations of 1876-83.

Junker had penetrated in the year 1882 through the

Niam-Niam country southwards to the Nepoko, the mouth of which river was passed by Stanley during his ascent of the Aruwimi in 1887. Its lower course has not yet been surveyed; but there is no longer any doubt that it flows through the Aruwimi to the Congo. The Aruwimi itself was found by Stanley to rise on the plateau, near the west side of Lake Albert Nyanza, which belongs to the Nile system. The true position and limits of the Congo-Nile water-parting are thus finally settled, and within little more than a decade of Stanley's expedition down the Congo the extent, outlines, and more salient features of the whole basin had already been determined.

Boundaries, Extent, and Population of the Free State

But at the time of the Berlin Congress many of these discoveries had yet to be made, and, despite Stanley's preliminary surveys, much of the Congo region still remained to be explored. Hence the frontiers of the new State could only be roughly indicated, in many places by little-known water-partings or unsurveyed river-courses, or the pretended boundaries of conterminous European claims, or else by purely arbitrary conventional lines traced along the meridians and parallels of latitude.

The principle that the Free State should coincide with the fluvial basin itself, so as to correspond with the natural physical divisions, was found to be impracticable; for the basin had already been encroached upon at various points by rival European Powers. But in working out the details this principle was kept in view, and adopted wherever possible. The result is that for all practical purposes the Congo State and the Congo basin are one. Thus the Congo-Zambesi divide has been chosen as the southern boundary, while on the east side the line follows

the western shore of Lake Tanganyika, which is almost an inland basin, draining only intermittently to the Congo. In the south-east the British sphere of influence encroaches by appropriating Lake Bangweolo and the east side of Lake Moero both in the Luapula, or Upper Congo valley. On the other hand, in the north-east the conventional line of 30° E. longitude crosses Lake Albert Edward at the Semliki river—that is, takes in a corner of the Albertine branch of the Nile, which should be included in the sphere of influence of British East Africa.

By the Franco-Belgium Agreement of August 1894 the frontier towards French Congo coincides with the valley of the Ubangi up to its confluence with the Mbomu, and then follows the course of the Mbomu to its source at the Congo - Nile water - parting, which forms the boundary as far as its intersection with 30° E. longitude. A seaward outlet along the right bank of the Congo estuary was secured to the Free State by the Convention of February 1885 between Portugal and the African International Congress, and in March 1894 the frontier towards Portuguese West Africa was finally settled by the acceptance of the line proposed by the Rev. George Grenfell, delegate of the Free State. Here the boundary partly coincides with the Kwango south to the Tungila confluence, from which point it runs eastwards mainly along 8° S. latitude to the Luita tributary of the Kassai, then north by east partly along the Loangwe valley to 7° S. latitude, and thence mainly along this parallel eastwards to the Chikapa river a little above its junction with the Kassai. From this point the line turns abruptly south along the Chikapa valley to $7^{\circ} 17'$ S., which parallel is followed east to the Kassai. As thus constituted the Congo Free State has an area roughly estimated at 900,000 square miles, with a population of about 14,000,000.

Physical Features—The Congo Basin

When Diego Cano (Diogo Cam) reached the Congo estuary in the year 1482,¹ struck by its immensity and ignorant of any local appellation, he called it the *Poderoso*, or "Mighty." Then his Portuguese successors learnt from the natives that they also designated it by the corresponding word *Nzadi*, or "Great River."² But this word, which still lingers on some European maps under the corrupt form of *Zaire*, gradually gave place to the term Congo, from the name of the once powerful empire through which it flowed, and this designation has been finally accepted in geographical nomenclature, despite Stanley's attempt to substitute that of Livingstone in 1877.

In superficial extent the basin of the "Poderoso" (about 1,600,000 square miles) ranks next to that of the Amazons (1,800,000 square miles), while two at least of its affluents, the Ubangi on the right and the Kassai on the left bank, drain areas very much larger than the whole of the British Isles (170,000 and over 200,000 square miles respectively). Others, such as the Aruwimi, Loika, and Alima on the north, the Boloko, Lopori, and Juapa on the south side, vie in length and volume with the Rhine, the Loire, and other great rivers of West Europe. The farthest headstreams rise thousands of miles away to the south-east, where the sources of the Chambezi are separated only by a narrow ridge from the affluents of

¹ Not 1484 as hitherto supposed. The two pillars erected by the navigator to commemorate this expedition were brought to Lisbon in 1892, when an inscription was discovered on one of them showing that the coast had been traced all the way to Benguela in 1482, two years earlier than the date usually assigned.

² Hence *Nzadi a Mungwa* = "The great salt river," the sea.

Lakes Nyassa and Hikwa, within 450 miles of the Indian Ocean, and where those of the Lualaba rise at the foot of Mount Kaomba, Arnot's "Border Craig," close to the main source of the Zambesi. On the other hand the Mouyango, southernmost tributary of the Kassai, has its source in the Chibokwe country, close to the north-western feeders of the Zambesi, and within 350 miles of the Atlantic.



VILLAGE ON THE LOWER ARUWIMI

Thus the head-waters of the main stream and of its chief southern affluents are spread

over a great part of the continent, and are met by travellers crossing from ocean to ocean along the whole extent of the great central plateau, within its eastern and western escarpments.

In its general outlines the section of the plateau lying within the Congo basin presents the aspect of a somewhat depressed alluvial plain with a decided tilt towards the Atlantic, and rising round the periphery to heights of from about 3000 to 6000 feet, but nowhere traversed by continuous lofty ranges. The Katanga copper-country

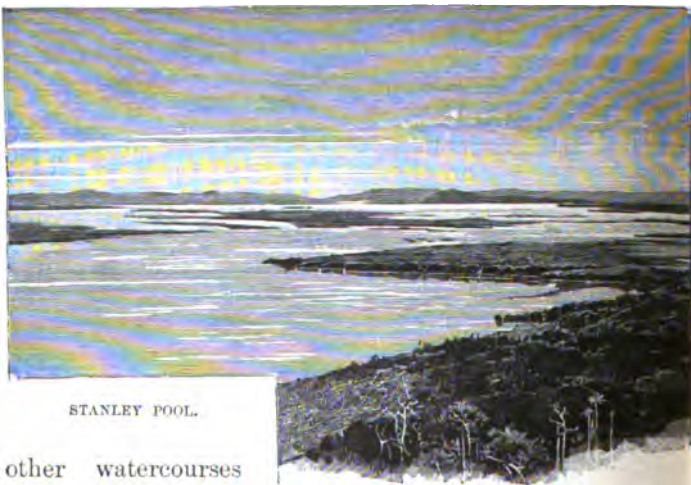
towards the south-east is described by Mr. Arnot as distinctly "mountainous"; the same traveller crossed the Bihé escarpments 100 miles from the Atlantic at an altitude of 6000 feet. The Kifumaji Flat, where some of the Zambesi and Congo head-waters are intermingled about Lake Dilolo, stands 4000 feet above the sea; Lake Bangweolo, in the extreme south-east, is nearly as high (3700 feet); the passes leading from the north to the sources of the Makua in the extreme north-east were found by Junker to be 4000 to 5000 feet, and the whole region may be said to culminate a little farther south in the snowy Ruwenzori group, 17,000 to 20,000 (?) feet high.

But no such elevations occur anywhere within the periphery, where no part of the whole region is crossed by any distinct mountain range. The fall is continuous, and for the most part gradual, from the surrounding Congo-Zambesi, Congo-Nile, Congo-Shari, Congo-Ogoway water-partings down to the central artery, which, after making a tremendous horse-shoe bend to about $2^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, discharges the whole drainage of a well-watered catchment basin nearly 1,600,000 square miles in extent, 1400 miles long, and 1200 broad, through a single estuary some six degrees below the equator.

The Livingstone Falls and Congo Estuary

In fact this great Central African depression was probably at one time the bed of a vast inland sea, which may have included the Chad basin itself, but which is now represented in the Lower Congo regions only by Stanley Pool, a sheet of water less than 100 square miles in extent, but over 200 feet deep. Here were collected all the equatorial waters, which, owing to the excess of rainfall over evaporation, gradually surged up

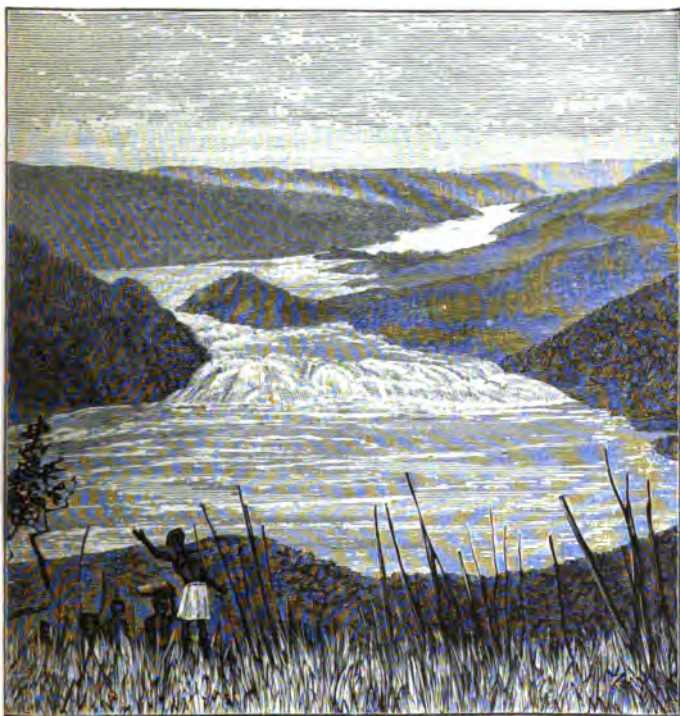
against the coast ranges, which barred their passage seawards. At last the summits were reached, and then the overflow of the lacustrine basin was discharged towards the Atlantic through a series of tremendous cataracts, which have slowly eaten away the escarpments down to the levels of what are now collectively called the Livingstone Falls. Thus, like the Niagara and so many



other watercourses that have not yet

completed their life history, the Congo still rushes with fury down to its placid estuary, descending between Stanley Pool and the Yellala, or lowest falls, a total height of nearly 900 feet through as many as thirty-two distinct rapids, in a distance of somewhat less than 170 miles. This region of the lower cataracts, formerly the great barrier to the seaward-course of the Congo waters, is at present the great barrier to the inland flow of European trade and culture. As it must take ages before Stanley Pool can be cut down to the level of the estuary, even by a dis-

charge estimated according to the seasons at from 1,300,000 to nearly 2,000,000 cubic feet per second, it is clear that a railway from the coast to Stanley Pool, or



YELLALA FALLS.

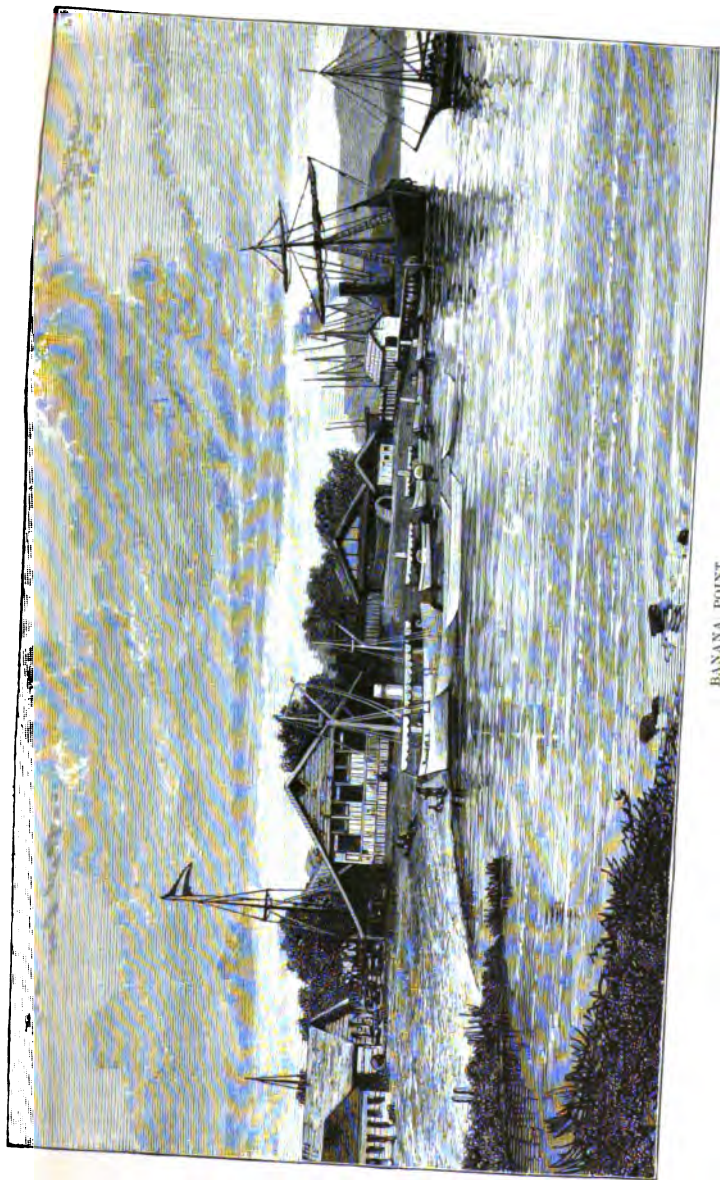
some other point above the falls, is a primary condition for the development of the Congo Free State.

The estuary itself, which is 120 miles long, with an average breadth of five or six miles, and a depth in some places of over 200 feet, looks like a delta in course of

formation. While rivers are eating their way down to sea-level, all their energies are devoted to the work of erosion : but this once accomplished, as in the Lower Zambesi and Lower Nile, their current becomes sluggish and they begin to deposit sedimentary matter, which in the Congo estuary is estimated at over eleven billion cubic feet a year. This would suffice, if centred in one spot, to create an island 1000 feet high and half a square mile in extent. But, being spread over a wide space and arrested by the tidal current, it accumulates now in one place, now in another. Shifting sandbanks are thus created, shoals and subfluvial banks are developed, through which the stream has again to cut its way, as on the north side of the Congo estuary, where a channel already twenty feet deep at low water branches off to the right, and after ramifying round several flat deltaic islands reaches the coast at Banana (French Point) over against Shark Point (Cape St. Antonio) at the southern entrance of the estuary. Similar formations are being developed in the Kissanga district on the south side, and the time is perhaps not distant when a true Congo delta will be created rivalling in extent those of the Niger, Nile, and Mississippi.

The Middle Congo and its Affluents

Above the narrows there is a clear waterway of nearly 1000 miles, stretching without interruption from Stanley Pool round the great horseshoe bend to Stanley Falls on the equator. Throughout this section, constituting a well-defined middle course, the Congo flows in a majestic island-studded current, in some places broadening out to a width of eight or even ten miles, along the lowest part of the old lacustrine bed at a mean elevation of about



BANANA POINT.

1200 feet above the sea.¹ The station of Kwamouth, about ninety miles above the pool, indicates the point where the main stream is joined on the left bank by the Kwa, which collects in a single channel the drainage of a region fully as large as France. This channel, through which the Kassai with its vast ramification of secondary



SEVENTH CATARACT, STANLEY FALLS.

affluents reaches the main stream, is scarcely a third of a mile wide at the narrows where it pierces the rocky ridge formerly separating it from the Congo, and even at the confluence it is less than half a mile wide, but it has a depth of at least 130 feet, and a velocity of four miles an hour.

¹ Just below Stanley Falls, Stanley (*Through the Dark Continent*) gives the height of the river at 1511 feet, while Grenfell estimates that of Stanley Pool at 800, others at 916 feet, leaving an average of about 1200 for the whole course between these two points.

At about 5° south latitude the Kassai is joined on its right bank by its largest tributary, the Sankuru (Sankulu), whose farthest south-eastern headstream, the Lomami, is no less than 750 miles long. The Lomami, whose source was discovered by Le Marinel (1891), in 8° 45' S., 24° 55' E., is not to be confounded with the eastern Lomami, Grenfell's Boloko, which joins the Congo in an independent channel much farther east some miles below Stanley Falls. The Boloko was ascended towards the end of 1889 by Mr. Janssen, Governor-General of the Free State, to the head of the navigation about the latitude of Nyangwe, and it was thus shown that this great trade centre could be reached much more easily by the Lomami than by the main stream, which is obstructed by numerous rapids beyond those of Stanley Falls.

The Kassai, central artery of the great southern hydrographic system, flows first nearly 200 miles due east to the northern margin of the Kifumaji (Chifumachi) Flat, which Cameron had heard of as a great lake, but which Arnot found to be "an immense sandy plain, flooded to the depth of two or three feet during the rainy seasons; but the water speedily drains away and leaves a dry arid plain in winter."¹ The lowest depression in this plain is flooded by the permanent Lake Dilolo, where some of the Congo (Kassai) and Zambesi head-waters are intermingled during the rains, as are those of the Amazons and Orinoco in the Cassiquiare channel.

At the Kifumaji Flat the Kassai bends abruptly northwards, and mainly follows this direction for the rest of its course to the Kwa. Below the Wissmann Falls at the head of the steam navigation it receives the copious Lulua above the Sankuru, and at the Kwa Confluence the Mfini, through which Lake Leopold II. sends its overflow to the

¹ *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, January 1889.

Congo. A little above the same confluence the Kassai is joined from the south-west by the Kwango, largest of the tributaries on its left bank. But the Kwango, flowing northwards along the eastern or inner foot of the escarpments, is so obstructed by falls and rapids, that it is far more useful as the political frontier of the Free State and Portuguese West Africa, than as a highway of communication with the interior. Nevertheless its lower course is navigable for nearly 200 miles from its mouth to the first rapids at Kingunji. From its source to the confluence, a distance of over 600 miles, there is a total descent of over 4000 feet, and at the Caparanga (Louisa) Falls there is a clear drop of 163 feet.

A few miles below the equator, the Middle Congo is joined by its great affluent from the extreme north-east, the Ubangi, whose farthest headwaters are now known to rise on the southern watershed of the Congo-Nile divide.¹ From this point (Mounts Chippendall, Speke, Junker, and Schweinfurth, within a short distance of Wadelai, on the White Nile), it flows as the Welle Kibali or Kibbi, or simply *Welle*, that is, "River" in a pre-eminent sense, first north and then nearly due west, and lower down takes the name of Makua, receiving the Werre, Kengo or Mbomu, and other large affluents, nearly all on its right bank, from the Dar-Fertit and Krej watershed of the divide towards the Nile and Chad basins. On the south

¹ Even in good geographies there is much confusion in the use of such terms as *water-parting*, *divide*, and *watershed*. It may therefore be well to explain that *water-parting* and *divide* are synonymous, meaning the ridge or rising ground, however low, which separates the sources of streams flowing to two or more different basins; but a *watershed* is a slope; hence one divide must have two, and may have more watersheds, one for each basin, of which it forms the parting-line. Thus Mr. Arnot's "Border Craig," taken as a whole, is a divide or *water-parting* with three watersheds or slopes, from which streams flow north-west to the Lulua-Kassai basin, north to the Lualaba, and south-west to the Zambesi respectively.

side its largest feeder is the Bomokandi, which appears to rise a few miles south-west of Mount Schweinfurth, and after a westerly course of over 300 miles reaches the left bank of the Welle, some distance above the Werre confluence. Farther on, according as it traverses different Niam-Niam and other populations, the Welle takes other names, such as the Koyu and the Dua, the latter prevailing both above and below the dangerous Zongo rapids, where its westerly course is arrested by a group of hills 600 to 800 feet high. Here the Dua trends abruptly south for the rest of its course to the Congo, which it enters as the Ubangi or Mobangi, through a broad island-studded channel, which has often been mistaken for that of the main stream itself.

This Ubangi-Welle affluent, draining a region larger than the United Kingdom, must prove of vast importance for the future development of Central Africa. Its navigation is certainly obstructed by the Zongo Falls (which, however, have already been surmounted by Van Gele), and again by the Kibali Falls on its upper course. But between these two points and throughout its lower reaches it is everywhere navigable for hundreds of miles by river steamers of considerable size. At the Zongo rapids, which can be easily turned by portages, the stream is 640 yards wide and 25 feet deep, with a current of nearly two miles an hour, and a volume of 75,000 cubic feet per second, or about two-thirds of all the other Congo tributaries below the Aruwimi. Even at low water in February it is never less than 600 yards wide, and with its numerous tributaries cannot have a navigable waterway of less than 2000 miles. It thus affords almost unbroken water communication from Stanley Pool right across the continent to the Nile basin in the east, and to the Chad basin through the river Shari in the north.

The Ubangi also traverses one of the finest and most densely peopled regions in the whole of Africa, a region of which, despite the prevailing cannibalism, its first explorers speak in enthusiastic language. Thus the country above the Zongo Falls is described by Captain Van Gele as "beautiful in the extreme. On both sides rise gently sloping hills, woods and pasture lands; fields of maize and bananas pass in endless succession. . . . Sometimes the banks seem at first sight to be uninhabited, because the villages lie about a hundred yards inland; but the moment one accosts a passing canoe the inhabitants flock down to the water's edge. I never saw such a quantity of provisions everywhere, not only in one particular spot, but during the whole voyage; bananas, maize, flour, sorghum, sweet potatoes, yams, beans, sugar-cane, sesame, ripe bananas preserved in honey, palm-wine infused with kola nuts, tobacco, sheep, goats, splendid fowls, were offered in abundance. To sum up, it is the most densely peopled and fertile land I have come across in Africa."¹

Beyond the Ubangi, the Middle Congo receives also on its right bank three other large affluents—the Ngala, or Mongalla, surveyed by Baert and Werner as far as the Mugwardie Falls and Rapids in 1886,² the Loika or Itimbiri, ascended in 1884 by Grenfell and again by Van Gele, as far as the Lubi or Rubi Falls, and the Aruwimi (Biyere), traversed nearly from mouth to source by Stanley's Emin Pasha Relief Expedition of 1887-89. Here is entered the great Central African forest zone

¹ *Proc. Royal Geographical Society*, 1889, pp. 335, 336.

² This expedition settled the true character of the Ngala river, which by some had previously been taken for a branch of the Ubangi; but which was now shown to be an independent stream, apparently sending some of its overflow to the Ubangi during the floods.—J. R. Werner, *A Visit to Stanley's Rear-Guard*, 1889, p. 134.

stretching from about the Congo-Nile divide southwards to Manyemaland, and from the Albertine Nile westwards to and beyond the Lomami (Boloko) affluent of the Congo. During his toilsome march up the Aruwimi valley, Stanley plodded for 160 days "through the forest, bush and jungle, without ever having seen a bit of green sward of the size of a college chamber floor. Nothing but miles and miles, endless miles of forest, in various stages of growth and various degrees of altitude, according to the ages of the trees, with varying thickness of undergrowth."¹

The Aruwimi was found to have a course of about 700 miles, rising as the Ituri on the plateau above the west side of Lake Albert Nyanza, near the sources of the Welle; it flows thence south-west and west parallel with that river, and collects through the Lenda from the south, the Ihuru, Nepoko and other affluents from the north, the running waters of a densely-wooded region nearly 70,000 square miles in extent. But as a highway of communication with the Nile basin it cannot compare with the Ubangi-Welle, for it flows mainly through uncleared land, and is obstructed by numerous rapids throughout the whole of its middle course. The Nepoko also at the confluence develops a picturesque waterfall which bars all access to the Upper Welle or to the Nile by that affluent.

Till quite recently these north-eastern tributaries of the Congo were separated by an unexplored tract from Junker's itineraries in the Welle-Makua basin. But this intervening district was crossed at two different points in the summer of 1890 by Captains Roget and Becker, in the service of the Free State. Roget, starting from the Loika, made his way northwards to the Makua, at a place a little above Abdallah, Junker's westernmost point

¹ *Darkest Africa*, i. p. 136.

in the direction of the Ubangi (February 1883). Becker, setting out from Yambuya, on the Lower Aruwimi, advanced north-westwards across the Lulu affluent of that river and then across the Loika, which was here found to be identical with Junker's Rubi,¹ and which was joined on the right by the Riketti, Junker's Rikkiti or Likkiti, though by him placed too far west. Becker took 200



CASCADES OF THE NEPOKO.

days to cross the dense forest region, reaching from the Aruwimi to the Makua, which at the point struck by him had a breadth of nearly a mile. All the itineraries of explorers penetrating southwards from Egypt were thus at last connected with those spreading northwards from the Cape, and it is now possible to proceed by known routes across the whole length of the continent from the Nile delta to Cape Town.

¹ The letters *r*, *l* and *d* interchange in the Bantu and other African languages. Hence Grenfell's Lubi Falls were the falls of Junker's river Rubi.

The Upper Congo, its Lakes and Tributaries

Stanley Falls, where the Congo begins its middle course, are still distant from 1400 to 1500 miles from its farthest headstreams; the Chambezi, which rises near "Stevenson's Road," on the plateau between Lakes Tanganyika and Nyassa, and the Lualaba, which has its source on the southern slope of the Lokinga (Mushinga), range at about 13° S. latitude, close to the head-waters of the Zambesi. Throughout this section the Upper Congo drains a vast lacustrine region, the true character of which has not yet been determined. The western chain of little known lakes, including Kasali (1800 feet above sea-level), Kowambe, Bembe, and others, may possibly, like Stanley Pool, be surviving fragments of the ancient inland sea. But those lying more to the east and south-east—Bangweolo (4000), Moero (2820), and Tanganyika (2665)—evidently belong to different geological systems.

The Chambezi, whose upper course, the Chazi, rises within less than 430 miles of the Indian Ocean, flows mainly in a south-westerly direction through a swampy district to the east side of Lake Bangweolo or Bemba,¹ southernmost, and next to Tanganyika largest of all the lacustrine basins draining to the Congo. Its name will always be associated with that of Livingstone, who discovered it in 1868, and who ended his days in 1873 at Chitambo's station of Ilala on its southern shore. Bangweolo, which lies at the northern foot of the Lokinga range, is merely a shallow, reedy, and island-

¹ Neither of these names is known to the natives, and Mr. Alfred Sharpe thinks that Livingstone's "Bangweolo" is a corruption of Pamwelo, "at the lake." South of Tanganyika all lakes are called Mwelo or Mwelu, Mwero or Mweru (*Geo. Jour.* 1893, p. 551).

studded depression, flooded to a depth of from fifteen to twenty feet by the Chambezi and several smaller streams from the surrounding morass. It appears to change its form and size from season to season, Livingstone describing it as an oval, with its long axis disposed from east to west, whereas Giraud found it in 1886 stretching in the opposite direction from north to south, and sending its overflow from the south-west corner through the Luapula to the Lualaba. Bangweolo stands at an altitude of 3800 feet, or about 100 feet higher than Livingstone's rough estimate. In 1893 Bangweolo was visited by Joseph Thomson, who corrected some of Giraud's estimates, and reduced the area of open water in the dry season to about 1670 square miles, and its altitude to 3760 feet.

At the outlet the Luapula is already a copious stream 600 feet wide and twenty deep; but it is soon obstructed by the dangerous Mombottuta (Mambirima) Falls, beyond which point it flows in a northerly direction through Lake Moero (Mweru, "white") to its confluence with the Kamorondo (Lualaba), a little above the junction of the Lukuga from Lake Tanganyika.

In the section of the Luapula between Bangweolo and Moero, a distance altogether of not more than 300 miles, there is a total fall of about 700 feet (3800 to 3100). But Sharpe (1893) gives Moero an altitude of 3000 feet, and a length of 68 miles, with a mean breadth of 24 miles. Although smaller, Moero presents more the character of a true lake than the Bangweolo depression. It lies on the same plateau and stands at about the same level as Tanganyika, from which it is distant less than 100 miles; it presents an open expanse broken by few islands, about 90 miles long and very deep, especially towards the north, where the encircling wooded mountains

give it a somewhat Alpine aspect. Its great age is betrayed by its fauna, which includes some remarkable fishes of the Silurian epoch and of amphibious habits. After the periodical inundations which here cover vast spaces, these Siluroids leave the lake to feed on the reptiles and other animals left dead on the ground after the subsidence of the waters. Moero was visited in 1892 by Mr. Alfred Sharpe, who founded the station of Rhodesia at its north-east corner, and again in 1894 by the Rev. Mr. Crawford, who found that the Luapula entered the lake through two mouths, although one only is shown on Mr. Sharpe's map.¹

Beyond Moero the Luapula, here known as the Luvwa, and by Livingstone called Webb's River, still continues its precipitous course down to its junction with the Lualaba descending from the south-west. Several of the head streams of the Lualaba, such as the Lokoleshe, Luburi, Lufupa, and Lulua, all rising about the Border Craig water-parting, were crossed near their sources, on his journey to Garenganze, by Mr. Arnot, who found them already "large streams over which we had to make bridges." Thus a great volume of water is carried down by the Lualaba to its confluence with the Luapula, and Reichard, who in 1884 crossed it 120 miles above this point, supposed that it was the more copious of the two. But M. Delcommune, who explored a great part of this lacustrine region in 1891-2, found that in the month of August the eastern branch had a discharge of 1830 cubic feet per second at its outflow from Lake Moero, while the volume of the western branch was not more than 890 cubic feet near the confluence. Of the numerous lakes lying in its valley the largest appear to be Lo-Hamba and Kassali, the latter lying at the

¹ *Jour. Geo. Soc.*, June 1893, p. 561.

converging point of the Lualaba, Lufira and Luburi. But the geographical nomenclature of this region is very confusing. The Luapula itself often takes the name of Lualaba, and these two great headstreams of the Congo are by some writers distinguished as the Eastern and Western Lualaba. Of the western branch the chief tributary is the Luburi or Lubudi (Lububuri), which was explored in 1893 by Lieut. Francqui, who thinks that, although smaller at the confluence, it must have a much longer course than the eastern branch.¹

Lake Tanganyika and the Lualaba

Below their junction the main stream has in recent years received the overflow of Lake Tanganyika through its Lukuga emissary. At the time of its discovery by Burton and Speke (1858), this great equatorial lake was certainly a land-locked basin without any outflow, the evaporation balancing the contributions received from the Malagarazi, Rusizi, Lofu and some smaller affluents. Since then its physiography has been carefully studied by Livingstone, Stanley, Cameron, and especially by Edward C. Hore, who was settled with his family for ten years (1878-88) on its banks.² This observer is of opinion that the discharge through the Lukuga is quite a recent phenomenon, due to a gradual gain of inflow over the evaporation. M. Delcommune, who completed

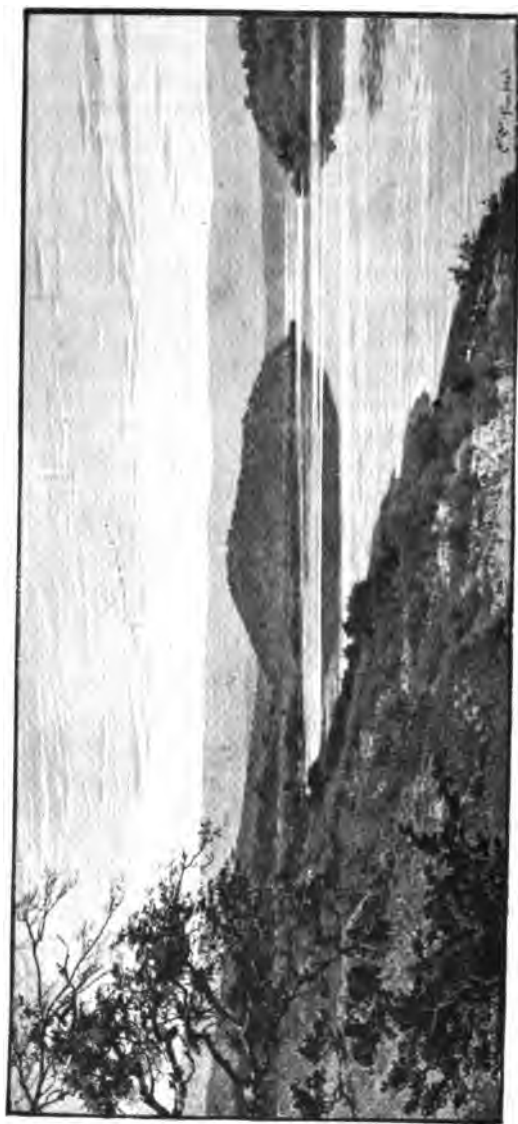
¹ *Mouvement Géographique*, 1894, No. 8.

² Mrs. Hore has the distinction of being the first European woman who penetrated into East Equatorial Africa from the Zanzibar Coast. For a graphic account of her journey and residence on the lake see *To Lake Tanganyika in a Bath-Chair*, by Annie B. Hore, 1887. *Tanganyika* is the Swahili name of this basin, which all the natives call *Nyanja*, *Liamba*, *Mweru* or *Rueru*, that is, the "lake," in the local Bantu dialects (H. H. Johnston, "Report for 1891-93," p. 6).

the survey of the Lukuga in 1892, found that it has a total length of 235 miles, with a fall of 1035 feet (2665 to 1630). At the confluence, where it forms a delta of considerable size, it is 187 feet wide and 5 feet deep, with a discharge of 50 cubic metres per second in the dry season. Neither M. Delcommune nor Capt. S. L. Hinde, who explored the lower reaches of the Lukuga in 1893, saw any trace of the Lake Lanji (Ulenge), which is figured on all maps at or near the converging point of the Lualaba, Luapula, and Lukuga.

Tanganyika, that is, the "mingling of the waters," occupies the lowest cavity of a depression in the plateau, apparently of volcanic origin, and is 400 miles long with an average breadth of 20 miles, and a depth in the central parts of from 500 to 2000 feet. It bears a curious resemblance in its general outline to the more southerly Lake Nyassa, which doubtless belongs to the same great volcanic fault stretching north-west and south-east between the Ruwenzori and Shiré highlands, parallel with another line of igneous energy indicated by the Comoro group, the north of Madagascar, and the Mascarenhas Islands. "Not only the appearance of the depression and the lake lead one to think of volcanic action and earthquake movement, still more practical and impressive evidence has been forced upon me during ten years of residence, in the frequent recurrence of shocks of earthquake, sometimes so severe as to open cracks in the ground, as well as in the presence of several hot springs and jets of steam and petroleum, while still more frequent gloomy rumblings beneath the surface (the complaints and warnings of the storm demon Kabogo) indicate that the fires below are still active" (Hore).

The lake, which stands 2665 feet above sea-level



SOUTH END OF LAKE TANGANYIKA.

(Popelin), is remarkably free from shoals, reefs, or islands, except Kavala's and a few others close in-shore. But it is exposed to sudden squalls and fierce storms, especially at the turn of the seasons, and these are accompanied by waterspouts, the "St. Elmo's fire," and other electric disturbances. Tanganyika is a fresh-water basin, well stocked with fish, and containing a remarkable shell-fish fauna, more than half the molluscs being peculiar to the lake, while others resemble the extinct marine species of the European cretaceous period.

The section of the Lualaba from the Lukuga confluence to that of the Luama above Nyangwe was first explored in 1894 by Captain Hinde, who describes it as a noble stream, in some parts from one to two miles wide, including the islands, and over thirty-five feet deep, but so obstructed by the Nyangy Falls and many other rapids as to be of little use for navigation.¹ From the Luama confluence, where it is a copious water-way nearly three-quarters of a mile wide and from ten to sixteen feet deep, the Lualaba flows mainly north through a little known forest region to the equator. Here the Stanley Falls, a series of seven formidable rapids completely obstructing the navigation, mark the termination of the upper and beginning of the middle course of the Congo. Above the falls the main stream is joined by several large affluents, such as the Lufubu, Ruika, and Kasuku on its left, the Kipembwe, Urindi, Lulu - Lowwa, and Leopold on its right bank.

Climate of the Congo Basin

There can be no doubt that the climate of this region is very trying to the European constitution, not so much

¹ "Three Years' Travel in the Congo Free State," in *Jour. Geo. Soc.*, May 1895.

from the tropical heat, as from the excessive moisture of the atmosphere. This is shown by the fact that English travellers and residents, accustomed to the damp foggy climate of the British Isles, resist its influences better than the Belgian and other European officials of the Free State, better even than the Nubian inhabitants of the almost rainless Middle Nile valley, who "are not so tolerant of moist heat as Englishmen."¹ But it would be a mistake to suppose that the English or any other Europeans can ever hope to found permanent colonies except in some favoured districts about the periphery of the Congo basin. Such might possibly be the Tanganyika uplands, where "the climate on the whole is by no means unhealthy. . . . I have no doubt that, as a few civilised surroundings are secured, and the country and conditions of life become better understood, there will be no complaint of the climate."² Such also might be the Katanga highlands, which Mr. Arnot speaks of as "a healthy part of the interior," and where he himself resided for some years without any detriment to his physical or mental energies.

But taken as a whole the great Central African depression must necessarily be debilitating and more or less dangerous for all European residents, because of the high normal temperature ranging from about 60° to 90° F.,³ the sudden transitions from hot days, with the glass

¹ J. T. Wills, *Proc. Royal Geographical Society*, 1887, p. 294.

² E. C. Hore, *ib.* 1889, p. 589.

³ Wherever accurate records have been taken we find high temperatures prevailing all the year round, both in the dry and wet seasons. Thus at Luebo Station (Luebo-Lulua Confluence, Kassai basin) the glass never fell in 1886 below 63° F. in July, a dry month, rising in October, a wet month, to 105°, the average for both being at 2 P.M. 86° and 97° respectively (Bateman). This means a climate made up entirely of *alternating wet and dry hot summers*. Luebo stands almost in the mathematical centre of the Congo basin at an altitude of about 2000 feet. It may therefore be taken as representing the normal climatic conditions in Central Africa.

often standing at 100° F. and even 109° (Lower Ubangi), to chilly nights, when Cameron found the water freezing about the sources of the Kassai; the absence of distinct summer and winter seasons, here replaced by two rainy and two dry periods; lastly, the free play of high winds, which are often charged with miasmatic vapours wafted from great distances across the open plateau or along the large river valleys, and which, when cool, are apt to give rise to chills and ague of a peculiarly treacherous character.

Stanley, who has had more experience of the climatic conditions in the Congo regions than any other living authority, concludes generally that "from 0 to 5000 feet above the sea there is no immunity from fever and ague; that over forty miles of lake water between a camp and the other shore are no positive protection; that a thousand miles of river course may serve as a flue to convey malaria in a concentrated form; that if there is a thick screen of primeval forest, or a grove of plantations between the dwelling-place and a large clearing or open country, there is only danger of the local malaria around the dwelling, which might be rendered harmless by the slightest attention to the system. But in the open country neither a house nor a tent is sufficient protection, since the air enters by the doors of the house, and under the flaps and through the ventilators, to poison the inmates."¹

But if under these adverse conditions the European race cannot be perpetuated in the Congo basin, European officials, missionaries, traders and travellers may by due precautions greatly reduce the risks to which they are exposed by residence in the country. Doubtless the death-rate has hitherto been excessively high amongst all these classes. But they may be regarded as pioneers who

¹ *In Darkest Africa*, ii. p. 32.

have suffered for the benefit of their successors, and the history, for instance, of the first expeditions up the Niger shows how much may be done to lessen the mortality of Europeans obliged to reside for a term of years in Congo-land. Of the forty-nine whites on board the two steamers that first ascended the Niger in 1832 all but nine perished. A steam flotilla despatched in 1841 by a philanthropic society lost forty-eight out of 143 whites in a few weeks, and the "model farm" founded by the survivors above the Benue confluence had been scarcely cleared for tillage when "the death of all the Europeans restored the land to wild beasts and the jungle." Then followed Baikie's famous expedition of 1854 up the Lower Niger and Benue, accomplished without the loss of a single life, thanks to proper attention to diet, sanitary arrangements, and a judicious use of wine and quinine. Some of the unfortunate Congo missionaries were rigid teetotallers, forgetting that alcohol is medicine, food, and poison according as it is used or abused.

The Congo basin lies within the track of the south-east trades, which set steadily from that quarter except where deflected by mountain barriers or attracted by fluvial valleys. Thus in the west they assume the character of south-westerly monsoons, and in the south, follow the northerly course of the streams flowing to the left bank of the Congo. They prevail especially in the two dry seasons which intervene between the wet season from October to the end of December, and the much heavier rainy period from February to May. The droughts are sometimes protracted with disastrous results, especially when intensified by the prairie fires, which rage over wide spaces, filling the atmosphere with dense volumes of smoke, and destroying vast quantities of vegetable growths.

Flora and Fauna

The common idea that Central Africa is one vast primeval forest has long been exploded. Nevertheless a far greater space is covered with continuous and almost impenetrable woodlands than might be inferred from some hasty generalisations, such as those of Professor Drummond.¹ From this point of view the Congo basin might be roughly divided into two distinct regions—a forest zone, occupying nearly the whole of the north-east from about the confluence of the Lualaba and Luapula northwards to the Welle-Makua basin, and an open zone mainly of savannah and arable lands comprising all the rest.

Stanley, who crossed the northern section of the forest zone during his expedition up the Aruwimi, estimates its length north and south at 620 miles, with a mean breadth of 517 miles and a total area of 320,000 square miles, exclusive of many broken stretches of timber and the long leafy avenues which fringe both banks of nearly all the rivers converging on the main stream, as well as those of the main stream itself. Characteristic of these, as of the Amazonian forests, are the huge lianas or creepers, by which in many places the vegetation is matted together in an inextricable tangle. "Imagine the whole of France and the Iberian peninsula closely packed with trees varying from twenty to 180 feet high, whose crowns of foliage interlace and prevent any view of sky and sun, and each tree from a few inches to four feet in diameter. Then from tree to tree run cables from two to fifteen inches in diameter, up and down in loops and festoons and W's and badly-formed

¹ *Tropical Africa*, 1888.

M's; fold them round the tree in great tight coils, until they have run up the entire height, like endless anacondas. Let them flower and leaf luxuriantly, and mix up above with the foliage of the trees to hide the sun; then from the highest branches let fall the ends of the cables reaching near to the ground by hundreds, with frayed extremities, for these represent the air roots of the epiphytes (parasites); let slender cords hang down also in tassels with open thread-work at the ends, work others through and through these as confusedly as possible, and pendent from branch to branch, and at every fork and on every horizontal branch plant cabbage-like lichens of the largest kind, and orchids and clusters of vegetable marvels and a drapery of delicate fronds. Now cover tree, branch, twig and creeper with a thick moss like a green fur, and the ground with a thick crop of phrynica and amoma . . . until the whole is one impervious bush." ¹

In general the water-partings coincide with or determine the range of the prevailing species. Thus the oil-palm is limited southwards by the Congo-Zambesi divide, and westwards by the escarpments of the plateau beyond the Kwango basin. In the same way the oil-palm is again arrested northwards by the Congo-Nile divide, which also appears to be the northern limit of the kola, raphia, and pandanas.

Owing to the great uniformity of soil and climate, the same economic plants, such as maize, manioc, millet, tobacco, hemp and sugar-cane, are everywhere successfully cultivated. These, with the banana, which yields prodigious quantities of wholesome food, form the chief agricultural resources of the country; but it is evident from the few experiments already made that most

¹ *In Darkest Africa*, ii. p. 70.

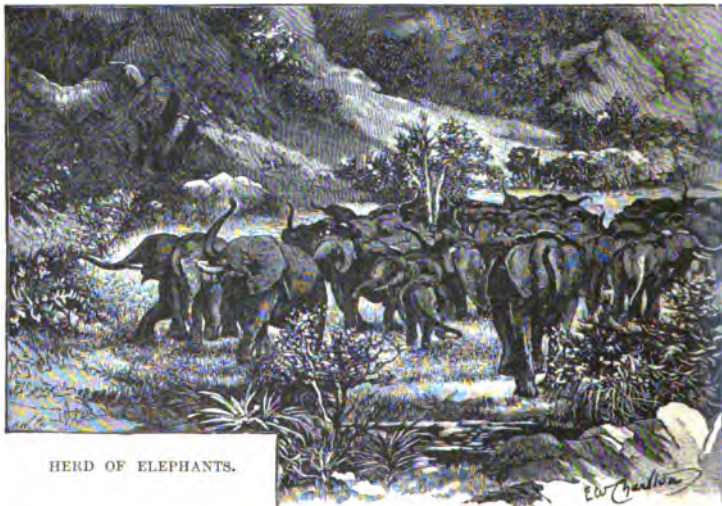
European fruits and vegetables might be raised on the plateau and surrounding slopes. Junker grew excellent radishes in Makarakaland on the northern slope of the Congo-Nile divide, and the vine and orange as well as the coffee shrub run wild in the Kassai valley. It is noteworthy that most of the economic plants have been introduced by Europeans from America, and it has been well remarked that their introduction has more than compensated "for the evils caused by the sale of firearms and spirits. Four centuries ago the Congo tribes lived mainly by hunting wild beasts or man himself, by fishing, and at most a rudimentary agriculture, whereas they now depend altogether on a well-developed system of husbandry, enabling them to increase tenfold, without exhausting, the fertile soil."¹

A characteristic feature of the African fauna is the vast range especially of the larger quadrupeds and amphibia, a fact due to the absence of great mountain barriers traversing the continent continuously in any direction. Thus the elephant, found on the banks of Lake Chad in the north and of Lake Ngami in the south, also frequents every part of the Congo basin except the steppe lands, which are exposed to constantly recurring conflagrations, and are consequently almost destitute of animal life. The hippopotamus and crocodile, which infest the Nile, Zambesi, and Limpopo, also crowd the Congo waters to such an extent as almost to obstruct the navigation in some rivers. Other widely diffused animals are the buffalo, several species of antelope, and the chimpanzee, the last-mentioned being limited, like the oil-palm, northwards by the Congo-Nile, southwards by the Congo-Zambesi divide. The attempts made to acclimatise European domestic animals have hitherto

¹ Reclus, xii. p. 441.

failed, and some asses introduced by the English missionaries a few years ago all succumbed either to the climate or to the tsetse fly. A similar experiment made with the Indian tame elephant in the Tanganyika district had no better result.

Reichard, who in 1890 explored the Upper Congo



HERD OF ELEPHANTS.

regions, penetrating southwards to Garenganze, discovered on the western slope of Tanganyika the anthropoid ape already heard of by Stanley under the name of Soko, and seen by Livingstone in Manyemaland. This huge ape is nearly four feet high, but resembles the chimpanzee rather than the gorilla. They form colonies or settlements in the forests, building habitations in the branches of the trees, and are much dreaded by the natives for their "evil eye," sure precursor of death.

Inhabitants and Native States of the Congo Basin

From the anthropological standpoint Central Equatorial Africa may be described as a region of physical diversity and linguistic unity. Closely related Bantu forms of speech hold almost exclusive possession of the land, while the Bantu populations themselves present the usual transitions from the Negro to the Hamitic or other higher types. They are commonly designated as Negroid, an elastic term applicable to all populations betraying essentially Negro features in any modified degree. But the Negro element is perhaps less conspicuous in the south and east than in the west and north, and in the Welle basin both the Negro type and Negro or non-Bantu tongues are distinctly dominant. During his ascent of the Ubangi, Van Gele noticed that about the district of the Zongo Falls the language changed altogether, and this may perhaps be taken as the parting-line between the Negro and Bantu domains in the central equatorial region. Here is also entered the already described Cannibal Zone, and the same explorer tells us that "the Ba-Ati make constant raids against the other tribes, but their only object is rapine and the procuring of meat. All that is killed is eaten on the spot; what is captured alive is carried off and eaten as the occasion arises. I have met with one of these marauding expeditions; it was composed of about fifty canoes divided into vanguard and main body, and the meat I mention is, it must be avowed, human flesh, for cannibalism exists on a large scale along the whole river (Ubangi) and its tributaries. I have seen houses surrounded by a border of skulls for a distance of at least twenty-eight yards. During the whole of my voyage I was unable

to deliver a single one of these wretched creatures reserved for food, and this despite the most liberal offers. 'It is meat,' they always replied, 'and we don't sell it.'"¹

Higher up, Junker and Schweinfurth have shown that the Welle-Makua valley and the water-partings towards the Shari and Nile basins are all occupied by peoples of Negro type and speech, such as the powerful Niam-Niam and Monbuttu nations. Lower down, the Mon-Tumbi, Mon-Zembo, Ba-Ati and Bangala are all Negroid peoples of Bantu speech.

Farther east a sort of transition is effected between the two domains by the A-Babua and Mabode tribes of the Upper Loika and Nepoko rivers, who appear to be semi-Bantus conterminous on the north with the Monbuttu and Niam-Niam negroes, on the south with the Ba-Bunda, Ba-Buru, and other true Bantus of the Aruwimi valley.

About Lake Tanganyika towards the eastern frontier there is a mingling of tribes as well as of waters, these minglings being due to many causes, such as voluntary or forced migrations, slave-hunting razzias, famines, prairie fires, inundations, exogamous or extra-tribal marriages. Around the shores of the lake E. C. Hore enumerates ten distinct tribes "representing all the different families of Africa," including the Hamitic Warundi and Wajiji of the east coast, originally from Gallaland, and still retaining "the splendid physique and superior features of their forefathers." Farther south the Zulus, here called Mazitu and Watuta, have gradually approached the lake as conquering intruders from the southern extremity of the continent. But since the death of their warlike chief, Mirambo, their power has been broken, and the survivors have now found a home

¹ *Proc. Royal Geographical Society*, 1889, p. 328.

amongst the Wanyamwezi between Tanganyika and the Zanzibar Coast.

Garenganze—Katanga

The Wanyamwezi themselves have in recent times sent out colonies to the *Katanga* country, where they were for some years the dominant people, in the district to which their late king, Mzidi (Mushidi), gave the name of *Garenganze*, an old designation of their mother country, Unyamwezi. Little was known of this State before the expedition of Capello and Ivens, and the mission of Mr. Arnot, who was well received by the king. But Mr. Arnot's efforts to found stations and strengthen Mzidi's hands against the Arab slavers from Manyemaland were arrested by the action of the Congo Free State, by which the inevitable collision between the Europeans and the Arabs was precipitated in the Upper Congo region. The treaty made by the British South Africa Company had extended the British sphere of influence up to Garenganze, and it was feared that Mzidi also would accept the British protectorate, and surrender the rich mineral district of Katanga to the English. An expedition was accordingly sent in 1892 against Mzidi, which resulted in his death and the annexation of the whole region to the Free State. Thereupon a number of agents were sent up the Congo to survey the Katanga copper mines, and to trade directly with the natives.

The Arabs who were stationed at Riba - Riba, Nyangwe, Kassongo, and other points on the Upper Congo, and who had hitherto acted as the middlemen in all commercial relations between the natives and the whites, took alarm at these proceedings, and with the aid of their Manyema allies cut off or captured all the

Belgian troops and traders in the country. The newly-founded stations were destroyed, the whites everywhere driven out, and for a time (1892-3) the whole region again became the hunting-ground of the Arab slavers. But their triumph was short-lived. A first repulse at Stanley Falls was followed by a series of encounters, in which the combined forces of the Free State and Anti-Slavery Society successively defeated Sefu, eldest son of Tipoo Tib, his cousin Rashid, and the powerful Arab leader Rumaliza ; thus by the spring of 1894 the slave-hunters and their "native" allies had everywhere been crushed, and order once more established throughout the whole of the Upper Congo basin. In 1895 this region was constituted an administrative district, including all the zone of Riba-Riba, Nyangwe, Kassongo, and Manyue-maland, as far east as Lake Tanganyika. Nyangwe has been chosen as the permanent capital of this vast territory, which extends from Stanley Falls south to British Central Africa. New stations have also been founded at *Issangi*—formerly an entrenched Arab camp at the Congo-Lomami confluence—at *Albertville* on Lake Tanganyika, and at other strategical points.

The territory over which Mzidi held sway lies mainly between the two head branches of the Upper Congo, the east and west Lualabas, stretching eastwards to Lake Moero in the north, and nearly to Lake Bangweolo in the south, and westwards to the ill-defined frontiers of the Muata Yamvo's kingdom of Lunda. Much of the country is distinctly mountainous, dotted over with numerous lakes, well watered by the copious head-streams of the Lualaba, and possibly healthy enough for European settlement.

Mzidi's capital, Mukuru, or Unkeya, which was destroyed by Captain Stairs' expedition of 1892, lay

in the northern part of the kingdom, on an open plain watered by the headstreams of the Lufira, and enclosed on three sides by lofty mountains. It consisted of several village groups clustered round a twin-crested hill, and it was here that Mzidi welcomed Mr. Arnot, "sitting in the centre of a large court surrounded by his five hundred wives."

A short distance west of the capital are the famous caves of Mount Sombwe, still inhabited by a section of the indigenous Samba tribe, who here found such safe retreats that Mzidi was never able to extort tribute from them. The inside of the caves has the appearance of pumice-stone, and one of them (Kalosa) is no less than five miles long, with entrances at both ends and running water in the interior.

During their journey across Africa in 1884-5 the Portuguese travellers Capello and Ivens crossed the famous Katanga Copper Country, and visited the Kalabi Mine, which, however, had been abandoned two years previously owing to a subsidence causing the loss of many lives. The mine is situated in an extensive formation of paleozoic schists, which prevail throughout the whole region, and are associated with quartz, iron and copper ores, and malachite both in mass and in scattered boulders. Coal was also discovered, and there was ample evidence that the current reports of the vast mineral resources of the Katanga country are by no means exaggerated. The natives display great skill both in smelting the copper ores and working up the metal, which is largely exported in the form of ingots, wire, armlets, and other ornaments. "Katanga must become an important centre of exploration, thanks to its mines, which, according to native report, are very numerous. The copper here produced in various forms is circulated throughout the whole region from Manyema and Urua to Genyi and Bihé, and only awaits

better means of transport by Lake Nyassa and Loanga to reach the coast." ¹

Lunda, the Muata Yamvo's Kingdom

Adjoining Mzidi's former territory on the west is the still larger and at one time far more powerful kingdom of Lunda, ruled for many generations by the present dynasty of the Muata Yamvo. Lunda, or Ulunda, which takes its name from the widespread Wa-Lunda nation, is a hilly region sloping from the Congo-Zambesi divide northwards to about 6° S. latitude, and stretching west and east between the Kwango, separating it from Angola, and the Lubilash, its somewhat fluctuating limit towards the Lualaba valley. But this vast region is now politically dismembered, the greater portion being included in the Congo Free State, and the rest in the Portuguese West African possessions, in accordance with the Agreement of March 1894, referred to at p. 76. The Muata Yamvo had already accepted the suzerainty of the Free State in 1890.

This step had been foreseen as inevitable, for nothing could prevent the disintegration of a state which had entered on a period of decline, torn by internal strife and wasted by revolted vassals or independent chiefs round all the outlying provinces. In recent times no one had contributed more to shake the empire to its foundations than Kangombe, a powerful chief of Luvaleland, on the Congo-Zambesi divide, about the Kifumaji Flat. This chief annually collected large bands of followers to ravage Ulunda, the marauders being attracted from far and wide by the hope of plunder and the promise of indemnity to their friends in case they should fall in

¹ Capello and Ivens, *De Angola a Contra-Costa*, Lisbon, 1886, p. 71.

battle. With the aid of guns and ammunition from Angola, Kangoimbe usually returned successfully from these incursions, in which whole provinces were laid waste. On one occasion Mr. Arnot had to follow for days in the wake of the returning hordes and to witness "the horrors connected with African slave-raiding. Although Kangoimbe had passed along that road six days previously, I found that some of his victims, who had been left to perish, were still in life; some were tied to trees with bark cords, others were mutilated and partly torn by wild animals."¹

The present Muata Yamvo, fourteenth in descent from the founder of the dynasty in the seventeenth century, claimed to be the feudal lord of about three hundred monas and muenas, that is, vassal chiefs and kinglets, who paid tribute in kind—ivory, lion and leopard-skins, corn, cloth, salt—so long as their suzerain was strong enough to enforce it. His territory was about 100,000 square miles in extent, with a total population scarcely exceeding 2,000,000. "The succession goes to one of the sons of the two chief wives, chosen by four official electors, and confirmed by the Lukoshesha, or 'Mother of the Kings and Peoples.' The Lukoshesha, whose election was made in the same way from the daughters of the two chief wives, and ratified by the king, was exempt from his jurisdiction, and above all law, holding her own court, ruling over her own territories, and enjoying independent tribute."²

The Mussamba, or royal residence, which was displaced at every succession, but always within the limits of the plain stretching between the Luiza and Kalangi tributaries of the Lulua, was at Kisimeme, on the left bank of the

¹ *Proc. Royal Geographical Society*, 1889, p. 71.

² *Statesman's Year Book*, 1890, p. 310.

Kalangi, at the time of Pogge's visit in 1876. Four years later Buchner found it had been removed to Kawanda, twelve miles farther to the south-west. In this district dwelt the first Muata Yamvo, and here is the burial-place where the remains are still preserved of all the rulers of Lundaland.

The Ka-Lunda¹ nation, dominant in the empire, appear to have come originally from the Lunda country, about Lake Moero, formerly governed by the Kazembe. Physically they are a tall, well-proportioned Bantu people, of fairer complexion and more regular features than their western neighbours. They still trade mostly in ivory and slaves; but the land is extremely fertile, and well watered by the numerous affluents of the Kassai, and when trade ceases to be a royal monopoly, and more settled relations are established with the Free State, it will be able to offer much agricultural produce in exchange for the textiles, iron and copper ware, which it now imports from the surrounding countries.

¹ Ka- is one of the numerous class prefixes which in Bantu speech indicate the personal plural. Dialectic variants are *Ba, Wa, Ova, Va, Vua, Ua, U, A, O, Ma, Mu, Ama, Aba, Eshi, Tu*, and others, with corresponding singular prefixes. Thus from the root *ntu*=personality, are formed in the organic language the singular *Um-ntu* and *Muntu*=a person, a man; and the plural *aba-ntu, ba-ntu*=persons, people, men; whence the term *Bantu* adopted by ethnologists as the collective designation of all Bantu-speaking peoples. So *Mwishi-Kongo*=a native of Kongoland; but *Eshi-Kongo*=the Kongo people: *Ama-Zulu, Mu-Sorongu, Ma-Yomba, O-bongo, Vua-Twa, Ova-Herero, Wa-Nyamwezi, Ba-Suto, Ba-Rolong, etc.* Equally numerous and confusing are the class prefixes indicating speech, including such diverse forms as *Ki, Kishi, Di, Lu, So, Se, etc.* Thus *Se-Suto*=the language of the *Ba-Suto*; *Kishi-Kongo*=that of the *Eshi-Kongo*; *Di-Kele*=that of the *Ba-Kele*; *Lu-Wumbu*=that of the *Ba-Wumbu*; *Ki-Swahili*=that of the Swahili (*Zanzibari*), etc. In *Kishi-Kongo* the English language is called *Ki-Ngelezo*. But as a rule *kishi* corresponds to *eshi*; *ki* to *a, wa, or ba*; *lu* to *ma*, etc.

The U-Rua State

The region stretching north from Garenganze and east from Lunda, across the Lualaba lake district (Kamolondo), and beyond the Luapula in the direction of Lake Tanganyika, is the domain of the powerful but extremely barbarous Wa-Rua (Mo-Lua) nation. The country, which was traversed in its entire length from north to south by Cameron on his journey across the continent in 1874, is governed by the Kassongo, one of the most ruthless despots in Africa. His territory is divided into provinces, either under hereditary chiefs or governors appointed for four years, and then either promoted or mutilated at his caprice. Mutilation and death are the only punishments, and these are inflicted in the most arbitrary manner for trivial or imaginary offences. The Kassongo ranks as a god, whose death must be honoured by atrocious sanguinary rites. His grave, like that of Alaric, is dug in the bed of a stream diverted from its channel, and here the corpse is laid on a number of living women. Then the pit is filled in and saturated with the blood of more victims, after which the river is restored to its bed, and the burial-place of the divinity thus concealed for ever from mortal eyes.

Kilemba, the royal capital, is merely a palisaded village lying a few miles to the north-west of Lake Kassali. The surrounding district is extremely fertile, and abounds in mineral wealth, silver, quicksilver, iron, and petroleum. Despite their barbaric laws, the Wa-Rua are a gifted people, with a highly-cultivated artistic taste, as shown in their industrial processes, and especially their dwellings, which Cameron describes in enthusiastic language. The Arab slave-hunters from the Lower

Lualaba had already reached this country before their overthrow in 1893, so that the people in many places were driven to take refuge in the forests, or else in the limestone caves of the Mitumbo Hills, which are said to be even more spacious than those in Garenganze.

The Ba-Lolo, Ba-Ngala and Ba-Yansi Nations

Within the great horseshoe bend of the Middle Congo the dominant people are the great Ba-Lolo nation, of whom little was known till quite recently. Yet their domain, which is about bisected by the equator, fills nearly all the space within the bend, while their speech has a still wider range, being current right across the whole of the enclosed region, and stretching from the parallel of Bolombo, on the left bank of the main stream, southwards to the Ikata, and at some points to within a few miles of the Sankuru-Lomami valley. The Ba-Lolo people thus occupy a territory considerably larger than the whole of the British Isles, and the Ki-Lolo language is spread continuously over a space about the size of France, and spoken by at least ten millions of people.

The Ba-Lolo, that is, "Men of Iron," either in reference to their strength in battle (compare Ironsides), or more probably to their skill as forgers, are both physically and mentally one of the finest Bantu races. The slight strain of Negro blood is betrayed chiefly in the tumid lower lip, but for which the features—high forehead, arched or straight nose, delicate under-jaw, bright eye—might fairly be called Caucasian, fully equal to the average European in their regular outlines and intelligent expression. They appear to have migrated early in the century from the east or north-east, especially Galla or

Kaffaland, to their present homes, where they have cleared the forests, brought vast tracts under cultivation, and built towns like Mulongo's or Boyela's, regularly laid out in the American style, but with the houses so wide apart that it takes hours to traverse them. The Ba-Lolo are extremely skilful workers in iron, producing agricultural implements such as hoes, spades, and axes, as well as knives, spears, and ornaments, all of excellent quality and mostly in good taste. They also display great skill in the construction of their canoes, and understand the division of labour, "farmers, gardeners, smiths, boat-builders, weavers, cabinet-makers, armourers, warriors, and speakers being already differentiated amongst them."¹

The women have also their rights, and take part in the public assemblies, where all important questions are discussed. But although they recognise their common nationality throughout Balololand, no powerful states have anywhere been founded; the nation remains without political cohesion, and the tribal organisation still everywhere prevails. For our first knowledge of this remarkable people we are indebted to the Rev. Mr. John McKittrick, who made their acquaintance at Equatorville in 1884, and who has founded stations amongst them under the auspices of the East London Institute for Home and Foreign Missions.

The regions about the Ubangi and Kwa confluences are respectively occupied by the widespread Ba-Ngala and Ba-Yansi peoples, the former a fine race with regular features, the latter betraying the Negro element in a more pronounced degree than amongst most Bantu races. Ibaka, "King of Bolobo," in the Bayansi country, figured in Johnston's *River Congo*, is even of a repulsive

¹ *The New World of Central Africa*, p. 471.

Negro type, and there is certainly a large measure of truth in this explorer's remark that as the coast is neared the Congo tribes "begin to lose their distinctive Bantu character, either through the degradation the coast climate seems to entail, or because on their migration westward and from the north-east Bantu focus, they originally met and mixed with in the low-lying coastlands, an entirely Negro population."¹ But there are numerous exceptions to this law, and the Ma-Rungu people, for instance, who dwell away to the east on the west side of Tanganyika, show in an exaggerated form such characteristic features as a flat nose, wide nostrils, decided prognathism, and disproportionately short legs. They are akin to the Vua-Rungu, on the opposite side of the lake, who, however, have acquired somewhat more regular features, probably by contact with the Zanzibari coast people.

Both the Ba-Ngala and Ba-Yansi, as well as the Ba-Teke on both sides of the main stream about Stanley Pool, still remain broken into tribal groups. This absence of large native states along the whole course of the Congo, from the Luapula-Lualaba confluence to the estuary, largely accounts for the rapid progress of exploration and settlement in the Free State, just as the incoherent condition of the Ostyaks, Voguls, Tunguses, and other Siberian peoples enabled a handful of Cossacks, under Yermak, to overrun a great part of Northern Asia in a single generation.

The Ba-Ngala, who occupy both sides of the Congo, and

¹ *Op. cit.* p. 397. At the death of this chief in 1888 human sacrifices were renewed under the very eyes of the Free State officials. Three of his wives were buried alive, and several slaves slaughtered on his grave, "for Ibaka had been a great chief, and must enter the next world with a suitable retinue" (H. Ward's *Five Years with the Congo Cannibals*, 1890, p. 298).

who give their name to the station founded by the Free State above Equatorville, are ruled by numerous petty chiefs, with a collective population of nearly 150,000. They are an intelligent people, who have already begun to appreciate the comforts of civilised life, having to a considerable extent exchanged their scanty costume of vegetable fibre for European clothes. The Ba-Ngala are also amongst the few races at a low state of culture, who are apt to take a pessimistic view of life, their moody fits at times even ending in suicide. Unfortunately witchcraft, human sacrifices, and even cannibalism are still rife amongst them. At the death of their late chief, Mata Bwyki, a gigantic Bantu six feet four inches high, ten slaves were sacrificed in the neighbourhood of the Bangala station, and on another occasion Captain Coquilhat met a canoe, also close to the station, from which the natives landed several large pots containing portions of human arms and legs.

The Ba-Luba and Tu-Shilange Territories

In the middle Kassai basin, south of the Ba-Lolo domain, a dominant race are the Ba-Luba, whose various branches—Ba-Songe and Ba-Sange of the Sankuru headstreams,¹ Ba-Shilange (Tu-Shilange) about the Lulua confluence, and many others—occupy the greater part of the region stretching from Manyemaland westwards nearly to the Kwango. Wissmann and Pogge, by whom they were first visited, in 1881, describe them as one of the finest of all Negroid peoples, highly intelligent, industrious, and surprisingly skilful workers in iron and copper.

Captain C. S. Latrobe Bateman, who resided in 1885-

¹ Not to be confounded with the Ba-Senge of the Lukenye valley farther north, who are probably Ba-Lolo.

86 amongst the Ba-Shilange, superintending the foundation of the new station of *Luebo* at the Lulua-Luebo confluence, was much struck by the remarkable qualities of that group. Wissmann had already called them "a nation of thinkers, with the interrogative 'why' constantly on their lips." Bateman, in his turn, found them "thoroughly and unimpeachably honest, brave to foolhardiness, and faithful to each other and to their superiors, in whom, especially if Europeans, they place the most complete reliance. They are prejudiced in favour of foreign customs rather than otherwise, and spontaneously copy the usages of civilisation. They are warm-hearted and affectionate towards their friends, and they are the only African tribe among whom, in their primitive state, I have observed anything like a becoming conjugal affection and regard. To say nothing of such recommendations as their emancipation from fetishism, their ancient abandonment of cannibalism, their heretofore most happy experience of Europeans, and their national unity under the sway of a really princely prince (Calemba), I believe them to be the most open to the best influences of civilisation of any African tribe whatsoever."¹

It is, however, to be observed that Tu-Shilange, the name of the primitive populations adopted by the Ba-Luba intruders from the south-east, is a collective term, comprising several groups differing greatly in appearance, usages, traditions, and stages of culture. The best known and most important district in Tushilangeland is the so-called Lubuka, or land of "Friendship," a sort of African "Philadelphia," where a strange revolution took place some years before the arrival of the first European explorers. The so-called institution or secret brother-

¹ *The First Ascent of the Kassai*, 1839, p. 20.

hood of the *Bena-Riamba*, or "Sons of Hemp," seems to have grown out of a general political and social movement, which took place about the year 1870, when a large section of the Tu-Shilange became divided into two hostile factions on the question of admitting foreign traders (Angolan Portuguese from the west, Zanzibari from the east) into their territory. The king, having sided with the young or progressive party, the old people, here as elsewhere "Conservatives," were defeated with great slaughter and driven eastwards beyond the Lulua. Then the barriers of seclusion were broken down, commercial relations were entered into with foreigners, and the custom of rianza (bhang) smoking, already prevalent on the Zanzibar Coast, was introduced, with many other innovations. Such appears to be the origin of a practice which soon became associated with strange rites, rapidly degenerating into one of the most baneful institutions in Central Africa.¹

On the right bank of the Lulua, about Luebo Station, dwell the Ba-Kete, a somewhat effeminate Negroid people, vassals of the powerful Ba-Kuba, whose territory stretches farther north towards the Kassai-Sankuru confluence. The Ba-Kete are noted for their excellent husbandry, possessing admirably tilled plantations, "arranged in separate plots and beds, and separated by wide, perfectly straight alleys, weeded, swept, and maintained in the greatest neatness and order."² Here are grown a profusion of cereals, fruits, and vegetables, amongst which Bateman mentions manioc, maize, yams, sweet potatoes, ground-nuts, sorghum, gourds, beans, peas resembling the Egyptian "mummy pea," bananas, plantains, and saffu (banyan).

¹ A. H. Keane, *Academy*, April 6, 1889.

² Bateman, *op. cit.* p. 69.

North-eastwards, in the hilly country between the Lubilash and Lomami, dwell the Ba-Songe, remarkable for their splendid physique, and for their skill in various crafts, such as pottery, weaving, wood carving, iron and copper work. Like the Ba-Lolo and Ba-Ngala, the Ba-Songe build towns of immense length, one of which, with a population of nearly 15,000, Dr. Wolf took five hours to traverse from end to end.

The Va-Chibokwe and Kwango Ba-Ngalas

In the Upper Kassai and Upper Kwango basins the dominant people are the Kiokos (Chibokwe), probably the most enterprising of all the Congo nations. They came originally from the Zambesi valley, and still occupy the western water-parting between that river and the Congo basin. Their territory is crossed by the trade route leading from Angola eastwards to Lunda, and all travellers describe them as famous hunters and craftsmen, noted especially as skilled forgers and armourers. The Va-Chibokwe "are remarkable for their activity and industry, and command the fear and respect of all native travellers who pass through their country. Their wild independent ways were a constant source of anxiety to me, but personally I suffered no injustice at their hands. These people were the first to discover a method of extracting rubber from the "Talamba" root, which has led to a great improvement in trade at Benguela and other parts; and this shows that these Africans are not altogether incapable of utilising the resources of their own country without the help of Europeans."¹

In the Middle Kwango, north of the Va-Chibokwe and of the savage Minungos, another Ba-Ngala nation

¹ F. S. Arnot, *loc. cit.* p. 71.

has developed a certain political organisation under a Kassanjé, or supreme chief elected by four nobles from three royal families. The Ba-Ngala have long been in contact with the Portuguese of Angola, and under their influence have acquired a certain degree of culture. They are great traders, and their capital, *Muene Puto Kassanjé*, the *Feira* or "Fair" of the Portuguese, is the centre of the exchanges and transit trade between the west coast and the interior. The Portuguese, who were driven out of the country in 1860, have since returned, and their suzerainty is now accepted by the Kassanjé. Most of his territory lies east of the Upper Kwango, within the Portuguese sphere of influence as determined by the Agreement of March 1894 (p. 76).

Our information regarding the Central African peoples is still far from sufficient to attempt any scientific classifications based on their physical or linguistic affinities. Hence in the appended table the Congo tribes are grouped solely according to their geographical position.

Table of the Congo Tribes and Nations

Vua-Rundi, Vua-Vira, Vua-Sighe, Vua-Kombe	} North end Tanganyika, and thence towards the Albertine Nile divide.
Vua-Hha, U-Vinza, U-Kawende, Vua-Fiba	
Vua-Bembe, Vua-Songa, Vua-Simalunga, U-Guha, Ma-Rungu, I-tawa	} East Coast Tanganyika in order from north to south.
Vua-Rungu	
Vua-Bemba, Vua-Kissinga, Vua-Bisa, Vua-Ussi	} West Coast Tanganyika in order from north to south, and thence towards the Luapula.
Ka-Lunda	
Wa-Nyamwezi, Ba-Samba, I-Ramba, Ba-Yeke	} South end Tanganyika.
Vua-Rua	
Ma-Nyuema	} Round Lake Bangweolo in order from north by east to south and west.
	} South-east side Lake Moero.
	} Garenganze (Katanga).
	} Upper Lualaba lake region.
	} Middle Lualaba, about Nyangwe.



BANTU TYPES FROM THE CONGO.

1. Wa-Jansi.
2. Wa-Teke.
3. Wa-Kongo.

Vua Vinza, Vua-Hiya, Ba-Bire, Wa - Npuma, Wa-Koruru	} Right bank Lower Lualaba, between Nyangwe and Stanley Falls.
Ba-Kussu, Ba-Bisa, Wa-Ruru, U-Kumu, Yambarri, Vua-Twa (Batwa)	
Vua-Regga	} Between Lower Lualaba and Lake Albert Edward.
Wenya, Ba-Soko, Ma-Ruka, Wa - Manga, Lu - Ali, Ba-Ondo, Ba-Bileku, Ba-Bali	} Congo between Stanley Falls and Aruwimi confluence.
Ba-Banda, Ba-Be, Ba-Besse, Ba-Biassi, Ba-Bukwa, Ba-Bunda, Ba - Buru, Ba-Buseese, A-Visibba, A-Vejeli, Ba-Kandi, Ba-Kusu, Ba-Nalya, Wa-Mbutti, Ba-Twa	
Ma-Bobe, A-Babua.	} Between Aruwimi and Upper Welle.
Ma-Ruka, Ba-Putu, Ba-Sebi, U-Ranga, Ba-Sombo, Wa-Tomba, Ma-Lunja	} Middle Congo, between Aruwimi and Ubangi confluences.
A - Babambo, A - Babombua, A-Banja, A-Mubensa, Mu-Nsamba, Ma - Benge, A-Diggi, A-Bito, A-Nsakkara	
Ba-Atti, Ma - Nyembo, Mu-Tumbi, Mon-Bangi, Ba-Loi, Ba-Ngala	} Lower Ubangi and Congo-Ubangi confluence.
Ba - Yansi, Ba - Nunu, Ba-Tende, Ba-Furu	} Middle Congo between Ubangi and Kwa confluences.
Ba - Teke, Wa - Buma, Ma-Kongo, Ba-Fiot	} Middle Congo between Kwamouth and Stanley Pool inclusive.
Ba-Sundi, Eshi-Kongo, Ba-Fiot, Mushi-Kongo	} Lower Congo, from Stanley Pool to Estuary.
Ba-Lolo	} About the equator within the horseshoe bend of the Middle Congo.
Bo-Kakala, Mongo, Ba-Ngonzi	} Lulonga-Lopori Valley.
Ba - Luba, Ka - Wanda, Tu-Shilange, Tu - Bindi, Ba-Kete, Ba-Lindi, Ba-Sange, Ba-Songe, Ba - Kuba, Ba-Songa-Mino, Ba-Kutu	} Kassai-Sankuru Basin with Luebo, Lulua, Lubilash, Lomami, and other affluents.
Ka-Lunda	
Lu-Vale	} Muata Yamvo's territory.
Va-Kioko (Va-Chibokwe)	} South frontier Lunda.
Minungo, Ba - Ngala, Ma-Shinje, Ma - Yakka, Wa-Buma	} Upper Kassai and Kwango.
	} Middle and Lower Kwango.

Bantu and Negro contrasted

Before Stanley's descent of the Congo less than two decades ago, scarcely any of these teeming multitudes,



KAVALLI, CHIEF OF THE BA-BIASSL.

collectively numbering probably thirty millions, were known even by name. Some have not even yet been

visited by any Europeans; our knowledge of others is limited to the vague reports of one or two explorers traversing their territories; but others, again, including nearly all the more important groups, have been for some time in direct contact with the whites, and have been studied by careful observers, such as Johnston, Wissmann, Arnot, Bateman, Junker, Wolf, and Grenfell. From the accounts of these men, embodied in official documents, in books of travel, in scientific memoirs or missionary records, it may be concluded generally that the more or less Negroid Bantu populations of the Congo regions are far superior both in physical and mental qualities to the true Negroes of Upper Guinea and the Sudan.

Herein lie the best hopes for the future prospects of the Free State. Even under wise and equitable European control the Negro proper is incapable of rising except by miscegenation, which involves a corresponding degradation of the higher element. The late Colonel F. G. Ruffin, perhaps the best authority on the Negro question in the Southern States, declared that it was impossible "to educate the coloured people. Their industrial condition, their criminal record, their social, moral, and religious state, all show that freedom is a disadvantage to them; that they are worse in all these particulars than they were before the war, and are deteriorating every day. . . . The Negro is incapable of receiving what white men call religion and education, and he is worse after professing to have received them than he was before." ¹

It may be confidently asserted that no purely Negro population ever produced such a personality as Calamba, "the intelligent and noble-minded king of the Ba-Luba," who, Bateman tells us,² "would amongst any people

¹ *Richmond Despatch*, September 21, 1890.

² *Op. cit.* p. 114.

be a remarkable, and indeed, in many respects, a magnificent man," and who some years ago of his own accord abolished fetishism independently of any European influences. But steel-grey eyes are prevalent amongst the Ba-Luba (Tu-Shilange), betraying a distinct Hamitic strain, and the Hamites are a main branch of the Caucasian or highest division of mankind. Hence the Congo Bantu peoples, largely Negroid Hamites, are naturally capable of upward development, and all the more rapidly according as the Hamitic element predominates. The witchcraft, human sacrifices, savagery, and even cannibalism, still prevalent in some communities, may be considered due to the Negro substratum. Their surprising skill in the industrial arts, such as weaving, pottery, wood carving, iron and copper smelting and forging, house and boat building, as well as their capacity for political organisation, as seen in the powerful states founded at various times by the Kazembes, Muata Yamvos, Mzidis, and others, may in the same way be regarded as inheritances from their Hamite ancestry. It is noteworthy that, as a rule, the higher faculties increase eastwards and southwards (Ba-Luba, Ka-Lunda, Va-Chibokwe, Mzidi's Wa-Nyamwezi, Ba-Lolo, comparatively recent immigrants from the east); the baser qualities westwards (Minungo, Ma-Yakka), and especially northwards, that is, in the direction of the Negro domain proper (Ba-Yansi, Mon-Bangi, Ba-Atti).

Mission of the Congo Free State

The numerous civil and missionary stations founded at various convenient points in the Free State—Banana, Boma, Matadi, Lukungu, Isangula, Manyango, Leopoldville, Kwamouth, Bolobo, Equatorville, Bangala, Bolombo,

Upoto, Rembo, Stanley Falls, along the main stream in ascending order ; Yambuya on the Aruwimi ; Basoko on the eastern Lomami ; Molongo's, Maringa, Mumbimba in Balololand ; Bangodi, Badinga, Luebo, Luluaburg along the Lulua-Kassai ; Benabendi at the Kassai-Sankuru confluence, and fourteen others in the Kassai basin — are fast becoming important centres for the diffusion of civilising influences amongst the surrounding populations. Their founders have hitherto met but slight opposition on the part of the natives, some of whom even clamour for the privilege of securing such strongholds of law and order in their midst. Here they learn improved methods of tillage and better industrial processes ; they grow accustomed to orderly dealings, become gradually weaned from their barbaric usages, begin to despise their witch-doctors, and acquire a taste for better clothing and other European comforts. Thus while being themselves raised to a higher level of culture, their very increased necessities tend to develop the elements of the future commercial relations, by which alone these stations can acquire a permanent character. They are, it may be hoped, the modest beginnings of flourishing trade-centres for the spread of wealth, refinement, and civilisation throughout the Central African populations.¹

Railway Projects—Trade—Free Trade Area— Administration

But from the first it was foreseen that a railway running from the coast or the estuary to Stanley Pool

¹ According to Captain Hinde as many as twelve posts in the Sankuru valley were already engaged in 1894 "in the collection of enormous quantities of indiarubber" (*Jour. Geo. Soc.*, May 1895, p. 429).

would be required to turn the Livingstone Falls and reach the many thousand miles of navigable waters ramifying throughout the Congo basin. Such a line, without which the interior would remain for trading purposes almost as secluded from the outer world as before the Stanley expedition, was felt to be a primary condition of success. At present a ton of goods, the freight of which from England to Banana or Boma in the estuary costs only £2, cannot be transported thence to the Middle Congo under an expenditure of £70 for portorage. Hence it is satisfactory to know that the Free State has at last granted to a Belgian company the concession of a railway to run along the left bank from Matadi, opposite Vivi, just below the Yellala Falls, to Leopoldville on Stanley Pool. The line, 270 miles long, will traverse a somewhat rough country, of which, however, only about twenty-five miles appear to present any serious engineering difficulties. The first section, from Matadi to Kenge, 25 miles long, was completed in September 1894 at a cost of £734,000, the estimate for the whole line being £2,250,000.

Another line has been projected to run from Kabinda along the right bank to Boma, the chief outlet of the whole basin, and thence to Brazzaville, the French station on Stanley Pool, opposite Leopoldville. Doubtless both will be ultimately needed for the requirements of the free trade area, which, as determined by the Berlin Conference of 26th February 1885, comprises a far wider space than the Free State itself. The boundary line is traced very irregularly from the Sette Camma estuary eastwards and northwards along the Congo - Ogoway divide, then round again to the east along the Congo-Shari divide to Ndoruma at 28° E. longitude, and thence still eastwards along 5° N. latitude

to Lado on the White Nile, and so on to the Somali coast on the Indian Ocean. On the south side of the Free State the line runs from Ambriz above Loanda on the west coast south-eastwards along the Congo-Atlantic divide to Kanjamba, near the source of the Kwango; then eastwards between the Congo-Zambesi divide to the source of the Loangwa, a northern affluent of the Zambesi, about 33° E. longitude; then south-eastwards along the secondary Nyassa - Zambesi divide to the Zambesi at the Shiré confluence, and thence along the left bank of the Lower Zambesi to the delta below Quilimane on the Indian Ocean. Within these limits the several interested Powers agree to levy no customs dues on imports and exports beyond what may be required to defray the cost of keeping the routes themselves open for the free trade of the world.¹

At present the trade of the Free State is limited to a few imports, such as woven goods, tobacco, spirits, firearms, and ammunition, taken in exchange for ivory, rubber, ground-nuts, coffee, palm oil, gum-copal, orchilla, cam-wood, wax, and other natural produce, the annual exchanges being valued altogether at less than £1,000,000. The navigation of the Congo, represented by about 1000 vessels entering and clearing the ports of the estuary and a few small steamers on the inland waters, is controlled by an international commission nominated by

¹ But in 1890 the Free State authorities succeeded in obtaining the sanction of the contracting Powers to levy duties on certain imports, such as spirits, firearms, ammunition, and the like, for general administrative purposes, and especially for the suppression of the slave trade in accordance with the declarations of the Brussels International Anti-Slavery Congress of 1890. The general import duties are fixed at 5 per cent, while an export duty of 10 per cent will also be allowed on ivory and gutta-percha. On the other hand the license duty is suppressed, and those on spirituous liquors are reduced to one-third of their actual value.

all the Powers who were parties to the Berlin Conference of 26th February 1885.

In the same year the Free State itself was placed by the Belgian Legislature under the sovereignty of Leopold II., not as King of the Belgians, but in his individual capacity. In 1890 the territory was declared inalienable, while the right was reserved to Belgium of annexing the Free State after a period of ten years. The Central Government, consisting of the king and three heads of departments for foreign affairs and justice, finance, and the interior, is located at Brussels. There is also a local government, comprising a governor-general, vice-governor-general, state inspector, general secretary, directors of justice and finance, and commander of the forces, with official residence at Boma, on the right bank of the estuary. The annual expenditure, estimated for 1895 at £270,000, does not yet appear to be covered by the income, and in fact is largely derived from a subsidy of £80,000 granted by King Leopold, and an advance of £80,000 made in 1890 by the Belgian Government for a period of ten years.

The revenue has to provide for a force of 3800 natives under white officers, and a steam flotilla of seven vessels on the Lower and eleven on the Middle Congo. Provision has also to be made for numerous white officials, including the heads of the twelve administrative divisions: Banana, Boma, Matadi, The Falls, Stanley Pool, Kassai, Equator, Ubangi, Aruwimi-Welle, Stanley Falls, Kwango Oriental, and Lualaba.

There is a regular steam service between Europe and the Free State, which is now included in the international postal union.

CHAPTER IV

PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA

(ANGOLA—BENGUELA—MOSSAMEDES—HINTERLAND)

Extent, boundaries, population—Portuguese administration, the Slave trade— Exploration — Physical features — Rivers Coanza, Cunene— Climate, Flora, Fauna—Inhabitants: the Congo Empire: the A-Bunda Nation ; the Ganguellas ; the Aborigines—Table of the chief Angolan tribes—Towns, stations—The Boer immigrants—Resources ; government ; prospects.

Extent, Boundaries, Population

TILL recently the Portuguese possessions on the west side of the Continent were limited to the zone of coastlands stretching from Ambriz at 8° S. latitude for about 850 miles southwards to Cape Frio, beyond the Cunene river. The frontiers towards the interior were nowhere very clearly defined ; but the country as actually administered had an average width of about 220 miles, with a total area of nearly 200,000 square miles, and a population of about 2,000,000. The district extending from Ambriz northwards to the Congo estuary was also claimed by Portugal, but the claim was contested by Great Britain, and no attempt had ever been made to settle or even administer that region ; it was, and still is, mainly held by the savage and predatory Mushi-Kongo tribes. But

after the opening of the Congo a rush was made by France from the north and by Portugal from the south, to seize the estuary with a view to commanding the outlets of that basin.

The result, as regards Portugal, was the recognition by the Berlin Conference of her claim to the disputed district, thus bringing her territory right up to the left bank of the Lower Congo. By subsequent agreements with France (December 1885), with Germany (December 1886), and with Great Britain (August 1890), the Portuguese Hinterland was also accurately determined. The boundary is traced on the north in a straight line from Nokki on the estuary eastwards to the Kwango, which river from this point to 8° S. forms the east frontier towards the Congo Free State. The south frontier towards the same State follows the Congo-Zambesi divide, thence eastwards to the source of the Liba, a main head-stream of the Zambesi, where the line is deflected southwards round the source of the Lualaba, and north-eastwards to the source of the Kabompo, easternmost head-stream of the Zambesi. Here the course of the Zambesi and Kabompo rivers is taken as the provisional Anglo-Portuguese boundary, pending a definite settlement of the frontiers. A nearly straight conventional line drawn from the Katima rapids of the Zambesi westwards to the mouth of the Cunene separates the Portuguese possessions from the German South-West African protectorates.

Historic Retrospect—The Slave Trade

Thus the Portuguese Hinterland, as recognised by the treaty with Great Britain, extends in the north-eastwards to the Free State frontier, in the south-eastwards to

British Zambesia, and southwards to the German sphere. Within the specified limits the whole region forms a domain about 520,000 square miles in extent, with a population vaguely estimated at from 5,000,000 to 3,500,000. The western parts alone, comprising the low-lying coastlands between the escarpments of the plateau and the sea, are occupied and administered by Portugal. The whole of the uplands are practically independent, and even the important trading station of Bihé was only recently brought within Portuguese jurisdiction. When Mr Arnot visited this place on his first journey to Garenganze, he found that "the Portuguese had no administrative power there," and Silva Porto, the official resident, had no force behind him to check the slave trade still openly carried on by the Bihé dealers. Mr. Arnot confirms by independent evidence the statement made by Mr. Bateman that individual Portuguese did much to encourage the slave trade. People from Bihé, penetrating into Lunda, where there is no ivory, exchange cloth, guns, and other European wares for slaves, who are then "carried away to the lower Kassai country and exchanged for ivory."¹

But these practices still exist on the seaboard itself, which has been continuously occupied by Portugal for over three hundred years, that is, dating from the first actual settlement made at Loanda in 1574. Formal possession had already been taken in 1482, when Diogo Cam, discoverer of the Congo, set up the stone monument at the mouth of the estuary. Nine years later an expedition had already reached the Mbanza, or capital of the Congo empire, since known as San Salvador; this place itself became the seat of a Roman Catholic bishop and the centre of missionary zeal, which resulted in the formal

¹ *Loc. cit.* p. 81.

acceptance of Christianity by the Mfumu, or emperor, and a large section of his subjects. Portuguese women arrived in 1594, when regular European households were established, and for at least three centuries the Muata Potu, or "King of Portugal," has had undisputed sway over the whole seaboard except for a brief interval in 1641, when the coast towns were seized by the Dutch.

We also read that from these coast towns the ascendancy of the Portuguese "pioneers of a higher culture" gradually penetrated beyond the coast ranges and plateaux far into the interior. Nevertheless Cameron was informed in 1875 that "slaves were still exported from the coast, especially from Mossamedes, where they were held in readiness for embarkation, although scattered about the town in small parties, instead of being kept in barracoons as formerly, and a steamer came in for an hour or two, shipped the slaves, and was off again immediately." Cameron failed to discover their destination; but it is now known that they were intended for the plantations of the Portuguese islands of St. Thomas and Prince. The complete abolition of slavery in Angola was doubtless decreed to take place in 1878; but the official edict has remained a dead letter, and vessels flying the Portuguese flag still convey slaves both from the West and East African Portuguese possessions to the same islands. One of these ships, from Mozambique, the steamer *Rei de Portugal*, put into Cape Town in 16th September 1890, when an application made to the Supreme Court for the liberation of the captives failed on technical grounds. Some, however, who had effected their escape from the vessel were declared free, the Court refusing to assist in their recapture.

Even in Angola itself the hands employed on the plantations, although legally free, are practically little

better than serfs. According to the terms of the Act of Emancipation, the slaves were required to work for seven years as a compensation to their owners; but little effort was made by the authorities to enforce the enfranchisement after the expiration of that period. Thus the status of many remained unchanged, especially on the large domains where the whole system of cultivation has for centuries been dependent on forced labour. Here the owners are called employers, and the labourers are called free; but these free labourers fall into the power of the employers through money advances at high interest, and the prevailing truck system of payment. Generally speaking, the debtors have no means of meeting their engagements, except by manual labour, and thus they continue to toil for the planters to the end of their days.

Exploration

The term Angola, properly Ngola, originally restricted to the territory east of Loanda, where the first settlements were founded, was gradually extended to the whole of the northern province, and is now also the official designation of all the Portuguese West African possessions. It therefore comprises the Cabinda enclave north of the Congo, the territory or "kingdom" of Congo south of the estuary, and the three administrative provinces of Angola, Benguela, and Mossamedes, taken in their order from north to south.

Although the Catholic missionaries had at an early date penetrated as far as 150 miles inland, and although the country had long been traversed by the *pombeiros*¹

¹ *Pombeiros* is not a proper name, as is often supposed, but simply means those emancipated slaves who since the beginning of the present century have been employed by the Portuguese as caravan leaders, and

with their coffee, ivory, and slave caravans, very little was known of the interior till about the middle of the present century. Closed to strangers by the exclusive policy of Portugal, the country had scarcely been visited by travellers till the year 1853, when Livingstone crossed from the Zambesi to Loanda. This event was immediately followed by the researches of Dr. Welwitsch during the years 1855-59, while the Hungarian, Ladislaus Magyar, who had married a native of Bihé and settled in Benguela, explored every part of the southern provinces during the nine years from 1849 to 1857.¹

In more recent times the survey of the whole region was continued and completed by the Portuguese themselves—Silva e Costa in the north, Silva Porto and Serpa Pinto in the central districts, Capello and Ivens in every part of the Angolan territory. The district lying between Benguela and Bihé has been repeatedly traversed by explorers such as Cameron and Arnot, either penetrating inland or advancing from the interior to the coast. The Congo country in the extreme north has also been visited by Bastian, Comber, Büttner, and Wolf, and the southern border lands by Galton and Andersson, followed later by Palgrave, Hartley, and others. The Chella range was first crossed by Capello and Ivens during their journey from Mossamedes to the Zambesi in 1884-85.

who are still sent into the interior to procure slaves and ivory in exchange for European wares. They are agents seldom trading directly on their own account.

¹ The results of these researches were summarised in J. J. Monteiro's *Angola and the River Congo*, London, 1875, still the most valuable treatise on Portuguese West Africa.

Physical Features of Angola

These explorers, when proceeding inland from Loanda to Malange, or from Benguela to Bihé, traverse first the low-lying zone of alluvial coastlands, which form the periphery round the greater part of the continent, and which in Angola broaden out northwards in the direction of the Congo estuary, and gradually contract southwards to their narrowest part at Mossamedes, with a mean breadth of scarcely more than fifty miles. Beyond this zone the ground rises very rapidly along the seaward face of the escarpments, on the highest passes reaching an altitude of between 6000 and 7000 feet, and then falling again to 4000 feet, which is about the mean elevation of the central plateau between the Congo and Zambesi watersheds. Thus Mr. Arnot tells us that "travelling inwards from the coast through the Ovimbundu country the road ascends a steep escarpment of the plateau, so that on the fourth day (from Benguela) I reached an altitude of over 4000 feet, and subsequently over 6000 feet at 100 miles from the coast. This elevation continues eastwards with little change—only dipping somewhat as it reaches the valley of the Coanza—until about 4000 feet is again attained, near 20° E."

The escarpments, which generally affect a terrace formation running in parallel ridges north and south, are interrupted about midway between the Congo and Cunene by the deep valley of the Coanza. North of this valley the system falls somewhat gently seawards, but on the east side the incline is very abrupt down to the valley of the Kwango. Here both the crests and the mean altitude are generally lower than farther south, where the Angolan highlands appear to culminate in the

lofty Mount Lovili, nearly 8000 feet high, a little north of the trade route between Benguela and Bihé. This route crosses the Andrade-Carvo (Jamba) range, where several other peaks, such as Elongo and Hambi, rise considerably above 7000 feet.

In the extreme south the uplands have been greatly denuded and eroded by the running waters, far more copious formerly than at present, which find their way to the Atlantic through the Cunene valley. But even here the Chella range is still elevated enough to retain the winter snows for a short time, whence its Portuguese name of *Serra da Neve*, or "Snowy Mountains"; some of its peaks rise considerably above 6000 feet.

Of primitive rocks the most prevalent appear to be gneiss and mica schists, whose surface has in several places been weathered and decomposed as laterite of somewhat recent formation. Elsewhere they underlie secondary and tertiary sedimentary deposits, such as limestones, sandstones, clays, and conglomerates, which are remarkable for their regular stratification. In some places the limestones are pierced by cavernous recesses often containing wells of prodigious depth.

Hot springs occur in several districts, but there are no traces of recent volcanic disturbances. The Mulondo-Zambi burning mountain, mentioned by Magyar in the Libollo district south of the Coanza, has not been seen by any recent explorers, who regard its existence as more than doubtful.

Rivers—Coanza—Ounene

Except the Lufu, Mposo, and a few other streams flowing north to the left bank of the Congo, all the Angolan rivers find their way mostly through indepen-

dent channels directly to the Atlantic. Rising on the plateau, they have to force a passage seawards through the intervening ranges and escarpments, carrying down much sediment, which is deposited about their estuaries. The consequence is that nearly all are blocked by bars at their mouth, and obstructed by rapids in their upper reaches, thus being useless for navigation, and accessible even to light craft only for short distances inland.

In the north the Mbrish escapes from the uplands near San Salvador, through a continuous series of rapids, with a total fall of nearly 450 feet, one of the upper cascades having a clear drop of 150 feet. The Loge, coming from the south-west, and throughout its whole course indicating the limit in this direction of the free trade area, reaches the coast just below the Mbrish, at the port of *Ambriz*, whose name is the Portuguese form of Mbrish.

But the great watercourse of Angola, the most important on the west coast between the Congo and Orange rivers, is the Coanza, which rises in Lake Mussombo on the plateau south of Bihé 5500 feet above the sea. Here is another great "border craig" forming the divide between the Zambesi, Coanza, and Congo (Kwango) watersheds, and from this point the Coanza sweeps in a vast semicircle over 700 miles long round by the north-east, north, and west to its mouth, a short distance below Loanda. Like its chief tributary, the Lucalla, it forces its way in a long succession of romantic gorges and foaming rapids through the ranges obstructing its seaward course, at one point developing the magnificent Livingstone (Cambambe) Falls, with a clear drop of seventy feet. Even in its lower course of 120 miles between the foot of the escarpments and the sea, there is a total incline of 300 feet. This section, although

navigable by small steamers, is cut off from communication with the Atlantic by an extremely dangerous bar, which is crossed on frail rafts three or four feet wide by the local boatmen. Like the Ogoway, the Coanza has also its "fetish stones," one of which, the *Pedra dos Feiticcios*, was formerly a sort of Tarpeian rock, from which persons accused of witchcraft were precipitated into the swift current washing its base.

Beyond the Coanza most of the coast streams, flowing through a perceptibly drier region, are mere "wadys," which reach the sea only during the rainy season from December to April. This explains the remarkable fact that the Cunene¹ itself, forming the southern frontier toward German South-West Africa, after its mouth had been discovered by an English skipper in 1824, could not again be found the next year, and remained unknown until rediscovered and ascended for 25 miles in 1854. It had been sought during the dry season, when its channel was merely a sandy bed fringed here and there with a little scrub.

Yet the Cunene, rising in the Jamba highlands near the source of the Kubango headstream of the Zambesi, and flowing for about 720 miles south and west, has a catchment basin of no less than 115,000 square miles. At Quiteve, where it was crossed 240 miles from its source by Capello and Ivens, it is already a copious stream 500 feet wide and 9 feet deep even in the dry season. Such a volume of water, swollen farther down by the drainage of the Chella Mountains discharged through the Caculovar affluent on its right bank, could not fail to reach the Atlantic throughout the year but for the fact that several branches both above and below

¹ That is *Ku-Nene*, or Great River; it is the Nourse of early English writers.

the Caculovar confluence are thrown off from its left bank southwards to the extensive saline depression of Lake Etosha in Ovampoland. This depression, alternately a shallow lagoon and a morass, may be regarded as a sort of inland delta through which the Cunene probably sent the whole of its waters at one time to the Zambesi lacustrine basin. The Cunene would thus appear to belong originally to the Zambesi hydrographic system, with which Lake Etosha no doubt still communicates during the floods, while another branch of comparatively recent formation reaches the Atlantic intermittently during the same season. But pending a more detailed survey of the little known region lying between Etosha and the streams flowing west to Lake Ngami, this view of the remarkable Cunene régime can be regarded only as a probable hypothesis.

Climate—Flora—Fauna

The Coanza valley forms, at least in its lower course, a climatic and botanic, as well as a physical parting-line. In these respects the region to the north of the Coanza still belongs to the Congo basin, that is to say, it is essentially Central African—hot, moist, more or less malarious, unsuited for European settlement, somewhat thickly wooded, and forming the extreme southern limit of the palm family. Thus “the raphia, whence *maluvo* is extracted, and which is so profusely met in the north, disappears as if by enchantment south of parallel 8°.”¹ The Lower Coanza basin itself is described as an extremely fertile plain, capable of growing an almost unlimited quantity of sugar, “if the difficulty of the pestilent climate could only be got over.”

¹ Capello and Ivens, *From Benguela to Yacca*, ii. p. 146.

Yet even in the north the heats are not excessive, being somewhat tempered both by the land breezes from the plateau and by the fresh sea breezes, cooled by the cold marine current which sets steadily along the Angolan seaboard from the Antarctic waters. At Loanda the mean annual temperature is not more than 74° F., seldom rising above 90° or falling below 55°. Here also the rainfall may even be called slight, falling in some years as low as six, and rarely exceeding thirty inches. But though the precipitation is small on the lowlands, the atmosphere itself is constantly saturated with moisture, and the first rains stirring up the decayed vegetation give rise to miasmatic exhalations, and are consequently always unhealthy. Thus Angola, north of the Coanza, may be broadly described as a fever-stricken productive region, inhabitable only by natives or half-castes, and well adapted for the cultivation of such economic plants as manioc, sorghum, massango (*Pennisetum typhoideum*) and maize. These, in fact, yield the various breadstuffs which constitute the staple food of the natives, while from the forests are derived the articles of export, such as caoutchouc, orchilla, ground-nuts, and palm oil.

In the region south of the Coanza, the conditions are greatly modified, temperature, rainfall, malaria, and vegetation decreasing gradually in the direction of the arid and almost rainless districts about the Lower Cunene basin. Hence South Angola may be described, in contrast to the north, as a moderately productive, somewhat healthy region, merging in the desert wastes of Damara and Great Namaqua Lands. Mr. Arnot noticed that on the table-land, about the latitude of Benguela, "the easterly winds which prevail come from the far interior, not charged with sand or deadly malaria,

but cool and invigorating.”¹ They come, in fact, from the Garenganze highlands, one of the very healthiest regions of Central Africa, and they blow across the great plateau, over 5000 feet high, which forms the water-parting between the Congo and Zambesi depressions.

Here also the influence of the cold marine current is naturally greater than farther north, and to it the prominent headland, a little south of the Cunene, owes its name of Cabo Frio, “Cold Cape.” Thanks to this relative coolness, with a temperature ranging from 68° to 74° F. (Capello and Ivens), and an extremely dry atmosphere, the southern provinces of Benguela, and especially Mossamedes, enjoy a tolerably salubrious climate, in which the European race can be and has been perpetuated.

Very striking also is the contrast between the two vegetable zones, the northern euphorbias, palms, eriodendrons, bombax, baobab, and lianas yielding in the south to various gummiferous plants, and to such highly differentiated forms as the parasitic hydнора and the remarkable trailing tree, *Welwitschia mirabilis*. Here also large tracts are covered with tall steppe grasses, which in the Lower Cunene basin assume the aspect of boundless prairies, and, like them, are subject to frequent conflagrations consuming all living things.

Notwithstanding these destructive fires, many parts of the savannah still abound in large game, such as buffaloes, zebras, gazelles, the straight-horned galengues (*Oryx gazella*), the beisas, leucoryx, and many other varieties of the widespread antelope family. The elephant has mostly disappeared from the coastlands; but large beasts of prey, lions, panthers, leopards, and hyænas.

¹ *Loc. cit.* p. 70.

are still numerous. Rodents (*Mus ratus*, *Mus dorsalis*, *Mus pumilio*, *Steatomys edulis*, and others) occur in surprising variety and numbers, while the rivers, especially the Cunene, swarm with crocodiles and hippopotami. The



THE SONGUE ANTELOPE.

latter are generally taken by means of a pitfall sunk three or four feet in the ground with a sharp stake driven point upwards into the bottom, and covered over with brambles and a layer of clay like that of the surrounding ground.

Angola supplies the Portuguese market with several rare birds, such as the auspicious quico, and the ill-omened little *Corythrix paulina*, whose funereal notes

suffice to depopulate whole villages. According to Monteiro the brilliant red wings of this remarkable bird yield a proportion of copper when steeped in water. Equally characteristic are some of the snakes, one of which, the "spitter," ejects an acrid secretion which destroys the eyesight of its pursuers. The Angolan waters teem with fish, amongst which are an edible shark and the *pungo*, or singing fish, with a soft note like that of the flute. The bagro, a large siluroid, seven or eight feet long, has almost become amphibious, having acquired the power of living for many hours out of the water. Bees, ants, and mosquitoes abound; but beetles and butterflies, as well as other insects, are somewhat rare, at least on the seaward slope of the country.

Inhabitants of Angola—The Congo Empire

The Bantu populations of this region represent nearly every shade of transition from the Negro to the Hamitic type, and every degree of culture, from the absolutely savage state of the Mushi-Kongo¹ to the almost semi-civilised condition of the kindred and neighbouring Eshi-Kongo. The latter are grouped by many writers with the people of Cabinda, north of the estuary, under the collective designation of Ba - Fiot. Both belong undoubtedly to the same ethnical family, and as descendants of the dominant race in the ancient kingdom of Kongo (Ekongo), both preserve the same historic traditions and social usages, and have developed a certain sense of solidarity tending to merge tribal distinctions in a common national sentiment. They also speak the same Kishi-Kongo language, which is a typical Bantu

¹ Doubtless a corruption of *Mwishi-Kongo*, which is itself a singular form, consequently a mistake for the plural *Eshi-Kongo*.

idiom already reduced to written form over 250 years ago by the Portuguese missionaries.¹ This language, of which the Rev. W. Holman Bentley has published an excellent dictionary and grammar (London, 1887), is current with little dialectic variety throughout a great part of the former Kongo empire, that is, along both sides of the estuary from Loango southwards to the frontier of Angola proper, and from the coast inland to within fifteen miles of the meridian of Stanley Pool.

But the empire itself, first shaken to its foundations by the irruption of the Yacca hordes, and further weakened by the expulsion of the Jesuit missionaries about 120 years ago, was rapidly broken into fragments, and the *mfumu* reduced to the position of a Portuguese pensioner. The present emperor, Ntotela, bearing the high-sounding title of "Dom Pedro V., Catholic King of the Kongo and its dependencies," exercises a nominal authority over a district extending in no direction more than forty miles from the capital, Mbanza, the Ambassi of the old maps, at present better known as San Salvador.

This place occupies a commanding position on the lower terraces of the escarpments near the sources of the Lueji, some miles south of the Yellala Falls. But its vaunted splendours are gone, and when visited a few years ago by Mr. Bentley, nothing was seen but "mouldering ruins." Even the old Roman Catholic rites had fallen into abeyance, or become mingled with heathen practices, till they were recently revived by the missionaries. Certain emblems of that religion, such as crucifixes and

¹ There still exist two copies of a treatise on Christian Doctrine written or translated into Kongo by Fr. Marco Jorge, with interlined Portuguese text, and published in Lisbon in 1624. This appears to have been the first work printed in Kishi-Kongo, or in any Bantu language.

effigies of the saints, were, however, still jealously preserved and borne in processions, being regarded either as potent fetishes or badges of authority.

But Portuguese culture never penetrated very deep below the surface, and even during the most flourishing "Christian period" the people remained polygamists, and continued to be addicted to barbarous practices connected with witchcraft, ancestral worship, and the burial of kings and chiefs. Outlying tribes also remained wholly unaffected by these exotic influences, and till quite recently the Congo estuary was still infested by the predatory Mushi-Kongos, Muso-Rongos, and others occupying the left bank of the river. All these closely related peoples constitute the Fiot, or Congo group proper, whose domain extends from the Lower Congo southwards to about the parallel of Ambriz, and from the coast inland to the Kwango River.

The A-Bunda Nation

South of Ambriz follows the widespread A-BUNDA (Bin-Bundo, Ovim-Bundu) nation, whose territory extends along the whole of the seaboard to the Cunene River, and inland to the plateau. It thus occupies the greater part both of the low-lying coastlands and of the terraced escarpments, and is accordingly divided into two main branches, the *Ba-Nano*, or "Highlanders," and the *Ba-Buero*, or "Lowlanders."

Like the Ba-Fiot, the A-Bunda have been long in contact with Europeans; the mutual relations have even been more intimate in the south than in the north. Owing to the unfavourable climatic conditions few Portuguese have ever settled in the Kongo country, whereas in the southern provinces whites both from Portugal

and Brazil have contracted numerous alliances with the natives, resulting in a large mulatto element, distinguished by considerable intelligence, energy, and capacity for trade. Such are the Ambakistas—that is, the inhabitants of Ambaca in the Coanza valley, and some of the Bihenos, or natives of the Bihé district, both widely spread throughout a great part of Central Africa, and everywhere noted for their commercial enterprise, and also, unfortunately, everywhere associated with the slave trade.

Most of them are bilingual, speaking both Portuguese and Umbundu (Bundu), a Bantu idiom, which in Angola proper and Benguela takes the place of Kishi-Kongo, and which is intermediate between that language and the Ova - Herero of Ovampo and Damara Lands. Umbundu is the *lingua franca* of the west, as Ki-Swahili is of the east coast, and any person familiar with these two Bantu tongues could easily make his way without any interpreter along the trade routes right across the continent from Benguela to Zanzibar. Mr. Arnot studied Umbundu with the American missionaries of Bihé for the purpose of communicating with the tribes farther east. This traveller also speaks highly of the enterprising spirit of the Ovimbundu between Benguela and Bihé, who “have done their full share in developing the resources of Central Africa,” and who “are the real suppliers of the Portuguese markets at Catumbela and Benguela.”

All these settled and somewhat civilised Bantu and half-caste populations are collectively called *Pretos* by the Portuguese, in contradistinction to the *Negros*, or independent wild tribes. These terms therefore express social rather than ethnical differences, and in fact many of the Pretos cannot be distinguished physically from

the average West African Bantu, while others approach the European type in appearance and complexion. It is mainly by miscegenation that the Portuguese have perpetuated their race in Angola. Of full-blood Lusitanians there are not more than 4000, including officials, soldiers, and traders, in the whole colony, and scarcely any family groups are met except in Mossamedes, where they have alone succeeded in acclimatising themselves. A few Boers, penetrating from the south to Ovampoland, also effected settlements about the upper course of the Cunene; and although these settlements were afterwards dispersed, other "trekkers" from Transvaal followed in 1892, and attempted to set up an independent Boer republic in Mossamedes. On the whole the Cunene basin may be regarded as the northern limit of possible white colonisation on the south-west side of the continent.

The Ganguellas

In the Portuguese Hinterland beyond Bihé the numerous Bantu nations whose territories are traversed by the trade route between Bihé and Lake Dilolo are grouped by some writers under the collective name of *Ganguella*. But this term, however convenient for classification, has no ethnological value, for it simply means "Stammerers," being the nickname applied to those eastern peoples by the Ovimbundu because of their unintelligible speech. In the same way the Germanic peoples called the Italians and Britons Welsh,¹ that is, "foreigners," and were themselves called *Niemce*, that is, "speechless," by their Slav neighbours. Of these "Stammerers" the most important groups are the Ambuella, Luimbe, Chibokwe,

¹ Cf. Anglo-Saxon *wealh* = foreign, as in *walnut*; so also *Welschland* = Italy.

Luvale, and Lunda (Wa-Lunda and Ba-Lunda), who are a southern branch of the Muata - Yamvo's Ka - Lunda subjects.

The Lunda dwell chiefly about the head-waters of the Liba affluent of the Zambesi, where they constitute a powerful nation independent alike of the Muata-Yamvo and of the Barotse ruler, though some of their chiefs recognise the suzerainty of the former. They have long had indirect dealings with the Portuguese through the Bihé traders, and most of the beeswax exported from Angola comes from their country. The Ba-Lunda rival the Javanese themselves in their love of ceremony, as displayed in their extreme courtesy to strangers and obsequious servility towards their chiefs. To their numerous modes of salutation they have added *Ave-ria*, a corruption of *Ave Maria*, introduced by the Bihé traders, and have also learnt to express surprise by the exclamation *Allah!* derived through Arab influences from the opposite quarter. They are amongst the few South African peoples who respect their women, some of whom even rise to the rank of queens. Their territory is extremely fertile, yielding provisions of all sorts in great abundance, while the forests contain immense stores of such natural products as rubber, gums, wax, honey, ground-nuts, and timber.

The Aborigines

Intermingled in the southern districts of Angola with the more or less civilised peoples are certain wild tribes of low stature and primitive usages, who should probably be grouped rather with the Bushmen of the Kalahari Desert than with the Negroid Bantus. Such are the Ba-Kwisse, Ba-Kubale, Ba-Simba (Cimbeba), and others,

of Mossamedes and the Lower Cunene valley, who mostly hold aloof from the settled communities, keeping to the recesses of the mountains, the arid coastlands, or the remoter parts of the savannahs, and living almost exclusively by the chase or by fishing and capturing the jetsam cast ashore on the south coast. All these savage tribes, or rather family groups, may be regarded as the true aborigines, who have been gradually driven to the southern confines of the land by the Bantu peoples advancing from the interior seawards.

Subjoined is a

Table of the Chief Angolan Tribes

BA-FIOT, or BA-KONGO GROUP	}	Eshi-Kongo, Mushi-Kongo, Muso- Rongo, Sonho, Bamba, Muyolo, Ma-Vumbu, Ma-Yacca, Dembo	{	Congo land, from the Lower Congo southwards to Ambriz
		<i>Ba-Nano</i> ("Highlanders")		
		Hollo, Ba-Ngala, Songo	{	From the Middle Coanza eastwards to the Kwango
A-BUNDA (BIN-BUNDO OR OVIMBUNDU) GROUP	}	Bailundo, Kimbande, Bihenos, Ba-Kankala, Lu-Shazé, Ba- Nhaneka, Ba-Mkombi, Ba- Kubale	{	Jamba and Chella Highlands
		<i>Ba-Buero</i> ("Lowlanders")		
		Quissama, Amboella, Libollo Mu-Ndombé, Mu-Seli	. . .	Lower Coanza valley Benguela coast
ABORIGINAL (Bushman ?) GROUP.	}	Ba-Kwande, Ba-Kulabe (Cabaé), Ba-Kwisse, Ba-Koroka, Ba- Kanaka, Ba-Simba (Cimbeba)	{	Mossamedes coast and Lower Cunene basin

Towns—Stations

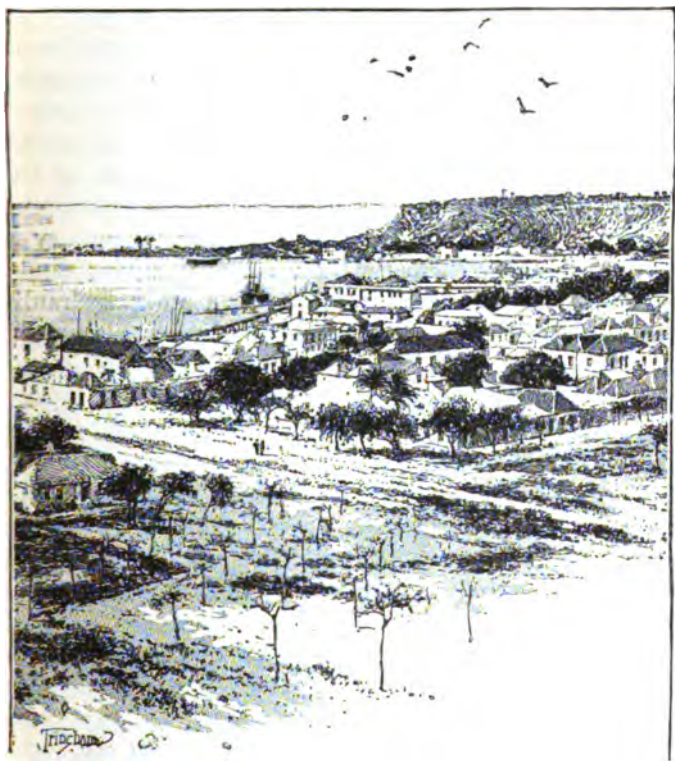
Owing partly to its shoals and shifting sands, partly to the inhospitable character of the lawless riverain tribes, the south or Portuguese side of the Congo estuary continues to be practically deserted. Here the only port accessible to large vessels is *Noki* (*Lukango*), just below

the cataracts on the frontier of the Congo Free State. Since the ivory caravans have been diverted from Ambriz to the Congo, the trade of Noki has been more than doubled; and it cannot fail to become a flourishing seaport whenever the projected railway is opened from this place to Stanley Pool.

On the exposed seaboard of Congoland there are neither harbours nor stations beyond a few fishing villages, such as *Cabeça de Cobra* ("Snake's Head"), *Ambrisette*, and *Mussera*, the latter once a busy place, but ruined by an invasion of small-pox some years ago. *Ambriz*, on the north frontier of Angola proper, is the only port of call for steamers plying on this coast between Banana and Loanda. Notwithstanding the loss of its ivory business, and despite the exposed nature of its roadstead, Ambriz, lying just within the free trade area, has become a thriving seaport, taking large quantities of European wares in exchange for such local produce as ground-nuts, caoutchouc, the baobab bast used for making paper, and especially coffee from the southern plantations. The exports are now valued at over £200,000 yearly; but the climate is fatal to Europeans, as shown by the attempt lately made by an English speculator to work the malachite deposits in the neighbouring districts of *Bembé*, where all the miners introduced from Cornwall were swept away within a twelvemonth. Farther inland the fortified station of *Encogé* (*São José de Encogé*) is the centre of a peculiar coffee industry, large quantities of the berry being collected, not from plantations, but from the uncultivated plant which grows wild in the surrounding forests.

Loanda (*São Paulo de Loanda*), the oldest Portuguese settlement south of the equator, has for over 300 years been the chief centre of their power and influence on the

south-west seaboard, and is still the capital of their Angolan possessions. But although the largest place on the west coast between Upper Guinea and the Cape, its



SÃO PAULO DE LOANDA.

population scarcely exceeds 15,000 ; while the insanitary state of the town and the absence of much-needed harbour works betray here as elsewhere the incapacity of Portugal to develop the resources of her colonies.

Loanda was founded in 1576, some twenty miles above the Coanza estuary, on the long low-lying island which forms a northern continuation of the Palmeirinhas headland, and which encloses a bay or natural harbour open to shipping on the north side, and accessible to small vessels through the Corimba Channel lower down. But the settlement was soon transferred to its present site on the opposite mainland near the deepest part of the bay, where the largest steamers find good anchorage in sixty or eighty feet of water within two miles of the town. Formerly the harbour was accessible to shipping right up to the shore; but during the present century it has been largely encroached upon by the silting sands, which unless arrested by dredging or other hydraulic operations must in course of time close the port altogether. Loanda was for over 200 years the chief centre of the slave trade between Angola and Brazil, and it was nearly ruined by the suppression of that traffic. Since then, however, it has recovered some of its former prosperity, and at present more than half of the trade of Angola is centred in this port, which exchanges rubber, coffee, and other colonial produce for textiles, hardware, and all kinds of European wares. The imports and exports were estimated in 1889 at over half a million sterling; and this trade has received a fresh stimulus by the completion of the submarine cable to the Cape, thus connecting Loanda with the telegraphic service of the world. Railway works are also in progress up the Coanza valley to the coffee plantations in the direction of Ambaca, and regular steam communication is maintained with Europe and Brazil.

In the extremely fertile but pestiferous Coanza basin there are several important agricultural and trading centres, such as *Dando* at the head of the fluvial navigation, locally known as the "furnace" or "hell" of Angola;

Cacullo, the chief place in the Cazengo district, in the valley of the Lucalla affluent, the most productive coffee region in the colony; *Pungo Ndongo*, a historical place east of Dando, lying 4000 feet above the sea, in one of the most romantic regions in Africa; *Pamba*, better known as *Ambaca*, from the name of the district, the proposed terminus of the line, 220 miles long, which is to run from Loanda to the interior through the rich coffee, sugar, tobacco, ground-nut, and other plantations of the Coanza and its Lucalla tributary. *Ambaca*, which is the administrative centre of this highly productive region, was formerly a flourishing place on the great trade route running through *Malange* to the Kassai basin. But its enterprising inhabitants, the famous *Ambakistas*, were nearly ruined by the cupidity of the corrupt Portuguese officials, and *Pamba* is now little more than an obscure village abandoned by its industrious inhabitants, and already overgrown with a rank vegetation. *Malange*, the farthest Portuguese station east of Loanda, lies on the plateau near the divide between the Coanza and Kwango basins. Here converge several important caravan routes from the interior, and all traders and travellers proceeding from Loanda towards the Kassai basin must take the *Malange* route.

About 200 miles south of *Malange* lies the much more important station of *Belmonte*, which is situated nearly on the highest point of the plateau on the most frequented southern trade route to the interior, standing in this respect in the same relation to *Benuela* that *Malange* does to *Loanda*. Like *Pamba*, *Belmonte* is more familiarly known by the name of its district, *Bihé*. The inhabitants also resemble the *Ambakistas* in their love of trade and their enterprising spirit; but the *Bihenos* (*Ba-Bihé*) have the double advantage of occupy-

ing a more healthy country, and of being practically independent of the oppressive Portuguese administrators. Hence while the Ambakistas have had to migrate in search of new homes and new occupations, the Bihenos form a flourishing compact community, strong enough to control the markets both of the interior and of Southern Angola. They are a branch of the A-Bunda nation, largely mixed with slaves and captives from all parts of the Kassai basin, and speaking the Umbundu language, which, thanks to them, has become the chief medium of communication from tribe to tribe between Benguela and Lunda. They are described by Capello and Ivens as "tall, thin, with heads of ample size, broad foreheads, not too low, flat noses, widespread cheeks, pointed chins, and arched brows of no great prominence, . . . lively and intelligent, very cunning and excessively grasping, and, like all the populations of Central Africa, distinguished by an indifference both physical and moral, of which it is difficult to convey an idea."¹ From them the Va-Luena (Va-Luvale) and other inland peoples obtain their supplies of English cottons, German spirits, firearms and ammunition, salt, and glass beads, in exchange for ivory, slaves,² rubber, beeswax, skins, and other produce. They are naturally jealous of any interference with this lucrative trade between the coast and the interior, of which they hold a monopoly. Hence the obstructions thrown in the way of all travellers passing inland, and the opposition

¹ *Op. cit.* vol. i. p. 109.

² "In the region between the Lomami and the Sankuru the conditions of trade have completely altered since 1884. Now glass beads, arms, and powder form the chief articles of barter, having replaced the early cowrie shells. The former are supplied by the Bihé caravans in exchange with the Bassonge (Ba-Songe) for slaves, which they then exchange with the Bakuba for ivory. The Bakuba buy the women slaves for their households, but the men for victims at their funeral solemnities" (Lieut. Wissmann, *Proc. R. Geo. Soc.* 1887, p. 776).

shown even to the peaceful mission of Mr. Arnot, who complains that "the chiefs and native traders were my greatest hindrance. Thus I was obliged to start from Bihé in rather an ignominious fashion, with a few women and children carrying my loads a day's march at a time."¹

Belmonte itself is a mere village, with one European dwelling, long occupied by the official Portuguese resident, Senhor Serpa Pinto, one of the few travellers who have crossed the continent from sea to sea. Marvellous stories are related of the extraordinary fertility of the district, where beans and corn spring up and ripen in two months, and where Capello and Ivens were seriously informed by a native that his freshly-cut staff casually stuck into the ground took root and developed into a huge wide-branching tree while he was entertaining his friends with some gossip in front of his house. The American missionaries have a station at Belmonte, which, however, is subject to agues during the rainy season; hence their headquarters lie farther west in the more healthy Bailundo country, near the Jamba highlands.

There are scarcely any permanent settlements along the trade route between Bihé and the coast town of *Benguela*, capital of the province of like name. This seaport, which dates from the erection of the Portuguese fortress of *San Felipe* in 1617, is pleasantly situated in a fertile district on the slopes of the wooded hills exposed to the cool sea breezes. The beach, where are grouped the residences of the European traders, enjoys the full benefit of the cold Antarctic marine current, and is consequently fairly healthy, at least in the dry season. Benguela may be regarded as the natural outlet for the produce of the central plateau between the Congo and

¹ *Loc. cit.* p. 70.

Zambesi depressions, and its exchanges, at present valued at about £250,000 yearly, appear to be increasing. The neighbouring Dombe districts (Great and Little Dombe) in the Capororo basin are rich in copper ores, argentiferous lead, gypsum, and especially sulphur, enormous quantities of which exist in an almost pure state.

Like Benguela, the southern province of *Mossamedes* has for its capital a seaport bearing the same name as the district itself. This name was first applied towards the end of the last century to the neighbouring Angra do Negro (the Little Fish Bay of English mariners) in honour of a Portuguese commander, Mossamedes; it was then extended to the settlement, which dates only from the year 1840, and finally to the whole province, which is scarcely yet fully organised. Notwithstanding its recent origin Mossamedes has already become a flourishing seaport, and is the only Portuguese settlement on the west side of the continent which can be called a colony in the strict sense of the term. Thanks to its salubrious climate it seems suited for European settlement, and it already possesses a larger relative white population (Portuguese, Brazilians, and natives of Madeira) than any other place on the seaboard between Morocco and Cape Colony.

But even here the mortality is still in excess of the birth-rate, and there appears to be little scope for the development of an agricultural settlement in a district where the arable land is mainly confined to the beds of dried-up or intermittent coast streams. But the fisheries are very productive, and much "cod-liver oil" is prepared from a fish resembling the cod of the northern hemisphere. Stock-breeding also has been successfully introduced in some of the grassy tracts, where the Kafir breed of riding

oxen is reared for the markets of the Cape and the Gaboon.

The Boer Immigrants

From Mossamedes a practical road for pack animals has been opened across the Chella range to the Upper Cunene basin. By this route the Boers settled in that



MOSSAMEDES.

region have already found their way into the Mossamedes coastlands, and travellers are now able to reach the Ganguella territory and the Zambesi basin by following the same track. But this road has also given access to the Portuguese tax-gatherer, with the result that the Ba-Nano populations have in many places withdrawn farther inland. Thus this fertile and comparatively healthy elevated region remains almost uninhabited, except by the wandering Ba-Kankala bushmen; even the few Boers who had settled round the stations of *Hwilla* and *San Januario* or *Humpata* have recently returned to Ovampoland.

“During the long *trek* or exodus from their southern

homes the Boers had to endure great hardships and privations as they drove their herds before them, plodding wearily from pasturage to pasturage, sojourning for months together in some more favoured localities in order to recruit their strength, but again exposing themselves to the inclemency of the weather, and facing the perils of forced marches across the waterless wilderness. Many perished of exhaustion, and the report even spread that all had succumbed; but towards the close of the year 1880 some 400 or 500 survivors at last reached the promised land, distant more than 1200 miles from the mother country. But even here, under this favoured climate of Mossamedes, the fates still pursued them; small-pox broke out amongst the new arrivals; nearly all the horses which they had brought with them, to the great terror of the natives, died of fatigue; all the flocks of sheep disappeared, together with two-thirds of the horned cattle. Despair seized many of the settlers, who embarked for the Cape; others, retracing their steps, endeavoured to return overland to Transvaal, while others, resuming the trek, penetrated from stage to stage into the Cunene basin and the region of the inland plateaux.”¹

These Boers, locally known as *Ugaras*, had already intermarried with the Portuguese, whose suzerainty they had recognised while retaining complete self-government in all communal affairs. But owing to the exactions of the Portuguese officials they again withdrew beyond the Cunene, where, under the leadership of Mr. Jordan, they founded the temporary Republic of “Upingtonia.” Lower down the Cunene basin continues to be almost uninhabited, although possessing the advantage of two good havens on the neighbouring coast — Bahia Pinda and

¹ Reclus, xiii. p. 53.

Bahia dos Tigres, the Port Alexander and Great Fish Bay of English writers.

Resources—Government—Prospects

Portuguese West Africa labours under two great physical disadvantages—a deadly climate in the fertile northern provinces, an arid soil in the relatively healthy southern provinces. This, combined with gross mal-administration, the rapacity of officials, and high tariffs, sufficiently accounts for the backward state of the colony, which has made but little progress since the flourishing times of the “middle passage.” In those days three-fourths of the revenue were derived from the sale of slaves destined mainly for the plantations of Brazil. Since the abolition of that traffic the revenue has never sufficed to cover the expenditure, so that Angola continues to be a burden to the home government. Recently the revival of legitimate trade has been checked by the establishment of the international free trade area, which, owing to the heavy custom-house imposts in Angola proper, has tended to divert the ivory caravans northwards to the province of Zaire (Congoland) and even to the Congo Free State. Orchilla also, formerly a staple export, is becoming scarce; while the sources of caoutchouc are being dried up by the reckless destruction of the rubber-yielding lianas throughout the lowland forests. But there still remain the fossil copal of the coastlands, the palm oil, gums, bast, timber, and drugs of the woodlands, the copper ores, argentiferous lead, and sulphur of the mineral districts, and the produce of the plantations—sugar, rum, tobacco, cotton, and especially the wild and cultivated coffee of the Coanza and Lucalla valleys. Over two-thirds of these

articles are taken by Great Britain in exchange for textiles and other British wares. Much of the rest of the foreign trade is conducted with Germany, France, and Holland, so that the Portuguese administration has come to be regarded as a coastguard system maintained in the interest of foreign nations.

There is no local representation of any kind, and the government of the colony is entirely in the hands of the Governor-General, resident at Loanda, who is himself directly dependent on the home authorities. For administrative purposes the country is divided into four provinces: Zaire (Congoland), Loanda (Angola proper), Benguela, and Mossamedes, each subdivided into numerous Concelhos or Circles under Portuguese officials. Most of the natives, except in the neighbourhood of the towns, are still in the tribal state, and many of their *sobas* or "kings" are practically autonomous; but in the more settled districts, to each soba is attached a Portuguese *chefe* or political agent.

A few public works have recently been taken in hand; about 330 miles of the "Trans-African Railway" had been completed in 1894; the telegraph system has been extended to several inland stations; good water has at last been supplied to the capital; and a few roads have been constructed in the coastland districts. But it is obvious that there is no future for Angola as a Portuguese colony. It is mainly unfit for European settlement,¹ and its great natural resources can never be developed by a country which has herself entered on a long period of decadence, and which has no industrial products wherewith to effect a "balance of trade" with her African possessions.

¹ Even European domestic animals succumb to the climate, although Angola lies beyond the range of the tsetse fly. The cat becomes paralysed, the dog loses his scent, and horses and horned cattle rapidly die off.

CHAPTER V

GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA

(OVAMPO, DAMARA, AND GREAT NAMAQUA LANDS)

German annexations in South-West Africa—Boundaries, Extent and Population of the Protectorate—Geographical Research—Physical Features—Characteristics of Soil and Climate—Changed Climatic Conditions—Natural Resources; Minerals—Inhabitants; Bantu and Hottentot—The Ova-Mpo—The Boers; Upingtonia—The Ova-Herero and Hill Damaras—The Namas—The Hottentot Race and Language—Table of the Chief Tribes in German South-West Africa—Population according to Races—German Policy; Prospects of the Colony—Seaports and Inland Stations—Administration—Walvisch Bay.

German Annexations

TILL recently the seaboard extending from the Cunene to the Orange River was on most maps usually coloured red, in accordance with the popular view which regarded the whole region from Cape Colony to Portuguese West Africa as forming part of British South Africa. Some of the coast islets, such as Roast Beef, Plumpudding, Pomona, Halifax, Penguin, Mercury and Hollams Bird, as well as the district on the mainland round about Walvisch¹ Bay, were even occupied or officially recog-

¹ That is, *Whalefish*, but variously written Walfisch, Walvisch, Walfish, etc., in more or less incongruous Dutch spelling.

nised as British territory ; Walvisch Bay still remains a dependency of Cape Colony. But in the year 1884, when the Germans began to build up their colonial empire, all the rest of the region in question was suddenly proclaimed a part of the imperial possessions under the designation of Lüderitzland, afterwards changed to German South-West Africa. After the usual protests and diplomatic wranglings the claim was duly recognised, and the limits of the German protectorate determined by two conventions with Great Britain (December 1884, and July 1890) and one with Portugal (December 1886).¹

Boundaries—Extent—Population

In virtue of these conventions, German South-West Africa is enclosed on the north by Portuguese West Africa, on the west by the Atlantic Ocean and the British enclave of Walvisch Bay, on the south by Cape Colony, and eastwards by the British Crown Colony and protectorates of Bechuanaland. The northern frontier towards the Portuguese possessions follows the

¹ "Undeterred by the fact that the natural and widely-known desire of Cape Colony was to expand northwards to the Zambesi, and that since 1878 Walvisch Bay had, with that object, been occupied as a British naval station, an enterprising Bremen merchant, Herr Lüderitz, concluded a series of political and commercial treaties with native chiefs, whereby a claim was instituted over Angra Pequena, and over vast districts in the interior between the Orange River and Cape Frio. On 7th August 1884, the German flag was hoisted at Angra Pequena, and on 13th October 1884, Germany formally notified to the Powers her Protectorate over South-West Africa" (Silva White, *The Development of Africa*, 1890, p. 294). This event is specially interesting in the history of European colonisation, for Angra Pequena was the first annexation made by Germany beyond Europe, the foundation-stone, so to say, of her colonial empire, which has since been developed with such surprising rapidity.

course of the Lower Cunene to the cataracts near 15° E. longitude, beyond which it is indicated by a conventional line running due east to the river Kubango, then by the eastern course of that river to its sharp southern bend at Andara, where it is continued by another conventional line eastwards to the Katima Rapids of the Zambesi, and then by the Zambesi itself to the Chobe confluence. The southern frontier coincides entirely with the course of the Orange River, terminating, at 20° E. longitude, a little west of the Hygap confluence. On the east side the frontier line is purely conventional, following the 20th meridian from the Orange River northwards to 22° S. latitude, and then the 21st meridian to 18° S. latitude, a few miles south of the Portuguese frontier. Here another conventional line running parallel with that frontier eastwards to the Chobe, and then along the course of that river to its confluence with the Zambesi, leaves a narrow strip of territory, nowhere less than 20 miles wide, giving Germany free access to the Zambesi between the Portuguese and British possessions north and south.

As thus defined, this region forms a rough triangular mass, with truncated apex resting on the Orange River, and broadening northwards with the north-western trend of the continental coast-line. It has a total length of about 900 miles, a mean breadth of 400 miles, and an area roughly estimated at 400,000 square miles, with a scattered population supposed not to exceed 250,000. In the north it encroaches eastwards on the Zambesi and Lake Ngami basins; in the south it merges in the Kalahari Desert, while ethnologically it comprises in their order, from north to south, the ill-defined territories of Ovampo (Ovambo), Damara, and Great Namaqua Lands.

Geographical Research

The exploration of these lands may be said to have begun with Livingstone's discovery of Lake Ngami in 1849. Doubtless long before that date the seaboard had been surveyed, and a few temporary stations established at Walvisch Bay, Angra Pequena, and one or two other points on the coast. But no serious efforts had been made to penetrate from any of these stations into the interior, till an unsuccessful attempt was made by Francis Galton and Charles Andersson to open up a route from Walvisch Bay to Lake Ngami. Two years later Andersson reached the lake, thus connecting his itineraries with those of Livingstone, and since then the country has been traversed in almost every direction by travellers, traders, and especially by Finnish, German, and other missionaries, who had already founded stations in Damaraland so far back as 1842.

Conspicuous among the earlier explorers are Green, Hahn and Rath, Palgrave and Hartley, Todd and Lewis, while, since the German occupation, more systematic surveys have been made, chiefly by Dr. Hans Schinz (1884-86), Dr. F. M. Stapff (1885-86), Dr. A. Schenck (1888), and Baron von Steinäcker (1888-89). Schinz, after exploring the southern districts acquired by Herr Lüderitz, passed northwards through Ovampoland to the Cunene, and thence eastwards to Lake Ngami, returning to the coast through Damaraland, and afterwards again penetrating east to the Kalahari. To Stapff, geographical science is indebted for a careful geological survey of the Kuisip (Khosib) valley; and other parts of Namaqualand. These surveys were continued and extended by Schenck over the whole region between Walvisch Bay

and the Orange River; while Von Steinäcker explored, and for the first time accurately mapped, the Herero country (Damaraland) and the eastern districts in the direction of the Kubango and Chobe basins.

Physical Features

The normal plateau-formation, interrupted by the valley of the Cunene, again acquires a partial development in the region stretching from that river southwards to the Orange basin. But whereas north of the Cunene the tableland maintains a uniform elevation of about 4000 feet for hundreds of miles eastward, here it assumes rather the character of a broad ridge descending seawards, either in terraces or gently inclined slopes, or through a series of sandhills 300 or 400 feet high, and falling landwards far more precipitously down to profound depressions separating it from the Kubango basin in the north and from the Kalahari Desert in the south. This ridge, whose main axis runs parallel with the coast at a mean distance of from 100 to 120 miles, traverses the northern section, under the name of the Kaoko and Damara hills, at an average altitude of less than 3000 feet; but as it approaches the latitude of Walvisch Bay it rises to nearly double that height, the whole system here culminating in Mount Omatako, 7650 feet above sea-level. South of this point the shield-shaped crest again falls to little over 3000 feet, at which mean altitude it traverses Namaqualand southwards to the Orange valley. But in this southern section it often loses the character of a continuous range, breaking into a chain of hills, or even of isolated heights, which in many places affect the fantastic form of ramparts, towers, or



BANKS OF ORANGE RIVER—GREAT NAMAQUALAND.

pinnacles. Here some of the peaks east of Angra Pequena rise to an altitude of nearly 6000 feet, while the route leading from the coast eastwards to Bethany Station traverses the range at a height of 5300 feet.

The prevailing formations are gneiss quartz, schists, recent chalks, crystalline lime-stones, and especially granites, whose disintegration appears to have given rise



BETHANY—GREAT NAMAQUALAND.

to the sands of the interior, while the coast dunes are by some geologists supposed to be of marine origin. In any case, there is abundant proof of extensive upheaval along this seaboard, where salt-water shells of the same species as those still inhabiting the neighbouring sea occur as high as 70 feet above the present ocean-level. The remains of large cetaceans have even been found at a height of nearly 100 feet half a mile inland.

Characteristics of Soil and Climate

It is commonly supposed that the whole of German South-West Africa is merely an arid sandy waste, with some grassy tracts in the northern and central districts, but with no natural resources beyond its inaccessible mineral wealth. Owing to the prevalence of this view little interest was taken in the country, which was left severely alone even by the Cape Government, notwith-

standing the fact that the southern populations had long drawn their chief supply of cattle from this very region. But the systematic surveys carried out since the German occupation have shown that the popular view is mainly applicable only to Great Namaqualand—that is, to the southern division between Walvisch Bay and the Orange River. Many parts of Ovampoland in the extreme north are even described by Dr. Schinz as well suited for agricultural pursuits. The district of Upingtonia, and other tracts occupied either by the Boers or by the more settled Ovampo tribes, are partly hilly and apparently rich in minerals, partly undulating limestone plains (an old lacustrine basin), sufficiently watered and of great natural fertility. Perennial springs abound, and for half the year, from November to April, the rainfall is considerable. Malarial fevers, however, prevail during this austral summer season, though they are of a far less virulent nature than in Angola.¹

Farther south follow the grassy plains and slopes of Damaraland, which afford excellent pasturage for numerous herds of horned cattle. But “Great Nama Land,” as Dr. Stapff calls the region round about Walvisch Bay, is by this explorer divided into three distinct physical sections:—1, The great stony desert of Namieb in the north; 2, the valley of the Kuisip (Khosib), converging on Walvisch Bay; and, 3, the sandy dunes stretching thence parallel with the coast-line southwards to the Orange basin.

Namieb presents the aspect of a vast plain rising almost imperceptibly landwards, and east of Walvisch Bay, attaining an altitude of 2000 feet at a distance of 60 miles from the sea. The dreary prospect is unrelieved

¹ MS. note, the substance of which appears in the *Proc. of the R. Geo. Soc.* 1887, p. 244.

by the presence of a single tree or shrub; but the view is broken here and there by isolated eminences or small groups of hills, whose dark rocky walls present a sharp contrast to the surrounding yellow-grey plains. Here and there occur the so-called *vleys*, that is, shallow depressions in which the rain-water is collected, leaving after evaporation gradually accumulating saline and sandy deposits.

Changed Climatic Conditions

South of the Kuisip the sandy dunes—probably upheaved marine beds moulded to their present shape by the prevailing south-west winds—form a zone of absolute desert, where the tracks running inland from the coast have in some places to traverse as many as six of these parallel sandhills. Such is the dominant feature of this seaboard for hundreds of miles between Walvisch Bay and Cape Colony. These conditions appear to be the result of the gradual process of desiccation going on for ages in the two rainless zones which sweep round the northern and southern hemispheres at various distances from the equator. In this region, as in the Sahara and the Central Asia deserts, abundant indications of the change from a moist to a dry climate are afforded by the vegetation of the river valleys, and especially of the Kuisip, where are still to be seen the dead or decaying stumps of the wild fig, ebony and other forest trees; during the periodical freshets also many snags and large tree-trunks are carried down with the yellow floods from inland districts where no large vegetable growths now flourish.¹

¹ Dr. F. M. Stapff, *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, July 1887. It may here be mentioned that about the year 1775 most of the Herero people

Another proof of change in the direction of greater dryness is seen in the recent cretaceous deposits which cover a large part of this region, and which in fact are distributed all over the southern part of the continent. These chalks were deposited in relatively shallow brackish waters, showing that in a former geological epoch the surface of the land was strewn with lacustrine basins of all sizes. Scanty remains of such basins are the valleys and lakes scattered over the northern parts of the Kalahari Desert.

At present the rainfall is not sufficient to repair the loss suffered by evaporation. Hence Schinz and other recent travellers report that even Lake Ngami itself is much reduced in size, and apparently slowly drying up. It is noteworthy that the rain-bearing clouds precipitate their moisture at different periods on the coastlands and in the interior. On the seaboard it falls chiefly in the form of mist, during the winter season, whereas farther inland it occurs only in summer, and nearly always in connection with fierce thunderstorms. These thunder-showers are attributed by Schenck to the condensation of the moisture brought with the warm north-east winds from equatorial Africa by coming in contact with the cool south-west current setting from the coast towards the interior.

Rivers

But the annual rainfall, averaging probably not more than three inches for the whole region, is nowhere sufficient to maintain permanent watercourses on the Atlantic slope of the divide. Hence not a single perennial stream abandoned their settlements in the Kaoko uplands, and migrated farther south, where even at that recent date water is stated to have been more abundant than at present.

reaches the sea for the space of about a thousand miles from above the Cunene to the Orange River. Even the Tsoakhub (Swakop) and the Kuisip, the two largest of these streams, both of which reach the coast at Walvisch Bay, the former from the north-east, the latter from the south-east, are in the nature of wadys—dry sandy beds for a great part of the year, roaring torrents during the rainy season. The Tsoakhub, which rises to the east of the Damara highlands, traverses the plateau through a series of deep rocky gorges, and has a total course of nearly 250 miles. Notwithstanding the great extent of its catchment basin, the Kuisip, which intersects the Namieb plain, does not always reach the coast even in the rainy season. Between the years 1866 and 1878 it is said to have never once sent any of its flood waters down to Walvisch Bay.

Although draining a less extensive area than either of these wadys, the Omaruru is a more copious stream, retaining its waters for a longer period, and supporting a more extensive vegetation. Its course lies a few miles to the north and nearly parallel to that of the Tsoakhub. In Namaqualand even the *umarambas*, or intermittent streams, disappear. Here almost the only watercourse is the Little Orange, which descends from the north-east to Angra Pequena.

On the opposite or inland slope the chief hydrographic system is that of the already described Etosha lagoon, which belongs to the Cunene basin. When visited by Schinz in 1886, Etosha Pan presented the appearance of a veritable lake. Farther east the Umaramba-wa-Mataka flows north-east, and, under the name of the Seshongo, joins the Ombuengo or Okavango, whose sluggish current ramifies into several branches in a swampy district draining to Lake Ngami.

Natural Resources—Minerals

The whole of the south-west coast is exposed to the influence of the cold marine current which sets steadily from the Antarctic waters northwards. Hence the temperature is rarely excessive, even in summer, and is all the more endurable because of the extremely dry atmosphere. For the same reason there is a general absence of malaria, except in the marshy districts of Ovampoland, about the Etosha Pan, and thence eastwards to Lake Ngami. The Boers, who have made repeated attempts to establish themselves in this region, have often been decimated by fever, and compelled to abandon their settlements owing to the malarious climate. Farther south the obstacles to European colonisation arise, not from the climate, but from the lack of water and of land suitable for tillage. In the whole of Namaqualand, after years of strenuous efforts, the missionaries have failed to bring more than ten or twelve acres under cultivation.

On the other hand, Damaraland abounds in rich grazing grounds, and stock-breeding might certainly prove remunerative in this region. Both horned cattle and sheep thrive well in the Omaheke district, and horses might be raised in some of the upland valleys of the Kaoko country. Some of the lowland tribes are known as "Cattle Damaras," from the numerous herds which constitute their sole wealth. Since 1891 camels have been introduced, and are now employed on the routes between the coast and the interior. Their powers of endurance have been successfully tested on the borders of the Kalahari Desert, and they have hitherto resisted the many fatal diseases to which horses and even cattle are subject in Namaqualand.

All the domestic animals now bred on the pasture lands of the higher grounds are sprung from stock originally introduced by Europeans. They may be said to have replaced the indigenous fauna, for few wild animals are now found except the ubiquitous antelope, some small felines, jackals, rodents, snakes, and lizards. The most dangerous of these reptiles is the *cuspedeiro*, or "spitter"—a serpent which attains a length of about 25 feet. Crocodiles are confined to the Cunene basin, and the ostrich has disappeared from all the coastlands.

Though the surveys are still far from complete, it is already known that this region is rich in minerals, especially copper, which occurs throughout the plateau, and even in the Otavi Hills 280 miles north-east of Walvisch Bay. Argentiferous ores are found in the northern districts of Namaqualand, and mining operations have already commenced at several points. But these resources can scarcely be properly exploited in the total absence of communications beyond mere tracts across the sandy plains.

Inhabitants—Bantu and Hottentot

It is at once evident, from the local nomenclature alone, that this region is a land of transition between the northern Bantu and southern Hottentot races. In Ovampoland we find geographical terms such as Etosha, Otavi, Mataka, ending in open syllables in accordance with the harmonious Bantu phonetic system. Farther south the consonantal endings and harsh sounds of such names as Tsoakhub and Khosab show that we have already entered the domain of the Khoi-Khoin ("Men of Men"), as the Hottentots call themselves. The Ova-Mpo and Ova-Herero may in the same way be recognised as Bantu peoples from the prefix element *ova* (see p. 112), while

the Dama-ra and Nama-qua are seen to be Hottentot nations, or at least subjected to Hottentot influences, from the dual and plural endings, *ra*, *qua*,¹ peculiar to the Hottentot language.

Speaking broadly, the northern and southern divisions (Ovampo and Namaqua Lands) are occupied exclusively by Bantu and Hottentot peoples respectively, while the central division (Dama-ra or Herero Land) constitutes the debatable region where the two races have for generations been struggling for the ascendancy. Geographically about three-fourths of the whole region is comprised within the Hottentot domain, which extends from the Orange River uninterruptedly northwards to Walvisch Bay, and penetrates beyond that point far into the Damara uplands. But ethnologically this proportion is reversed, for the great bulk of the population is centred in the northern (Bantu) districts.

The Ova-Mpo

The northern Bantu populations are divided into a considerable number of tribal groups, all of which are under separate hereditary chiefs or "kings," except one, the Oranda, who have abolished the monarchy, and adopted a republican or communal form of government. They take their collective name from the Ova - Mpo group, which was the first met by Galton and Andersson

¹ *Qua* or *kha* is the masculine plural, as in Nama-qua, Gri-qua, Khora-qua, etc. ; *ra* is the feminine dual, so that Dama-ra really means "the two Dama women." It arose out of a misapprehension on the part of the first explorers of the country. To their question as to its name the native guide answered Dama-ra, supposing they referred to two Dama women who happened to be passing at the time. The form should of course be Dama-qua, like Nama-qua, and these again, being plural forms, should, strictly speaking, be Englished Damas, Namas, not Damaquas, Namaquas.

in 1852, at which time their king, Nangoro, had his residence at Ondonga.

Physically the Ova-Mpo are a fine race, tall, robust, well proportioned, with regular features and bright expression, bespeaking a considerable degree of intelligence. They are industrious agriculturists, but also notorious cattle-lifters, and given to inter-tribal warfare. With a view to quell the disturbances, and establish some kind of orderly administration, the Cape Government sent a mission under Mr. W. Coates Palgrave to the Ova-Mpo and Damara nations in the year 1876. Mr. Palgrave was well received, and much valuable information on the relations of these people was embodied in his report on the results of the mission, published at Cape Town in 1877.

Amongst the Ova-Mpo also dwell a few scattered communities of Bushmen, the Ma-Cuancalas of the early Portuguese settlers. They have been reduced to a state of servitude by the Bantus, who employ them as carriers of ivory and iron and copper ores. The natives understand the art of smelting these ores, from which they manufacture excellent metal ware.

The Boers—Upingtonia

After their withdrawal from Mossamedes, the Boers, under their leader, Mr. Jordan, purchased a tract of country in the Ondango district about a copious spring, the Groot-Fontein, east of Lake Etosha. Here was founded in 1844 their short-lived republic of "Upingtonia," so named in honour of the well-known statesman, Mr. Upington, of Cape Colony. It stretched from Lake Etosha eastwards in the direction of the Ngami basin, and was said to have an area of 20,000 square miles,

parcelled out in allotments of 6000 acres. But although the land was fertile and well watered, the climate was



HILL DAMARA.

malarious, and after the murder of Mr. Jordan, in June 1886, the republic collapsed, the Boer settlers accepting the German protectorate.

The Ova-Herero and Hill Damaras

Damaraland, which comprises the Kaoko highlands, and which extends from the Ovampo territory to Walvisch Bay, is a region of great ethnical confusion. The population is broadly divided into highlanders and lowlanders, the former commonly known as "Hill Damaras," the latter as "Cattle Damaras," or "Damaras of the Plains." This term "Damara," however, which is of Hottentot origin, is rejected by most of the tribes, who are certainly of Bantu stock, and who call themselves Ova-Herero, meaning in their Bantu language the "Merry People." Even the highlanders are regarded by Galton and others as of Bantu stock, though assimilated in speech and some other respects to the Hottentots, and on that account generally supposed to be a branch of that race. Thus Herero and Damara may be taken as practically synonymous terms, though it might be convenient to restrict the former to the true Bantus of the plains, and reserve the latter for the Hottentot-speaking tribes of the uplands.

Traditionally the Ova-Herero reached their present homes about two hundred years ago from the region north of the Cunene, being apparently descended from the Ma-Tamas, who figure on the old maps as the dominant people of the "Great Mataman" kingdom in the south and east of Mossamedes.¹ They passed thence southwards between the Ova-Mpo and the coast to the Kaoko district, where another dispersion took place, some under the name of Ova-Mbandem migrating

¹ Thus on the map of Africa attached to Filippo Pigafetta's *Relazioni del Reame di Congo*, Rome 1591, Matama is placed west of the fabulous empire of Monomotapa, and south of the equally fabulous "Lago Aqueluna" (Aquilunda) east of the present province of Mossamedes.

eastwards in the direction of Lake Ngami, some settling permanently in Kaokoland, while the majority pushed southwards nearly to Walvisch Bay. Here they came into collision with the Hau-Khoin, or "True Hottentots" of the hills, and the warfare thus begun between the two races has been carried on almost incessantly ever since.

About the middle of the present century the Ova-Herero gained a signal victory over the Namaqua by the aid of the Swedish traveller, Andersson, who had accidentally become involved in the fray. But the Namas,



OVA-HERERO WOMAN,
NAMAQUALAND.

being furnished with firearms from the Cape, soon recovered from this disaster, and in the subsequent struggle appear to have more than held their own. In October 1890 their chief Witbooi defeated their hereditary foes in a pitched battle, in which the Herero chief, Epias, was slain. Hitherto the German authorities have abstained from taking any part in these conflicts, their policy being to foment the rivalries of the hostile tribes, and thus prepare the way for European colonisation.

The Ova-Herero, who are even a finer people than the kindred Ova-Mpo, are essentially a pastoral nation divided into numerous tribes or castes (*eanda*), whose headmen acknowledge the authority of the paramount chief of Damaraland. They have long been in close contact with the whites, and many have at least outwardly conformed to the Christian religion preached by the Finnish and other missionaries settled

amongst them. But many pagan practices still survive, and certain forest trees are the object of a kind of worship, being regarded by them as the forefathers of mankind. A peculiarity of the race, shared in even by their cattle, is their dislike of salt, which appears never to be collected by them from the salt-pans, nor ever used as a condiment.

The true aborigines of this region are certainly the Khoi-Khoi (Hottentots), who, jointly with the allied Sans (Bushmen), formerly occupied the whole of South Africa, probably as far north as the Zambesi. But their domain has been gradually encroached upon by the Bantus advancing from the north, and by the European settlers in the extreme south, until it is now reduced to a comparatively narrow enclave in the south-west corner of the continent, roughly limited northwards and eastwards by 20° south latitude and 23° east longitude. North of the Orange River they form two distinct groups, the pure and half-caste Khoi-Khoi of Great Namaqualand, and the more or less mixed Hau-Khoi or Hau-Damop ("True Khoi," or "True Damas") of the Damara uplands north of Walvisch Bay.

These Ova-Zorotu ("Hillmen"), as they are called by their Herero neighbours, are a feeble folk of low stature and weak frames, apparently forming a transition between the true Bushmen, with whom they are often confounded, and the true Hottentots of Namaqualand. Most of them are reduced to a state of bondage by the local stock-breeders, while others are grouped in small communities round about the missionary stations. They have ceased to take any part in the national struggle between the Herero and Namas, and they are now chiefly distinguished by their remarkable musical talent.

The Namas

The Namaqua proper, formerly said to number several hundred thousand, are now reduced to little over 20,000, including 3000 settled in Little Namaqualand south of the Orange River. In German territory they are scattered in small pastoral groups as far north as Walvisch Bay, and from the coast inland to the verge of the Kalahari Desert. In this wide domain they form three main divisions: (1) the *Namas* proper with about twelve tribal subdivisions, the true aborigines of Namaqualand; (2) the *Orlams*,¹ who migrated northwards from the Cape about the beginning of this century, and who form five tribal groups; (3) the *Bastaards*, Dutch-Hottentot half-breeds, also from the Cape, with no tribal divisions, but distributed in five settlements between Walvisch Bay and the Kalahari Desert.

The Hottentot Race and Language

The Namas proper, who are full-blood Khoi-Khoi, may be taken as the most typical branch of the Hottentot² race, not only in Namaqualand, but in the whole of South Africa. They consequently afford the

¹ According to Andersson, *Orlam* is a corruption of the Dutch *O'erland*, that is, "Overland," in reference to their arrival by the *overland* route from the Cape under their famous leader, "Afrikander." The term *Afrikander*, originally applied in a contemptuous sense to the Dutch Hottentot mongrels, has now acquired a more elevated national meaning, indicating the descendants of the Dutch-Huguenot and even of the English settlers; in fact, all native-born colonials are Afrikanders.

² No satisfactory explanation has been given of this word, which already occurs in the earliest records, and which seems to be of onomatopoeic origin, suggested probably to the first European settlers by the jabbering or unintelligible chatter of these natives.

best opportunities for the study of this race, which still remains one of the most difficult problems of African ethnology. Although possessing some traits, such as black woolly hair, broad flat nose and thick everted lips, in common with the Negro, other peculiarities, both physical and mental, require them to be separated from that race. Such are especially a yellowish-brown complexion, extreme dolichocephaly, somewhat oblique brown eyes, and excessively prominent cheek-bones, which, combined with a pointed chin, gives to the face a decided triangular shape. To these must be added some other highly characteristic racial features, such as very large lobeless ears, steatopygia, and the *tablier*, where it is to be remarked that such features, though very prevalent, are not universal amongst the Hottentots, while they are constant amongst all Bushman women. The two languages also have in common those peculiar utterances known as "clicks," which no European can pronounce, and which seem to hold a middle position between articulate and inarticulate speech. Here again the "clicks," restricted to four in Hottentot, are almost unlimited in Bushman,¹ so that the conversation of a group of these natives resembles the cackling of geese to the European ear. On these and other grounds—low stature, analogous usages, weapons, traditions and the like—it may, perhaps, be inferred that the Bushmen are the true aboriginal element in South Africa, and that the Hottentots are fundamentally Bushmen, modified by crossings with the Negro and Negroid peoples advancing from the north, and partly exterminating, partly absorbing the primitive populations.

Apart from the "clicks," the Hottentot language

¹ They occur in no other known language except the Zulu-Kafir, which, however, possesses three only, evidently borrowed from Hottentot.

presents some other remarkable characters, which are as great a puzzle to philologists as the race itself is to the anthropologist. Notwithstanding the debased condition of the people themselves, their speech is so highly developed, both in its rich phonetic system, as represented by a very delicately graduated series of vowels and diphthongs, and in its varied grammatical structure, that Lepsius sought for its affinities in the Egyptian, at the other extremity of the continent. But this relationship, which would place it on a level with the Hamitic group of languages, has not been established, and Hottentot remains without any known congeners either in Africa or elsewhere. Like the Indo-Chinese family, it possesses tones by which different meanings are imparted to the same word; like the Aryan tongues, it has a true objective (accusative) case clearly indicated by the endings in the singular, dual and plural; lastly, like the very highest orders of speech (Aryan, Semitic, and Hamitic), and unlike any other known linguistic group, it has evolved true grammatical gender, marked by distinct endings for the masculine, feminine and neuter of all three numbers. No satisfactory theory has yet been suggested to account for such phenomenal perfection in the structure of a language spoken by one of the most degraded ethnical groups still surviving in any part of the world.

As an essentially pastoral people, the Nama Hottentots are distinguished on the one hand from the Bushmen, who live exclusively by the chase, on the other from the Negro people, and the great majority of the Bantus, who are mainly, though not exclusively, agriculturists. The national garb is the well-known *kaross*, or sheepskin, worn with the woolly side out in summer and reversed in winter. It is supplemented by the *okhubib* or apron

reaching below the knees, and usually embellished with glass beads. A conic bonnet of zebra skin was at one time common, while the body is still smeared with a mixture of grease and a reddish powder, producing an almost intolerable odour.

The Nama huts are frail structures of matting, supported by a light framework of branches, and bound together by cordage made of tendons or mimosa bark. They are weighted with stones against high winds, and protected from animals by a thorny fence. These huts



NAMA HUTS.

are carried from one camping ground to another by those clans which still lead a nomad existence, while others are permanently grouped round the missionary stations. All the Orlams, and most of the other tribes, have already been converted, mostly by Protestant missionaries. But under the outward form of Christianity many old superstitions survive, and the *Heitzi-Eibib*, or great spirit, is still alternately rewarded with offerings or overwhelmed with maledictions, according as he shows himself propitious or hostile to the community. Like many other nomads, they welcome the stranger with a show of hospitality, but once beyond their district he is regarded

as lawful prey. Polygamy, although accepted in theory, is rare, and even the widower is said seldom to marry again. The tribal government, as with most pastoral peoples, is of a somewhat patriarchal character; but the hereditary chiefs, now usually bearing such Christian names as Barnabas, Simon, David, Andrew, etc., are kept under control by a council of elders, by whom all pains and penalties are awarded.

Table of the Chief Tribes in German South-West Africa

OVA-MPO GROUPS (OVAMPOLAND)

Avaré; Okafima (Okafina); Ova-Kwangama; Ova-Mbarandu (O-Mblandu); Great and Little O-Mbanja; O-Rundu-Konutwe; O-Karuthi (O-Kwaludi); Ova-Kwambi (O-Kwambi); Ova-Nganjéra (Gangera); Ova-Mpo (O-Ndonga); Ma-Cuancalla.

OVA-HERERO GROUPS (DAMARA LOWLANDS)

Kamaherero; Therawa (Zerawa); Kavingava; Cambathembe (Kambazembi); Kamaretti (Kamureti); Kandjye (Kandyii); Omugunda; Ova-Mbanderu; Kukuri; Ova-Tyimba.

Note.—All but the last three are named from their headmen.

These are the Cattle, or Lowland, Damaras of English writers; the Kamagha Damaras of the Hottentots.

Hau-Khoin, <i>i.e.</i> "True Hottentots,"	}	(Damara Uplands).
or		
Hau-Damop, <i>i.e.</i> "True Damaras."		

Note.—These are the Hill Damaras of English writers; the Ova-Zorotu of the Hereros. They are not "true Hottentots," but rather Hottentot-speaking Bantus (Hereros) with a strain of Hottentot blood.

NAMA GROUPS (NAMAQUALAND)

I.—Pure Namas (full-blood Hottentots); Geikou ("Red Men"); Topnaar; Khoro-oa; Khogei; Ogei; Khan-Goa; Karagei-Khoi; Gaminu (Bondlezwaarts); Habobe (Velschoen-drager); Gunungu ("Lowlanders").

II.—Orlams (Hottentots from Cape Colony); Eishaai; Kuwisi; Ama; Khaus; Gobabi (Gei-Khaus).

III.—Bastaards; Dutch-Hottentot half-breeds from the Cape. No tribal divisions.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO RACES (1894)

Ova-Mpo	100,000
Ova-Herero	70,000
Hau-Khoin	20,000
Namas proper	10,000
Orlams	4,000
Bastaards	1,000
Bushmen	2,000
Whites	1,200
Total	208,200

German Policy—Prospects of the Colony

Even before the German occupation, both the Namas and Hereros appear to have been steadily decreasing, and this tendency has been stimulated by the action of their present rulers. It was reported in Berlin, in December 1890, that the officers of the German force stationed in Damaraland had bought up the stores of the insolvent German Colonial Company, and are at present carrying on a flourishing trade with the natives, "bartering," amongst other things, "alcoholic liquors and ammunition."

As soon as the indigenous element are sufficiently thinned down by these and similar processes, the intention is to introduce white settlers wherever the conditions are favourable for European colonisation. Imperial aid has already been obtained for this purpose, and one of the items in the Foreign Office estimates for 1893-94 is a vote of £13,600 for the German Colonies in South-west Africa, including £5000 "towards establishing German farmers in those regions."

No settlements of this sort can be formed in great Namaqualand, that is, anywhere south of Walvisch Bay, although this is the very region where treaty rights were first secured by Herr Lüderitz, and which for a time

was known as Lüderitzland. So far back as 1819 Moffat had described it as a country yielding much sand and stones, with a scattered population baked like toast in a broiling sun. Later, Andersson, who had traversed it in all directions, declared that, not even excepting the Sahara, there was probably on the surface of the globe no region of equal extent so thinly peopled, so barren, so unproductive. "It is in the strictest sense of the word a cursed land." The Imperial Commissioner himself, Dr. Nachtigal, was obliged to confirm these descriptions, while the mission sent out in 1885 to study the resources of Lüderitzland concluded that there was nothing to justify the hopes that had been entertained regarding Herr Lüderitz's "brilliant colonial scheme."¹ In 1894 the imports were £45,000; exports, £6500; revenue, £52,000, mostly from Imperial funds.

Some agricultural settlements might be established in Ovampoland, but for the malarious climate and the competition of the settled Ova-Mpo populations, who are too numerous and too intelligent to be got rid of by the "civilising agencies" introduced by German officials and speculators. Consequently there is no future for any part of the German protectorate except Damaraland, which might afford support to a limited number of European stock-breeders. But even here there are many serious drawbacks. Standing feuds continue to prevail amongst the hostile Bantu and Hottentot populations; cattle-lifting raids are a normal condition of these feuds; the coastlands are mostly sandy and unproductive, while there is no access to the fine grazing grounds of the plateau except through the British enclave of Walvisch Bay.

¹ *Petermann's Mittheilungen*, 1886, viii. p. 238.

Seaports and Inland Stations

In German territory the only harbours are *Ogden* on the Damara coast, about 180 miles south of Cape Frio, formed by a line of coral reefs which enclose a tolerably safe sheet of water, but of difficult access and surrounded by an arid waste; *Sandwich Haven* (*Porto do Ilheo*), just south of Walvisch Bay, well sheltered from all winds, but very small and in danger of being choked by the silting sands; lastly, *Angra Pequena*, on the Namaqua coast, somewhat more than midway between Walvisch Bay and the Orange River. Despite its name, meaning in Portuguese "Little Bay," *Angra Pequena* is a spacious island-studded inlet penetrating five miles inland, with good anchorage in seven or eight fathoms of water, protected from all except the north winds. But the great hopes regarding the future prosperity of this port have not been realised. It lies in a barren district absolutely destitute of fresh water beyond the turbid stream occasionally sent down by the Little Orange River during the rainy season. Hence no trade has been developed except in a little fish, minerals, and cattle, and the German factory established here in 1887 has already been abandoned. The neighbouring islets of *Ichaboe* and *Halifax* are frequented by myriads of aquatic birds, and yield considerable quantities of guano, which in some years is shipped to the value of £20,000.

In the interior of the German possessions there are no towns of any kind nor even any permanent centres of population, beyond a few missionary stations scattered about the whole region and some trading-places in the northern provinces. Such are *Omaruru*, the chief market of the Hereros, some miles north of Walvisch Bay;

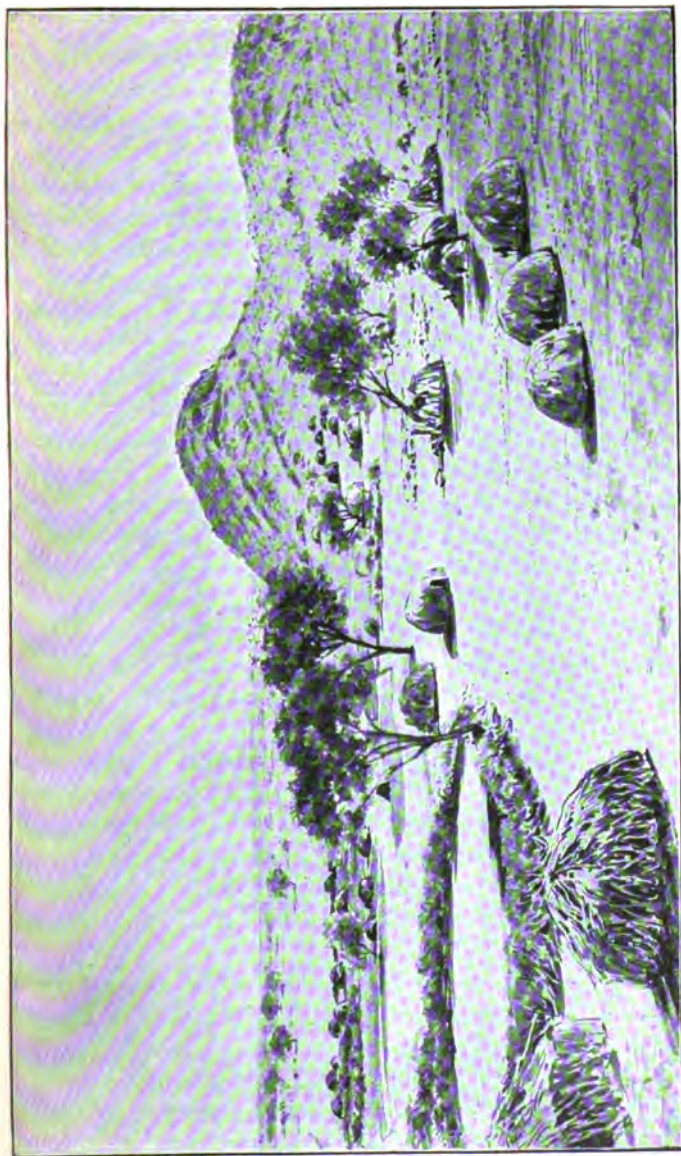
Otyimbingue, on the Tsoakhub; *Okahanja* and *Otyikango* (*New Barmen*), on the upper course of the same river; *Reboboth*, in the Kuisip basin. All these places are disposed round about Walvisch Bay, which is the only possible outlet for their trade. In Namaqualand the only settlements are the missionary stations of *Bethany*, on the plateau due east of Angra Pequana, *Nisbet's Bath* (*Warmbad*), on a little affluent of the Orange River, and the new agricultural station of *Stolzenfels*, on the north bank of the Orange below the Hundred Falls.

Administration

In German South-West Africa the Imperial authority scarcely extends beyond the coastlands, which are under the jurisdiction of the "Deutsche-Kolonial Gesellschaft für Südwest Afrika." The protectorate forms the two administrative regions of Deutsch-Namaland in the south and Deutsch-Damaraland in the north, the whole being under the nominal authority of an Imperial Commissioner. In 1892 a concession was granted to an Anglo-German Company to work the mines in the northern part of the territory.

Walvisch Bay

The British enclave of Walvisch Bay lies about exactly midway between the Cunene and Orange estuaries. It has a total area of some 700 square miles, though the actual limits have not yet been determined, being reserved, with the question of a disputed German right-of-way through the south-eastern corner, for future settlement. The importance of this question lies in the fact that the



OKAHANJA—KAMAHERERO'S KRAAL.

contested district gives access from the German station of Sandwich Haven to the interior, and also contains the only supply of fresh water to be had within a radius of 100 miles.

The geographical and political importance of Walvisch Bay can scarcely be overrated. It gives direct access to the two great watercourses Tsoakhub and Kuisip, which here converge from the north-east and south-east; it is thus practically the only natural outlet for a region some 400,000 square miles in extent, stretching from the seaboard inland to Zambesia, and from Angola southwards to Cape Colony. The whole of this region is at the mercy of the political masters of Walvisch Bay, which in the hands of an alien Power might serve as a convenient base of operations directed against the British possessions between the Zambesi and Orange Rivers.

At present this vitally important strategical point is an administrative dependency of the Cape, and it is politically held by England in trust for her future South African empire, the consolidation of which has already begun. Hence it is not surprising that both the Imperial and Colonial Governments are at one as regards the policy of holding this commodious naval station and declining to treat with Germany for its surrender on any terms. If Germany cannot retain profitable possession of her hastily, perhaps rashly, acquired South-West African protectorate without Walvisch Bay, she must abandon it, for Great Britain cannot certainly afford to abandon Walvisch Bay.

The harbour, easily approached by a channel four fathoms deep, affords good anchorage in depths of four to five fathoms, and is completely sheltered from all winds except those blowing from the north-west, which are rare on this seaboard. It takes its name from the whales



20°

18°

Longitude East of Greenwich.

which formerly abounded in the neighbouring waters, but which are now rarely seen. The ostrich and elephant, at one time numerous on the surrounding grassy uplands, have also disappeared, so that the ivory and feathers formerly shipped at this port have now given place to hides and cattle exported chiefly to the Cape. Since the German occupation of Damaraland, Walvisch Bay has been declared a free port for all exchanges with Europe and the colonies. It has thus retained the foreign trade which might else have been diverted to the neighbouring German station of Sandwich Haven.

The Walvisch Bay territory is inhabited by the Topnaar tribe, who are a branch of the Nama Hottentots.

CHAPTER VI

CAPE COLONY

Extent, Boundaries, Coast-line—Dependencies, Areas, Populations—Historical Survey; the Portuguese Pioneers—The Dutch in South Africa—The English in South Africa—The Kafir Wars; Kafir Genealogies—Geographical Research—Physical Features—The Karroos—River Systems—The Orange Basin—Climate—Flora—Fauna—The Native Populations—The Cape Hottentots—The Bantus—The Ba-Sutos—The Kafirs—The Bushmen—Chief Tribal Divisions—Towns and Stations—Railway Development—Griqualand West and its Diamond Fields—Resources: Tillage, Pasturage, Industries, Trade—Education, Finance, Religion, Communications—Administration—Political Forecast; Confederation.

Extent—Boundaries—Coast-line

EVER since the permanent occupation of the southern extremity of the Continent by Great Britain at the beginning of the present century, the expression Cape Colony has almost continuously undergone a modification of meaning nearly always in the direction of enlargement.

At first restricted to the original Dutch settlements on the seaboard, limited east by the Great Fish River, it was gradually extended northwards to the Orange, then eastwards successively to the Kei, the Umtata, and the

Umzimkulu rivers, until, either by peaceful annexation or conquest, the whole region has been absorbed, which is conterminous in the north-west with German South-West Africa, in the north-east with the British colony of Natal and the Orange Free State, in the north with the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and at one point with the south-west corner of Transvaal.

The northern frontier coincides with the course of the Orange to the 20th meridian, where a conventional line is drawn northwards and eastwards round to the Vaal, so as to enclose the trans-Orange districts of Bechuanaland and Griqualand West. Then it is deflected along the Free State border southwards to the Orange just above Hope Town, whence it follows that river to the Basuto plateau, where it again turns north to the Caledon, which forms the boundary to its source at the Natal frontier. Here the frontier line is marked by the crest of the main Drakenberg range to the source of the Umzimkulu, whence to the Indian Ocean the boundary is conterminous with that of Natal.

Between the Orange and Umzimkulu estuaries there is a total coast-line of over 1200 miles, washed in the west by the Atlantic, in the south by the Indian Ocean, and broken by several bold headlands, such as, going eastwards, Cape Castle, Cape of Good Hope, Danger Point, Cape Agulhas, southernmost land of the Continent, Cape St. Francis and Cape Recife. These headlands enclose a number of open inlets or exposed roadsteads, such as St. Helena Bay, Table Bay, False Bay, Mossel Bay, Plettenbergs Bay, and Algoa Bay, besides one really good natural haven, Saldanha Bay, just south of St. Helena Bay on the Atlantic. Like most of the African seaboard, the coast is also absolutely destitute of any islands, with the solitary exception of

the small Robben Island in Table Bay, a little north of Cape Town, interesting to zoologists for its peculiar fauna.

Dependencies—Areas—Populations

Within the above-described frontiers are included, not only Cape Colony proper, which is mainly limited eastwards by the Kei river, and which has long enjoyed parliamentary representation with a responsible ministry, but also certain outlying dependencies almost exclusively inhabited by native populations, which still enjoy a measure of self-government, but without representation in the Cape Parliament. These dependencies, which have continually fluctuated in extent, and even in name, during the progress of conquest or annexation since the middle of the present century, comprise, besides the Crown Colony of Basutoland on the Free State frontier, the whole seaboard between the Cape¹ and Natal. From their geographical position beyond the Kei, they are officially known as the "Transkeian Territories," while from the dominant race the whole region takes the name of Kaffraria or Kafirland.

Including these satellites and the recently incorporated districts of Griqualand West and Bechuanaland² beyond the Orange River, Cape Colony constitutes a compact imperial dominion nearly 600 miles long from ocean to ocean, and 450 miles broad between the Orange River

¹ In accordance with a convenient and historic use of the word, the term "Cape," that is "Cape of Good Hope," will here be taken as synonymous with Cape Colony, whose official title is "Colony of the Cape of Good Hope."

² The colony of Bechuanaland recently incorporated with the Cape is described in chap. viii. together with the Bechuanaland Protectorate.

and the south coast, with a total area of about 230,000 square miles, and a heterogeneous population of nearly 2,000,000 as under:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Population (1891).
Cape Colony proper with Griqualand West	263,400	1,053,000
Transkei proper, with Fingoland, Idutywa Reserve, and Gcalekaland	2,500	154,000
Tembuland proper with Bomvanaland and Emigrant Tembuland	4,000	180,000
Griqualand East, with Port St. John's territory, Noumansland, and the Gatberg	7,500	152,000
Pondoland	3,600	200,000
Basutoland, Crown Colony	10,300	220,000
Total	291,300	1,959,000

Historical Survey—The Portuguese Pioneers

It is noteworthy that the Portuguese, by whom the whole of the South African seaboard was first surveyed, seldom attempted to found any permanent settlements south of Angola on the west and Sofala on the east coast. After discovering the Congo estuary in 1482, they penetrated boldly into the austral seas, advancing so rapidly that in 1486 Bartholomew Diaz had already reached and doubled the conspicuous headland at the south-western extremity of the Continent. Owing to the fierce winds which here retarded his further progress eastwards to Algoa Bay, he named this headland *Cabo dos Tormentos* ("Stormy Cape"); but his sovereign, John II., who already divined the vast importance of the discovery for the development of Portuguese power and commerce in the eastern seas, changed this for the more auspicious designation of *Cabo de Boa Esperanza* ("Cape of Good Hope"), which it has since retained.

No further advance was made till the year 1497,

when the Cape was again doubled by Vasco de Gama, who coasted the southern shores of the Continent, and opened the direct route to the East Indies. America had been discovered five years previously, and twenty-four years later the circumnavigation of the globe was completed by the Magellan expedition. These memorable events ushered in the modern era of European expansion, which was destined to embrace the whole world, but which was longest resisted in the African Continent. The arrival of the Portuguese in the eastern waters was rapidly followed by the overthrow of Arab ascendancy in the Indian Ocean, and by the occupation of innumerable trading stations in the Persian Gulf, India, and Malaysia; nearly the whole of Central and South America was in the same way overrun and occupied by the Conquistadores within a few decades of the discovery. But for centuries no progress was made in Africa beyond the establishment of a few factories and slave markets round the seaboard. Even in the extreme south, with a climate and environment analogous to those of the Mediterranean regions themselves, no settlements of any kind were made for nearly 150 years after Vasco de Gama's voyage to the East.

During this intermediate period, however, the Cape continued to be a port of call or victualling station for the Portuguese and the other seafaring nations on their long voyages to the eastern seas. The whole seaboard was also roughly surveyed by the Portuguese, as is sufficiently evident from Livio Sanuto's *Geografia* and accompanying charts published in 1588, and Pigafetta's Map of Africa (1591), where the nomenclature is exclusively Portuguese from the Congo estuary on the west to the "Bocas de Cuamas" (Zambesi delta) on the east coast. Much of this terminology still remains, whence

the occurrence of such names as Cabo Frio, Angra Pequena, St. Helena and Saldanha Bays, False (Falso) Bay, Cape Agulhas, Algoa and Delagoa Bays, Natal (Terra do Natal), Cape Delgado, etc., on a seaboard most of which was never occupied by a single Portuguese station.

The Dutch in South Africa

Before the close of the sixteenth century the Dutch, following in the track of Vasco de Gama, had found their way to the East. But although the account of their first voyage of 1595, published at Amsterdam in 1609, already contains a notice of the "Hottentot" aborigines, they made no attempt to occupy any territory at that time. It was significant for the future political destinies of this region that the first actual occupation of the Cape was made in 1620 by two passing ships of the English East India Company in the name of England. But this formal act of possession was not ratified by the British Government, and the first permanent settlement was effected by the Dutch in 1652. Four years previously a Dutch vessel had been shipwrecked on the coast of Table Bay, and some of the crew while waiting to be rescued had occupied their time in exploring the district. Induced by their report, the Dutch East India Company sent out a few settlers under Jan Anthon van Riebeeck, who built a small fort and laid down the very lines along which the future capital of South Africa was developed at the north foot of Table Mountain, on the south side of Table Bay.

The Dutch remained for over 140 years in undisturbed possession of this vitally important station on the ocean highway between Europe and the East. Till

about the year 1700 the settlement was confined to a small district enclosed by a curved line drawn from the mouth of the Oliphant River southwards to False Bay. But during the eighteenth century the territory was gradually extended eastwards to the Gamtoos River, at that time forming the boundary between the Hottentot and Kafir races, and thence, in 1786, to the Great Fish River.

The first Boers,¹ or peasant farmers, mainly Dutch, with a few Germans, had begun to arrive as early as 1654, and after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) they were joined by a considerable number of French Huguenots, as well as other Protestants (Waldenses) from the Piedmontese Alpine valleys. Owing to their great intelligence, energy, and agricultural skill, these immigrants took a leading part in the development of the colony, and to them is especially due the successful introduction of viniculture. Having brought their families with them, they increased more rapidly than the Dutch, many of whom were officials and soldiers who had intermarried with the native women and given rise to the still existing mongrel element commonly known as "Bastaards." Nevertheless, the French and other non-Dutch settlers were gradually absorbed in the dominant race after the year 1724, when all languages except Dutch were officially banished from the school and the pulpit. Thousands of the present Boers, however, are still proud of their Huguenot descent, and numerous family and geographical names remain to attest the former widespread influence of the French settlers.

¹ Boer, pronounced *bār*, is the same word as the German *Bauer* and English *boor*, in its undegraded original meaning of a free peasant farmer; from a Teutonic root *bu*, as seen in the Anglo-Saxon *buan*=to till, cultivate, dwell, etc.

Almost from the first the attitude of the Boers towards the natives was characteristic of the policy persistently adhered to by them throughout the whole of their colonial history. They began by purchasing their lands from the "Quaiquæ," *i.e.* Khoi-Khoïn (Hottentots), who were in exclusive possession of the whole region east to the Gamtoos, and north to and beyond the Orange River. Then, as they grew more powerful, the squatters dispossessed the original owners, passing at last to the extreme measure of retaining them as slaves to till the land. But the Hottentots, being essentially a pastoral people, proved indifferent agriculturists, and were gradually replaced by Negroes or Bantus, mainly from the east coast, hence to this day known in the colony by the general name of "Mozambiques." This foreign slave trade began within ten years of the foundation of the settlement, and at first was carried on so extensively that for a time the blacks outnumbered the free peasantry. Later the importation of Negro labour fell off, so that at the time of the emancipation (1833) not more than 25,000 were found scattered over the agricultural districts. Most of these have since been absorbed in the mongrel class, the constituent elements of which are therefore Whites, Hottentots, and Blacks, not Whites and Hottentots alone, as is commonly supposed.

These social relations, combined with other causes, tended to promote another movement, which proved to be of great importance in the future evolution of South African politics. The settlement had originally been founded merely as a "factory" or fortified trading station, with no view to the acquisition of land beyond what might be required to raise supplies for the garrison and officials, and for victualling vessels plying between

Holland and the Company's eastern possessions. But when the prosperous plantations round about the station became over-stocked and over-peopled by substantial burghers fretting under the heavy taxes and arbitrary measures of the colonial governors, the desire to escape from their jurisdiction irresistibly drove the settlers to move landwards in search of "fresh fields and pastures new." Despite all the efforts of the officials to keep them concentrated in the small coast district round about the Cape,¹ the movement continued to spread until these pioneers of South African colonisation at last reached Graaf Reynet in the north-east, and the Great Fish River beyond the frontier of the Kafir domain, some 500 miles from Table Bay.

Thus also was acquired that restless spirit, by which, under the stimulus of various political and social causes, the forward movement has been continued down to the present time, until the primitive Boer element has been thinly diffused throughout the greater part of South Africa from the Cape northwards to the Cunene, and north-eastwards to the Limpopo. This element has thus

¹ So anxious were the authorities to prevent the settlers from leaving the lands assigned to them, that edicts were frequently issued forbidding them to "trek" under pain of death and confiscation of their property. They were in fact regarded as rebels, and the policy pursued towards them was mainly dictated by the fear of complications with the natives caused by the trekkers encroaching on their territories. The small garrison maintained at Cape Castle was at no time strong enough to protect the settlement from a combined attack by the inland tribes. The reduction of these tribes and the creation of a colony in the strict sense of the term had never occurred to the Dutch East India Company, which continued to regard the Cape merely as a port of call and convenient victualling station on the route to the Eastern Archipelago. Hence down to the British occupation it was still officially known as "The Cape," and so it continues to be known to this day, no comprehensive territorial expression having ever been applied to a dominion which at present covers an area of over 200,000 square miles.

gained in expansion what it has lost in concentration ; but the expansion itself has become its main source of weakness, rendering it less capable of resisting the absorbing tendencies of the more energetic and progressive British race.

Another result was a change of social condition. As the trekkers penetrated from the arable coastlands to the drier inland plateaux, they found the soil everywhere less suitable for tillage, and they thus necessarily passed from the agricultural to the pastoral state. This again became a bar to the development of large centres of population, so that in the Transvaal, for instance, the Boer live-stock breeders are already outnumbered by the British settlers, attracted by the discovery of extensive gold-fields in that region. The influx of these settlers has also tended to raise the value of the land, in consequence of which the Boers have been tempted to part with large tracts to purchasers willing to pay them remunerative prices. Thus the very land tends to change hands, while the younger generations are compelled to learn the English language in order to compete on equal terms with their rivals in the struggle for existence. In this way the uncultivated Dutch dialect sinks more and more to the position of a rude provincial *patois*, the disappearance of which can only be a question of time. But its extinction means absorption in the dominant race, so that the whole current of events since the beginning of the century has tended to merge racial and linguistic differences in a homogeneous English-speaking South African nationality.¹

¹ Where two languages are current, literature is the best test of their relative position, and South African literature is essentially English. Thus in 1875 English newspapers and other periodicals were already six times more numerous than Dutch, and since then the proportion has

The English in South Africa

With the growth of the British Empire in the far East the attention of English statesmen had been more and more directed towards the most convenient station for provisioning purposes on the ocean highway between London and Calcutta. A first attempt made in 1780 to seize the Cape was frustrated by a French fleet under Suffren. But a more favourable opportunity presented itself in 1795, when the French revolutionists having occupied Holland, the settlers hoisted the flag of independence, and looked to England for protection. The colony was accordingly occupied by a British fleet on behalf of the Prince of Orange, at that time a refugee in London. After its restoration to Holland (the "Batavian Republic") at the Peace of Amiens in 1802, it was again occupied in 1806, after the renewal of the Napoleonic wars, and since that time it has formed an integral part of the British Empire.

Under the English administration the progress of the colony has been continuous, if not always rapid. Its natural development was retarded at first by contentions with the burghers, chiefly in connection with the questions of slavery and taxation, leading at one time to open revolt (1815), and giving a fresh impulse to the trek movement. At the time of the British occupation, the total population was about 75,000, composed in nearly equal parts of burghers,¹ pure and mixed Hottentot even become greater. In the Cape all educated Boers speak English, and their somewhat rude Dutch speech is thus yearly acquiring the character of a mere *patois*.

¹ In South Africa there is practically little difference between the terms *burgher* and *boer*. In its narrower sense, the former is restricted to those enjoying full rights of citizenship, with the privilege of bearing arms in defence of their country.

serfs, and Negro slaves. But the burghers regarded themselves literally as "the chosen people," with a divine, consequently an indefeasible, right to the ownership of "the cursed children of Ham." Here their religious prepossessions and material interests were in complete harmony, and they accordingly offered the most strenuous resistance to the movement for the emancipation of the slaves in the British possessions, which was at that time the watchword of English philanthropy. Nevertheless, they might have accepted the situation when slavery was abolished in 1833, had the legal compensation, three-fifths of the market value of their human chattel, been promptly paid. But the remissness of the Government in this and other matters created such widespread discontent that they prepared to break up their homes and remove with their families, slaves, and herds beyond the jurisdiction of the British authorities. Thus began the so-called "Great Trek"¹ about the year 1834, when thousands of pastoral Boers plunged into the wilds of South Central Africa, crossing the Orange, the Vaal, and even the great Drakenberg Border Range, and after sanguinary collisions with the warlike Zulu nation, founding the temporary state of Natalia and the republics of the Orange Free State and Transvaal.

Meantime systematic British emigration, at first promoted by State aid, had begun in 1820, when 4000 selected English farmers landed at Port Elizabeth, on Algoa Bay, and founded flourishing agricultural settlements in the Graham's Town district, on the eastern frontier of the colony. Others soon followed, so that as

¹ *Trek* has nothing to do with the English *track*, as in the slang expression "to make tracks." The Dutch *trekken* is the English *drag*, *draw*, and especially to draw a cart or waggon; hence to travel by waggon, to migrate in search of new settlements. The movement was always made by means of huge waggons drawn by long teams of oxen.

the Boers moved northwards from their scanty settlements in the Gamtoos and Great Fish River valleys, the vacated lands were occupied by British settlers. Thus it happened that for a time the colony was divided into an eastern or British, and a western or Dutch division. But a process of fusion has long been going on, and while Cape Town, in the west, has already become almost an English city, in some of the eastern districts the majority of voters are of Boer descent. And here it should be observed that, despite the prevalent popular opinion to the contrary, there is no real antagonism between the English and Dutch burghers. Both are fundamentally of the same hardy Germanic stock; the higher political aspirations and social interests of both are practically identical; and as a matter of fact the opposition of the Boers always has been directed, not against their English fellow-citizens, but against the too often arbitrary measures of the British administration. They had suffered so much under their own rulers in pre-British times, that they had learnt to detest all government, and they were naturally somewhat slow to perceive that an organised alien administration, mainly just if at times vacillating, was preferable, with all its shortcomings, to the absence of all control.¹

The Kafir Wars—Kafir Genealogies

Even before the arrival of the first English settlers, the British Government had come into collision with the

¹ At a recent meeting of the Imperial Federation League, Sir Gordon Sprigg paid a just tribute to the natural intelligence and political capacity of the South African Boers, whom he spoke of as men of "wonderful political aptitude," not certainly possessing much "acquaintance with books," but by no means "ignorant," and often even better speakers in the Cape Parliament than the English members.—*Times*, January 15, 1891.

fierce Kafir (Ama-Xosa) tribes on the eastern frontier of the colony. During a period of over half a century (1811-1877) history records as many as six so-called "Kafir wars," usually brought on either by official errors or by cattle-lifting raids and other depredations on the part of the aggressive native populations, and invariably ending in their discomfiture, followed by the inevitable confiscation of fresh territory, and resulting in the virtual extension of the eastern frontier from the Great Fish River to the borders of Natal.

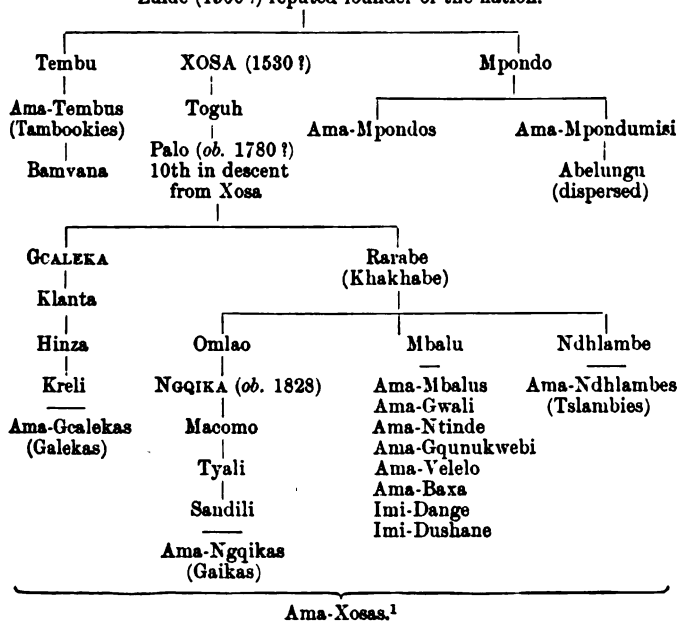
Two of these wars, those of 1811 and 1818, had already taken place before the occupation of the eastern province by English squatters, and the second was mainly due to a serious blunder, which lay at the root of most of the subsequent troubles, but the nature of which it is impossible to understand without some reference to the tribal relations, and even to the genealogies of the Kafir¹ nation. Like the Highland clans (Macdonalds, Macphersons, MacCallum Mores, etc.), all the Kafir tribes are assumed to be blood-relations, and consequently take their several tribal designations, not from the land but from their chiefs, the reputed founders of their respective

¹ The Arabic term Kāfir, كافر, meaning "infidel," or "unbeliever," is of course unknown to the natives themselves. It has no ethnical value of any kind, being indiscriminately applied by the Mohammedans to all non-Moslem peoples with whom they come in contact. Hence there are Siah-posh Kafirs ("Black-clad infidels") in Kafiristan ("Land of the Infidels") in Central Asia, while all the Pagan populations on the east coast of Africa were collectively called Kafirs (Caffres, Cafres, Kaffres, etc.) by the Moors (Arabs) when the Portuguese first reached those regions. De Barros himself uses the word in this sense, and speaks, for instance, of "os Cafres" employed "nestas minas de Manica," in those (gold) mines of Manica. Dec. I. Book x. ch. 1, p. 376. In a more restricted sense the term is now applied by English writers exclusively to the native populations of Kafirland (Kaffraria), that is, the whole seaboard between Natal and Cape Colony.

groups. Thus the Ama-Xosas, for instance, are a people claiming common descent from a chief, Xosa, supposed to have flourished at some former period, whose name is preserved in the national traditions.

But all the Kafirs south of Zululand, except the Ama-Tembus, Ama-Mpondos, and Ama-Fingus, do actually trace their descent in two collateral lines from this very mythical hero; consequently all are Ama-Xosas, and this term becomes nearly coextensive with Kafir, as used by English writers. Then the paramount authority belongs, according to national usage, to the chiefs of the elder branch and their lineal descendants, in this instance Gcaleka, Klanta, Hinza, Kreli. To these are subordinate those of the younger branch, Khakhabe, Omlao, Ngqika (Gaika), Macomo, Tyali, Sandili, and the various septs are, for the time being, Gcaleka's, Kreli's, Ngqika's, Sandili's, etc., though the reigning chief's name may at times be overshadowed by the traditional greatness of some previous chief, such as Gcaleka, Ngqika, etc. Here it will be convenient for purposes of reference to give the complete genealogical table of all the Ama-Xosa tribes, as preserved in their oral records:—

Zuide (1500 ?) reputed founder of the nation.*



From this table it is evident that Lord Charles Somerset, governor of the colony, made a great mistake when in 1817 he recognised Ngqika of the younger (Khakhabe) branch as paramount lord of the Ama-Xosas, the true head chief being Hinza, second in descent from Gcaleka of the elder branch. The blunder led to the

¹ A. H. Keane, *Encyc. Brit.*, new ed., art. "Kaffraria." The apparently redundant consonants in some of these names are orthographic expedients to express the three click sounds of the Zulu-Kafir language. Thus the *c* in Gcaleka, the *q* in Ngqika, and the *x* of Xosa represent the dental, palatal, and lateral clicks respectively, and are uttered by thrusting forward and then suddenly withdrawing the tongue from the front teeth, the palate, and the side teeth. Note also that *r* expresses the guttural *kh*; hence Rarabi = Khakhabi. There is no *r* sound in Zulu-Kafir, where, as in Chinese, it is replaced by *l*.

war of 1818-19, which after much bloodshed terminated with the outlawry of Hinza and of his ally Ndhlambe, and the annexation of the district between Koonap Kat and the Great Fish River.

After Ngqika's death in 1828, and during the minority of his son Sandili, his half-brothers Macomo and Tyali claimed the paramount lordship. But the consequent tribal feuds and vacillating action of the central government brought about the terrible war of 1834-35, in which Colonel (afterwards Sir Harry) Smith greatly distinguished himself, and which was followed by the annexation of all the country as far as the Kei River. Then came the long series of hostilities known as the "War of the Axe" (1846-1848), in which the power of Sandili and of his Tembu allies was greatly reduced, and the district between the Keiskamma and the Kei definitely annexed under the name of "British Kaffraria," in contradistinction to the Kafirland of the still independent tribes. But when the whole region was finally reduced this expression fell into disuse, having no further political significance, just as we no longer speak of "British Burma," since the annexation of the whole of the Burman empire in 1885.

An attempt made in 1850 to depose and capture Sandili gave occasion to the most formidable of all the Kafir wars, in which both Gaikas and Gcalekas took part, and which spread even to the Hottentot tribes of the Kat River and other districts. It was conducted on the British side first by Sir Harry Smith, and afterwards by General Cathcart, the latter bringing it to a successful issue by the defeat of the paramount Gcaleka chief, Kreli, in 1853. But hostilities broke out again in 1856 and in 1863, and it was on the former occasion that occurred the memorable episode which for ever broke the power

of the Gcaleka nation. Despairing of further resistance by natural means, they allowed themselves to be beguiled by the false prophet Mhlakaza,¹ who announced the speedy resurrection of all their legendary heroes and their own rejuvenescence, on the condition of showing their faith by the voluntary sacrifice of all their effects, their weapons alone excepted. Then followed the wholesale destruction of their cattle, their standing crops and general stores, which were also to be restored in greater abundance than ever. But while waiting for these revivals, fully one-third of the whole nation perished of want, and the rest were reduced to a state of absolute destitution. The frontier of Cape Colony proper was permanently advanced to the Kei River, and some 2000 German immigrants were settled on the depopulated lands of the broken Kafir tribes.

Nevertheless fresh troubles occurred in 1877, when the Gcalekas, joined by the Gaikas, attacked their hereditary foes, the low-caste Ama-Fingoes, who since 1835 had been under British protection. These disturbances having been quelled by the intervention of the imperial troops, all further serious resistance was at an end, and orderly government was extended to the semi-independent nations of Kafirland proper by mutual agreement, orders in council, proclamations, or other peaceful means.

The Ama-Xosa confederacy was finally broken up by the deposition of the paramount chief, Kreli, in 1877, when the territory between the Kei and the Bashi Rivers was constituted a distinct administrative province under the name of the "Transkei District." About the same time was effected the pacification of the whole of Tembuland between the Bashi and Umtata Rivers, and the

¹ Mr. Macdonald (*Light in Africa*, p. 175) calls him *Umlanjani*.

acceptance of British magistrates by the Ama-Tembu (Tambookie) and Bomvana nations. Then followed in rapid succession the recognition of British supremacy by the Ama-Mpondo (Pondo) nation between the Umtata and the Natal frontier, and the transition of the numerous septs from independence to a state of mild vassalage, a process still going on; the appointment of magistrates amongst the Ama-Xesibé and other Kafir peoples of East or New Griqualand, inland from the Mpondo territory; the occupation of "Nomansland" (now included in Griqualand East) by a remnant of the Dutch-Hottentot Griquas, under their leader Adam Kok,¹ and its annexation to the Cape in 1879; the extension of British protection to Basutoland, between Griqualand East and the Orange Free-State, in 1871, the protectorate being changed to a Crown Colony in 1884; the occupation of Port St. John's territory about the Lower St. John (Um-Zimvubu) River on the Pondo coast in 1877, and the extension of direct British administration to this district in 1887, and to the whole of Pondoland in 1894; lastly, the annexation of Griqualand West beyond the Orange River in 1871, and the incorporation of the Crown Colony of Bechuanaland in 1895.

Geographical Research

Although daring and skilful navigators, the Dutch were at no time distinguished as geographical explorers in the strict sense of the term. Such illustrious names as Barentz and Tasman are associated exclusively with

¹ Hence the expression Adam Kok's Land, sometimes applied to the eastern part of Griqualand East towards the Natal frontier. These Griquas had originally passed in 1852 into Griqualand West in two bands; led respectively by their chiefs, Waterboer and Adam Kok. Waterboer ceded all his territorial rights to the British Government in 1871.

maritime expeditions, and even their own possessions in the eastern seas, such as the large islands of Java, Sumatra, and Borneo, remained almost unknown lands till the British occupation during the Napoleonic wars. So also in South Africa, no important journeys were made to the interior before the change of flag at the close of the last century. Our knowledge of this region towards the end of the seventeenth century is summed up in Dapper's *Africa* (1685), and in Valentyn's more ample descriptions published in 1726.¹ In this work mention is made of Van der Stel's five months' excursion to the Namaqua country (Little Namaqualand), to which he was attracted by the reports of extensive copper mines, reports which have since been fully verified. During the eighteenth century our knowledge of the coastlands, their natural history and Hottentot inhabitants, was enlarged by the visits of Kolbe (1705-13), La Caille (1751, 1752), Sparmann and Thunberg (1772-76), Paterson (1777), Levaillant (1780-85).²

The explorations carried on during the British period may be said to have begun with Sir John Barrow (1797-78), followed in 1801-2 by Truter and Somerville, the first who crossed the mountains bounding the Great Karoo on the north. These were followed in 1803-6, that is, during the temporary restoration of Dutch rule, by the German naturalist, H. Lichtenstein, to whom we are indebted for the earliest account of the great Bechuana nation. With the restoration of the British sway the work of research was actively resumed

¹ *Oud en Nieuw Oost-Indien*, vol. v. part ii.

² The substance of all these excursions is given in Walckenaer's large but unfinished *History of Voyages*, vols. xv. and xvi. Vols. xvii. to xxi. contain detailed accounts of the far more numerous and important expeditions undertaken during the first decades of the nineteenth century, after the British occupation.

by Burchell (1811-12), Campbell (1812-20), G. Thompson (1821-24), Ch. Bunbury (1846). Then follows the strictly modern era ushered in by Moffat and Livingstone, and practically concluded by Andrew A. Anderton, whose *Twenty-five Years in an African Waggon* (1887) embodies a vast amount of information regarding the physical geography, natural history, and ethnology of Cape Colony proper and its recent annexation, Griqualand West.

Physical Features

The terrace formation generally characteristic of the continental periphery is nowhere more clearly developed than in the extreme southern region limited northwards by the Orange River. Here the terraces are all disposed nearly parallel with the south coast, and are flanked on the north side by mountain ranges continually increasing in altitude landwards. The first, and consequently the lowest of these ranges, stretching from False Bay in the direction of Algoa Bay, is interrupted at intervals by several coast streams, the various sections thus formed being known in their order from west to east as the Zouderand Swellendam, Lange Berge, Attaques, Outeniqua, Lange Kloof, and Karadouw ridges. They run at a height of 3000 to 5000 feet, and at a distance of from 12 to 50 miles from the sea, towards which they throw off several spurs terminating in sharp headlands, such as Cape Agulhas (20° E., $34^{\circ} 51' 15''$ S.), southernmost point of the Continent.

This first chain, whose seaward slopes are mostly clad with verdure, forms a buttress supporting a first inland plateau, which, from its generally arid aspect, takes the Hottentot name of Karroo, that is, dry or

barren.¹ It is distinguished as the "Little Karroo" from a second but much larger formation of like character, which in the same way abuts against a second and more elevated escarpment running at an altitude of 5000 to 7000 feet nearly parallel with the first, and known in the west as the Witte, or White, in the east as the Groot Swarte, or Great Black Mountains. This range terminates north-west of Algoa Bay in the Cockscomb, or Groot Winterhoek, 6000 feet above the sea.

The second plateau, or Great Karroo, standing at a mean height of 2500 to 3000 feet, is similarly skirted on the north side, and at a mean distance of over 120 miles from the coast, by the third and loftiest mountain system, which forms the main water-parting between the streams flowing south to the sea and north to the Orange River. Its several sections, going from west to east, take the names of the Komsberg, Roggeveld, Nieuweveld, Sneeuwberg, Zuurberg, and Stormberg,² ranging from 6000 to over 8000 feet, and culminating in the Compass Peak (8500 feet), highest point of the Sneeuwberg (Snowy Range), and loftiest summit in the whole of Cape Colony proper.

At the Compass the main range throws off a south-eastern branch, which, under the names of the Tandtjies and Groot Winterberg (7800 feet), traverses the eastern provinces, terminating on the coast at the mouth of the Kei River.

The only traces of relatively recent volcanic action occur in the Stormberg, where are still seen old craters extinct since the triassic period. Here also are found

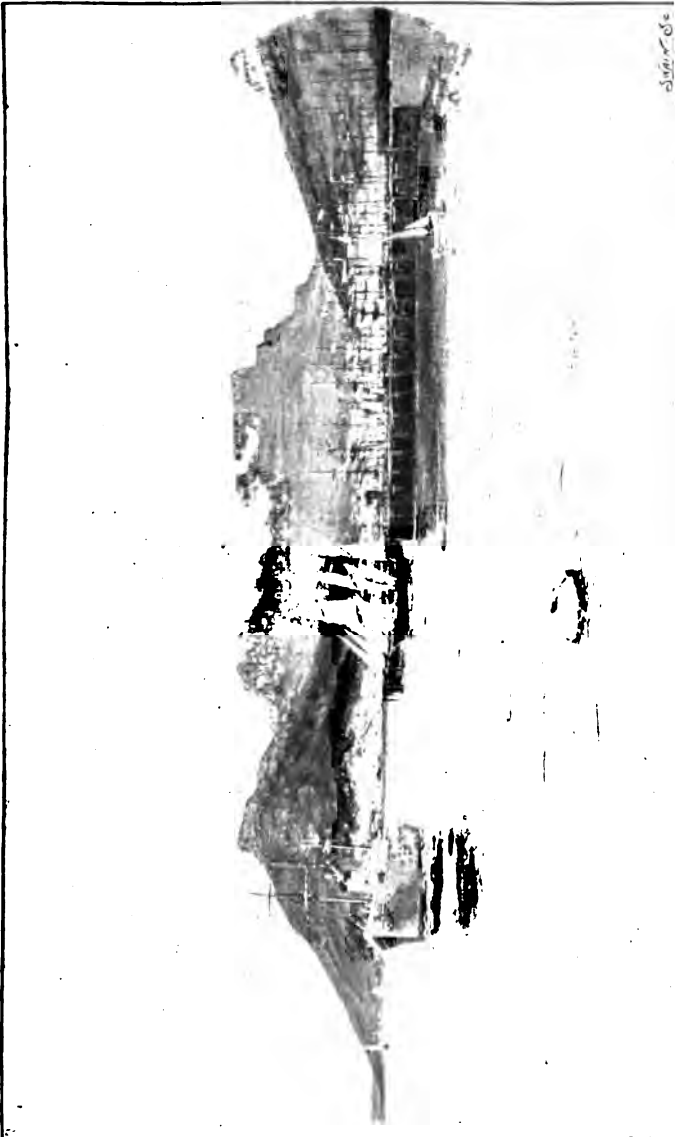
¹ From *karusa* = hard.

² In the local usage *veld* (the Norse *fjeld* and English *fell*, as in Drayton's "mossy fells") indicates the more rounded crests, while *berg* is applied to the more rugged heights.

extensive coalfields, which stretch along the northern slopes of the range northwards in the direction of the Orange Free State.

In the extreme west the Great Namaqua uplands are continued beyond the Orange estuary by a series of single or double ridges, some diverging eastwards to the central table-land, others running in nearly parallel chains southwards to the western extremity of the southern coast ranges. The various sections of this somewhat confused and interrupted mountain system are known as the Kamies, Olifants, Cedar, Bokkeveld, and Drakensteinberg, and form collectively the seaward escarpments of the inland plains and karroos. Here the culminating points are the Winterhoek (6900 feet) in the Olifant range, and the Sneeuw Kop (6600) in the Cedar Mountains. The whole system has a mean altitude of scarcely more than 3500 feet, so that on the landward side they rise but little above the dreary gneiss plateau of Great Bushmanland, which itself stands at a mean elevation of over 2000 feet above sea-level.

At the south-western corner of the Continent, where all the main orographic systems converge, the two promontories of Cape Point (the Cape of Good Hope) and Hangklip form the southern extremities of an ancient and greatly denuded coast range, which advances westwards between St. Helena and False Bay beyond the normal coast-line. This range, of which only some fragments now remain, terminates northwards in the low headland of Cape St. Martin, below which a few scattered heights enclose the fine harbour of Saldanha Bay. Farther south the system culminates in an amphitheatre of bold sandstone crests disposed round about Table Bay. Here the conspicuous truncated mass of Table Mountain



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rises from its granite base abruptly above the south side of the bay to a height of 3500 feet, but slopes gradually southwards to the terminal point of the Cape, which encloses False Bay on the west. Eastwards the semi-circle of hills terminates in the so-called Devil's Peak, and westwards in the famous "Lion Mountain," whose superb head faces the austral seas, while the back falls northwards to the "Lion's Rump," near Green Point, at the south-west extremity of Table Bay.

Considerable uniformity characterises the geological structure of these mountain ranges, nearly all of which have a granite base underlying enormous masses of quartzose sandstones. Where the granite crops out it generally assumes rounded contours, whereas the sandstones affect the flat formation of which Table Mountain is a typical instance. In some places these sandstones cover the primitive rocks to a thickness of 1500 or even 2000 feet, and are of such regular outline as to present the aspect of artificially constructed rocky walls. With the granite are often associated primitive schists, whose disintegration seems to have supplied the chief constituent in the thin bed of argillaceous clays covering the Karroos.

The Karroos and Northern Plains

Although the term Karroo is restricted in geographical nomenclature to the two plateaux between the parallel outer ranges, the same arid formation prevails throughout the vast tableland stretching at a mean elevation of fully 3000 feet from the great divide northwards to the Orange River. The central region north of the Nieuwveld is traversed east and west by the low chain of the Karree hills, and still farther north by the more elevated

Hartzogs Rand, which trends north-eastwards across the Orange into Griqualand West. These ridges consist mainly of very old igneous rocks, traps, and dolerites, which have been here and there weathered into pinnacles, colonnades, and other fantastic forms.

In all the Karroos, and generally throughout the northern plains, the surface consists chiefly of ferruginous reddish sands and clays, which during the long droughts acquire the hardness and somewhat the appearance of firebricks. But this surface soil rests on a blue slaty rock, which retains the rain-water, and thus keeps alive the numerous bulbous and other alkali plants, which in the wet season again burst into blossom, converting the arid undulating plains into flowery meads.

Like so many other parts of South Africa, the whole region was formerly far more abundantly watered than at present. This is evident from the remains of vast multitudes of huge saurians and other reptiles, which during the later triassic period frequented the extensive swampy tracts at that time strewn over the now arid tableland between the Orange River and the southern ranges. Many of these extinct amphibians, which present forms not occurring elsewhere, appear to have been of herbivorous habits, and their presence consequently implies an exuberant vegetation, where little is now seen except some thorny scrub, lilies, mesembryanthemums, amaryllis, and similar alkali growths. Over all the Karroos are still dotted numerous vleys (pans or shallow basins), where the rain-water collects, leaving, after evaporation, a thick incrustation of saline efflorescences. These shallows, alternately salt pans and lagoons, are all that now remain of the vast lacustrine basins which probably at one time covered the greater part of all the Karroo formations, and which were drained either to the

southern ocean by the streams flowing through the deep kloofs or gorges in the outer circles of escarpments, or else to the Orange River by those trending northwards from the main water-parting.

River Systems

In its broad features the hydrography of Cape Colony is characterised by great simplicity. The inner escarpments culminating in the Sneeuwberg dispose the whole region in two great fluvial systems, a northern draining through the Orange River to the Atlantic, and a southern draining through several independent coast streams mainly to the Indian and austral seas. The only exceptions to this disposition are the Doorn, Olifants, Berg, and a few other intermittent rivers or wadys which also reach the Atlantic in separate channels.

The streams rising on the southern watershed of the great divide have to traverse both Karroos, and to force a passage through the two intervening barriers of the Witte-Zwarte Bergen and the coast range, on their rapid course seawards. Owing to the obstacles thus encountered, and also to the arid nature of the regions traversed, not one of them is navigable even for small craft, except only the Breede in the extreme west, and for a short distance the St. John in the east.

The Breede, that is, "Broad," River descends from the heights east of Cape Town in a south-easterly direction to the south coast at Port Beaufort; it is accessible for a few miles to ships of 150 tons burden. Eastwards follow the Gauritz, formed by the union of the Groote from the south-west and Olifants¹ from the north-east;

¹ There are several rivers of this name, recalling the "elephants" met by the early trekkers in districts from which they have long disappeared.

the Gamtoos (Gamtoa), noted for the romantic gorges through which it forces its way to the coast at St. Francis Bay. The Kareka, its farthest headstream, rises, not on the southern, but on the northern slope of the great divide behind the Compass Berg.

Beyond the Gamtoos follow the historical streams of the original Kafir domain—Sunday flowing from the foot of the Compass to Algoa Bay; the Great Fish, which, after a remarkably sinuous course, reaches the coast, where it begins to take a north-easterly trend; the Kei, that is, "Great," though sometimes redundantly called the "Great Kei," long the frontier river towards the independent Kafirs, and, like the Gamtoos, famous for its foaming cataracts and romantic scenery; the equally romantic St. John (Um-Zimvulu),¹ blocked by a bar, but at high water accessible to small vessels for twelve miles to the first falls above the "Gate," where the current is hemmed in between steep wooded banks; lastly, the Um-Zimkulu on the Natal frontier. One of the wildest and deepest river gorges in South Africa occurs in the valley of the Umga in Griqualand East, where the stream rushes for twenty miles between steep rocky walls rising 2000 feet above the swirling waters. Here the wind at times sweeps like a hurricane down the narrow kloof, with a sound "as if ten thousand discordant instruments were being twanged by the hand of a giant."²

The Orange River

In the extent of its catchment basin, if not in volume, the Orange (Nu Gariep, or Garib³) ranks first amongst

¹ *Um* in Zulu-Kafir = "river," as in Um-Tafana, Um-Zimkulu, Um-Volosi, etc., following on this seaboard.

² Rev. J. Macdonald, *Light in Africa*, p. 132.

³ *Gariep* appears to be a Dutch corruption of *Garib*, meaning in

the secondary African streams, such as the Senegal, Ogoway, Coanza, Limpopo, and Juba. Its farthest headstreams, Caledon and Vaal, have their sources on the western slope of the Drakenberg, within about 100 miles of the Indian Ocean, while its great lateral arms, Hygap and Great Hartebeeste, spread their numerous ramifications northwards to the Damaraland uplands in 22°, southwards to the Nieuweveld water parting in 32° S. Its basin thus stretches east and west across 16° of longitude, and from north to south across 10° of latitude, with a total length of nearly 1300 miles, and a drainage area of not less than 360,000 square miles, or about three times the extent of the British Isles.

Under the name of Senku, its furthest headstream rises at the foot of the Champagne Castle (10,500 feet) in the section of the Drakenberg separating Basutoland from Natal. After receiving the Semena from the Giant's Castle (9700 feet) in the same range, and the Senkuyane ("Little Senku") and Maletsunyane lower down, the main stream is joined on the Free State frontier by the Cornet Spruit, and a few miles farther on by the Caledon (Mogokare), both on its right bank, and by the Zeekoes (Zuku) on its left. At Ramah Spring, a little above Hope Town, the Orange, hitherto a frontier river towards the Free State, enters the Colony, and is soon after joined by the Vaal (Hai Garib, or "Yellow Water"), which by some is regarded as its truer upper course. The Vaal, which throughout most of its course forms the boundary between the two Boer republics, receives the Hart (Kolong) on its right bank from the Transvaal, and the Modder on its left from the Free

Hottentot "great water," or "great river" (*Groot Rivier*), as it was first named by the early settlers. Its present name was given to it in 1777 by Captain Gordon in honour of the House of Orange.

State, and a few miles below its confluence the Orange is joined from the south by the Ongar, an almost waterless watercourse nearly 200 miles long. A like description applies to all the other affluents of the main stream, such as the Hartebeeste from the south and the Hygap from the north, whose vast basins are mostly dry, corresponding at the southern extremity of the Continent to such northern wadys as the Baraka, Takazza, and Draa, flushed only during the rainy season. The consequence is that throughout the remainder of its course of over 500 miles the Orange receives no perennial contributions, but loses a great part of its volume by evaporation in this dreary arid wilderness of the Kalahari Desert and Great Namaqualand on the north and Great Bushmanland on the south. Hence, before reaching its estuary at Alexander Bay, the current is nearly exhausted except during the freshets, so that this vast watercourse is absolutely unnavigable, in the dry season through lack of water, in the rainy through its impetuous floods. In any case the dangerous bar at its mouth, where the surf breaks with fury, prevents the approach of shipping, while twenty or twenty-five miles higher up the stream is completely obstructed by rapids.

Still farther up, between the Hartebeeste and Hygap confluences, occur the famous "Hundred Falls," as they were recently named by Farini, though already known as the Great Anghrabies ("Great Falls") and also as the George IV. Falls. Within a distance of 16 miles, the Orange here descends a total height of 400 feet through a continuous series of falls and rapids, above which its rocky walls affect the outlines of lofty towers or obelisks. "On every side fresh cascades spring up as if by magic from the rocks. At Niagara there are two gigantic cataracts falling side by side at one bound into the head

of a gorge seven miles in length. Here there is a succession of cascades and falls—probably a hundred in



THE "HUNDRED FALLS"—ORANGE RIVER.

number—extending along the whole length of a gorge no less than 16 miles long, into which they plunge one after the other, sometimes at a single bound, sometimes in a series of leaps. During the dry weather many of

these cataracts are of great volume, but at the wet seasons, when they are magnified a hundredfold, their mass must be immense. At Niagara the gorge is nowhere deeper than 200 feet; here the chasm is half as deep again."¹

Climate

Although it is customary to speak only of two seasons, summer and winter, in extra-tropical South Africa, the year may be divided here, as in the corresponding zone of the northern hemisphere, into four tolerably well-defined periods; spring from September to December, summer from December to March, autumn thence to June, and winter from June to September. The moisture-bearing clouds brought by the strong south-east winds, which prevail from September to April, are intercepted by the outer escarpments, where they are condensed and consequently discharge nearly all their contents before reaching the inland plateaux. Corresponding to these summer south-easters are the winter north-westerns on the Atlantic seaboard, where the moisture is similarly arrested by the western coast ranges. Thus it happens that, except on the southern and south-eastern coastlands, there is everywhere a deficient rainfall, and the great drawback of the climate is its excessive dryness. The evil is intensified by the general absence of snowy and forest-clad uplands, where the supplies drawn from the occasional downpours might be husbanded. Notwithstanding Mr. Hutchin's views regarding cycles of wet and dry seasons,² these supplies themselves are extremely

¹ G. A. Farini, *Through the Kalahari Desert*, p. 417.

² *Cycles of Drought and Good Seasons in South Africa*, by D. E. Hutchins, Conservator of Forests, Knysna; London 1889. This writer's statement that "the climate of Africa varies in cycles," such as the

irregular, and in the interior the whole year sometimes passes without any refreshing rains. Such protracted droughts, which can neither be foreseen nor provided against by any general system of artificial storage, often cause widespread disaster and the destruction of thousands of cattle, especially in the districts aptly termed *Dorstveld* ("Thirst Lands") by the Boers.

On the other hand, this absence of excessive humidity, combined with the general elevation of the land traversed in the south by parallel lofty ranges fully exposed to the cool southern winds and marine currents,¹ tends to render the climate one of the healthiest in the world. Even in the hottest summers the glass seldom rises above 90° F. in the shade, while in winter it stands usually some ten degrees above freezing point.² Nevertheless snow

"storm cycles" of nine or ten years, and the "cyclical mitigation" of twelve or thirteen years, is not supported by any trustworthy evidence. In the records of Karroo rainfall he himself admits years of "irregular mitigation," and years of heavy rainfall not reducible to any cycle.

¹ With these currents, which set steadily from the Antarctic regions, numerous flocs and even huge icebergs often drift northwards in the direction of the Cape. But they are normally deflected to the west coast by the warm current from the Indian Ocean, sweeping round the Mozambique Channel and penetrating as far west as Cape Agulhas, hence locally known as the "Agulhas Current."

² This statement, however, does not apply to the far interior, where at times northern winds, hot as blast furnaces, sweep over the land, withering up the scanty vegetation and raising the temperature to 100° and even 105° F. in the shade. But the normal conditions of heat and moisture are expressed in the subjoined table:—

	Height above the sea.	Mean Temp.	Mean Extremes.	Rainfall.
Cape Town	. 40 feet	62° F.	91° ; 40° F.	27 inches.
Simon's Town	. 50 "	63° "	92° ; 43° "	20 "
Port Elizabeth	. 240 "	62°·8 "	95° ; 42° "	24 "
Graham's Town	. 1800 "	62°·4 "	102° ; 34° "	29 "
Graaf Reynet	. 2550 "	64°·4 "	103° ; 33° "	25 "

As a rule the climate becomes more and more continental, that is, subject

occasionally falls in certain parts of the Great Karroo, and especially on the plains overshadowed by the Sneeuwberg and Nieuweveld. Such a climate in a region lying entirely beyond the torrid zone (28° - 34° south), and also mainly free from malaria, is perfectly suited for the European constitution, as in fact has been practically demonstrated by an experience of over two hundred years. The present descendants of the early Dutch and French settlers nowhere betray any symptoms of physical decay, but, on the contrary, are, in some respects, a more vigorous people than their European kindred. They are completely acclimatised, or rather they never needed to go through any process of climatisation, any more than did the early British settlers in the corresponding latitudes of Australasia. In some districts the birth-rate is three times higher than the mortality, an excess unapproached in any region of the north temperate zone. Hence the southern seaboard has always been regarded as a kind of health resort, not only by officials enervated by long residence in the Indies, but even by European invalids themselves, who find the pure atmosphere of Cape Town, Graham's Town, and other districts highly beneficial in the case of chest diseases and other ailments. It is noteworthy that the Cape has never been visited either by cholera or yellow fever.

The district about Cape Town, remarkable in so many other respects, also presents some atmospheric phenomena of a striking character, which appear to be

to greater extremes of heat and cold, the farther it is removed inland from the equalising influences of the marine breezes and currents. But at Somerville, in the Transkei district, 3500 feet above the sea, Mr. Macdonald registered $108^{\circ}\cdot 2$ in the shade in summer, and 7 degrees of frost in winter. According to this observer, the average extremes are 85 to 90 and 60 to 70, according to aspect, elevation and other local conditions.

due to the greater dryness of the lower aërial strata. In the summer months the moist south-easters, striking against Table Mountain, rise above its south-eastern slopes, and the moisture becoming condensed in the cold upper regions, spreads out in a dense whitish cloud over the plateau. This "table-cloth," as it is locally called, does not terminate abruptly at the brink of the precipice, but rolls over down towards the city spread out at its foot. Magnificent cascades of sunlit mist descend some 200 or 300 yards, floating on the breeze like folds of delicate drapery, and gradually dissolving in the lower atmospheric regions. Here all the moisture brought by the trade-winds becomes absorbed, and, except on the cloud-capped summit of the mountain, the whole land remains bathed in sunshine under the bright azure sky. In winter, when the north-west wind prevails, the phenomenon is reversed, and then the billowy mists roll down from the plateau on the opposite side towards Simon's Town.¹

Flora and Vegetable Products

Despite the climatic conditions, so unfavourable to vegetation, except in privileged districts, the whole life of the colony depends upon agricultural and pastoral pursuits, which, with mining, must long continue its almost exclusive industries. But, as might be expected, pasturage prevails largely over tillage, which, however, is not confined, as is supposed, to the slopes of the hills, where water can be best utilised for irrigation purposes. Lower down, the extensive level or rolling grounds, which are not absolutely desert, are mainly utilised as grazing lands for horned cattle, sheep, goats, horses, and mules.

¹ Keane's *Reclus*, xiii. p. 98.

These animals thrive even in districts where herbage has been replaced by brushwood, reedy, saline or sour growths, to which they have become accustomed, just as they have learnt to drink muddy, yellowish, and even fetid waters. But even on the plains patches of cultivated land are often found interspersed amongst the grazing grounds.

Live stock, and especially sheep, yielding the finest wools, flourish best in the central provinces, where some of the larger runs contain from 15,000 to 20,000 sheep. Since 1840 the broad fat-tailed and almost woolless native breed has been largely replaced by the best English and other European stock. Even the Angora goat has been successfully introduced in several districts, and with wool-growing is now also combined ostrich farming, which, during the last twenty years, has made considerable progress. The plumes, however, of the domesticated ostrich are inferior in quality to those of the wild bird.

Wherever water is available the apparently indifferent sandy and argillaceous soil is surprisingly productive under the powerful South African sun. Everything seems to spring up almost spontaneously; wheat, millet, barley and maize yield excellent returns, most European fruits grow to a great size, the potato thrives everywhere, even as far north as Zambesia, and as many as three crops of vegetables are successively raised during the season.

All the towns and villages within a radius of fifty or sixty miles round about Cape Town are connected by avenues of magnificent trees such as the oak, poplar, alder and the Australian blue gum (*Eucalyptus globulus*). Here also are cultivated the famous vines of French origin, which were originally introduced by the Dutch

East India Company, and which yield prodigious returns incomparably greater than the vineyards of any other country in the world.¹ The chief wine-growing districts are those of Constantia on the eastern slopes of the hills between Table and Simon's Bays, and the inland districts of Worcester and Oudtshoorn.

The indigenous flora is especially remarkable for an extraordinary variety of heaths, heathers, ferns, bulbs, flowering shrubs and thorny, pulpy plants, such as the aloes and acacias which cover vast tracts of arid soil, and which constitute the so-called "bush." In this respect the extremity of the Continent forms an independent botanical world developed during the long ages that it was separated from the rest of the mainland by the lacustrine basins formerly flooding the extensive inland plateaux. The number of independent species is said to exceed 12,000, or at least twice as many as occur in the whole of Europe, while nearly 450 distinct genera have already been enumerated. Highly characteristic are the heaths, of which over 400 varieties have been found, and which during the flowering season clothe the mountain slopes with one mass of purple or pink blossom. But these and the other endemic forms, such as geraniums, iris, bulbs and rhenoster (rhinoceros wood), are chiefly confined to the western and southern districts, being replaced farther east by forms more peculiar to the warmer and more humid zone of the Indian Ocean. Here also the forest growths, of small size and few in number in the extreme west, become larger and more

¹ Elsewhere the average production ranges from 150 to 400 gallons per acre, but at the Cape it rises to 800 and 1000, and in some districts even to 1500 gallons. But, with few exceptions, the quality is indifferent and appears even to have deteriorated since the beginning of the century. The Cape vines have been attacked both by oidium and (1886) phylloxera.

varied, while the thorny scrub, such as the dornboom ("thorn-tree"), the "wait-a-bit" (*Acacia detenens*), and the numerous monocotyledonous forms characteristic of the Karroos, disappear altogether.

In respect of their vegetation the inland plains beyond the mountains may be regarded as a southern extension of the Kalahari Desert—vast expanses of arid steppes varied here and there with patches of tall, tufty grasses, thorny acacias and other stunted scrubby growths.

Fauna

Few regions of the globe abounded more in animal life than the southern extremity of the Continent before the arrival of the first European settlers. Even for some time after that event the immediate vicinity of Cape Castle continued to be infested by the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, lion, and leopard, or "tiger" as it is locally called.¹ But at present the elephant, which gives its name to so many "Olifants" rivers within comparatively short distances from the Cape, may be said to have disappeared altogether from the colony proper.² The last rhinoceros was killed near Port Elizabeth in 1853; about the same time the hippopotamus disappeared from the Great Fish River, but is still fre-

¹ This confusion between the striped and spotted Felidæ is widespread, and the term "tiger" is popularly applied to the leopards and panthers of Africa and even to the jaguars of America, though the true tiger has throughout the historic period been entirely confined to Asia.

² No doubt the elephant, as well as the buffalo, still frequents the dense Knysna forests on the south coast between the Gauritz and Gamtoos rivers and also some of the Sneeuweberg districts; but its survival in these last retreats is due to the protection of the game laws, and may be compared to the survival of the aurochs in the Lithuanian forests, and of the Caledonian wild cattle on the Hamilton estate in Scotland.

quently seen both in the Lower Orange¹ and in most of the coast streams of Kaffraria. The panther also is still common enough, and even the lion is occasionally met in Queenstown, Albert, and perhaps some other eastern divisions. But the South African beast cannot compare in size or majesty with those of Nubia and the Atlas highlands; here also his nightly roar is seldom heard, as he appears to have discovered that, under the altered conditions of the chase, it serves less to paralyse his prey than to attract skilful sportsmen now armed with the deadly rifle.

South Africa may be said to be the true home of the antelope family, which is here represented by nearly thirty distinct varieties. But the hartebeest, the kudu, the graceful kama (*dorcas*), and most other members of this group have gradually withdrawn from all the settled districts in company with the giraffe, gnu, buffalo, hyæna, jackal, baboon, zebra, and quagga. The quagga is said to be absolutely extinct, and few of the other forms are now met anywhere south of the Orange River, except the baboon, the leopard, hyæna, jackal, and wild dog, which still continue to prowl round about the farmsteads in many districts.

The reptile order is represented by a great diversity of forms, many of which, such as the puff-adder, garter snake, and cobra, are venomous. In this respect the little Robben ("Seal") Island, three miles north of Cape Town, is remarkable for the possession of some forms quite distinct from those of the mainland.

A formidable enemy of the snake family is the secretary bird (*Serpentarius reptilivorus*), which preys upon

¹ It is noteworthy that although the remains of the hippopotamus occur in the alluvia of the Caledon River, this animal has never been seen alive in the streams of the Upper Orange basin.

all kinds of reptiles, striking them senseless with a sudden blow of its powerful spurred wing, then seizing them in beak and claws and dropping them from a great height on the stony ground to break their vertebræ. In the crop of one of these birds Levallant found three



ZEBRA.

snakes as long as his arm, eleven large lizards, and other "small deer." Owing to its peculiar habits the secretary is regarded as a public benefactor, admitted to the farmyard and even protected by game laws.

Another remarkable bird is the Social or Republican Grosbeak (*Philæterus socius*), about the size of a bullfinch,

which lives together in large societies, building on some thorny mimosa a common residence, divided, like the great houses of the New Mexican Pueblo Indians, into family apartments. "The nests are composed of a fine species of grass closely woven together, and so arranged



THE SECRETARY BIRD.

that from 800 to 1000 are supposed to be sometimes supported on a single tree and covered with a large roof. Round the edge there are numerous entrances, each of which is continuous with a sort of passage, and on each side of this are nests placed about two inches apart. It is probable that, as the colony increases in number, they

continue adding to the common nest, until at length the weight becomes so great that the tree gives way under it, and the birds are then compelled to seek other situations in which to found fresh colonies.”¹

The ostrich, whose range coincides with the northern and southern steppe lands of the Continent, exists both in the wild and domestic state in the Colony, where, according to Anderson, there are two distinct species, both differing from the Saharan variety. Ostrich farming, which began about 1864, continued to make rapid progress during the next twenty years, when its development was arrested by disease and a depreciation of the plumes in the European markets. But the industry has again revived, and in 1890 there were over 150,000 birds on the farms, about the same number as in 1882, just before the first check was experienced. It is remarkable that similar essays at domestication made in Algeria, California, and Australia have mostly proved failures, so that the Cape enjoys almost a monopoly of the trade in farm-grown feathers. To retain this monopoly prohibitive dues of £100 and £5 are respectively imposed on every full-grown bird and egg exported from the colony.

The insect world is extremely varied, and the butterfly family is specially remarkable both for its gorgeous colours and extraordinary mimetic forms. So close is the resemblance to the flowers on which they alight, that it is often impossible to tell one from the other even at a few yards' distance. Even the larva “gathers round itself bits of very slender grass stems about an inch in length.” These are glued together so firmly that one cannot be separated from the bundle without destroying the whole, and so closely does this envelope resemble

¹ W. S. Dally, *Nat. Hist.* pp. 538, 539.

a thick bit of withered stem from the same grass, that one can hardly see any difference between them, even when closely examined. . . . The very pith is imitated by a thin fold of tough fibrous substance with which the ends are closed.”¹ The widespread mantis tribe always adapts itself to the varying hues of the environment, and there are spiders which feign death and look exactly like the shrivelled brown berries of the bush on which they live. Lizards and scorpions put on the very markings of the surrounding soil, and this imitative faculty extends even to snakes, antelopes, and other large animals.

The South African rivers, so useless for navigation and mostly even for irrigation purposes, are also extremely poor in animal life. But the absence of fresh-water fish is largely compensated by a varied and abundant marine fauna; all the bays and inlets round the seaboard are well stocked, and amongst the characteristic forms are several species of electric and poisonous fishes.

Inhabitants

There can be no doubt that the whole of the Orange basin, together with all the land extending thence southwards to the ocean, was originally in exclusive possession of the Bushmen and the allied Hottentot race. But long before the arrival of the Europeans their domain had already been largely encroached upon by the conquering Bantu peoples advancing from the north, or pushing forward along the eastern seaboard. Thus it happens that throughout the South African historic period, 400 years computed from the first appearance of the Portuguese on both coasts, the southern regions have been divided in two nearly equal parts between the

¹ Rev. J. Macdonald, p. 246.

primitive yellow and the intruding black populations. A line drawn from Algoa Bay in the direction of Lake Ngami will roughly indicate the respective limits of the conterminous ethnical territories. All the land stretching from this line east to the Indian Ocean mainly belongs, or rather belonged before the European settlement, to the two great Bantu families of the Bechuanas in the centre, and the Zulu-Kafirs in the east. All the land stretching from the same line west to the Atlantic belongs, with a similar reservation, to the San and Khoi-Khoins divisions of the Bushman-Hottentot family. Of course here and there dislocations and overlappings have taken place, as when the mongrel Griqua Hottentots passed under Adam Kok into Nomansland in the very heart of the Bantu domain, and when the Ba-Mangwato Bechuanas penetrating westwards nearly joined hands with the kindred Ova-Mpo, thus excluding the primitive San element and all but completing the Bantu zone right across the Continent from the Zambesi delta on the Indian Ocean to Cape Frio on the Atlantic. But on the whole the ethnical parting-line appears to have undergone little modification during the last four centuries, except so far as it has been deflected to the right or to the left, or else completely effaced by the rapid expansion of the European element in later times. And here it is to be noticed that the vigorous and aggressive Bantus have resisted contact with the intruding white race far more successfully than have the indolent and passive Khoi-Khoins. The latter have everywhere been broken into fragments, dispersed or altogether eliminated throughout most of the colony proper, whereas the Zulu-Kafirs are still found in compact masses in Eastern Kaffraria, parts of Natal and Zululand. Even the less warlike Bechuana branch has held its ground in Basuto-

land, for the Ba-Suto are merely an outlying eastern division of the Bechuana family, separated from their western kindred by the intruding Boer trekkers of the Orange Free State. Hence, so far as regards the natives, there is no longer a Hottentot, but only a Bantu question in South Africa, for the Hottentots, at least of the colony proper, are doomed to speedy extinction.

The Cape Hottentots

The very names of the numerous Hottentot tribes that occupied the Cape at the time of the Dutch settlement—names such as Gauri-qua, Shirigri-qua, Sussi-qua, and many others, survive only in musty official records, and all tribal organisation may be said to have ceased within the limits of the colony in 1810, when the last Hottentot chief was deposed and replaced by a European magistrate. At present the only distinct groups outside Great Namaqualand are the Kora-qua (Koranas) of the Middle and Upper Orange, Vaal and Modder Rivers, and the mongrel Griqua of West and East Griqualand.¹ In all the settled districts the natives are dispersed amongst the general population, with whom they have partly amalgamated, and whose language, costume, usages, and religion they have everywhere adopted. In fact, they have ceased to be interesting as a race, and little would be known of their distinctive characteristics but that they were carefully studied by Kolben, Levaillant, and some other observers during the last century, that

¹ Besides these, there are the so-called Gona-qua, that is, "Borderers," a term applied generally to the Hottentot-Kafir half-breeds, thinly scattered over the eastern provinces. But in the whole colony the Hottentots pure and mixed cannot greatly exceed 180,000, and of these the mongrels and half-castes of all sorts certainly form the immense majority.

is, before they had been brought entirely under European influences.

These early writers never fail to contrast the sluggish mental *habitus* of the Hottentots with the more active temperament of their Bantu neighbours. Thus the Kafirs are "more open and lively than the Hottentots, without anything approaching to their taciturnity" (Levaillant, p. 379); and elsewhere "the humour of the Hottentots is a little phlegmatic, and their temperament cold" (p. 271). To Campbell also they appeared to be "a dull, gloomy and indifferent people" (p. 382), while for Kolben "they are without doubt both in body and mind the laziest people under the sun. A monstrous reluctance to thought and action runs through all their tribes, and their whole earthly happiness seems to lie in indolence and lethargy."¹ Nevertheless, under the stimulus of strong motives they were capable of extreme excitement, only they hated the motive which obliged them even to think, and would neither work nor reason except under some kind of compulsion. Then they could both work and reason to some purpose, so that, according to Kolben, we should not say, "as stupid as a Hottentot, but as lazy as one."²

These half-civilised "Tots," as they are locally called, occupy socially a position somewhat analogous to the lowest European proletarian classes. They are still grouped together in their *as*, or *kraals*,³ that is, clusters

¹ *Cape of Good Hope*, ch. iv. 7.

² *Cape of Good Hope*, ch. xix. Introduction.

³ This word *kraal*, applied by the Boers generally to all native villages, is of uncertain origin, either from the Dutch *Koraal*=coral, which they are supposed to resemble, or more probably a corruption of the Portuguese *curral*, an enclosure, and especially a cattle pen. It would, therefore, seem to be the same word as the English *corral*, which is of Spanish origin, from *corro*=a circle, and even a gathering of people.

of frail huts, which simply afford a little shelter from the weather, but are useless for any other purpose, being seldom little more than four feet high. For the national *Kaross* (see p. 184) a leather apron is often substituted, and the usual diet are fruits, vegetables, milk, butter, game, and dried or powdered meat. Like the Namas, they are inveterate smokers, using the very strongest tobacco, or else *dakha* (hemp), and even swallowing the smoke. All are now outwardly Christians, chiefly Moravians and Wesleyans; but the primitive religion appears to have been mainly associated with ancestry worship. Even the *Tsu-Goab*, adopted by the missionaries as the nearest equivalent for a supreme being, was probably nothing more than the name of some mythical hero preserved by tradition. Thanks to the custom of raising heaps of stones over the graves of famous chiefs, their migrations may be traced far beyond the present limits of the Hottentot domain. Such cairns are found scattered over many of the northern and eastern districts, which from time immemorial have been exclusively occupied by peoples of Bantu stock.

The Cape Bantus

Although politically Cape Colony now extends eastward to the Natal frontier, the Kei River still roughly marks the ethnological parting-line between the white and Bantu populations. With the exception of some Germans in Pondoland, a few English settlers about the lower St. John's River, and half-caste Griqua Hottentots in Nomansland, nearly the whole of the region lying between the Free State and the coast, and stretching from the Kei to Natal, is still mainly occupied by tribal

groups belonging either to the Bechuana, or to the Zulu-Kafir division of the Southern Bantus.

The Ba-Sutos

The Bechuanas are entirely restricted to the Crown Colony of Basutoland, where they are represented by the Ba-Suto people, who have long been subjected to European and Christian influences. So true is this that the primitive tribal organisation has practically ceased, the Ba-Tau, Ba-Puti, Ma-Kolokwe and other tribes being now merged in a single agricultural and pastoral Ba-Suto nationality professing a Calvinistic form of Protestantism. This transformation has been effected mainly by a devoted band of French Protestant missionaries, who since 1833 have maintained flourishing stations at Bethel, Carmel, Berea, Thaaba-Bossigo, and other places, and who have translated the whole of the Bible into the Se-Suto language.¹ Physically the Ba-Suto approach the Kafir type, but have softer features, perhaps thinner lips and shorter stature, and, though brave, are certainly of a less warlike character.

Insignificant as they are as a political factor, the Ba-Suto people are well worthy the attention of those to whom have been entrusted the future destinies of the South African populations. More, perhaps, than any other ethnical group, they serve to emphasise the distinction, that has been insisted upon in this work, between

¹ Like all Bantu idioms, this language, which differs little from the western Se-Chuana, presents some dialectic variations in its prefix particles (see p. 112). Thus *Le*=the land, *Se*=the language, etc., hence *Le-Suto*=Basutoland; *Se-Suto*=the Basuto language, etc. The radical *Suto* means "paunch," and appears to have been originally applied by the Zulu-Kafirs collectively to all the Bantu populations of the interior, who are more corpulent than the hardy coast tribes.

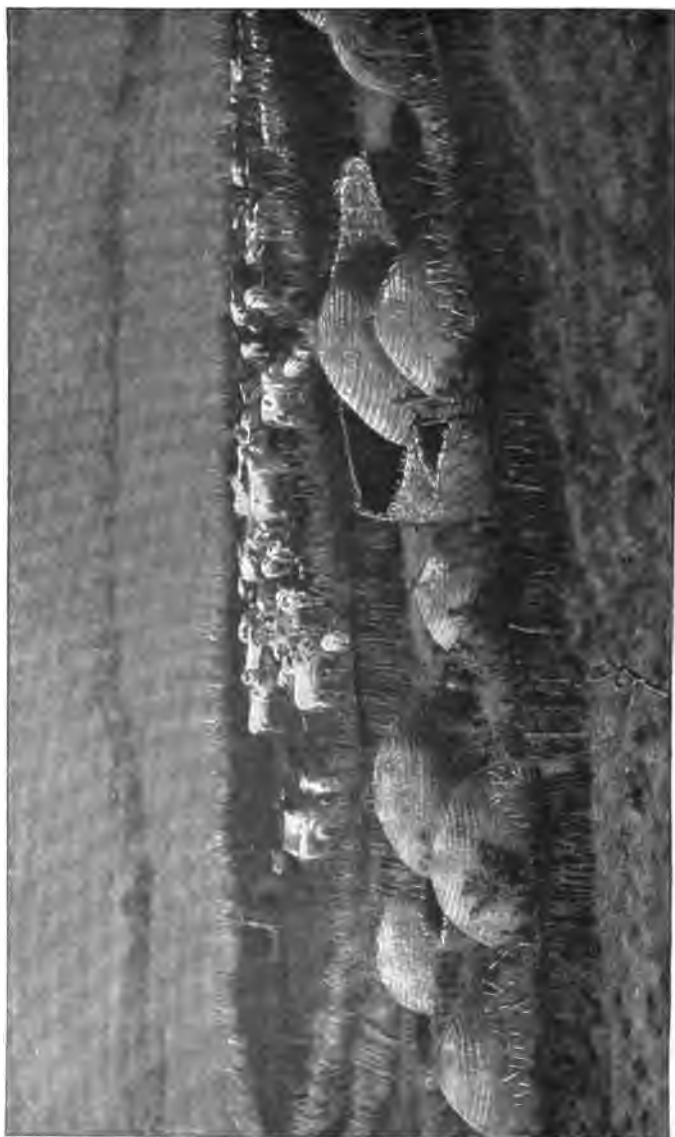
the stationary Negro and the progressive Bantu race. The contact with Europeans, fatal to the vitality of so many of the lower races, even when, like the Maori, endowed with a fair share of physical energy and intelligence, has acted favourably on the Ba-Suto, who have not merely outwardly adopted but thoroughly assimilated Western culture. Under the guidance of their religious teachers, they have within two generations accomplished what no pure Negro community has ever succeeded in doing even under the most favourable conditions. They have transformed the rugged upland valleys of the Orange head-waters into highly productive pastoral and agricultural lands, whence Cape Colony itself in good seasons draws supplies of cereals, fruits, vegetables, and other produce to the value of over £200,000. They have built themselves substantial brick and stone tenements, constructed good highways throughout the country, improved their breeds of live stock, and yet found means to support a system of national instruction more efficient than that of many European states. The greater part of the superfluous revenues is freely devoted to educational purposes, so that thousands already speak English or Dutch without neglecting their mother-tongue, in which they publish numerous religious and educational works and even periodicals. Nor is their attention engrossed by material cares, for they have learnt to interest themselves in abstract questions of philosophy and dogma, and the missionary already finds that a spirit of scepticism has been awakened amongst these "Waldenses" of the South African alpine valleys. What the Ba-Suto have done, their Western kinsmen are equally capable of accomplishing, so that there is no reason to despair of seeing a great part of the Bechuanaland plateau occupied before many generations by civilised and flourishing Bantu communities.

The Kafirs

Of all the Bantu nations none present such a marked individuality, whether as regards their physical and mental qualities, political sagacity, warlike nature, and historic development, as the Zulu-Kafir branch, who have been in possession of the south-eastern seaboard from time immemorial. At the time of the discovery they probably held all the coastlands from about the Gamtoos to the Limpopo, which rivers may be taken as the respective southern and northern limits of their primitive domain. Here they constitute a single ethnical group, essentially one in physique, speech, usages, and traditions, but falling geographically and politically into a northern Zulu and southern Kafir division. Each of these is again divided into numerous tribal groups, the representative members of which are the Ama-Zulu in the north, and in the south the Ama-Xosa, Ama-Tembu and Ama-Mpondo. Intermediate between the two were the Ama-Lala, still represented by the Ama-Ncolosi of Natal, and outside both stand certain low-caste tribes not comprised in the national genealogies (see p. 209) and collectively known as Ama-Fingu (Fengu).¹

These Fingus are regarded by Zulus and Xosas alike as slaves or outcasts, possessing no right to the privileges of true-born Kafirs. They are, or were, met everywhere, not only in the present Fingoland between the Kei and Bashee rivers, but also in Natal, Zululand, and even in the highlands of the interior. Yet they can scarcely be said to have any recognised territory of their own, and but for the intervention of the British authori-

¹ That is, "poor," "mendicant," "vagabond," etc., from *fenguza* = to seek service; cf. Kongo *ringu* = to beg.



A KAFIR KRAAL.

ties they would still continue to be oppressed and enslaved by the dominant tribes.

Those who were driven out of Zululand early in the present century fell into the hands of the Gcalekas, from whom they were delivered in 1835 by Sir Benjamin D'Urban, and by him located in the Fort Peddie district between the Great Fish and Keiskamma rivers. Any tribes which become broken and mixed, or which might be made captives of war, would probably be regarded as Ama-Fingu by the other Kafirs. Hence the multiplicity of groups, such as the Ama-Bele, Ama-Sembotweni, Ama-Zizi, Ama-Sekunene, etc., all of whom are collectively called Ama-Fingu. Their position before the British intervention appears to have been somewhat analogous to that of the Laconian Helots, or the low-caste tribes of India.

The numerous and politically important ramifications of the true Kafirs can be best studied in the genealogical table given at p. 209. The origin of the race has given rise to much controversy. It is obvious that they are not the aborigines of their present domain, where they have displaced and perhaps partly absorbed the indigenous Hottentot-Bushman tribes. On the other hand, they are closely allied in physique and speech to their western neighbours, the widespread Bechuana nation, and their presence in the south-east corner of the Continent is, no doubt, to be explained by the general onward movement of all the Bantu peoples, gradually crowding out the primitive Hottentot-Bushman race. The specific differences in speech and appearance, by which they are distinguished from the other branches of the Bantu family, may in the same way be explained by contact with the aborigines, and the altered conditions of their new environment. Thus the farther they have

penetrated southwards, the more they have become differentiated from the typical Negro, from whom attempts have even been made to separate them altogether.

Certainly the Negro element is conspicuous enough



KAFIRS TAKING SNUFF.

in the black woolly hair and generally dark complexion of the Kafirs, though tinged here and there with a dash of Hottentot yellow, in their dolichocephalic or long head, broad nose, thick lips, and peculiar odour. In height they are amongst the tallest of all the Negroid

peoples, averaging about five feet ten inches, and in this respect ranking next to the Patagonians and Polynesians. They are slim, well proportioned, and muscular; but Fritsch's measurements show that they are far from attaining the standard of almost ideal beauty with which early observers credited them. The women, leading the life of drudges, are generally inferior to the men, except amongst the Zulus and especially the Tembus. Hence a Xosa bride may be had for ten or twelve head of cattle, while a Tembu fetches as many as forty or even double that number.

The symmetrical figures of the more warlike tribes are usually draped in leopard or ox-skins, of late years often replaced by European blankets, with feather head-gear, coral and metal ornaments, bead armlets and necklaces. Like their distant kindred the Hadendoa Hamites, they bestow much time and ingenuity on the dressing of the hair, which often assumes the most fantastic forms. Amongst the Pandomisi tribes — for each group has its own peculiar fashion—a framework is formed by a small grass ring on the crown, and into this the hair is rubbed with fat and secured with ox sinews. Every day it is freshly dressed and greased, the circlet rising with the growth of the hair to a height of several inches above the head. Then the whole superstructure, becoming overpopulated with parasites, is suddenly removed and the work begun afresh.

Their weapons are the ox-hide shield, four to six feet long, the club (knob-kerrie), and two kinds of assegai, one for throwing, the other for stabbing. The huts, all of conic shape and grouped in kraals, are mostly of a temporary character, for the Kafirs are still semi-nomadic, easily breaking up their homes in search of fresh pastures. But although cattle form their chief

wealth, and stock-breeding and hunting their main pursuits, many are also occupied with husbandry, cultivating "mealies" (maize), millet, melons, yams, and other vegetables. These, with milk, form the staple of food, meat being seldom eaten except on solemn feasts and before war; hence the order to slaughter cattle is equivalent to a summons to arms.

Mentally, the Kafirs are greatly superior to the Negroes, displaying considerable tact and intelligence in all their political and social relations. They are remarkably brave, loyal to their chiefs, warlike and hospitable, but certainly deceitful and treacherous; duplicity, cunning, and falsehood being in fact regarded as accomplishments, and instilled into their minds from early youth, as a part of their military education. The national religion recognises no supreme Being, and is mainly based on a belief in the omnipresence of the spirits of their ancestors constantly interfering in their affairs, and requiring to be propitiated by offerings, but never by human sacrifices. "Every man worships his own ancestors, and offers sacrifices to avert their wrath. The clan worships the spirits of the ancestors of its chiefs, and the tribe worships the spirits of the ancestors of the paramount chief."¹ There are no priests or idols, and but

¹ Rev. J. Macdonald, *op. cit.* p. 191. This writer throws much light on the obscure subject of the spirit world as understood by the Kafir people. Souls are possessed neither by animals nor by inanimate objects, though souls may reside in them. On the other hand, all human beings possess souls, which, however, are not entirely confined to the body. They may occupy the roof of a man's hut, and if he changes his abode his soul flits also. The people often use the word *Zitunzela* (from *izitunzi* = shadows) to express their ideas of human spirits and the unseen world generally, and this is "the nearest description that can be obtained." A man is constantly attended by the shadows of his ancestors as well as his own, but the spirit of one who dies without speaking to his children shortly before death visits his descendants only for evil purposes, and to thwart

little trace of fetishism; but the prevalent belief in witchcraft has developed the "witch-doctor," or medicine man, who often becomes an instrument of cruel oppression and injustice in the hands of the chiefs. Circumcision and polygamy are universal, and the standard of morality is extremely low, so low amongst some of the under-tribes that one wonders how society is kept together.

The Kafirs have developed a distinct and apparently very old political system, which may be described as a patriarchal monarchy limited by a powerful aristocracy. Although the tribal state still prevails, the organisation has thus acquired almost a feudal character. The nation is grouped in tribes, all supposed to be blood-relations, and all under an hereditary *inkose* or chief, who administers his territory through officers chosen by himself, and who is supreme legislator with absolute jurisdiction and power of life and death. Against his decisions, if deemed unjust, the nobles or foremost members of the tribe protest in council, and their decisions form the traditional code of common law. "This common law is well adapted to people in a rude state of society. It holds every one accused of crime guilty unless he can prove himself innocent; it makes the head of the family responsible for the conduct of all its branches; the village collectively for all resident in it, and the clan for each of its villages. For the administration of the law

them the wizards have to offer costly sacrifices. Great importance is also attached to dreams or visions which are attributed to spirit influence (*Journal of the Anthropol. Institute*, xix. 3; xx. 2). All this, taken in connection with Mr. im Thurn's account of Cloudland, as understood by the British Guiana Indians, tends to show that the starting-point of all natural religions are dreams, leading directly to a distinction between body and soul, then to an after-life for the soul, and so on to ancestor worship, propitiation of evil spirits, priesthood and sacrifice.

there are courts of various grades, from any of which an appeal may be taken to the supreme council, presided over by the paramount chief, who is not only the ruler and military despot, but also the father of the people."¹

For some years zealous Scotch and other missionaries have been at work amongst the Kafir people, and self-supporting stations have been founded at Mbulu, Lovedale, Blythswood, Somerville, Gatberg, and other places in Kaffraria. Their efforts have been as successful, especially amongst the Fingus, as those of the French missionaries in Basutoland. In 1882 these natives contributed to the Lovedale mission no less than £2000. At a public meeting at Blythswood the same people "resolved that every man liable to be taxed should contribute 5s. towards the building. This sum they again repeated twice told, so that in all each man, Christian and heathen, paid a sum of 15s. for the erection of a public missionary institution, making a total of over £4000."² They have also cut long water-races, bringing much land under cultivation, and raising crops of wheat, oats, potatoes, and other produce. Numerous village schools have been erected, and Soga, one of these neophytes, has produced a Kafir translation of the *Pilgrim's Progress*, which is said to be "a marvel of accuracy and lucidity of expression."³

The Bushmen

These aborigines, hunted down like wild beasts both by the Kafirs and the early Dutch settlers, have almost disappeared from Cape Colony proper. A few scattered groups still roam the steppes along the south bank of

¹ Rev. J. Macdonald, *op. cit.* p. 194.

² *Ib.* p. 223.

³ *Ib.* p. 47.

the Orange, and some even survive dispersed amongst the Kafir nations. A small group still inhabit a cave near the deep gorge of the Umga in Griqualand East, where they have the reputation of being great magicians and rain-makers. Elsewhere they have left memorials of their former presence in the coloured drawings of men and animals covering the rocky walls of their cave dwellings in many parts of Kaffraria. In one of these caves near Blythswood, "the colours, when grime and dirt were washed away, proved to be as fresh as when left by the hand of the savage artist. The drawings are of men—both in the attitude of warriors, dancers, and as stalkers of game—oxen, various species of antelope, elephants, hippopotami, and ostriches, and they are painted in white, terra-cotta, brown of various shades, and a pigment verging upon black. Whence they obtained their colours, or with what ingredients they mixed them, no one knows. The art, rude as it was, has been lost, and many eminent men have puzzled over the secret in vain."¹

Chief Tribal Divisions in the Cape and Dependencies

SAN (Bushmen)	Left bank Lower Orange, a few in Kafirland.
HOTTENTOTS—		
Namaqua	Little Namaqualand.
Korana (Koraqua)	Upper Orange, Vaal, and Modder rivers.
Griqua (half-caste Dutch Hottentots)	Griqualand West and East.
Gonaqua (half-caste Negro Hottentots)	East frontier toward Kafirland.
BASUTOS—		
Ba-Tau	}	. . . Basutoland.
Ba-Puti		
Ma-Kolokwe		

¹ Rev. J. Macdonald, p. 61.

KAFIRS—

Ama-Xosa group (see p. 209) . West Kafirland.

Ama-Tembu (Tambukies) . Tembuland.

Ama-Mpondo { Kongwe, Kongwela,
Kobala, Kwera,
Nyati, Bala, Yali } Pondoland.

Ama-Baka
Ama-Mpondomisi } East Griqualand.
Ama-Xexibe }

Ama-Fingu { Bele, Abasembotweni,
Zizi, Hlubi, Kuze,
Sekunene, Totyeni,
Khelidweni, Ntuntzela,
Shwawa, Ntozake } Finguland W. of Tembuland.

Towns—Stations

Cape Town, capital of the Colony, and, next to Zanzibar, largest city in Africa south of the equator, lies on the south side of Table Bay, where it is enclosed on the west by the "Lion," on the south by the "Table," and on the east by the "Devil's Peak." Thus it faces due north, and not towards the austral seas, as is popularly supposed. To seafarers arriving from Europe a superb panoramic view is presented by the city creeping up the slopes of the encircling heights on the lines laid down by its Dutch founders in 1652. Westwards lie the business quarter, docks and shipping, protected by the Lion Mountain from the fierce western gales, and by extensive harbour works from the heavy seas rolling in from the Southern Ocean. On the east side the Castle occupies the site of the original Dutch fort, which, like most of the old Dutch structures, has been long replaced by buildings in the English style. Beyond the Castle follows a modern fort, and still farther east, near the Salt River estuary, the observatory intimately associated with the names of La Caille, Herschel, and Maclear, and



CAPE TOWN AND TABLE MOUNTAIN.

at present directed by Dr. David Gill, one of the foremost of living astronomers.¹ The environs are everywhere dotted over by pleasant villa residences, or laid out in parks and gardens, which penetrate far into the surrounding upland glens.

Although the great majority of the inhabitants, at present (1891) numbering 51,000,² are either English or English-speaking Dutch, the stranger is struck by the motley character of the people thronging the main thoroughfares and market-places. Amongst these are Mohammedan Malays, descendants of those introduced by the Dutch from the Eastern Archipelago; "Mozambiques" (Negroes), also descendants of those originally imported as slaves; Arabs and Turks connected with the Angora trade; Kafirs, Hottentots, and every shade of transition between the black, yellow, and white races.

Cape Town, whose foreign trade is exceeded by that of Port Elizabeth, exports considerable quantities of wool and of the wines grown on the eastern slopes of the neighbouring Table Mountain. The railway, about thirty miles long, connecting Table Bay with False Bay, traverses the whole of this highly-cultivated and richly-wooded district, passing in succession by the thriving settlements of *Rondesbosch*, *Claremont*, and *Wijnberg*. *Kalk Bay*, being the southern terminus on the coast, lies a short distance above the Government naval station of Simon's Town, on the inlet of Simon's Bay some miles

¹ This observatory, which, owing to its position at the southern extremity of the Continent, is one of the most important astronomic stations in the world, may be said to date from the year 1685, when the French erected a temporary station on this spot. Their work was continued by La Caille (1751), who here determined the lunar parallax, and since 1772 by English astronomers.

² With the suburbs (Cape district, or peninsula), 84,000.

north of Cape Point. The line has now been extended from Kalk Bay to this place.

Such is the unique configuration of the Cape Town district that the contrast between the capital, open towards Table Bay, and these almost suburban settlements nestling under the shelter of Table Mountain, is most surprising. All travellers, after venting their rage against the merciless south-easterly trade winds of Cape



Town, wax eloquent over the rural charms of such delightfully sequestered

retreats as Wijnberg, surrounded by lovely groves and glades which merge higher up the western slopes in the luxuriant vineyards of *Constantia*.

Saldanha Bay, on the west coast due north of Cape Town, is by far the finest natural haven in the Colony, of easy access, spacious, very deep, and almost completely landlocked. It was long the chief naval station of the Dutch; but since their time it has for some inexplicable reason been completely deserted. No vessel ever penetrates into its silent waters; its picturesque shores are occupied only by a few isolated farmsteads and fishing

hamlets, and the nearest town is *Malmesbury*, over thirty miles to the south-east.

Nor are there any other centres of population on the whole of this coast except *Oliphant*, at the mouth of the Oliphant River, and *Port Nolloth*, a few miles below the Orange estuary. Port Nolloth is the outlet for the ores of the Little Namaqua copper mines of *Ookiep*, near the *Vogel-Klip* peak (3400 feet), with which it is connected by a horse railway 92 miles long. The mines, with many thousand acres of unproductive land, belong to an English Company, which has been working them since 1863; the yearly output ranges from 10,000 to 20,000 tons, yielding about three-tenths of pure metal. Shafts recently sunk to a depth of over 500 feet have tapped deposits even thicker than those nearer the surface, so that the *Ookiep* mines have so far fully realised the expectations of those who many years ago declared that they would prove "inexhaustible." The geological system is the same as that of the Great Namaqua uplands north of the Orange River, where rich copper lodes are also known to exist.

The great trunk line of railway running from Cape Town mainly in a north-easterly direction to Kimberley, and in the year 1890 extended northwards to Vryburg, forms a kind of parting-line between two absolutely distinct regions—the arid and almost uninhabited north-western steppe lands, and the relatively well-watered, fertile, and thickly settled south-eastern provinces. North of this line there are no large towns, even the capitals of divisions, such as *Calvinia*, *Piquetberg*, and *Clanwilliam*, being merely rural villages. These western "chief towns" are followed north-eastward by *Sutherland*, *Fraserburg*, *Victoria West*, *Carnarvon*, and *Hopetown*, the last on the left bank of the Orange a little

below the point where it is crossed by the railway. Before the opening of the line, Hopetown was an important station on the highway going northwards, and it still retains much of its prosperity, thanks to the general development of the country and the local trade created by the Griqualand West diamond fields. Its position is also secured by the bridge which here crosses the Orange, a noble structure no less than 1400 feet long. Hopetown is 600 miles distant from the Atlantic, and from this point to its estuary the Orange has not a single permanent settlement beyond a few isolated farmsteads, some missionary stations, Bushman camping-grounds, and on the German side the little colony of *Stolzenfels*.

Even on the main railway itself, although there are several thriving stations, there are no great centres of population. None have a population of 7000 except *Paarl* (the "Pearl"), which stands at the point where the line is deflected northwards by the steep Drakensteen escarpments of the outer range. *Paarl*, which, like the neighbouring *Stellenbosch*, is one of the early Dutch settlements, is a favourite summer resort, surrounded by orange groves, gardens, woodlands, and the most extensive vineyards in the Colony. Beyond it follow *Worcester* (2000 feet above the sea), within 75 miles of the highest point (3600 feet) reached by the railway; *Groot Fontein*, already within the Great Karroo; *Beaufort West* (3000 feet), near the source of the Gauritz; *De Aar*, at the junction of the line from Port Elizabeth; and *Orange River*, on the left bank of the Orange, ten miles above Hopetown

In the region south of the trunk line are concentrated the great bulk of the white settlers, who here find a climate, soil, and general environment more like those of

their European homes than perhaps any other part of the Continent. It is noteworthy that during his visit to the Graham's Town district in 1875, the Rev. James Macdonald found a goodly number of the settlers of 1820 still living, men who well remembered the early days, when Albany was a wilderness and lions prowled about where are now the paved streets of Graham's Town. This cradle of the British pioneers in Austral Africa he speaks of as "a well-built, well-paved, and well-lighted town, made the ideal of rural beauty by the rows of magnificent trees growing on the edge of the footpaths. Every thoroughfare is an avenue of oaks or blackwoods, and every garden is filled with choicest fruit trees. The situation is, besides, most romantic, being in a deep hollow surrounded by green and grassy hills, and these separated by deep narrow gorges, overhung by thickly wooded banks and frowning precipices." ¹

Graham's Town, which dates from 1812, is the centre of administration for the eastern provinces, and even aspires to the honour of being chosen as the capital of the future South African Confederation. It stands 1750 feet above sea-level, in a healthy district, where, however, owing to the sour quality of the herbage ("Zuurveld"), stock-breeding and wool-growing have in recent years been largely replaced by ostrich-farming. The population, chiefly English, is steadily increasing,² and the place is now connected by rail both with *Port Elizabeth* in the south-west, and with the new outlet of *Port Alfred*, the nearest point on the coast at the mouth of the little River Kowie.

Port Elizabeth, the largest place in the Colony next to Cape Town, has already outstripped the capital in the

¹ *Op. cit.* p. 9.

² Over 10,400 in 1891.

extent of its foreign exchanges,¹ its chief exports being diamonds, wool, ostrich feathers, and hides. The great commercial prosperity of Port Elizabeth is due to its central position, nearly midway between Cape Town and Durban, about 800 miles round the coast from both, and little over half that distance by rail from Kimberley. This seaport, which lies under the sheltering headland of Cape Recife on the west side of Algoa Bay, may thus be regarded as the most convenient natural outlet for the whole of Austral Africa. But, although dating from the memorable year 1820, turning-point in the history of British South African colonisation, it has hitherto done next to nothing to improve its splendid natural position; and the harbour, or rather open roadstead, is so exposed to the fierce south-easterly gales, that it is visited by but few sailing vessels, nearly the whole of its foreign trade being conducted by powerful ocean-going steamers. Landing from these steamers in rough weather is a trying ordeal, not unattended by a certain risk. In other respects "Port Elizabeth is an active and thriving town, showing a wonderful amount of life in the sixty-third year of its age (1883). The buildings are exceedingly handsome, and an especial feature is the new feather, ivory, and general produce market, which is a spacious as well as a fine building. The place is healthy, but exposed to violent and piercing winds."²

This "Liverpool of Africa," as it has been called, whose population (nearly all British) has increased from 13,000 in 1875 to over 23,000 in 1891, is the seaward terminus of two important railways, one running

¹ Population, 1891, over 23,000; exports, including diamonds, £2,000,000; imports, £2,800,000; exports of Cape Town, £1,100,000; imports, £2,000,000.

² W. M. Kerr, *The Far Interior*, i. p. 9.

north-east to *Alicedale* with a branch to Graham's Town, then north through *Somerset*, *Cradock*, and *Middelburg* to *Colesberg* for *Bloemfontein*, capital of the Orange Free State; another branch above Middelburg runs north-westwards through *Hanover* to its junction with the main trunk line at De Aar. The other line lies more to the west, running through *Uitenhage*, *Blue Cliff*, *Mount Stewart* and *Oatlands* to *Graaf Reynet*, where its further extension northwards is arrested by the semicircular barrier of the Sneeuwbergen. Most of the places here mentioned are little more than thriving market-towns and centres of agricultural industry; but a certain historic interest attaches to Graaf Reynet as indicating the farthest point towards the north-east reached by the early Boer trekkers over a hundred years ago. It lies in a fertile district about the head-waters of the Sunday river, just beyond the Great Karroo, whence its title of "Gem of the Desert."

Between Cape Town and this district the onward march of the first Dutch squatters is marked by such old settlements as *Swellendam*, *Olifant*, *Oudtshorn*, *Jansenville*, and, in the extreme south, the already-mentioned Uitenhage. This place has now become completely English, and throughout the whole of the western division many British stations have been founded interspersed amid the older Dutch settlements. Such are, going west, *Willowmore*, *Uniondale*, *Melville*, *George*, *Aliwal South*, *Riversdale*, and *Port Beaufort*; the last mentioned, standing at the mouth of the navigable Breede river, enjoys the distinction of being the only fluvial port in the whole Colony.

In the eastern division beyond Graham's Town, towards the Kafir frontier, there are no Dutch and very few English settlements, the chief being *Bedford*, *Seymour*,

Alice, Fort Piddie, and, in the extreme east, *East London, King William's Town, Cathcart, Queen's Town, Molteno*, and *Aliwal North* on the Orange River at the Free State frontier. The six last mentioned are all stations on another railway, the respective seaward and landward termini of which are East London and Aliwal North. In the same district such names as *Berlin, Potsdam, Braunschweig*, and *Frankfurt* indicate the sites of the various settlements formed by the Anglo-German legion when it was disbanded after the Crimean War. Here the administrative centre is King William's Town, or simply *King*, which has become a flourishing trading place and chief depôt for the traffic with Kaffraria. East London, the only outlet for the whole region, can only by courtesy be called a "seaport"; despite the extensive harbour works carried out in recent years, it still remains an exposed roadstead inaccessible for days together, and locally said to be visited chiefly by vessels heavily insured at Lloyd's.

Railway Development

The railway from East London, which crosses the Stormberg at a pass 5750 feet high, traverses the Molteno coalfields, whence all the colonial railways draw their supplies of fuel. At Bethulie the Orange River is crossed by a bridge 860 feet long, where a connection is effected with the Orange Free State system. The more westerly line from Port Elizabeth has also been continued from Colesberg across the Orange to Bloemfontein, capital of the Free State, and on to Pretoria, capital of the South African Republic. From this trunk line a branch is to run eastwards to

Harrismith, where a junction will be effected with a branch running from Ladysmith on the Natal line across the Drakenberg. The same Natal line has also been advanced from its former terminus at Newcastle northwards through the Transvaal to Johannesburg, while the Lourenzo Marques line has at last penetrated from Delagoa Bay across Komati Poort to Pretoria. Thus effect has already been given to the recommendation made at the Conference of 1888, at Cape Town, to develop the South African railways in the direction of fusion in a common continental system. The various railway schemes now contemplated by the Colonial Government include the extension of the main trunk line from Mafeking, reached in 1895, to Palapye for Matabili and Mashona Lands and the Zambesi, with a possible extension to Buluwayo and Salisbury, and a junction with the line which is now running down the Pungwe valley to the Indian Ocean above Beira. The general scheme would then be completed in its main outlines by branches from Mafeking or Vryburg through Transvaal to the Delagoa Bay line, from Kimberley through the Free State, and ultimately through Basutoland to the St. John's River Railway.

Griqualand West and its Diamond Fields

Griqualand West, a part of Cape Colony proper lying beyond the Orange, takes its name from the mongrel Hottentot Griquas (see p. 237) who migrated thither under their chiefs, Waterboer and Adam Kok, about the middle of the century. Later, Adam Kok, with some of his followers, passed eastwards to the district since known as Griqualand East, which now also

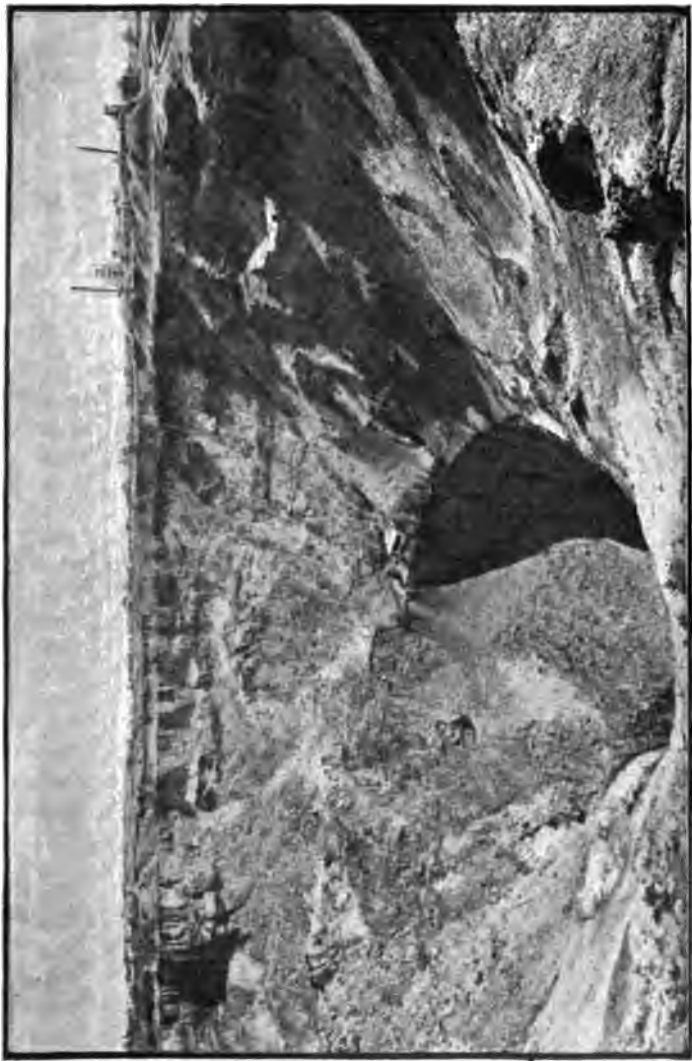
forms an integral part of the Colony. Waterboer was thus left sole master of a desolate upland plateau 4000 feet above sea-level, producing little but scrub and coarse herbage, and at that time probably not worth a shilling an acre. Since then many "claims" a few square yards in extent have often changed hands at higher prices than freehold property in the City of London. But these claims occur in by far the richest diamantiferous district yet discovered on the face of the globe.

Diamonds, however, were first found, not in Griqualand West, but in the Hopetown district on the south side of the Orange. A sparkling "pebble" here picked up early in 1867 by the child of a Dutch farmer, or obtained from a Bushman, was pronounced by Dr. Atherstone of Graham's Town to be a genuine diamond, and next year figured at the Paris Exhibition as "the first African diamond." It was eventually sold for £500, and was followed in 1869 by a much larger stone obtained in the same locality from a Griqua or Kafir medicine man, which, when cut down from eighty-three to over forty-six carats, was named the "Star of South Africa" and sold to the Earl of Dudley for £11,200. No more diamonds were found in this district; but a diligent search down the Orange and beyond the Vaal confluence, and then up the Vaal, the Vet, and the Modder, led to several valuable finds scattered sporadically over a vast area, as far north as Bloemhof near Pretoria, in Transvaal, in the Orange fifty miles below the Vaal confluence, at Jagersfontein nearly 100 miles south of the Vaal, and even at Mamusa seventy-five miles beyond Jagersfontein. But the only valuable river diggings yet discovered are those of Pniel Kopje and Klipdrift (now Barkly), facing each other on the left and right banks of the Vaal respectively. The diamonds of this district, which are

mostly associated with garnets, agates, and other chalcidonic stones, are said to be of purer water than any others, and these Vet diggings still yield over £40,000 a year, the total production down to 1893 being considerably over £2,000,000.

But the true placer or dry diggings, where the crystals occur *in situ*, and have consequently to be mined with costly appliances, lie clustered together about twenty-four miles south-east of Pniel, in a district less than twelve miles in circumference close to the Free State frontier. Here have been opened the four great "pipes," as they are called, of Bultfontein, Du Toit's Pan, De Beers, and Kimberley, the last, which gives its name to the neighbouring town, being the richest diamond mine in the world. The pipes, originally rising above the surface in the form of rounded kopjes (hills or knolls) 60 or 80 and even 100 feet high, are natural "chimneys," most probably extinct craters, at first supposed to taper downwards, but now found to broaden out to depths of over 2000 feet. They penetrate in descending order through tufaceous limestone, white schists, erupted diorites, augite porphyry, basalts, sandstones, clays, carboniferous schists, triassic and metamorphic rocks, down to the primitive granite and gneiss.

But the diamonds are found, not in these formations, but in the yellow and lower down blue eruptive matter which fills the pipes, and which, from the inclined position of the originally horizontal enclosing shales, is supposed to have been forced upwards by the pressure of the underground gases. In the blue rock, which still contains much dangerous firedamp, the crystals are distributed apparently in a certain regular order known to experienced miners. Their origin is unknown, but the pure carbon of which they consist may possibly have



DE BEERS MINE, KIMBERLEY. OPEN WORKINGS AT THE PRESENT TIME.
(From a Photograph by J. F. Middlebrook, Kimberley.)

been supplied by the carboniferous schists found at great depths in the encircling walls of the pipes.

"It may be generally concluded that the diamonds were originally developed in an igneous matrix belonging probably to that large series of eruptive rocks which have burst forth through the Karroo strata at so many points in South Africa.) In the dry diggings these diamonds are probably not far removed from their original position; but by denudation of the diamantiferous rocks the gems have been carried far and wide over the country. In the river diggings they have been transported to their present position by the action of running water, whilst in some of the superficial deposits elsewhere they have been distributed by means of moving ice."¹

A peculiarity of the Cape diamond fields, as compared with those of Brazil and India, is the high proportion of large stones that they have yielded. Besides those already mentioned, several have been found weighing upwards of 100 carats in the rough state. The famous "Stewart," found in an outside claim in 1872, weighed 288 carats, being exceeded in size by only three others in the whole world.

At first the stones were, so to say, quarried in open workings; but during the operations numerous landslips and disastrous fires² and explosions occurred, disturbing the natural distribution and otherwise greatly increasing the cost of excavation. At present there are no open workings, all operations being carried on by means of shafts and underground galleries as in ordinary coal mines. With the increasing supply came the necessity of controlling the output to prevent a glut of the market.

¹ E. W. Streeter, *Precious Stones and Gems*, p. 82.

² The De Beers mine was nearly destroyed by fire in July 1888.

Individual claims were gradually bought up by the larger capitalists, sometimes at enormous prices, and thus the whole of the diamond interests became fused in one amalgamated corporation.

Owing to the great depth of the pipes the mines may be regarded as practically inexhaustible. Some idea of their richness may be formed from the fact that in several years (1889, 1890, 1891) the output exceeded £4,000,000, while from 1867 to 1893 the total yield fell little short of £66,500,000. With the development of the industry, the necessity was soon felt of establishing orderly administration in the district. Waterboer having been induced to cede all his rights of sovereignty to the Cape Government, the whole territory was annexed in 1871, and incorporated in the Colony in 1877. The disputed frontiers towards Transvaal in the north-east and the Free State in the east were settled by agreements based on various more or less accurate surveys.¹ Westwards also the borders were extended beyond the Vaal, enclosing a considerable slice of the present British Bechuanaland. As thus enlarged, Griqualand West, as it was officially designated, comprises an area of about 18,000 square miles, with purely conventional frontiers everywhere except on the south side, where they follow the course of the Orange River.

Kimberley, centre of the diamond industry, has a somewhat fluctuating population of about 20,000, including the neighbouring quarter of Beaconsfield. It stands at an elevation of over 4000 feet above the sea in a hot

¹ It was the award made by Lieutenant-Governor Keate of Natal, settling the Transvaal frontier, that led to the resignation of Pretorius and the election of President Burgess in 1871. The negotiations with the Free State were protracted till 1877, when the Bloemfontein Government surrendered its claims to the disputed territory for an indemnity of £90,000.

but healthy district suitable for European settlement. The great drawback was a lack of water, which is now supplied from the Vaal. Distant 620 miles by rail from Cape Town and 430 from Port Elizabeth, Kimberley is rapidly becoming a great stronghold of British power and influence throughout South Central Africa. This influence is already felt by the neighbouring Ba-Tlaro, Ba-Tlapi and other Bechuana tribes, who are yearly adapting themselves more and more to the conditions of Western culture. Here was held the first "South African and International Exhibition" in the year 1892.

Resources—Tillage—Pasturage—Industries—Trade

Apart from the Griqualand West diamond fields, Cape Colony proper does not appear to possess much mineral wealth. There are the already described Little Namaqualand copper mines (p. 256), and the extensive coal measures of the Stormberg uplands. The copper mines yield ores for exportation to England to the yearly value of about £600,000, and the coalfields, worked only for local consumption, undoubtedly contain a vast store of fuel for future use.

But the surface of the land must always constitute the chief resource of the Colony. Owing to the generally deficient rainfall pastoral pursuits necessarily prevail over tillage. At the same time the enormous disproportion that at present exists between the extent of land under tillage and pasture will be greatly modified by improved methods of artificial irrigation. Of the 92,000,000 acres distributed amongst 20,000 holdings less than 1,000,000 were under cultivation in 1890,

the chief crops being wheat (4,000,000 bushels) and maize (3,000,000). Considerable quantities of oats, millet, barley, rye, potatoes, and tobacco are also raised ; but the cereals still fall short of the local demand. Nearly 20,000 acres are occupied by the most productive vineyards in the world, yielding an average of 6,000,000 gallons of wine besides 1,250,000 of brandy.

But more land is yearly brought under cultivation, especially where advantage can be taken of the natural slope to capture and store the surface waters in artificial reservoirs. Some of these basins are of vast size, containing from 100 to 200 and even 250 million gallons, and by their means extensive tracts in the Karroos have been reclaimed. Elsewhere the streams are utilised and distributed by canals over the surrounding lands, while the underground waters are reached by deep wells, pumps, and other appliances. Thus "large trees, orchards, and tall succulent herbage now flourish in districts where formerly nothing was to be seen but bare arid lands, relieved here and there with patches of thorny scrub. But these oases in the wilderness are occasionally exposed to the ravages of the all-devouring locusts, clouds of which at intervals of fifteen or twenty years alight on the verdant slopes and bottom lands, in a few hours consuming every blade of grass."¹

Pasturage and stock-breeding of all kinds have been greatly developed, especially in the eastern provinces, since the cessation of the Kafir wars. Cattle of the old long-horned Dutch variety are largely bred as draught animals and even as mounts ; the native fat-tailed sheep are intended chiefly for the shambles, while the Angora and English breeds yield large quantities of wool for

¹ Reclus. xiii. p. 141.

exportation. The subjoined table shows the increase in live stock during the last eighteen years :—

	1875.	1893.
Cattle	1,110,000 . . .	1,970,000
Sheep	11,000,000 . . .	16,794,000
Goats	3,000,000 . . .	5,618,000
Horses, Mules, Asses	290,000 . . .	450,000
Ostriches	100,000 . . .	232,000

Of late years attention has also been paid to the industries, and protective duties have even been introduced for the purpose of encouraging the local manufactures. For textiles, hardware, chemicals, paper, china, and earthenware, the Colony is still mainly dependent on the mother country ; but more or less successful essays have already been made at distilling, brewing, tanning, even spinning and weaving, carriage - building and soap - making.

The foreign trade, mainly with Great Britain and carried on almost exclusively under the British flag, is also rapidly increasing, the total imports and exports having advanced from £12,000,000 in 1884 to £24,695,000 in 1893.

Education—Finance—Religion—Communications

Education, not being compulsory, is still in a somewhat backward state. The University, founded in 1873, is, like the London University, a purely examining body, with direct control over the five colleges, which are aided by public grants, and which prepare young men for the liberal professions. There are also numerous primary schools aided by small grants, and divided into three classes according to the nationality of the pupils. Those

intended for the instruction of the half-castes and aborigines are in charge of the religious bodies and missionaries, although since 1875 there has been no State Church. By the Act of Separation vested interests were respected, but the ecclesiastical budget (chiefly pensions) had already fallen to little over £8000 in 1890. With the exception of about 13,000 Moham-medans (chiefly Malays) and 10,000 Roman Catholics, the whole population of Cape Colony proper professes some form of Protestantism. The majority are members of the Reformed Dutch Church (193,000), the next in order of numerical importance being the Wesleyans (84,000), the Episcopalians (64,000), Independents (42,000), and Presbyterians (30,000). In the Trans-keian dependencies the great bulk of the natives are still pagans, though Christianity is slowly spreading from several missionary centres.

The finances of the Colony are in a healthy condition; the revenue, derived mainly from taxation, services, and colonial estate, generally exceeds the expenditure;¹ and although there is a debt of £22,000,000, the great bulk of the money has been invested in useful public works, over £14,000,000 on railways alone, including the Kimberley line. The railways, which are Government property, yield an average profit of about five per cent on the capital invested. Over 2250 miles were open for traffic in 1893, and the system is being extended beyond the frontier in the direction of Zambesia. At the same date 5482 miles of telegraph with over 13,000 miles of wire had been completed.

Two lines of mail steamers, the Union and Messrs. Donald Currie's, ply regularly between Cape Town and England, the run of 6000 miles being usually made

¹ Revenue (1893), £6,446,000; Expenditure, £5,734,000.

under twenty days. Already as much as £1,560,000¹ have been spent on the extensive harbour works at Cape Town, which is rapidly becoming one of the great coaling stations of the world.

Since the close of the Kafir and Zulu wars the land forces have been gradually reduced to a corps of mounted rifles of 780 men, and about 4000 horse and foot volunteers. With the defensive forces may be included a well-trained and well-armed body of about 800 police. There is also a kind of landwehr, or territorial militia, all burghers being liable under the old Dutch law to be called out in cases of emergency.

Administration

Since 1853 the Colony has been in the enjoyment of representative institutions, enlarged and variously modified in 1865, and completed in 1872 by an Act providing for "the introduction of the system of executive administration, commonly called Responsible Government." The executive is vested in a Governor and an Executive Council appointed by the Crown, while the legislative power rests with a Legislative Council of twenty-two members elected for seven years, presided over by the Chief Justice, and a House of Assembly of seventy-six members returned by the towns and country districts for a period of five years. Both Houses are elected by the same voters, who are qualified by occupation of house property valued at £25 or receipt of a salary of £50, or wages of £25 with board and lodging. All members of Parliament receive one guinea a day for their services, and an additional fifteen shillings a day for a period not

¹ The whole of this sum has been raised by a harbour rate without the aid of any loans.

exceeding ninety days if residing over 15 miles from the capital. The Ministry comprises five members: the Treasurer, who is also Prime Minister ("Premier"), with a salary of £1750; the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works, and the Secretary of Native Affairs, each with a salary of £1500. English remains the official language, but since 1882 members of Parliament may address the House in English or Dutch at option.

Administration of the Dependencies

The Dependencies, that is, the various Transkeian territories of Kaffraria except Griqualand East, are unrepresented in the Cape Parliament. They are administered by magistrates on a plan of which that of Tembuland may be taken as the type. Here the administrative and judicial system consists simply of a Chief Magistrate and Resident Magistrates, the former revising the sentences of the latter, and jointly with two of them trying capital cases. The laws of the territory are embodied in the Tembuland "Regulations" enacted by proclamation of the Governor, and based on the Cape laws adapted to the local requirements.

From this system must be excluded the Crown Colony of Basutoland, which since 1884 is governed by a Resident Commissioner under the direction of the High Commissioner for South Africa. This official, whose functions have hitherto always been exercised by the Governor of Cape Colony, possesses the legislative authority, which he exercises by proclamation. The country is divided into six districts (Maseru, Leribe, Cornet Spruit, Berea, Mafeking, and Quthing), and these again into wards under hereditary chiefs allied to the

family of the paramount chief, Moshesh. In Basutoland there is no public debt, and the revenue normally exceeds the expenditure.¹ The jurisdiction of the Cape Government was extended to Pondoland in 1894, when five magistrates were appointed to administer justice in that territory.

Political Forecast—Confederation

Since the cessation of the native wars, and the growth of a more friendly feeling between the various sections of the white population, the attention of Colonial statesmen has been directed towards a possible political fusion of the various South African States and Colonies on the basis of their common national interests. Intimately connected with this movement are the various proposals already made for the adoption of a uniform tariff, and the extension of the Colonial railway system northwards to and beyond the Boer States. It is felt that such projects, which appear to be generally accepted in principle, contain nearly all the elements needed for the foundation of a general international superstructure, which should obviously be based on a customs union, and the development of free and rapid communication between the interested States. Thus alone could be effaced the political barriers, often mere conventional lines, by which these States are at present grouped in separate autonomous communities.

But the question of actual federation can scarcely be regarded as yet ripe for serious discussion. Meantime the problems awaiting solution in the near future may be considered almost more of an anthropological than of a political nature. In a region generally presenting the same physical conditions, with a remark-

¹ £43,670 and £41,300 in 1894 respectively.

ably uniform climate, hot and dry rather than hot and moist as in intertropical Africa, and almost everywhere far more suitable for pasture than tillage, it should not be difficult to reconcile the local, commercial and landed interests. Some trouble of this sort has been anticipated from the railway now (1895) in progress up the Pungwe valley to Manica and Mashona Lands, as being likely to divert the future traffic of Zambesia from the Cape to Mozambique. Beira, the port of the Pungwe on the Indian Ocean, is distant only 380 miles from Mount Hampden, in the heart of Mashonaland, whereas Cape Town lies nearly 1700 miles from that place. Hence the foreign traffic created by the colonisation already begun of the northern Eldorado, would necessarily follow the Pungwe route to the detriment of the Cape people, who voted the funds for the Bechuanaland railway, on the very ground that it led to the rich mining and agricultural region of Mashona and Manica Lands. Thus it is argued that the very prosperity of this region might involve the debasement of Cape Town and Port Elizabeth.

Doubtless here may lurk the elements of a momentary conflict of interests between the cis- and trans-Orange regions. But it will be obvious enough to the wise statesmen who are at present moulding the future destinies of Austral Africa, that under no circumstances can any direct harm come to the Cape from the future development of Zambesia. The growth of a flourishing British colony north of the Limpopo must in the long-run necessarily react beneficially on the whole of the southern section of the Continent. The geographical position of the southern ports is too advantageous to dread the rivalry of any convenient outlets of trade on the eastern seaboard, and as the country progresses

there will naturally be room for all. Hence the Bechuanaland railway must be regarded as prospectively a good investment, and this great continental line will doubtless ultimately be continued to the Tati mines in Matabililand, and thence through the Mashonaland gold-fields to the Zambesi. When also the eastern branches through the Orange State to Natal and Durban, through Transvaal to Delagoa Bay, and down the Pungwe to the coast above Sofala are completed, the consolidation of the "South African Confederacy" will have been virtually accomplished.

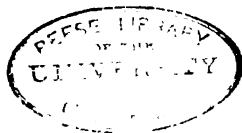
Far more serious than these material conflicts are the difficulties arising from the heterogeneous character of the South African populations. In the United States there is at present but one serious racial question, that of the Negro in the "black zone" of the Southern States. Yet so complex are the problems, so grave the issues involved, that it seems to pass the wit of man to devise any adequate remedy. One scheme after another, such as miscegenation and the isolation of the black lands, is proposed only to be dismissed, and now a solution is sought in the wholesale deportation of some 8,000,000 Negroes to the land whence their forefathers originally came. But in South Africa there are, or appear to be, several racial questions, though here also that of the blacks outweighs all others combined in gravity. In fact the Hottentot difficulty may be considered as already set at rest by a somewhat rapid process of elimination (see p. 238). That of the Boers, as opposed to the British element, appears to be also settling itself in an amicable way by a natural process of fusion, and by the spread of the English language amongst all classes of the white community.

But when this community has thus become practically

British in speech, social usages, free institutions, and general culture, and when all available vacant spaces have been filled by its natural increase, the black difficulty will begin to assume an acute phase. Doubtless the Negroid Bantu peoples of South Africa stand at a considerably higher level of culture than the true Negroes; but miscegenation with them is as impracticable as with the blacks of the Southern States. Isolation also can be regarded only as a temporary remedy, for the reserved territories, such as Kaffraria, Zulu, and Swazi Lands, have already been encroached upon at various points.

But much of South Africa is essentially a pastoral region, and all pastoral peoples are of more or less migratory habits. Hence, under little pressure, many Zulu-Kafir tribes might be induced gradually to remove northwards to those parts of Zambesia which are unsuitable for white colonisation, and whence their ancestors originally migrated to their present homes. It is noteworthy, in this connection, that after the whites had found their way into Matabililand, the paramount chief, Lobengula, whose father, Umsilikatzi, came originally from Zululand and the Transvaal, had long been meditating a further move with all his people northwards beyond the Zambesi. Twice he had a large number of boats collected for the purpose, and had he succeeded in effecting his escape across the Zambesi after his overthrow, he would have found that he had already been preceded by the Angoni, Maviti, and other kindred Zulu peoples, who are descended from still earlier immigrants from the region south of the Limpopo. Nor are such movements confined to the Zulus, for some years ago the Makololo (Mantatees), who were a Ba-Suto people, settled as conquerors in Barotseland about the Middle Zambesi.

The remedy, therefore, for future racial conflicts caused by mutual overcrowding may be found in migration—a far more natural and more easily effected system of deportation than that proposed by Colonel Ruffin and others for the black element in the Southern States. This question thus foreseen and provided for, ample room will be found in the healthy and cultivable regions of the Austral African Confederacy for an indefinite expansion of the English-speaking Anglo-Dutch communities. As far as can at present be judged, this confederacy will be developed on lines different both from those of the Dominion of Canada and of the Federal States of the North American Republic. Its several members—Cape Colony proper, Natal, and the two Boer republics—will continue to constitute practically autonomous states, each with its own local legislature for the management of its internal affairs, all represented on equitable terms in an imperial Parliament charged with the general interests. The vast regions lying north of this political group—Bechuana, Zambesi, and Nyassa Lands—must long continue to be administered under imperial control through chartered corporations or otherwise. But these also will naturally be admitted to membership, whenever, in the fulness of time, sufficiently developed to be entrusted with representative institutions. A first step was taken in this direction in June 1895, when the Cape Parliament accepted a motion for the annexation of the Crown Colony of British Bechuana-land.



CHAPTER VII

SOUTH-EAST AFRICA

(NATAL WITH ZULULAND; ORANGE FREE STATE AND
TRANSVAAL)

General Survey: Areas and Populations—Historic Retrospect: the Zulu Military System; the Great Trek; History of Natal and the Boer States—Physical Features—Rivers: the Limpopo—Coast Lagoons—Climate—Natural Resources: Mineral Wealth—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—The Coolies, Zulus, and Whites of Natal—Inhabitants of the Orange Free State—Inhabitants of Transvaal—Towns, Stations—Swazi and Tonga Lands.

General Survey: Areas and Populations

THANKS to the combined influence of the warm Mozambique current setting from the Indian Ocean, and to the rain-bearing atmospheric currents setting from the same quarter, all animal and vegetable life in extra-tropical South Africa may be said to gravitate towards the south-eastern seaboard. It has already been seen (p. 256) that in Cape Colony proper the parting-line between the more or less thickly peopled settled districts and the almost uninhabitable western steppes is roughly indicated by the main line of railway running from Cape Town north-eastwards to the Orange above Hopetown. The extension of that line

to Mafeking, and its continuation thence to Palapye (Palachwe), will similarly mark off the more arid region of Bechuanaland, merging through the Kalahari wilderness westwards in the absolute desert of Great Namaqualand, from the grassy plateau and well-watered coastlands stretching from Bechuanaland eastwards to the Indian Ocean. The western section, with an area of over 600,000 square miles, has a population of probably less than 300,000, whereas in the eastern, with an area of little over 200,000 square miles, the population approaches 1,800,000.

This eastern section, which extends from the head-streams of the Orange northwards to the Limpopo, comprises physically two distinct regions—the terraced coastlands and the inland plateau; but it is divided politically between the English, the Boers, and the Portuguese. The north-east corner between Transvaal and the Limpopo forms a continuation of Portuguese East Africa, whose extreme southern limit, as determined by the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of August 1890, is marked by a line running from Kosi Bay below Delagoa Bay through Tongaland due west to the east frontier of Swaziland. Everything south of that line is British, comprising the Colony of Natal, with the dependencies of Zululand and the southern section of Tongaland. The whole of the territory west of these coastlands is distributed between the two Boer republics of the Orange Free State and Transvaal (South African Republic). Thus, excluding the Portuguese enclave, there are here grouped together as many as six political divisions with areas and populations as under:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Population (1891).
Natal, British Colony	21,000	544,000
Zululand	9,000	142,000
South Tongaland	2,000	40,000
Orange Free State, Boer Republic	42,000	210,000
Transvaal " "	114,000	760,000
Swaziland	3,000	80,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	191,000	1,778,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>

Historic Retrospect : The Zulu Military System ; The Great Trek ; History of Natal and the Boer States

Our first definite knowledge of the south-east African seaboard dates from the close of the year 1497, when Vasco de Gama, after rounding the Cape on his memorable voyage to the East Indies, landed on Christmas Day at the point where now stands the city of Durban. To commemorate this event he named the place Port Natal, and the expression Terra do Natal ("Land of the Nativity") already figures on Pigafetta's and other old maps as the name of the surrounding region. But although the Portuguese roughly surveyed the whole coast, naming such prominent features as the Ponta da Pescaria ("Fishing Point"), Sancta Lucia River and Lagoon, Delagoa Bay and Lourenzo Marques, they nowhere established any military posts or factories. Several unsuccessful attempts were made by the Dutch, especially in 1688 and 1721, to found permanent settlements on the coast, and the whole seaboard remained unoccupied till the year 1824, when a few English settlers established themselves at Port Natal.

At that time all the coastlands between Delagoa Bay and Kafirland, as well as parts of the inland plateau,

were either under the direct sway or exposed to the constant attacks of the terrible chief, Chaka, reputed founder of the Zulu military power about the beginning of the century. The region between the Tugela and Umzimkulu rivers, that is, the present Colony of Natal, had been repeatedly laid waste, and its inhabitants either massacred, carried into captivity, or driven to seek refuge amongst the kindred peoples of Kaffraria. Thus it was that at the arrival of the English the whole land had almost reverted to a state of nature, and is described in contemporary reports as "a howling wilderness," occupied by a few broken and scattered Zulu-Kafir tribes numbering scarcely 3000 altogether.

Zululand itself had been converted into one vast encampment, held like an impregnable stronghold by fierce and highly-disciplined warlike hordes under Chaka, seventh in descent from a legendary chief, Zulu,¹ from whom the northern division of the Zulu-Kafir race take the name of Abantu ba-Kwa Zulu, "People of Zulu's Land." But Chaka was not the true founder of the Zulu military system, though it was brought by him to the highest state of development of which such a system was capable. He was merely an apt pupil of his kinsman, Dingiswayo, heir to the Aba-Tetwa chieftainship,² who, during his long exile in Cape Colony (1793-99), had observed the immense superiority of a few well-trained

¹ Zulu, Kumede, Makeba, Punga, Ndaba, Yama, Tezengakona, Chaka (Bleek, *Zulu Legends*). The original home of the tribe was the valley of the White Umvolosi river, and by a curious coincidence it was in this cradle of the race that Cetywayo, its last ruler, was crushed by the English, and the Zulu nationality resolved into its primeval tribal elements.

² In the national genealogies the Aba-Tetwa belonged to the elder branch; consequently Dingiswayo was the true paramount chief of the Zulu people. But at his death Chaka usurped this position, and the Aba-Tetwa appear to have soon become completely absorbed in the Ama-Zulu.

European troops over multitudes of undisciplined savage hordes. Dingiswayo, having been recalled on his father's death, immediately set about organising a standing army on the European model.

Meantime Chaka, heir to the Zulu chieftaincy, had also to flee for his life from his father's wrath, and having taken refuge with Dingiswayo, received from him the military training which has made his name famous throughout South Africa. Early in the century he succeeded in uniting both the Ama-Zulu and Aba-Tetwa in one powerful state organised on a strictly military basis. The kingdom was divided into military districts, and all his subjects capable of bearing arms were placed under a most rigid system of discipline. They could only marry with the king's consent, and any duty laid upon them they had to attempt, however hopeless its nature might be. "There has probably never been a more perfect system of discipline than that by which Chaka ruled his army and kingdom. At a review an order might be given in the most unexpected manner, which meant death to hundreds. If the regiment hesitated or dared to remonstrate, so perfect was the discipline and so great the jealousy, that another was ready to cut them down. A warrior returning from battle without his arms was put to death without trial. A general returning unsuccessful in the main purpose of his expedition shared the same fate. Whoever displeased the king was immediately executed. The traditional courts practically ceased to exist so far as the will and action of the tyrant was concerned."¹

Tribe after tribe was now rapidly attacked, and either exterminated, driven from its lands, or absorbed in the general Zulu nationality. Thus it happens that the term

¹ Rev. J. Macdonald, *Anthrop. Journal*, November 1890, p. 113.

Zulu now often implies political rather than blood relationship. The terror of the Zulu arms was spread far and wide, and when the English first landed at Port Natal, Chaka ruled without a rival over nearly the whole of the south-eastern seaboard from the Limpopo to Cape Colony, his empire including Basutoland, a large part of the present Boer States of the Orange and Transvaal, and the whole of Natal. In 1825 he was visited at the Umgungindhlovu Kraal by Lieutenant Farewell, who was favourably received and who obtained a cession of the nearly depopulated territory about Port Natal. Soon after (September 1828) Chaka was killed by his brother Mhlangana, who within a few days fell a victim in his turn to another brother, Dingan (Dingaan).

The military system was continued with unabated severity by Dingan, during whose eventful reign of twelve years the foundations were laid of the political relations which at present prevail throughout South-East Africa. The chief factor in moulding the course of events was the "Great Trek" of 1834-38. After crossing the Orange, the stream of Boer migration ramified into two channels, one continuing its northerly course to and beyond the Vaal, thus preparing the way for the two Dutch republics, while the other branched off to the east in the direction of the Indian Ocean. By the end of 1837 as many as 1000 waggons with their long teams of oxen, each waggon representing an itinerant Boer household, had already crossed the Drakenberg and descended to the fluvial valleys flowing through north Natal to the coast. Here they were at first well received by Dingan; but his suspicions were presently aroused, and at a meeting to which they had been invited to arrange for a cession of lands in their new settlement some seventy of the Boer leaders were treacherously cut off

with most of their families and retainers (February 1838). Several attempts to avenge this deed of blood ended in further loss, one involving the destruction of 700 men, women, and children at a spot on the southern fork of the Tugela, where the town of Weenen ("Weeping") perpetuates the memory of the disaster. But before the close of the same year 1838 Dingan was defeated with great slaughter on the banks of a stream since named the Blood River in memory of the event. He never recovered this blow, which was followed in 1840 by his complete overthrow and deposition in favour of his brother Panda (Umpande), who had already risen in revolt against his oppressive rule.

Dingan was soon after murdered in Swaziland, and the grateful Panda hastened to cede to the Boers the disputed territory, where they set up the independent republic of "Natalia" with capital Pietermaritzburg,¹ in total disregard of the prior rights of the English settlers secured by treaty with Chaka (1825). The consequence was that the Cape Government took military possession of the country in 1841, and in 1843 Natalia became the British territory of Natal administered from the Cape. Two years later it was placed under imperial control, and in 1856 erected a separate colony with representative institutions under a Lieutenant-Governor, who since 1882 takes the title of Governor.

Meanwhile most of the Natal Boers again trekked across the mountains, and joined their kinsmen, who had already penetrated northwards far beyond the Vaal. The region south of that river had been proclaimed British territory by Sir Harry Smith in 1848. Nevertheless the continual efforts of the southern Trekkers to

¹ So designated by a curious fusion of the names of Pieter Retief and Gevrit Maritz, two chief leaders of the Great Trek.

secure political freedom were crowned with success by the convention of 1854, which recognised them as "to all intents and purposes a free and independent people, and their government to be treated thenceforth as a free and independent government." Since then the ORANGE FREE STATE, as it had already been named, has been developed on peaceful lines, and has maintained uninterrupted friendly relations with the conterminous British Colonies of the Cape and Natal, though not with its Transvaal neighbours.

These northern Trekkers had already, in 1834-36, arrived in large numbers in the region beyond the Vaal, which at that time was mostly under the sway of the powerful refugee Zulu chief Umsilikatzi, whose headquarters were at Mosega in the Marico district on the Bechuanaland frontier. To avenge the massacre of some emigrant bands, the Boers, under Maritz and Potgieter, attacked and utterly defeated Umsilikatzi in 1837. Next year this chief, being also pressed by his hereditary enemy, Dingan, withdrew beyond the Limpopo, and founded the late kingdom of Matabililand. The whole region between the Vaal and the Limpopo was thus left virtually in the hands of the Trekkers, who were here joined by large numbers of the Natalia Boers in 1842-43.

But, owing to internal dissensions and the perpetual wranglings of their two chief leaders, Pretorius and Potgieter, they failed to establish an organised administration, till the British Government was induced by Pretorius to sign the Sand River Convention (January 1852), which virtually recognised the political independence of Transvaal. The death both of Pretorius and Potgieter in 1853 prepared the way for a period of internal peace under Pretorius's eldest son, Marthinus Wessels Pretorius, first President of the "Dutch African

Republic," afterwards (1858) altered to the "South African Republic," its present official title. But a fatal element of weakness lay in the persistent refusal of the Boers to adopt the imperial measures regarding the emancipation of the natives. The murder of Hermann Potgieter and family (1854), avenged by Pretorius at Makapan's Cave, was followed (1856) by the "Apprentice Law," establishing a system of disguised slavery, which was further strengthened by the sanction (1858) of the *Grond Wet*, or "Fundamental Law," declaring that "the people will admit of no equality of persons of colour with the white inhabitants either in State or Church." Owing to this policy opposition was constantly shown to the missionaries, preachers of universal equality, as illustrated by the plunder of Livingstone's house by the commando sent against the native chief, Secheli, in 1852.

Troubles with the Free State, settled without bloodshed in 1857, were followed by an abortive attempt (1859) to unite both republics under Pretorius. His return to Transvaal (1863) was followed by incessant quarrels with the Ba-Tlapin and Ba-Rolong Bechuanas, and with the Griquas in the west, and in the east with the Zulu King Cetywayo about the disputed Wakkerstroom and Utrecht district. Pretorius's proclamation of 1868, extending the boundaries of the republic west to Lake Ngami, east to Delagoa Bay, gave rise to further disputes with England and Portugal, Delagoa Bay being ultimately awarded (July 1875) to Portugal by the French President, Marshal MacMahon, to whose decision the matter had been referred. The Keate award, determining the south-west frontier towards Griqualand West, was followed by the resignation of Pretorius and appointment of President Burgers, who in 1875 came into collision with the Ba-Pedi chief, Sikokuni, south of the Olifant

river, on the question of disputed territory in the Lydenburg and Pretoria districts.

On his return from a visit to Europe in connection with the Delagoa railway scheme, Burgess found everything in the greatest confusion, the Boers dispirited by repeated reverses in the Sikokuni war, an empty treasury, broken credit, the state on the verge of bankruptcy and exposed to Zulu and Ba-Pedi invasions. Hence intervention of England and Sir Theophilus Shepstone's proclamation (12th April 1877) annexing Transvaal, followed by the appointment of Sir W. Owen Lanyon as British administrator. But after three years' preparation the Boers openly revolted, and having been successful in a few conflicts with British troops leading up to the more serious engagement of Majuba Hill on the Natal frontier, they induced the British Government to restore the republic under the suzerainty of the Queen, a British Resident being appointed with the functions of a Consul-General (Treaty of 21st March 1881).

S. J. Paul Kruger, elected President in 1883, negotiated the Convention of London (27th February 1884) recognising the "South African Republic," replacing the British Resident by a British Agent, and considerably restricting the British suzerainty. This was followed by the proclamation (23rd March 1885) of the British protectorate over Bechuanaland, thereby arresting the westward encroachments of the Boers on the territories of the Bamangwato, Bakwena, Bangwaketsi and Barolong (Bechuana) tribes, where attempts had already been made to set up the ephemeral republics of "Stella Land" and "Goshen." At the same time the Transvaal frontier towards Bechuanaland was roughly laid down in such a way as to keep open the great trade route from the Cape through Kimberley, Vryburg, Mafeking, and

Palapye to Rhodesia (Matabili and Mashona Lands). On the east side the encroachments of the Boers resulted in the incorporation of the temporary "New Republic," detached from Zululand in 1888 and renamed Vrijheid. Lastly, Transvaal obtained by the Convention of August 1890 a right of way through Swazi and Tonga Lands to the coast at Kosi Bay, and ultimately (1894) the concession of Swaziland itself.

In Zululand the accession of Panda (1840) had been followed by a period of comparative repose, broken by the outbreak of a civil war in 1856 between his two sons, Cetywayo and Umbulazi, rival claimants for the succession. The country continued in a disturbed state till 1861, when the Natal Government secured the formal nomination of Cetywayo, who consequently succeeded to the throne soon after Panda's death in October 1882. Cetywayo soon became entangled in border disputes with Transvaal, and during the temporary annexation of this state, he felt aggrieved that the British Government took the same views regarding the debatable frontier lands that the Boers had advanced. The angry discussions that ensued, and especially the Zulu king's undoubtedly threatening language, led up to an ultimatum, followed by the invasion of his territory by the British under General Chelmsford early in 1879. At first the Zulus were successful, surprising and annihilating a whole detachment at Isandhlwana near the Rorke's Drift passage of the Tugela, and soon after cutting off a small party with Prince Napoleon, son of the Emperor Napoleon III., who had joined as volunteer. But the short campaign ended with the crushing defeat and capture of Cetywayo at Ulundi, his chief kraal, near the cradle of his race in the Umvolosi valley (4th July 1879). Zululand was then divided amongst thirteen

semi-independent chiefs, an unfortunate arrangement which led to much strife and bloodshed. Cetywayo, who had meantime visited England from the Cape, was then restored (1883) to most of his territory except a reserve on the Natal frontier and Usibebus' district in the north-east. A collision between these two chiefs resulted in Cetywayo's defeat and flight to the reserve, where he died in 1884. The Zulus being unable to establish orderly government, or to resist the encroachments of the Transvaal Boers, who had already set up the "New Republic" within their borders, the English again interfered, and in 1887 constituted what remained of the old Zulu kingdom a British protectorate administered by a Resident Commissioner under the Governor of Natal, who is also Governor of the annexed territory. In 1895 the protectorate was extended to the southern section of Tongaland, and was thus made conterminous with Portuguese territory.

Physical Features

The same terraced formation, which constitutes such a marked feature of Cape Colony, is maintained with little interruption throughout the south-eastern region between Kafirland and the Limpopo. In some places the outer coast ranges are merged in a single chain, which, under the name of the Lobombo Mountains, traverses Zululand, Swaziland, and Transvaal at a mean elevation of about 3000 feet. But the inner and more lofty escarpments, which sweep round the extremity of the continent from the Orange estuary to the Limpopo, are here continued beyond the Stormberg as the Quathlamba or Drakenberg range, called also the Randberg, or

border range, at an altitude of from 8000 to 10,000 feet. Seen from the coast they present a far more imposing aspect than on the landward side, where the Free State and Transvaal plateaux already stand at a height of from 3000 to 4000 feet above the sea. The whole of Natal and Zululand lie on the outer slope; but this slope falls seawards, not in a gentle incline, but through a series of broken and deeply-ravined terraces gradually assuming a less abrupt aspect as they approach the coast, where they at last merge in a belt of low-lying sub-tropical lands.

A striking contrast is thus presented between the fertile seaboard washed by the warm Mozambique current and the almost alpine uplands of the Drakenberg escarpments. The nucleus of these south-east African highlands is formed by the massive Potong ("Antelope Mountain") at the converging point of Basutoland, the Free State, and Natal, which by the French missionaries has been aptly named the *Mont aux Sources*. This imposing table-shaped eminence, about 10,100 feet high, constitutes the "border craig," or main divide between the waters flowing west to the Orange basin and east to the Indian Ocean. It stands on a lateral ridge connecting the Maluti or "Blue Mountains" of Basutoland with the main range; but it is considerably exceeded in height by other crests on the same ridge, such as the Cathkin or Champagne Castle (10,520 feet), and Mount Hamilton (11,700), probably the highest peak in Africa south of the Zambesi.

From this alpine region the Drakenberg trends northwards, still parallel with the coast, to the Lipalule (Olifant) affluent of the Limpopo at a mean altitude of from 5000 to 6000 feet, here culminating in the Mauchberg (8730), highest point of Transvaal. East-

wards rises the Spitskop (5640), and more to the south the Klipstad (6000), and Holnek (5600); while some of the eminences, such as the Kaap or "Cape," centre of a rich auriferous district, affect the form of marine headlands. This appears to be the result of denudation, which beyond the Livalule has reduced the Drakenberg to a series of detached eminences moderately elevated above the surrounding plateau, or developing isolated chains such as the Murchison and Zoutpansberg running east and west between the Livalule and Limpopo. In the same direction are disposed several other broken ridges, such as the Maquassieberg, Gat Rand, Witwater Rand, and Magaliesberg in the south; the Dwarsberg, Hanglip, Waterberg, and Blauberg in the north—few of which rise much above 4500 feet. But as the plateau itself already stands at a mean altitude of over 3000 feet, these ridges detract little from the aspect of a vast level or slightly rolling upland plain, almost everywhere presented by the Boer States west of the Drakenberg escarpment.

In Transvaal three natural divisions are determined by the general relief of the land combined with its climatic and economic conditions: The *Hooge Veld*, or uplands, comprising the southern districts drained by the Vaal, together with the Drakenberg highlands, a region of about 35,000 square miles, from 4000 to 8000 feet above the sea, almost everywhere abounding in rich auriferous deposits; the *Baken Veld*, or terraced lands, comprising the relatively low eastern zone between the Drakenberg and the outer slopes of the Lobombo range, falling in many places down to 2000 feet, with much fine pasturage and arable land, 18,000 to 20,000 square miles in extent; lastly, the *Bosch Veld*, or bush country, comprising all the central and western parts, merging

gradually in the dry steppe lands of Bechuana, a vast plateau over 3000 feet above sea-level, and about 60,000, or, including the Free State, nearly 80,000 square miles in extent.



VAAL RIVER AT BARKLY WEST.
(From Photo by Rev. A. J. Wookey.)

The numerous fossil remains of aquatic life, together with extensive sandy tracts and much water-worn shingle, give to this great table-land the aspect of an elevated lacustrine basin, whose waters escaped partly through the Limpopo to the Indian Ocean, partly through the Vaal and Orange to the Atlantic. The Limpopo and Vaal are still the two great fissures in the plateau, which, with

their affluents, carry off most of the surface waters to the surrounding marine basins. The divide between the two river systems lies not in the Drakenberg, which is pierced by the Lipalule and several of its tributaries, but in the Witwater Rand towards the south-west of Transvaal.

Rivers

From this ridge the Limpopo, Bengwane, or Crocodile sweeps round first to the west, then to the north, east, and south, describing a semicircle of nearly 1000 miles between its source below Pretoria and its mouth above Delagoa Bay. At the superb Tolo Azime Falls it pierces the last rocky barriers of the Zoutpansberg and enters the sphere of Portuguese influence, where it is joined on its right bank by the Olifants, largest of its tributaries. Higher up it receives numerous other affluents on the same side, such as the Limvuba (Pafurie) at the Falls, the Sand Hout (Ingalele), the Nylstroom, and Pongola, which collectively represent about three-fourths of the drainage of Transvaal. From the north, that is from the Matoppo Hills forming the divide towards the Zambesi, the Limpopo receives on its left bank a large number of perennial and intermittent streams, which similarly represent collectively about one-half the drainage area of Matabililand proper. Such are, in ascending order, the Manitze (Wanetze, Nuanetze), probably the Manhice of the old maps, the Buby, Um-Zingwane, Tuli, Shashi, and Macloutsie, some of which have acquired some celebrity in connection with recent events in South Central Africa. Altogether the Limpopo, next to the Zambesi the largest African river flowing to the Indian Ocean, has a catchment basin of probably 130,000

square miles. In other words, it drains a region considerably larger than the British Isles. But most of this region receives no rainfall for a good part of the year; many of the tributary streams are intermittent wadys, and much of the water is evaporated or lost in the fringing swamps. Hence the discharge bears no proportion to the extent of its basin, and in any case the navigation is entirely obstructed 100 miles above its mouth by the Tolo Azime Falls, to which point it was ascended for the first time in 1884 by Captain Chaddock in the *Maud*, a small river steamer built for the purpose. Its mouth also is obstructed by sandbanks, which extend some distance seawards, while the current throughout its lower course has a velocity of from four to five miles. Consequently the Limpopo is only to a limited extent a navigable river; and its economic value is further diminished by the fact that it flows for several hundred miles through a swampy region infested by the tsetse fly.

In Natal and Zululand the moisture-bearing clouds, rolling up from the Indian Ocean and intercepted by the crests of the Drakenberg, feed a large number of copious and perennial streams, which mostly flow in independent channels to the coast. During their relatively short course they descend rapidly through a succession of scarps and terraces, falls and cataracts, from altitudes of 8000 or 9000 feet down to sea-level. Hence throughout most of their course they present the aspect of wild mountain torrents, and even on the broad belt of rolling grass lands between the mountain spurs and the yellow sands of the coast, their currents are too swift to be stemmed by river craft. Such is the general character of the Um-tafuna (Um-tamvane), Um-Zimkulu, Um-Komanzi, Um-lazi, Um-geni, Um-vosi, Tugela, Um-

Llatuzi, Um-Volozi, and U-sutu (Maputa), whose rocky beds follow in succession from the Cape frontier to Delagoa Bay. Of these by far the largest is the Tugela, which, with its northern affluent the Buffalo, drains about one-half of Natal. From its source above Newcastle, to its mouth at Fort Williamson, the Buffalo-Tugela serves to indicate the frontier, first towards Transvaal, and then towards Zululand. The true upper course is certainly the Buffalo, which at the confluence is the larger of the two forks, and which is also disposed in the same south-easterly direction as the valley of the main stream below the confluence.

Coast Lagoons

Beyond the Tugela the character of the seaboard undergoes a marked change. The spurs and foothills of the main ranges recede farther inland, or rather are deflected due north, while the coast-line continues to follow a north-easterly direction. The result is a zone of low-lying sandy coastlands, which broadens out towards Delagoa Bay, and which is indented by several spacious lagoons, such as the so-called Lake St. Lucia, the Kosi inlet, and Delagoa Bay itself. The shallow St. Lucia basin, about 55 miles long and 10 broad, communicates southwards with the sea through a narrow channel infested by sharks, and obstructed by a bar created, not by the lake, but by the deposits of the Um-volozi, which here reaches the coast. Northwards the lake is continued by a number of smaller lagoons, backwaters and passages, nearly the whole way to Delagoa Bay. The Kosi basin, largest of these lagoons, also communicates with the sea, but on the north side, where there is no fluvial estuary to form any obstructing

sandbanks. Hence this inlet is accessible through a somewhat narrow passage to vessels of considerable size, which here find better anchorage than on any parts of the seaboard between the St. John's River and Lourenço Marques. By the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of August 1890, so far confirmed by the Convention of May 1891, the Kosi inlet lies in the southern or British section of Tongaland, just below the conventional line drawn from Swaziland due east to the coast at Kosi Bay.

Climata

Its varied relief and the great differences of altitude between sea-level and the Drakenberg crests secure for Natal a series of vertically-disposed climates analogous to those of the hot, temperate, and cold lands of Mexico and Guatemala. Ascending from the coastlands to the uplands the traveller experiences all the transitions of temperature from that of the tropical or sub-tropical seaboard to the cold elevated terraces. But the great heat of the lowlands is tempered by the storms which prevail during the austral summer from November to January, while the cold upland valleys are affected by the hot winds, which at times blow for a few days continuously from the interior. Thus there is a perpetual struggle between the marine and continental influences, by which the extremes of heat and cold are constantly modified. Even at Durban, in the hot zone, the mean temperature is not more than 68° F., which is all the more remarkable when it is remembered that the Natal seaboard is swept by the warm Mozambique current from the Indian Ocean. Here also the average yearly rainfall seldom exceeds 44 inches, although the fierce

gales blowing landwards are at times accompanied by dense vapours and rains, mostly confined to the coastlands. In the interior the moisture-bearing clouds arrested by the higher ranges discharge heavy downpours on the seaward slopes of the mountains. Hence much of the humidity supplied by the Indian Ocean is received on the lowlands, not directly in the form of rain, but indirectly through the running waters descending from the Drakenberg uplands.

In the Orange Free State and Transvaal the conditions are somewhat reversed, these elevated plateau lands being largely shut off by the encircling coast ranges, and consequently exposed more to continental than to marine influences. Owing to its altitude and the dryness due to the neighbouring Kalahari region, this region enjoys on the whole a healthy climate, well suited for European settlers. Even the Kaap goldfields, and especially Barberton, which had till lately borne a bad reputation, are now found to be "exceptionally salubrious. There may be occasional cases of fever in the town, but they have found their beginnings beyond the boundaries of Barberton. There is no fever in the town proper, and little or no other sickness. Medical men have little or no work to do. They flocked to the place thinking to coin money out of fever patients; for a livelihood they either flitted, had to become scrip-sellers, or turn their hand to harder toil. There are hardly more than half a hundred graves in the Barberton cemetery, and the gravedigger, finding his occupation unprofitable, threw it up in disgust, and took to digging for gold."¹

But the low-lying tracts along the Limpopo and other rivers are undoubtedly unhealthy, malarious fever being here endemic, and its prevalence indicated by the pre-

¹ E. P. Mathers, *The Gold-Fields Revisited*. Durban, 1888.

sence of the tsetse pest. The route or railway from *Lourenço Marques* to the interior also traverses a fever-stricken district, dangerous especially in the rainy summer months. On the plateau the rains usually set in about October and last till April; but they are very unequally distributed, being most copious in the east and gradually falling off towards the west, where they are counteracted by the dry currents from the arid Kalahari and Namaqua regions. At Pretoria the rainfall is scarcely more than 30 inches, rising to perhaps 40 on the east frontier and sinking to 12 or less on the western steppe lands. But the country is at times exposed to heavy floods, such as that of January 1891, when it rained incessantly for several days, converting the Natal spruit at Johannesburg into a roaring river, which swept away the city and other dams, and spread havoc over the whole district. At certain parts the Vaal river, swollen by numerous foaming torrents, assumed the aspect of an inland sea five miles wide and forty feet deep.

Despite its great altitude, the plateau, thanks to the hot land winds, has a somewhat higher average temperature than Natal, ranging from about 40° F. in June to 90° or even 95° in January, with a mean of from 68° to 70° F.

Natural Resources—Mineral Wealth

In Natal extensive coal measures exist, especially in the valley of the Klip and other headstreams of the Tugela. This rich carboniferous region, which belongs to the same geological formation as that of the Cape coalfields south of Basutoland, is now traversed in its entire length by the Natal Trunk Line, the last section

from Newcastle to Laing's Nek, within 3 miles of the Transvaal frontier, having been opened in April 1891. Iron ores abound in many districts, and in 1886 some extensive auriferous deposits were discovered in the Zulu reserve on the left bank of the Tugela.

In his official report for 1890, Mr. E. Nevill, Government chemist at Natal, states that valuable deposits of argentiferous galena of copper and of bismuth exist in the colony, rich enough to be profitably exported in bulk. In Alexandra and Umvoti counties deposits of silver-bearing lead ore have also been found, containing from 10 to 15 pounds worth of silver per ton of ore. Saltpetre has been discovered, over three times more valuable than the best Peruvian deposits, and several calcareous formations occur which promise to yield good hydraulic cement.

Few regions can compare with Transvaal both for the variety and abundance of its mineral resources; these include iron, copper, lead, cobalt, sulphur, saltpetre, coal, diamonds, and especially gold, which is widely distributed throughout the Drakenberg, in the northern Zoutpansberg and Waterberg, and even in the extreme western Rustenburg and Marico districts. Mining operations have hitherto been carried on chiefly in the Lydenburg province, about Mount Mauchberg and Mount Spitzkop in the central Drakenberg range, and farther south and west in the Witwatersrand and Lower Kaap (Sheba) districts, Middelburg. In 1891 over 20 gold-fields had been officially proclaimed, covering a total area of 1,500,000 acres, worked by nearly 400 companies, and yielding with much fluctuation from £1,200,000 to £1,480,000 annually. At present the chief centres of the mining industry are Barberton in the Kaap district and Johannesburg in the Witwatersrand,

south-west of Pretoria, the output in the latter district having exceeded 52,000 oz. in the single month of January 1891. The inrush of goldseekers since the rapid development of mining operations has transformed the whole aspect of the land. Formerly a purely pastoral region, dotted over with a few Boer farmsteads and sleepy villages, it has now in many places become a busy hive of British enterprise, with large and flourishing cities, in which the Dutch element has been almost completely absorbed by the English-speaking mining and trading populations.

There is abundant evidence that the Transvaal gold-fields, like those of Matabili and Mashona Lands farther north, were known and extensively worked by a civilised people at some remote period of the world's history. In his *Report on the Farm Lisbon* (1883), Mr. John M. Stuart tells us that he came upon "the remains of old workings, showing that, centuries ago, mining was practised on a most extensive scale, that vast quantities of ore had been worked, and that by engineers of a very high order. I found quarries, tunnels, shafts, adits, the remains of well-made roads, and also pits of ore on the side of these old roads, apparently ready to be put into waggons. This ore was piled with as much regularity as if it had been placed for strict measurement, and it would seem as if these workings had been abandoned precipitately by the miners. I found in one instance that a gallery had been walled up with solid masonry; I was unable to remove the wall, as it was on a farm not at that time under Government control. The native tribes, so far as I could ascertain by diligent inquiry, knew nothing as to who these ancient miners were, and have no traditions regarding them. I prefer to attribute these workings to the Portuguese, who are historically known to

have had many trading possessions, and to have gained much gold in this section in the seventeenth century. My reasons for so attributing these workings is that they were acquainted with the use of gunpowder. But whether even a more ancient people, such as the Phoenicians, or whether the Portuguese did this work, is immaterial; the fact remains, and is open to all who will visit this country, that mining on a very extensive scale was carried on by some nation in the past."

Iron is widely diffused, and the famous Yzerberg ("Iron Mountain") near Marabastad, north of Potgieter's Rust, consists of a huge mass of rich ore, which has been smelted by the natives from time immemorial. Diamonds appear to be confined to the Bloemhof district, on the Vaal, which belongs geologically to the diamantiferous region of Griqualand West. But coal occurs in many districts, such as Utrecht and Wakkerstroom in the south-east, and in Middelburg and Lydenburg farther north. In some places seams 8 or 10 feet thick lie so close to the surface that they are quarried by the natives.

In the Transvaal auriferous regions the prevailing formations are quartz, porphyry, granites, clay-slates, greenstone, Lower Devonian conglomerates, and limestones. The German geologist, Dr. Schenck,¹ describes the Barberton (Kaa) formation as of very old and highly metamorphosed slates and sandstones, with eruptive diorite, serpentine, and other greenstones. These rocks are highly tilted, often even perpendicular, and run from east to west, their gold-bearing reefs being nearly always disposed in the same direction. The gold appears to have been brought with the eruptive rocks to the surface, where it was afterwards concentrated in the

¹ Quoted by Mr. Fr. Jeppe in "The Kaap Gold-Fields," *Proceedings of the Royal Geological Society*, 1888, p. 442.

quartz reefs, which also often contain iron. This formation probably corresponds to the Silurian of Europe, and also extends to Swaziland, Zoutpansberg, and the recently-discovered goldfields of the Tugela basin.

Flora and Fauna

In the Kaap valley the vegetation is sub-tropical, but scantily developed owing to the lack of water, except during the rainy season. The spruits, or river-valleys, are fringed with bush, often very dense, in which the prevailing species are yellow-wood, iron-wood, the wild fig (in the deeper gorges), and especially the thorny mimosa. But throughout Transvaal and the Orange State the dominant flora is distinctly herbaceous, and the pasturage, parched or burnt up in winter, is extremely succulent during the wet summer months. Though stock-breeding has hitherto been chiefly pursued by the Boers, there can be no doubt that much of the land is well suited for tillage. Some districts yield two annual crops of cereals, including some of the finest wheat in the world. Tobacco, the vine, and most European fruits and vegetables thrive well; and colonial produce, such as sugar, coffee, and cotton, might be successfully cultivated in the valley of the Limpopo, whose middle course lies within the torrid zone.

In Natal the great diversity of climates is reflected in a rich and varied vegetation, comprising within a narrow area forms characteristic of every zone. The fig, euphorbia, bamboo, cotton, indigo, sugar-cane, coffee, banana, and cocoa-nut palm of the hot lowlands are succeeded in the middle zone by wheat, barley, European fruits and vegetables, which in their turn are replaced in the upland valleys by rich pasturage. Below an

altitude of 5000 feet agriculture is everywhere favoured by the numerous streams flowing seawards. But it has acquired its greatest development on the hot coastlands, where maize covers extensive tracts, and supplies the staple food of the natives. The natives also cultivate Kafir corn (*Sorghum Caffrorum*), yams, cucumbers, and tobacco. Arrowroot thrives well, and is already exported, but cotton and coffee have failed, and are now replaced by sugar, which was first introduced in 1849, and now forms a main resource of the colony. The tea shrub, also lately introduced in the hilly districts, seems to promise good returns.

Formerly the fauna both of the plateaux and coastlands was extremely varied, comprising elephants, lions, leopards, wolves, hyænas, the hippopotamus, antelopes of many species, the wild boar, and monkeys in great variety. Now nearly all the large game has disappeared from Natal and the Orange State, and even in Transvaal these animals, though still found, are greatly reduced in numbers. Along their route to the Vaal the early trekkers are said to have killed 200 lions; now a lion hunt is a rare event anywhere south of the Limpopo. The hippopotamus and crocodile still infest the Limpopo and some other large rivers; and animals peculiar to the plateau, such as the gnu, eland, springbok, wildebeest, ostrich, giraffe, zebra, and quagga, are all, except the last-mentioned, still met in Transvaal. But as a rule the wild fauna has been everywhere largely replaced by horned cattle, sheep, horses, and other domestic animals.

Snakes abound especially on the seaboard, and some species, such as the puff-adder and cobra, are extremely venomous. The boa preys on poultry, and the inhabitants are tormented by several insects, such as the fish-moth and *Ixodes natalensis*.

But a still more formidable enemy is the locust, which occasionally sweeps in prodigious multitudes over the plateau region. Seated beneath the shade of his waggon, on the banks of the Vaal, the traveller Mohr observed on the south-western horizon what looked like great volumes of smoke, but which from its yellowish hue the more experienced natives immediately recognised as the winged plague of Africa, the all-devouring locust. They began to fall, first a few at a time, then by dozens, and presently by thousands and myriads. They came in such vast clouds as to darken the heavens, so that through all this moving mass you were able to look straight at the sun, which, though at its zenith, became muddy and beamless as at sunset. Flocks of locust-eaters incessantly assailed this surging sea of insect life, but their numbers were infinite, countless as the sands of the desert. Far and wide the whole land was filled with them; the waters of the Vaal, covered with their bodies, became of a grey-yellow colour on the surface; and the garden of the farmstead, where the traveller reposed, was in a few minutes left bare and leafless. Yet the Boer and his family sat with the composure of Turks, looking on at the universal destruction of all green things round about, indifferent, because powerless to oppose the devouring scourge. Nothing can check their onward march; if their path is crossed by a stream they rush headlong in, gradually filling up its bed with their dead, until a dry bridge is formed for the myriads pressing on from behind. The worst of the evil is that where they fall, there they lay their eggs, so that with the next rainy season countless wingless creatures creep out of the ground and hop away, devouring all vegetation as they go. Such young broods the Boer call, characteristically enough, "footloopers," and those on the wing

“spring Laans.” Our traveller’s oxen, horses, sheep, and goats devoured them greedily. To the elephant and other large graminivorous wild beasts, they seem to afford a dainty meal; while all the south-eastern tribes consider them a great delicacy, collect them in heaps, and eat them dried and roasted. Prepared in this way, Mohr tried them, but found them, if eaten without salt, quite tasteless.¹

Inhabitants

In Natal the population comprises three distinct elements—the natives, who are exclusively of Zulu-Kafir stock; the coolies, mostly from southern India; and the Europeans, chiefly British, with some Boers, Germans, and Norwegians. There are racial, social, and even religious considerations which must prevent the fusion of these three elements in a homogeneous nationality for an indefinite period, if not permanently. Hence the determination of their respective numbers, and especially their rate of increase, becomes a question of paramount importance in estimating the future prospects of the colony. The subjoined table of the four last returns seems to show that, while the Zulus are nearly seven times more numerous than all the others taken collectively, their growth is less rapid than that of the Europeans, who increased by over 50 per cent between 1879 and 1891, and still less than that of the coolies, who doubled themselves in the same period:—

	1879.	1884.	1891.
Europeans	22,700	35,500	46,788
Indians	17,000	27,800	41,142
Kafirs	320,000	362,000	455,983
	359,700	424,800	543,913

¹ *To the Zambesi Falls*, i. pp. 114-116.

The Coolies of Natal

At this rate of progress the coolies might seem destined in course of time to outnumber all the rest, and transform Natal to an African section of British India. But coolie immigration is essentially artificial, and will probably be arrested as soon as the whites have become sufficiently acclimatised to work on the plantations of the low-lying coastlands. They were introduced for the first time in the year 1865 to meet the demand for labour in this warm zone, where the Zulus could not be induced to seek regular employment. In 1875 their numbers were largely increased by a fresh importation, most of those whose engagements had expired having preferred to take service in the towns. Few return to India, although by the terms of their contract they have the right to a free passage back after serving ten years on the plantations. They are attracted by the free life of Natal, which makes the social bonds of their Indian homes no longer endurable, and with their frugal habits they soon save enough to purchase small holdings, and bring their own produce to the market. Many, also, invest their capital in the retail business, and as petty traders become formidable rivals of their less thrifty white competitors. Thanks to a provision of the contract law requiring the planters to introduce both sexes in the proportion of forty women to a hundred men, these Asiatics are able to found permanent homes in the colony, where the climate of the seaboard is more suited to their constitution than to that of Europeans. Hence the Indian element will probably always remain an important factor in the social relations of Natal.

The Zulus of Natal

It has been seen that the devastating wars of the Zulu king, Chaka, during the first quarter of the century



A ZULU.

(From Photo by the London Stereoscopic Company.)

resulted in the almost complete depopulation of Natal. Since the establishment of orderly government under British rule, the waste lands have been gradually reoccu-

pied by a large number of tribes, or fragments of tribes, some from the south (Kafirs), but most from the north (Zulus), either escaping from the oppressive Zulu military system, or else driven from their ruined homes by Dingan's conquering hordes. Thus it happened that in a region which at one time promised to become a purely British colony, the English settlers find themselves already vastly outnumbered by the aborigines, while the Government is brought face to face with the same racial problem that has acquired such tremendous proportions in the Southern States of the American Union. Hitherto the Administration has displayed admirable tact in dealing with this troublesome question, and, thanks to several judicious provisions, no collision has yet taken place between the Europeans and their black "fellow-citizens." The tribal organisation, without being actually broken up, has been deprived of its dangerous features by the simple device of directly appointing paid village headmen, or, where possible, transforming the hereditary chief to a Government official, by inducing him to accept a fixed stipend in lieu of his customary "perquisites." The chieftaincy thus ceases to become hereditary; the chief acquires the character of a "stipendiary magistrate," nominated by the central authority, and responsible to it for the maintenance of law and order; ties of kindred are weakened, and political cohesion absolutely severed between the allied tribes, which are thus gradually raised to the position of village communes. Meantime the transformation is facilitated by wise toleration of all such long-established tribal usages as are not at variance with the recognised principles of natural equity, or inconsistent with the requirements of a civilised administration.

In Natal there are altogether about 170 tribal chiefs, and of these nearly one-half have been directly appointed

by the Government without any hereditary title whatever. It was amongst these Bantu chiefs, many of whom are gifted with great natural intelligence, that the illustrious Bishop Colenso successfully laboured to propagate the higher moral precepts of Christianity. It was, he assures us, by daily converse with them also, that he himself acquired those broader views and sympathies which are embodied in his commentary on the Pentateuch. But where he sowed others have reaped, and at present most of the Zulu converts in Natal appear to belong, not to the Anglican but to the Methodist community. Many of the eighty native schools, attended by nearly 4000 pupils, and about sixty of the 160 missionary stations are in the hands of these Nonconformists.

The Whites of Natal

In Natal the Boer element is represented only by the descendants of the few trekkers who remained in the country after the suppression of the republic of "Natalia" (see p. 285). They are centred chiefly in the neighbourhood of Pietermaritzburg, and in the north-western districts, but are everywhere being gradually merged in the general English-speaking populations. The same fate is overtaking the Germans of the Pinetown district, who are descended from some immigrants from Bremen in 1848.

An interesting experiment in colonisation has been made with a group of 50 Norwegian families, who were banded together in a single community, and who put their capital of nearly £3000 in a common fund. Allotments of 100 acres with huts, and a right of commonage over 2000 acres, were granted free for the first two years,

and a charge of ninepence per acre for the next ten years, making the total cost of the land 7s. 6d. per acre. This experiment has proved very successful, the wooden huts having already been replaced by good stone houses, and the price of the allotments mostly paid off.

British immigration acquired little importance till about the middle of the century, when a considerable number of Yorkshire farmers settled in the colony. But the movement was again retarded by a variety of causes, such as the development of the plantation system, which excluded white labour, the attraction of the Australian goldfields, and especially the great preponderance of the native population. To overcome these obstacles great encouragement was given to intending English settlers of all classes, who were offered free passages on the condition of entering into more or less prolonged engagements. Thus a steady stream of immigration began to set towards the colony down to the year 1884, when all assisted immigration was suspended for some years. In 1891, however, a sum of £10,000 was again devoted by the Natal Government to immigration purposes, and societies of landowners and others have even been formed to promote the movement in every possible way.

Administration—The New Constitution

It is felt that every effort should be made to decrease the great disparity between the white and coloured populations in a country which now aspires to the privileges of responsible government. Hitherto Natal, which was detached from the Cape and constituted a separate colony in 1856, had enjoyed representative

institutions to a limited extent. The Lieutenant-Governor (since 1882 Governor) was assisted by an Executive consisting mostly of *ex officio* members, and a Legislative Council of thirty-one, seven nominated by the Crown, the rest returned by qualified electors for the counties and boroughs. But in February 1891 this Legislative Council passed the third reading of a Bill for giving the colony a responsible government constitution, comprising a single Chamber of thirty-seven elected members, with a Cabinet of six Ministers responsible to the Chamber. The seats were redistributed on the basis of population, and provision is made for a Standing Committee of Council to report upon all measures dealing solely with native affairs before such measures are debated in Parliament. The first Parliament under the new Constitution was formally opened in October 1894.

Inhabitants of the Orange Free State

The population of the Free State is steadily increasing, having advanced from 133,000 in 1880 to 208,000 in 1890, which, for an estimated area of 41,500 square miles, gives a proportion of five persons to the square mile. Despite a constant stream of immigration from Cape Colony, England, and Germany, the natives, mostly of Bechuana stock, appear to be increasing more rapidly than the whites. Their numbers rose from 72,000 in 1880 to 130,000 in 1890, whereas the whites advanced only from 61,000 to 78,000 in the same period.

When the "Vortrekkers" made their great forward movement in 1834-36, they found the "Mesopotamia" between the Orange and the Vaal mainly a wilderness, roamed over by multitudes of South African game—

lions, panthers, elephants, giraffes, gnus, elands, and other antelopes, zebras, quaggas, ostriches,—and sparsely occupied by some wandering Bushman, Koranna (Hottentot), and Bechuana (Bantu) tribes. Most of the Korannas were reduced to a condition of virtual servitude by the Boers, while all the Bechuanas were easily dispersed west to Bechuanaland, east to Basutoland, except a somewhat compact body of Barolong, who held their ground to the number of 25,000 in the Thaba-Nchu district towards the Basuto frontier till the year 1884.

Apart from these old allies of the Boers against the Basutos, the present native population consists of a conglomerate of Korannas and fragments of almost every Bechuana tribe, who have mostly arrived since the establishment of the republic (1854), voluntarily accepting service under the new rulers of the land, or seeking employment in the large centres of population. They cannot be said to have been well treated by their Dutch masters, who, by the system of "apprenticeship," have sought to evade their pledges to the British Government regarding the abolition of domestic slavery. The blacks, amongst whom are some half-castes from St. Helena, are badly paid for their services, and treated with great harshness by their employers. They are of course excluded by law from the franchise, and are forbidden not only to bear arms but even to acquire any property in the land.

But the Boers themselves, who have hitherto acted as if they were the "chosen people" preordained to subdue and enslave the surrounding "Canaanites,"¹ are

¹ "The frontier Dutchman prefers the Old to the New Testament. He is at home among the wars of the Israelites with the doomed inhabitants of the promised land. And no one who has freely and for years mingled with this people can doubt that they have persuaded themselves

being rapidly transformed by daily increasing contact with the Anglo-Saxon world. They are still mainly a vigorous if somewhat rude race of stock-breeders, possessing vast grazing grounds and especially sheep-walks, which yield nearly all the wool that finds its way through Durban to the European markets. But English influences are spreading with the spread of the English language, which has already become the chief medium of trade, education, and general intercourse. Most of the public schools are conducted by English and Scotch teachers, and their language has consequently become the almost universal vehicle of instruction for the rising generation. Thus the uncultivated Dutch dialect, already corrupted by numerous Hottentot and Bantu expressions, grows yearly less suited for the practical purposes of life, and a fluent knowledge of English has now become a primary condition of success in trade, the industries, and the liberal professions.

Railway Projects—Administration of the Free State

These influences must necessarily increase with the development of the general South African railway system, which has already penetrated into the Free State from the side of Cape Colony. The lines from Port Elizabeth and East London have crossed the Orange, and, passing through Bloemfontein, reach to Pretoria in the South African Republic. This work was constructed by the State, which contemplates extending the line from Bloemfontein westwards to Kimberley on the main

by some wonderful mental process that they are God's chosen people, and that the blacks are the wicked and condemned Canaanites, over whose heads the divine anger lowers continually."—Rev. J. Mackenzie, *Two Years North of the Orange River*, 1871.

South African trunk line, and north-eastwards to Harri-smith, the present terminus of the branch from Lady-smith on the Natal trunk line.

According to the Constitution of 1854, revised in 1866 and again in 1879, the executive is vested in a President, chosen for five years by universal (white) suffrage, and assisted by an Executive Council consisting of the Government Secretary, the Landrost (Governor) of the capital, and three members appointed by the Volksraad. The Volksraad,¹ or national assembly with legislative functions, comprises 57 members returned by the burghers for four years from every district, town, and field-cornetcy (ward) in the rural districts. Each of the districts, 18 in number, is administered by a Landrost, appointed by the President and confirmed by the Volksraad. The Landrost, who is a county magistrate, deals with minor offences, serious charges being remitted to a bench of three judges, who hold assizes in the various districts. After holding office for the full term of five years, Dr. Reitz, a warm advocate of imperial British interests, was re-elected President in December 1893.

Inhabitants of Transvaal

A census of the South African Republic was taken for the first time on 1st April 1890, when the total population was found to be 680,000, of whom 560,000 natives, nearly all Bechuanas, and 120,000 whites of unspecified nationalities, but probably about half Boers, and nearly all the rest British or immigrants of English

¹ From *volk* = folk, people, and *raad* = counsel. This is the same word as the German *Rath*, Anglo-Saxon *ræd*, and Middle-English *rede*, as in *The Fairy Queen*: "Therefore I rede beware," I. i.

speech. No accurate survey has ever been made of the territory, which, with the recent extensions on the east frontier, is supposed to have a total area of 114,000 square miles, giving a density of six persons to the square mile.

The region between the Vaal and Limpopo forms ethnically a part of the Bechuana domain, and, before the arrival of the Boers, it had been from time immemorial almost exclusively occupied by tribes of Bechuana stock, except for a period of about ten years between 1826 and 1836. Shortly before his death (1828) the Zulu king, Chaka, had inflicted a crushing defeat on the rival Ama-Ntabele (Ama-Ndebele, Matabele, Matabili) chief, Umsilikatsi (Moselakatsi), who thereupon withdrew with his followers north-westwards, and rapidly overran the greater part of the country now known as Transvaal. The central kraal of this renowned chief was situated in the Marico district on the west frontier, and it was here that he was interviewed in 1835 by Dr. Andrew Smith, leader of the first English scientific expedition to South Central Africa. "The Matabili," writes the Rev. John Smith Moffat, "then occupied the country now forming mainly the Marico and Rustenburg districts in the Transvaal. The expedition remained some weeks in the dominions of Umsilikatsi, and met with every facility, and Dr. Smith persuaded the chief to send messengers to Cape Town. They were treated with great consideration, and returned to their master with presents and with an impression of the character of the English people which has never been entirely effaced. It was, however, a severe trial to the faith of the chief and of his people, that the emigrant Boers were permitted by the Government to leave the Colony, and to encroach upon his territory and that of other chiefs, who,

like him, had always sought to be on friendly terms with the English."¹

Umsilikatsi had good reason to dread the advance of these Vortrekkers, for the very next year (1836)² they fell upon him under Gerrit Maritz and drove him across the Limpopo, where he founded the powerful kingdom of Ntabelleland (Matabililand). But the Boers were at that time far too few to hold the whole country; hence the original Bechuana tribes, who had been driven westwards by the Matabili invaders, now rapidly returned to reoccupy their primeval homes. Thus it happens that the great majority of the Transvaal natives still belong to the Bechuana family. Notwithstanding the spread of the white settlers, many have even preserved the tribal organisation intact; while others have sought employment under European masters, especially in the large centres of population and in the mining districts.

But all alike have experienced rough treatment at the hands of the Dutch rulers of the land; and for this the natives have always blamed the vacillating policy of the paramount British authority, to whom they looked for protection. "When you came into the country," writes the Ba-Tlapi minister, Matsau, to Sir Charles Warren, "you found the Boers and the Batlapins afraid of one another. After you came fear left the Boers, and they have filled up the country. When the Batlapin

¹ Official communication, Blue Book, August 1885, p. 108.

² There is some confusion about these dates. Thus one writer refers the Zulu invasion of Transvaal to the year 1830, and their expulsion to "1839 or thereabouts." But the invasion certainly preceded Chaka's death (1828), and, as the sojourn of Umsilikatsi in Transvaal is generally said to have lasted ten years, his retreat northwards must have taken place about 1836, as stated by Lieutenant Maund (Blue Book, 1885, p. 113).

proposed to stop them, Major Lowe said, 'No, let alone, the Queen is coming, let them alone.' The thing has gone on ever since. Now, at the time I write (June 1885), the Batlapin, who have cultivated lands, have been put out of them by the Boers, and now you will soon hear that some of the people here have fought with the Boers. The people of Hogopitsie have been driven out of their land by the Boers; the people of Kopong have been driven from their lands and are driven away from the water. All the Batlapin who possessed fountains are in the same difficulty, and the Batlapin, when they see this, say, 'This is not the Boers, this is the doing of the English; it is they who have given the Boers the strength to do this.'"¹

At an earlier period Livingstone was often an eye-witness of the cruelties inflicted by the Boers on the native populations. "I saw and conversed with children in the houses of the Boers, who had, by their own and their masters' account, been captured; and in several instances I traced the parents of these unfortunates; though the plan approved by the long-headed among the burghers is to take children so young that they soon forget their parents and their native language also. It was long before I could give credit to the tales of bloodshed told me by native witnesses; and, had I received no other testimony but theirs, I should probably have continued sceptical to this day as to the truth of the accounts. But when I found the Boers themselves, some bewailing and denouncing, others glorying in the bloody scenes in which they had been themselves the actors, I was compelled to admit the validity of the testimony."²

¹ Letter in Blue Book, August 1885, p. 118.

² *Missionary Travels*, 1857.

At present the chief tribal divisions in Transvaal are :—

- BA-TLAPI (Batlapin, Batlaping) { South-west corner, between Vryburg and the Hart-Vaal confluence; chief kraal at Taung.
- BA-ROLONG } Both sides of the south-west frontier, south of the Molopo
BA-MAPALA } River.
- BA-KATLA, Western districts between Motueni and Marico.
- BA-HLOKOA }
BA-KHALAKA } West Zoutpansberg, and thence southwards.
BA-VENDA }
- BA-SUTLA, East Zoutpansberg district.
- BA-ROMAPULANA, North of Zoutpansberg.
- BA-PORI }
BA-PIRI } Scattered tribes, generally along the east bank of the
BA-TLU } Limpopo.
- MA-GWAMBA }
BA-HLENGWE } The "knob-noses" of English writers; ¹ along both
BA-HLUKWA } banks of the Middle Limpopo; doubtful Bechuanas.
- BA-PEDI { East Lydenburg, south of the Oliphant River; better known as "Seocuni's," from the name of the native chief who gave the Boers so much trouble before the British temporary occupation of Transvaal.

For a long time the Vortrekkers had, so to say, a free hand in the settlement of the Transvaal, and in their dealings with the native populations. Remoteness from the centres of refining influences, exclusive contact with the aborigines, their purely pastoral life, and the vast extent of the allotments assigned to the early squatters, averaging about 6000 acres, tended to keep them in a state of savage isolation described by English visitors from the Cape as absolutely barbarous. These Dutch patriarchs, often clothed like their Kafir neighbours in the skins of animals, thus led a solitary exist-

¹ This nickname, "knob-nuizen," was first given to them by the Boers, from the artificial "knobs" or excrescences raised along the bridge of the nose. At present the practice has fallen into abeyance, and few "knob-noses" are met except amongst the elderly people. These tribes appear to be intermediate between the Bechuanas and the Zulus, and they are said to have migrated to their present homes from the Nyassa region, where traces of their former presence are still met.

ence with their families and "apprentices," another name for slaves, on extensive domains stretching beyond the horizon, their rudely-furnished habitations little better than hovels, the daily routine of their pastoral pursuits scarcely less monotonous than that of their flocks and herds themselves.

But the discovery of the gold-fields and the rapid development of the mining and associated industries soon caused a rude awakening, and, by creating new interests, laid the foundation of the social transformation which is gradually assimilating the Boers to the surrounding Anglo-Saxon populations. The inevitable friction with the native tribes, such as Secocuni's Ba-Pedi, and with the rapidly increasing British settlers clamouring for equal political rights, and for a share in the administration of the country, led to further migratory movements to Damaraland and the Cunene basin. The spirit of unrest and of discontent at the innovations necessitated by the altered social conditions again manifested itself in an attempt made in 1891 to organise another trek in the direction of the Zambesi, with the view of founding a new Dutch republic in Banyai or Mashonaland, or some other territory beyond the Limpopo. But the whole of this region had meantime been brought within the sphere of British influence, and all the land available for white settlement is already actually administered by the chartered British South Africa Company. Hence, on the report of the intended trek to Mashonaland reaching the Cape, the High Commissioner, Sir Henry Loch, at once applied (April 1891) to President Kruger, plainly intimating that any attempt to found another Boer State anywhere within protected British territory would be forcibly resisted. The President's emphatic reply was: "I have damped the

trek, and have sent for the suspected leaders. A proclamation has been drafted. The Government is fully alive to its obligations."

This memorable message marks the close of the period of Boer political expansion in South Africa. There is no room for the foundation of any more Dutch States beyond the Limpopo; and emigrants from the Transvaal in that direction can be received only on the condition of recognising British supremacy. Hence, whether such movements take place or not, the result must everywhere be the same—inevitable assimilation to, that is, absorption in, the English-speaking populations; stimulated by two potent factors, the rapid increase of the British settlers both in Transvaal itself and beyond the Limpopo, and the supremacy of the English language as the almost exclusive instrument of education throughout the South African Republic.

Towns—Stations—Railways

In Transvaal the social transformation now in progress is clearly indicated by the rapid growth of *Johannesburg* and *Barberton*, the two chief centres of the British mining operations. These places, though of quite recent foundation, have already far outstripped the much older Boer towns, *Pretoria*, capital of the republic, and its southern rival *Potchefstroom*. Pretoria, which takes its name from President Pretorius, stands amongst the Magalies hills at an altitude of 4500 feet on the Apies, farthest southern headstream of the Limpopo. Like most of the Dutch settlements it was laid out on a regular plan, with broad streets and boulevards running at right angles to each other. But most of the space still remains unoccupied,

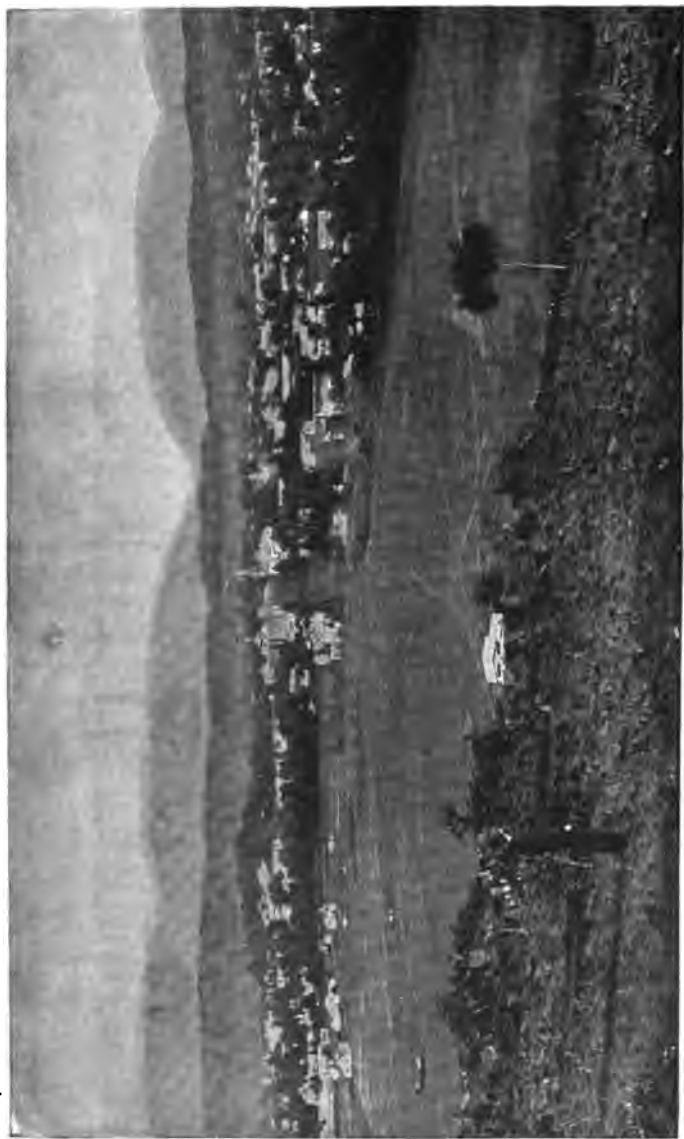
and scarcely 6000 inhabitants reside in a city which was originally planned to accommodate ten times that number.

Potchefstroom lies 90 miles farther south, near the Free State frontier on the Mooi, a romantic little affluent of the Vaal. It was the first place founded in Transvaal by the Vortrekkers, and for some time continued to be the seat of government, and the largest town in the State. Its present population of about 5000 is outnumbered



JOHANNESBURG.

three times by that of Johannesburg, the busy centre of the Witwatersrand goldfields, and already the true commercial capital of Transvaal, although its name figures on no map issued before the year 1887. Barberton, next in size and importance to Johannesburg, occupies an analogous position in the Kaap auriferous region. It lies near the Portuguese frontier, about 60 miles due east of Lourenço Marques, with which it will shortly be connected by the Transvaal continuation of the Delagoa Bay railway. Barberton, which takes its name from



GENERAL VIEW OF PRETORIA.

Mr. Graham Barber, discoverer of a rich auriferous reef in the immediate vicinity, has a somewhat fluctuating population of about 10,000.

The Delagoa Bay line was opened in December 1887 as far as the Um-Komah ("King George River"), beyond the Lebombo range and 52 miles from the coast. Since then it has slowly advanced into Transvaal territory, and the section from this point to Pretoria is now open. A branch to Barberton in the De Kaap mining district will soon be completed. From Pretoria the line is continued through Johannesburg to Vereeniging, where a junction is formed with the Free State and main trunk line from the Cape.

North of Pretoria the white population diminishes rapidly. Here almost the only permanent settlements are *Marabastad*, that is, Maraba's Town, so called from the chief of that name; *Ersteling*, near the famous "Iron Mountain"; and *Nylstroom*, on the "Nile" affluent of the Limpopo. This river was so named by the early trekkers, because it was the first stream met by them flowing northwards. Hence they concluded that it must be the Nile, and that they were already within "measurable distance" of Egypt and the Land of Canaan which they were predestined to occupy.

In Natal nearly all the European settlements are so many stations on the main railway, which runs from *Durban*, its seaward terminus, in a north-westerly direction through *Pietermaritzburg* to *Charlestown*, close to the Transvaal border, to which point the line was completed in April 1891. Durban, the outlet for the whole trade of the colony, and so named in honour of the Colonial Governor, Sir Benjamin D'Urban, was founded in 1846 on the only inlet accessible to shipping along the whole of the Natal coast. It consists of two



DURBAN AND PORT NATAL.

distinct quarters connected by rail, Durban proper on the north side of the basin, and Port Natal at the entrance, which, since the construction of the breakwater, has a depth varying with the tides and winds from 12 to 16 or 18 feet at low water. The basin itself, a large lagoon of irregular circular shape, has scarcely more than 7 feet in its deepest part, so that large vessels are unable to pass beyond the entrance at Port Natal. All the foreign trade of the colony is necessarily centred at Durban, which also enjoys a considerable share of the traffic with the Boer States. Hence the exchanges have increased enormously, especially since the development of the Transvaal mining industries, the imports advancing from less than £500,000 to over £3,500,000, and the exports from £380,000 to £1,480,000, between the years 1870 and 1893. The health of Durban has much improved since the completion of the aqueduct, which yields a daily supply of 250,000 gallons of good water for a cosmopolitan population of about 30,000—Europeans, Zulus, Hindus, Arabs, Chinese, and other Asiatics.

Durban is connected by branch railways northwards with *Verulam*, and southwards with *Isipingo*, both active centres of the sugar industry; while the trunk line runs inland through the German settlement of *Pinetown* to Pietermaritzburg, capital of the colony. Standing at an elevation of over 2000 feet above the sea on a fertile plain watered by a tributary of the Um-Geni and encircled by gently-sloping wooded hills, Pietermaritzburg is one of the healthiest and most agreeable places in South Africa. Farther on, the railway ascends by steep gradients and sharp curves along the slopes of the Drakenberg through Lidgettown, still in the Um-Geni valley, to Weenen, Ladysmith, and Newcastle, all in the Tugela basin. From Ladysmith a branch has been con-

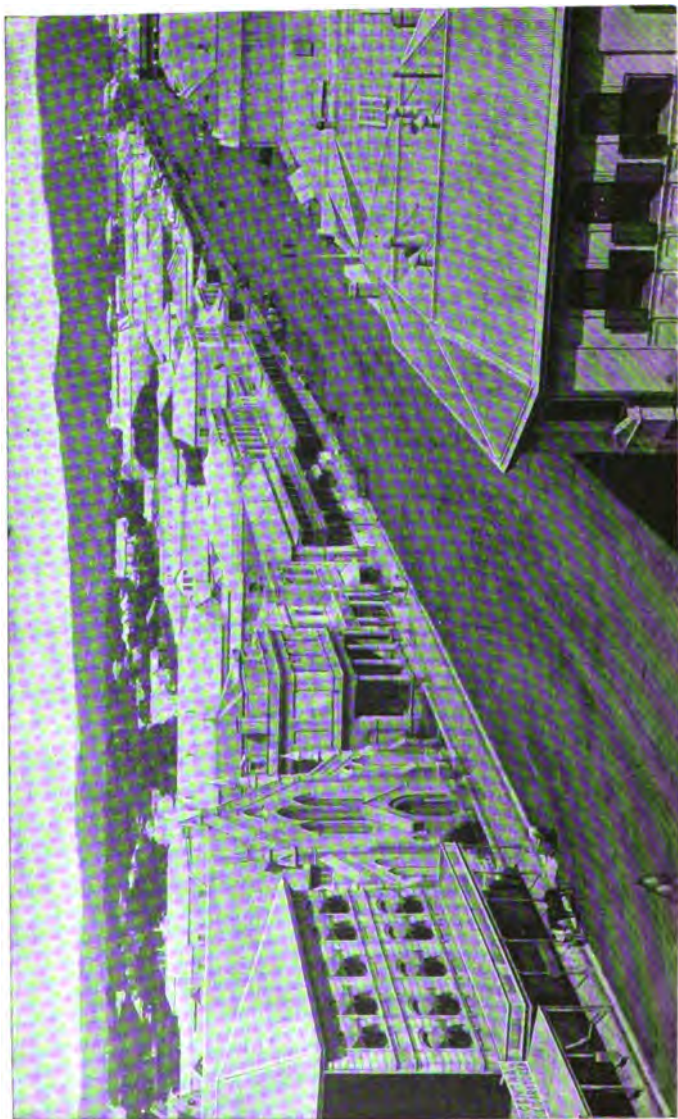
structed across the crest of the Drakenberg west to Harrismith in the Free State; and from Newcastle, centre of the coal mining industry, the main line runs due north to Majuba Hill on the Transvaal frontier, memorable for the repulse of the British forces by the Boers in 1881.

In the Free State, a region mainly engaged in pastoral pursuits, there are no large centres of population. Even *Bloemfontein*, the capital, had less than 4000 inhabitants in 1890. It lies on a southern affluent of the Vaal at an elevation of 4500 feet, about 120 miles from the Cape frontier, and enjoys the advantage of an excellent climate specially recommended to persons suffering from pulmonary affections. Hence Bloemfontein has become a sort of South African health resort, visited by numerous invalids from the Cape, with which it is now connected by rail.

Most of the other white settlements in the Free State are little more than rural villages, possessing some importance as market-places and convenient marts for the distribution of supplies to the surrounding farmsteads. Such are *Ladybrand* and *Harrismith* in the east, the latter guarding the chief pass over the Drakenberg range to Natal; *Bethulie*, headquarters of the French Protestant Missions near the Orange and Caledon confluence; *Philippolis* and *Rouxville*, near the south frontier; and *Jagersfontein*, centre of the diamond industry in the Modder basin. Here was found in 1881 one of the largest diamonds in the world, the "Jagersfontein," which weighed over 209 carats uncut.¹

Before 1884 the largest place in the Free State was *Thaba Nchu*, capital of the Ba-Rolong republic on the Basuto frontier. But in that year this little native state was deprived of its independence in contravention of the

¹ E. Streeter, *History of Diamonds*, p. 95.



THE PRINCIPAL STREET OF DURBAN.

treaties; and since then many of the Ba-Rolongs have crossed the border and settled amongst their former enemies, the Basutos of Basutoland.

Swaziland and Tongaland

After the annexation of the "New Republic" to Transvaal in 1888, the Boers still continued to encroach eastwards on the former territories of the Zulu State, their objective being Kosi Bay, or some other convenient outlet on the Indian Ocean. Thus began the invasion of the Swazi district, to which they were especially attracted by its rich pasture-lands and extensive goldfields. This little native state, which has an area of about 3000 square miles with a population of 80,000, lies on the uplands between the Drakenberg and Lebombo ranges, being enclosed on three sides by Transvaal, and eastwards by Tongaland. It dates from the year 1843, when the Ba-Rapuza people, under their chief Swazi, asserted their independence against the Zulus, and, in accordance with native custom, took the name of Ama-Swazi from the founder of the dynasty. The late king, Umbandine, amassed considerable wealth from the royalties which he levied on the mining companies working the goldfields of his territory. But the aggressive attitude of the Boers drove him to appeal for protection to the British Government, which had already recognised the autonomy of the Swazi State by the Convention of 1884 between England and Transvaal. After long diplomatic negotiations its independence was reaffirmed by the Convention of August 1890, so far as regarded the control of strictly native affairs. But it was stipulated that the British and Dutch settlers should be released from the authority of the Swazi king, and placed under

the joint jurisdiction of the British and Transvaal Governments, the right to make a railway through Swaziland to Kosi Bay being further conceded to Transvaal. But the arrangement was obviously a mere compromise, and by the Convention of November 1893 between the British and Transvaal Governments, Swaziland was surrendered to the South African Republic. The royal residence was at Embekelweni, where, since Umbandine's death in 1890, a provisional government had been carried on by the Queen Regent and native indunas (chiefs).

Tongaland, between Swaziland and the sea, had also recovered its independence after the overthrow of the Zulu power. But this low-lying malarious coast region, which extends from the St. Lucia lagoon to Delagoa Bay, had always been claimed by the Portuguese, though they had never formed any permanent settlements south of Lourenço Marques. With a view to reconciling all interests the country was divided between England and Portugal by the Agreement of August 1890. The whole territory has an area of 7000 square miles, and a population of 30,000, distributed by international agreements as under :—

	Area in sq. miles.	Population.
North Tongaland (Portuguese) .	5000	10,000
South Tongaland (British) .	2000	20,000

The Ama-Tonga nation comprises several distinct tribes, mostly peaceful agriculturists, protected from the encroachments of white settlers by the absence of mineral wealth and its extremely unhealthy climate. To this circumstance was partly due the failure of the German trader Lüderitz to occupy the St. Lucia district on behalf of the Imperial Government, after he had induced the Berlin authorities to annex the equally valueless region

of Namaqualand on the opposite side of the Continent. In the northern district the natives have been debased by the baneful influence of the Portuguese and Banyan traders, who have "flooded that territory with drunkenness, vice, and crime."¹

¹ J. Thorburn, *Times*, 4th June 1891.

CHAPTER VIII

BRITISH SOUTH CENTRAL AFRICA

General Remarks—Political Divisions : I. BECHUANALAND SOUTH AND NORTH—Geographical Exploration—Physical Features—The Kalahari Wilderness—Fluvial Systems : Lake Ngami—Inhabitants of Bechuanaland—Table of the Chief Bechuana Nations—The Bushmen—Stations and Trade Routes—Material Progress—II. ZAMBESIA SOUTH AND NORTH—Political Divisions, Boundaries, Extent—Historic Retrospect—The Zimbabwe Ruins—Geographical Research—British Occupation of Mashona and Matabili Lands—The Barotse and Makololo States—Physical Features of South Zambesia ; Mineral Wealth—Matabililand Scenery—Climate—Fauna—Inhabitants—NORTH ZAMBESIA : Physical Features—Rivers of Zambesia—The Zambesi—The Victoria Falls—Lake Nyassa—The Shiré Basin—Lake Shirwa—Climate of North Zambesia—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—Table of the Chief Tribes and Nations in North Zambesia—The Ba-Lundas, Barotse, Mambundas, Ba-Shukulumbwe, Ba-Tonga, Manganja, Makololo, Awamwamba, Awawandia—The Stevenson Road.

General Remarks—Political Divisions

THE very heading of this chapter is significative of the vast change that has taken place in the political relations of South Africa since the first steps were taken to bring about the partition of the Continent. That brief interval of less than a decade has witnessed the creation of "British South Central Africa," a territory nearly 1,000,000 square miles in extent, with a population

that may be approximately estimated at about 4,000,000. It occupies the whole of the central region between the German and Portuguese possessions on the west, the Boer republics and Portuguese East Africa on the east, and stretches from Cape Colony uninterruptedly northwards to the southern extremity of Lake Tanganyika, where it is conterminous on the one hand with the Congo Free State, on the other with German East Africa. Thus the "British highway from the Cape to the Zambesi," the dream of home and colonial statesmen since the close of the Kafir and Zulu wars, has suddenly been more than realised; for this highway has been carried fully 500 miles beyond the Zambesi, and across the Zambesi-Congo water-parting right into the Upper Congo basin. Assuming that the free navigation of Tanganyika will be permanently secured by international agreement, British trade and enterprise will have free access to the heart of the continent for another 400 miles, to the northern extremity of that lacustrine basin. The highway is thus practically brought within 150 miles of Mount Mfumbiro, where begins the British north-eastern sphere of influence that extends thence down the Nile valley to the Mediterranean, though here temporarily interrupted by the political troubles in Egyptian Soudan. When the little gap between Tanganyika and Mfumbiro is obtained by agreement with Germany and the Congo State, whose frontiers converge at this point, England will enjoy the privilege of free right of way within her own borders across the entire length of the continent from the Cape to the Nile delta. Meantime it is satisfactory to know that by the terms of the Anglo-German Agreement of July 1890 British passengers and British goods are secured perfect freedom and exemption from all transit dues "between the

northern end of Lake Tanganyika and the British sphere of influence" in North-East Africa.

So rapidly has this marvellous transformation been effected that a certain vagueness still attaches to the very nomenclature that has been proposed to indicate in a comprehensive way the new territories brought within the pale of the British Empire. Lying entirely south of the equator, nearly midway between the two oceans, the whole domain is denoted with sufficient accuracy by the expression, British South Central Africa.¹ Correct statistics of areas and populations are available only for the small southern section of Bechuanaland, that is, the British Crown Colony which was transferred in 1895 to the Cape Government. Hence the figures embodied in the subjoined table of the main divisions, giving the results of more or less trustworthy surveys or reports of travellers and political agents, can for the most part be regarded only as approximately accurate:—

DIVISIONS OF BRITISH SOUTH CENTRAL AFRICA.

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.	Government.
SOUTH BECHUANALAND, as annexed in 1885—			
1. Barolong territory	20,000	} 50,000	} Crown Colony till 1895, since then annexed to Cape Colony.
2. Batlaro and Batlapin territory	15,000		
3. Kalahari Bushmen territory	10,000		
4. Bastaard's country (proclaimed 1891)	5,000		

¹ For the division which lies north of the Zambesi the expression "Northern Zambesia" has been officially adopted. The divisions south of the Zambesi have been named Matabililand and Mashonaland. These three divisions constitute the territory now under the administration of the Chartered Company, and named RHODESIA.

DIVISIONS OF BRITISH SOUTH CENTRAL AFRICA—*Continued.*

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.	Government.
NORTH BECHUANA- LAND—			
1. Bangwaketse and Bakwena terri- tories (Ghasit- sive's, and Se- cheli's)	50,000	100,000	Protectorate.
2. Kalahari Bush- men			
3. Bamangwato ter- ritory (Khama's)	30,000	400,000	Protectorate.
4. Towana territory (Ngamiland; formerly Mor- emi's, now (1891) Sechome's)	90,000		
	30,000		
RHODESIA—			
1. Matabililand	110,000	650,000	Administered by South Africa Chartered Company.
2. Mashonaland	100,000	200,000	
3. Barotse and Ba- shukulumbwe Lands, and Bangweolo Basin	250,000	2,500,000	
BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA—			
Nyassaland, with the Shiré Basin	40,000	600,000	Administered by British Commis- sioner.
Total British South Cen- tral Africa	750,000	4,510,000	

That the road from the Cape to the Zambesi should be kept open at all costs was a fundamental principle of South African politics, in which the imperial and colonial authorities were of accord. But soon after the restoration of the Transvaal (1881) this road began to be threatened by the Boers encroaching on the territory of Mankoroane and other Bechuana chiefs, beyond the west

frontier of the republic. It was even for a short time actually seized by the filibusters, who set up the ephemeral states of Goshen and Stellaland¹ in the districts north of Griqualand West, which are traversed by the main route from Kimberley to Shoshong and Palapye. In this aggressive movement the Boers were acting in secret concert with the Germans, who had occupied Angra Pequena on the west coast in 1884. The hands of the Imperial Government were thus forced, and to prevent a permanent block of the highway leading northwards, the greater part of South Bechuanaland was constituted a British Crown Colony, with the consent of the local chiefs, glad thus to secure protection against their implacable foes, the Transvaal Boers.

But the scramble for Africa was now in full swing, and the claims of Germany on the one hand and of Portugal on the other, again compelled the Imperial Government to take action for the purpose of safeguarding British interests in the central region, extending from the newly-created Crown Colony to the shores of Lake Tanganyika. A protectorate over North Bechuanaland had already been proclaimed by the High Commissioner in March 1885, its northern limits being fixed at 22° S. latitude. But it was obvious that it could not stop at this conventional line, which intersected Khama's country,² and exposed the whole of Zambesia to the risk

¹ That is, Goosen and Stille ("Still" or "Peaceful") land. But popular etymology soon transformed *Stille* to the Latin *Stella*, "star," whence "Stellaland," and even "Star-land"; "because the war between Chiefs Massouw and Mankoroane, which eventually led to the land becoming inhabited by white people, took place in the year 1882, when the great comet was visible" (Blue Book, 1885, p. 202).

² Khama himself objected at the time that "boundary line there is none at 22°. It speaks of nothing which has existence; it is to cut my country into two" (Blue Book, August 1885, p. 45).

of being appropriated by the Germans and Portuguese. After the settlement of the frontier difficulties on the east and west seaboard by the Lisbon Convention of December 1886, Germany claimed a Hinterland, giving her access to the Zambesi from the west side, while Portugal claimed a double Hinterland, absorbing the whole region intervening between her western and eastern possessions. The German question was amicably arranged by the Anglo-German Agreement of July 1890, by which England was allowed a free hand in dealing with the extravagant pretensions of the Portuguese. The Lisbon Cortes having refused to ratify the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of August 1890, the tedious negotiations with Portugal, which more than once threatened to end in open hostilities, were at last brought to a close by the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of May 1891.

Meantime the British protectorate had been rapidly extended to the whole of Khama's territory, to Moremi's (now Sechome's) in Ngamiland, to South and North Zambesia (Matabili, Mashona, Barotse, and Mashukulumbwe lands), to the Shiré highlands and Nyassaland, while the rest of the region intervening between Zambesia and Tanganyika was officially declared to lie within the limits of the British sphere of influence. Thus the frontiers of British South Central Africa, as recognised and finally adjusted by the above-mentioned international treaties and conventions, are conterminous in the north with German East Africa and the Congo Free State, in the west with the Portuguese and German West African possessions, in the east with Portuguese East Africa and Transvaal, in the south with Cape Colony. Its geographical continuity, which had been seriously threatened first in South Bechuanaland, and

then in the Zambesi valley, is amply secured by the agreements with the several surrounding states. But its political unity must necessarily be a work of time. At present its administrative organisation is in a rudimentary condition, and within its broad limits are comprised all kinds of jurisdiction, except responsible and representative government. But by agreement with the Crown, the direct government of the whole of Zambesia in its widest sense, that is, the vast region extending from Bechuanaland to Lake Tanganyika, was taken over by the South Africa Chartered Company in June 1895, and is now administered from Salisbury. It will be convenient to treat the several physical sections under the two broad divisions of *Bechuanaland South and North*, and *Zambesia South and North*.

I. Bechuanaland South and North

We are told by the Rev. John Mackenzie¹ that when he went first to South Africa in 1858 there was no region known by the name of Bechuanaland. "The country of course was there, and the Bechuana people were there, but the name Bechuanaland expresses a political fact which had no existence at that time. The country was known only by the tribal names of its people—as the country of the Batlaping, the Barolong, the Bakwena, or the Bamangwato. Bechuanaland became known to us only a few years ago as a country, the independent chiefs of which were united in their desire to come under the protection and administration of England, and thus save themselves, as they hoped,

¹ "Bechuanaland and the Land of Ophir," *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* 1888, p. 725.

from the uncertainties attending the advance of the energetic and sometimes reckless white man."

Nevertheless the term "Bechuana" has been current in books of travel and geographical works, at all events, since the beginning of the present century. Dr. H. Lichtenstein, to whom we owe the first intelligible account of the people, already speaks of them as "Beetjuana" in a collective sense, and one of his four main divisions of Austral Africa is "the land of the great Beetjuana race."¹ Yet the word Bechuana is unknown to the natives themselves, or at least has only recently been adopted by them at second-hand from the whites. It is of unknown origin, and like Damara (see p. 176), was probably due to a misunderstanding on the part of the first Europeans who visited the country, and whose inquiries about its various inhabitants elicited the remark *ba-chuana*, "they are alike," meaning they are all one, all of the same stock.

But in the absence of a common national name the term is convenient, while the recent political remodelling of the southern continent has given a sufficiently definite meaning to the expression "Bechuanaland." It comprises the whole of the central plateau between Cape Colony and the Zambesi river south and north, and is conterminous on the west with German South-West Africa, on the east with Transvaal and Matabililand. The southern division, forming the Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland, was at first limited on the north and west by the course of the Molopo-Hygap river; but by the proclamation of May 1891 the boundary was extended northwards to the Nosob river and westwards to 20° E. longitude, thus absorbing the whole of the so-called Bastaard's country as far as the German pro-

¹ *Travels in South Africa in the Years 1803-1806.* Berlin, 1811.

tectorate. The northern division, forming the British protectorate, includes the territories of the Towana people in the north, that is, Ngamiland; of the Bamangwato people in the centre, that is, Chief Khame's country; and a neutral zone, which extends from Khama's southwards to the Molopo, and which is already regarded as virtually forming part of the Crown Colony.

Geographical Exploration

The first recorded expedition to the Bechuana country dates from the year 1801, when Truter and Somerville penetrated from the Cape to Litaku (Lataku), which was at that time the capital of the allied Ba-Tlapi and Ba-Rolong nations with an estimated population of 15,000. These pioneers were soon followed by the memorable expedition of Dr. Lichtenstein (1803-1806), who found that the confederacy had already been dissolved, and that the Ba-Tlapi had removed their chief station to Kuruman, a few miles farther south, near the present frontier of Griqualand West. Lichtenstein was accompanied by some Mozambique slaves, who were at that time numerous in Cape Colony, and who felt themselves almost at home amongst the Bechuana peoples, so close was the resemblance in their physical appearance, mental qualities, and languages. Further observation led to the discovery that the Kafirs also belonged evidently to the same fundamental group. Thus it was that South African ethnology was for the first time placed on a solid foundation by this explorer, who formulated what may be called the Bantu theory, at the very time that the Indo-Germanic or Aryan theory was being developed by Sir William Jones and the Schlegels. His comparative

studies of the southern peoples satisfied him that "all these tribes south of Quiloa and east of Cape Colony should be regarded as a single great nation, which is sharply distinguished on the one hand from the Negroes and Mohammedans (Arabs), and on the other from the Hottentots. I do not hesitate to extend their domain westwards to the meridian of Cape Agulhas, for Kafir tribes reach so far in the interior of the country under 25° south latitude."¹ Since Lichtenstein's time their domain has been widened by every successive explorer, until it now embraces nearly the whole of the southern continent from Sudan to the Cape.

Towan and Donovan's expedition of 1808, sent to the interior by Lord Caledon, Governor of the Cape, was followed by the more fruitful journey of Burchell, who in 1812 traversed most of the southern districts, and collected a great mass of information on the country and its inhabitants. About the same time the Bechuanas were visited by the Rev. John Campbell, forerunner of a long line of devoted missionaries, including the illustrious names of Moffat and Livingstone, by whom many tribes have been evangelised, and the whole nation raised to a distinctly higher level of social culture. During a second journey in 1820 Mr. Campbell passed from Litaku, where an English Protestant Mission had already been founded, northwards to the territory of the powerful Ba-Harutse (Barotse) people. Thus an important section was added to the great highway to the interior, which became known as "the English road" and "the Missionaries' road," and which was afterwards carried by Dr. Moffat beyond Shoshong to the Matabili country, and by Livingstone beyond Koboleng to Lake Ngami and the Zambesi. This route was followed by the naturalist, Dr.

¹ *Reisen*, vol. i. p. 398.

A. Smith, who reached the Limpopo in 1834-35, and by all subsequent travellers, such as Fritsch, Mohr, Baines, MacCabe, Chapman, Shelley and Orpen, Mackenzie, Holub, A. Anderson and others, who have traversed Bechuanaland in every direction, and completed the work of geographical exploration in all its essential details.

Physical Features

Bechuanaland is separated by no salient geographical outlines from the surrounding lands, except towards the north-east, where a somewhat ill-defined frontier towards Matabililand is formed by the Tati hills and other irregular ridges and *koppjes*, or isolated eminences, which appear to represent the scattered fragments of a profoundly eroded mountain system, at one time extending through the Matoppo range north-eastwards to the Mashona highlands. Elsewhere the transition is everywhere very gradual, from the grassy steppes of Transvaal and Griqualand westwards, from Great Bushmanland across the Orange northwards, and from the sandy wastes of Namaqualand eastwards to the vast central region which on most maps figures as a blank space entitled the "Kalahari Desert." But with the progress of discovery the limits of this blank space have been continually contracted westwards, so as to leave a broad tract of moderately fertile and somewhat hilly land extending from Griqualand along the Transvaal frontier north-eastwards to Matabililand. Here are concentrated nearly all the settled districts and large centres of population, such as Taungs, Vryburg, Mafeking, Kanya, Molopolole, Shoshong, and Palapye (Palachwe), which already form so many stations on the great highway of

trade, travel and migration, running from Cape Colony through Kimberley, north-eastwards to Matabili and Mashona Lands. Thus this northern highway, like the southern section from Cape Town to Kimberley, serves to mark off the almost uninhabited arid wastes stretching thence westwards to the Atlantic from



MOLOPOLOLE, TOWN OF THE BAKWENA TRIBE.

the more fertile, better watered, and, consequently, more thickly peopled region extending eastwards to the Indian Ocean. Despite the copious summer rains, the districts traversed by the main northern route suffer from a deficiency of surface moisture for a great part of the year. This appears to be due to the porous nature of the soil, a red sandy loam mixed with gravel, through which the running waters rapidly disappear. But below the surface they continue to flow along the face of the

hard underlying rocks, syenites, porphyries, and coarse-grained sandstones, until they are arrested by dykes or elevated igneous formations, where they accumulate in extensive underground reservoirs. According to the different character of the underlying rocks, the soil is covered with either good pasturage, or coarse tall grass, dense thickets of scrub, such as buckthorn and various species of thorny acacia (*A. Giraffia*, *Horrida* and *Detenens*), or else large forest trees, including the baobab and banyan¹ with an undergrowth of the aromatic resinous falboss (Mahratta) shrub. Rich alluvial soil also occurs in the valleys watered by intermittent streams, and between the two parallel ranges of granite hills at Shoshong. In such localities the natives grow fine crops of maize and millet, and here also wheat, oats, and potatoes might be raised, as in Transvaal, by artificial winter irrigation. Unfortunately most of the woodlands in the southern districts have already been used up to supply the fuel required by the machinery on the Kimberley diamond fields. Hence the aspect of the country improves in the direction of the north. Beyond Kanya it is generally well wooded, especially along the water-courses, and the scenery between this place and Molo-polole is not surpassed in natural beauty by that of any part of Cape Colony (Mackenzie).

The Kalahari Wilderness

Westwards the land becomes rapidly more and more arid, and at last merges everywhere in a broad zone of sands separating it from the so-called Kalahari Desert.

¹ The banyan, introduced at some remote epoch from India, is locally known by the name of *More-aa-Maoto*, i.e. "tree with legs."

Probably to the presence of this sandy belt along its eastern margin this region is indebted for its popular reputation of an uninhabited and uninhabitable waste, differing little from the true desert of Great Namaqualand on its western border. The sands are disposed in vast ridges from a few feet to several hundred feet high, often over 50 miles wide, and running in straight lines for hundreds of miles all the way to Lake Ngami, and at some points even to the Zambesi. Although traversed by tracks known to the Bushmen and Valpens,¹ they have always presented a formidable barrier to travellers wishing to explore the inner region of depressions and vleys, which constitutes the Kalahari proper, as indicated by its very name.² The whole region may be described as a vast elevated plain, from 3000 to nearly 4000 feet high, of lacustrine origin, drained at a remote epoch by rivers breaking through the outer edge northwards to the Zambesi and southwards to the Orange. Thus the still extant vleys (Anderson's, Ngami, Makarikari, and many others) may represent all that now remains of this great inland sea, while the sand-belts indicate the margins of the flooded depressions which continually shifted their contour-lines with the gradual subsidence of the waters.

¹ "Though a few white men and Griquas have penetrated thus far, yet the natives themselves will give no information, and are very jealous and suspicious of any traders. . . . It is, however, certain that this vast tract, a blank upon maps, when explored, will prove to be anything but the desert it has hitherto been called" (Lieut. E. A. Maund, Blue Book, August 1885, p. 120). According to this authority even the sand-belts are not entirely barren, for "they carry good grass and bush with camel-thorn trees, the bush being invariably thickest on the crest, but necessarily lack a surface water-supply" (*Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* January 1891, p. 2).

² Kalahari, Kalakhari, Kalakhadi, or Karri-Karri, is the same word as Ma-Kari-Kari, which in the Sechuana language means "salt-pans," and which is applied in a pre-eminent sense to the vast shallow basin east of Ngami.

That the whole region was at one time under water is evident from the deposits of shells and the numerous remains of aquatic or amphibian animals occurring in all directions. Its transformation to dry and even arid land has been attributed partly to upheaval, a process said on doubtful authority to be still going on, partly to the destruction of the forest and herbaceous vegetation by fire, which, according to a commonly accepted theory, tended to diminish the rainfall and at the same time to increase the evaporation. But a more potent factor than any local causes was the gradual decrease of moisture, due probably to cosmic influences, which appears to have been going on both in the northern and southern hemispheres from remote geological times.

But this general process of desiccation has not yet reduced the Kalahari to the condition of the true desert regions, such as the Gobi, Hadramaut, the Sahara in other parts of the globe. Its proper character is indicated by its Dutch name *Bosjesveld*, the English "Bush," which implies an abundant if somewhat stunted vegetation, as well as a numerous fauna and even a sparse human population. The whole region from the Orange to Lake Ngami was traversed in 1885 by G. A. Farini, who went north from Kimberley through Kheis by Shelley and Orpen's old route, returning by another route considerably more to the west. This traveller met plenty of scrub, a great variety of bulbous and trailing plants, edible tubers, and fine grazing grounds in several districts; and in one section of the return journey "for four days we passed through undulating country looking almost like an English corn district, covered as it was with a golden crop of Bushman grass which was now ripening, and was almost equal to oats as fodder for the horses and cattle. The spaces between the bunches were often literally

covered with sama, or water-melons, so that we did not trouble for water. Meat too was plentiful, as we got fresh eland and wildebeeste nearly every day. We often came across the spoors of lions.”¹

Elsewhere, “The country gradually became more and more level. The gentle undulations, only broken here and there by a distant *koppje*, and covered with ripe grass, resembled the gently-swelling bosom of a golden ocean, the similitude to which being heightened as the ripe ears of the grasses, bowing before the breeze, flashed from their under-side a silvery light like the moonlit ripples of the sea.”²

Similar passages occur in several parts of Farini's book, which, however, has been received with some reserve, owing mainly to his account of certain ruins not seen or referred to by any other explorer. But later reports have all tended to confirm his description of the “desert”; while the existence of the ruins need no longer be doubted, since the unexpected discovery of even more extensive remains of a somewhat analogous character, scattered over the neighbouring Benningwa uplands and other parts of Matabililand. The Kalahari monuments, which are situated just south of the Tropic of Capricorn, on the north side of the Nosob river, comprise “a long line of stone which looked like the Chinese wall after an earthquake, and which, on examination, proved to be the ruins of quite an extensive structure, in some places buried beneath the sand, but in others fully exposed to view. We traced the remains for nearly a mile, mostly a heap of huge stones, but all flat-sided, and here and there with the cement perfect and plainly visible between the layers. The top rows of stones were worn away by

¹ *Through the Kalahari Desert*, p. 267.

² *Op. cit.* p. 185.

the weather and the drifting sands, some of the uppermost ones curiously rubbed on the under-side and standing out like a centre-table on one short leg."



MOLOPO RIVER.

Fluvial Systems—Lake Ngami

Most of the Kalahari and South Bechuanaland belong to the vast catchment basin of the Hygap, which, although comprising a drainage area of nearly 200,000 square miles, sends very little water to the Orange, which it joins below the great falls. Not one of

its numerous branches—Nosob and Ub from the north-west; Kuruman, Molopo, and others from the east and north-east—is a perennial stream; nor are they all flooded at the same time, so that there is scarcely ever sufficient volume in the main stream to reach the Orange. When one is full another is dry, and the



POOL ON THE MARITSANI.

freshets nowhere last more than a few weeks, while at times long droughts prevail throughout the whole extent of the basin. Usually these southern wadys contain no surface waters beyond a few isolated pools, though a little moisture may generally be obtained by digging holes in the sandy depressions. After the summer rains, a good deal of water remains in these depressions, which by the gradual process of evaporation or infiltrations pass successively from the condition of shallow

lagoons to dangerous quagmires and arid plains. According to the nature of the soil, they assume the character either of vleys clothed with a scrubby vegetation long after the water has disappeared, or of salt-pans where the ground is incrustated with a thick saline efflorescence after the periodical rain-water has evaporated.

North of the Hygap basin the Bechuanaland plateau takes a slight tilt northwards, so that the rest of the Kalahari region drains to the Zambesi fluvial system. But so level is the ground that in many places the intermittent streams have an uncertain flow, while the two great flooded depressions of Lakes Ngami and Makarikari have become closed basins, or at least communicate with the Zambesi only during exceptionally high floods. But considerable uncertainty still prevails regarding the drainage of this lacustrine region, which, according to some authorities, is connected both with the Zambesi and Limpopo systems. Thus, on Sir Charles Warren's official map,¹ there is continuous waterway from the Chobe affluent of the Zambesi to the Maklutsi affluent of the Limpopo, the connecting links being the Mapabe (Tamalukan) flowing from the Chobe to the Botletle (Zouga) emissary of Lake Ngami, then the Botletle, which falls into Lake Makarikari, of which the Maklutsi figures as an affluent. But this connection of the Maklutsi with Makarikari is at least doubtful, and pending more trustworthy surveys the Ngami-Makarikari depression may be regarded as at present a closed basin, communicating occasionally with the Zambesi.

Although its limits are far from being accurately determined, Makarikari is known to be a much larger sheet of water than Ngami, which, since its discovery in

¹ Blue Book, August 1885.



THE UPPER LIMPOPO RIVER.

1849 by Livingstone, appears to have been continually subsiding. Recently it was even reported to have disappeared altogether, but this could only be during some exceptionally long period of drought, for Ngami certainly receives during the wet season a considerable contribution from the Tonké (Tiogué) branch of the Kubango, formerly one of the main headstreams of the Zambesi, and still intermittently connected with that river. The Kubango has its farthest sources on the Bihé uplands east of Benguela, and after collecting all the waters from the eastern slope of the Cunene divide, flows for hundreds of miles, first south-east towards the Ngami depression and then north-east through the Mababe lagoon district to the Zambesi at the Chobe confluence. Its middle and lower courses traverse what was undoubtedly at one time the bed of a vast inland sea, whose waters have been mainly discharged through the Zambesi eastwards to the Indian Ocean. All that now remains of this great lacustrine basin are the flooded depressions of Makarikari, Mababe, and Ngami, which are themselves slowly disappearing.

Early in the year 1891 the Ngami country was visited by Mr. H. O. Buckle, leader of an expedition sent north by the African Exploring Company, who reports that the whole district immediately south of the lake consists of one mass of quartz reefs, twenty miles long by one or two wide. Between this block and the hills, which lie some sixteen or twenty miles farther south, the reefs seem to disappear, but crop out again in a more scattered form in the hills themselves. Large quantities of quartz may also lie concealed beneath the dense bush overgrowing this part of the country. But from various adverse causes the expedition failed to procure fair average samples, from which some opinion

might be formed regarding the gold-bearing value of the reefs. Still farther south, Anderson, who has traversed every part of the Kalahari wilderness, found clear indications of considerable mineral wealth. Coal abounds in several districts, and there are extensive deposits of rich copper ores in the western districts. Gold also appears to occur in some places, and this circumstance may perhaps explain the existence so far west of the ruins described by Farini, although no traces have yet been discovered of old mining operations, as in Mashona and Manica Lands.

Inhabitants of Bechuanaland

It is evident from the geographical nomenclature that the true aborigines of Bechuanaland were peoples of Hottentot-Bushman race and speech. Thus most of the names of water-courses—Nos-ob, Up, Mol-op(o), Hyg-ap—contain some dialectic or corrupt form of the element *ob*, *ib*, *eb*, which in Hottentot means “river” or “water,” as in *Gar-ib*, the “Great Water,” that is, the Orange River. But long before the South African historic period these aborigines were driven south beyond the Orange, or west to the Kalahari wilderness, by peoples of Bantu race and speech pressing continually forward from the Zambesi. Hence, since their first contact with Europeans at the beginning of the present century, these South Central Bantu peoples, at present known by the collective name of Bechuanas, have been in exclusive possession of all the fertile eastern districts traversed by the South African highroad of trade and migration. Here they are grouped in large tribes or nations, a correct knowledge of whose relative

positions is necessary to a clear understanding of recent political events in South Central Africa. In the sub-joined table all the main divisions are disposed in regular order, from south to north, between the Orange and Zambesi Rivers.

TABLE OF THE CHIEF BECHUANA NATIONS.

BA-SAOMAKA BA-TLABO	}	Griqualand West and thence north to Kuruman and Taungs, all now amalgamated with the Ba-Tlapi.	
BA-TLAPI ¹		{	Mainly between Taungs and Vryburg; chief, Mankoroane; capital, Taungs.
BA-ROLONG	{	Between Vryburg and the Molopo river, with hunting grounds far to the west; chief, Montsioa; capital, Mafeking; a branch at Thaba Nshu in the Orange Free State.	
BA-HARUTSE (Barotse)	}	About the headwaters of the Molopo and Marico valley; now subject to Transvaal.	
BA-WANKETSI		{	From the Molopo to the Metsimashwani tributary of the Notwani river, including the Kanya district; chief, Ghasitsive; capital, Kanya.
BA-KWENA	}	From the Ba-Wanketsi territory north to the Tropic of Capricorn, and from the Notwani river north-west to and beyond Anderson's Vley; chief, Secheli; capital, Molepolole.	
BA-KATLA BA-SILIKA BA-CHWAPENG		}	Gamcohopa district, N. of Kanya, East of Shoshong, near the Limpopo, Between the Ba-Silika and left bank Limpopo,
BA-KAN, Shoshong Hills, ²	reduced and absorbed by the Ba-Mangwato.		
MA-NANSA MA-SHAPETTANA	}		Right bank of the Middle Zambesi.
MA-DENASSA, Makarikari lagoon.			
BA-NAJOA, Mababa district south of the Zambesi.			
BA-YEYE and MA-KOBA, Tonké district N. of L. Ngami.			
BA-MANGWATO	{	From the Ba-Kwena territory north to the Zambesi; chief, Khama; capital, lately Shoshong, now Palapye.	

¹ That is, the "Fish People." But the word occurs in a great variety of forms: Ba-Tlapi, Ba-Tlapin, Bachapin, Bahlapi, Matchapi, Maatjaping, etc. They are perhaps the most civilised and one of the most numerous of all the Bechuana nations.

² On the older maps these figure as the "Bakan Hills," from the name of this tribe.

BA-TWANA { Lake Ngami, and thence west to Ovampoland ; a branch
(Batoana) { of the Ba-Mangwato ;¹ chief, Sechome, successor (1891)
to Moremi ; capital, Denokane.

Formerly several of these divisions, such as the Ba-Tlapi, Ba-Rotse, Ba-Wanketsi, and Ba-Kwena, were powerful nations, which have been gradually weakened by internal dissensions, aggressive neighbours, and frontier wars with the Boers and Matabili. At present all recognise British supremacy, and most of them are practically ruled by the High Commissioner, whose edicts and proclamations have force of law far beyond the actual limits of the Crown Colony. The only really self-governing peoples are the Ba-Mangwato and the kindred Ba-Twana, who between them rule over more than half of North Bechuanaland. After the death (1890) of King Moremi, the Ba-Twana have been governed by the chief headman, Dithapo, on behalf of the heir, Sechome, who is a minor, and related on the mother's side to Khama, King of the Ba-Mangwato.

Khama has for many years been the most distinguished native ruler anywhere south of the Zambesi. Under the beneficent guidance of judicious missionaries and British agents, he has long governed his people wisely and firmly, abolishing witchcraft and other savage customs, excluding strong drinks by severe excise measures, personally administering justice with equity and moderation, encouraging agriculture, the industrial arts and education, and at the same time offering a stout resistance to the incessant attacks of the fierce Matabili hordes on his eastern frontier. "In 1863, without warning and without cause, the Matabili attacked the Ba-Mangwato cattle stations, and captured

¹ Yet Dr. E. Holub noticed a marked difference in the appearance of the two peoples, the Ba-Twana being "quite black," the Ba-Mangwato "brown."—*J. Anthropol. Institute*, 1880, p. 10.

a number of cattle. Khama had the courage to leave the protection of the hills and meet the Matabili in the open plain. The Ba-Mangwato, in the first instance, drove back a division of the Matabili, but were in turn compelled to retire. So severely had the Matabili to pay for this victory that they have not again returned to attack the Shoshong hills. They have occasionally made incursions into the Ba-Mangwato country, when some village of Ba-Kalahari or Bushmen is on the instant massacred. Lately the attention of the Matabili has been directed to the Ba-Mangwato at Lake Nghabe (Ngami), who have been twice attacked."¹

But since the occupation of Mashonaland and the death of Lobengula, all this border warfare has ceased, and peace reigns throughout Ba-Mangwatoland.

Khama, through his father Sekhome, is fourth in descent from Kari, founder of the Mangwato state. Before his time the Ba-Kwena, Ba-Wanketsi (Ba-Ngwaketsi), and Ba-Mangwato were all one confederate people, of whom the Ba-Kwena were the elder branch; the sacred animal or totem common to all being the *kwena*, or "crocodile." Then Kari withdrew from the alliance, and adopted a new totem, the Puti, or duiker antelope, which has ever since been the emblem of the Ba-Mangwato nation. The Bechuanas appear to be the only group of the Southern Bantu peoples who thus preserve in its integrity the primitive totemic system. The reverence or worship which they pay to their respective totems, usually animals from which the tribes themselves are often named, is expressed by the word *lino*, to dance. Thus the Ba-Katlas dance to the *katla*, monkey; the Ba-Kwenas, as well as the Ba-Wanketsi and Ba-Sutos, to the *kwena*; the Ba-Tlaros and others to the *klu*, or

¹ Rev. J. Mackenzie, Blue Book, 1885, p. 66.

elephant; and the Ba-Rotse to the *chuene*, or Cape baboon. The last-mentioned are recognised by all the others as the elder branch, hence the formerly powerful but now much reduced Ba-Rotses take precedence of all the Bechuana nations. At a remote epoch some of the Ba-Rotses moved north of the Zambesi, where they founded a large "empire," which still exists, having recovered from its temporary overthrow by the Makololos.

The Ba-Kalahari Half-Breeds

Other early migrations took place westwards to the Kalahari wilderness, where alliances appear to have been formed with the Bushman aborigines. But the Vaalpens,¹ or Ma-Sarwa, that is, "Bad People," as the descendants of these unions are called, were regarded as outcasts by the full-blood Bechuana, and were consequently despised, and till recently enslaved and ill-used in every way by the Ba-Rolongs and other neighbouring tribes. Amongst them are, no doubt, also included many pure Bechuana, remnants of vanquished peoples, who from time to time took refuge in the Kalahari wilderness. But all alike have been subject to the same oppressive treatment—compelled to pay tribute in skins and other produce of the chase, to till the land as serfs, or tend the herds at the cattle stations. To protect them from these exactions severe edicts have been issued by the British authorities, and in 1888 it was officially announced that within the protectorate all these peoples, whether Ba-Kalahari (full-blood Bechuana refugees, called also Ba-Lala, "needy," or "mendicants") or Vaalpens, would be regarded as freemen, and that henceforth the magistrates

¹ Farini, on his return journey, met some of these Vaalpens, who told him their real name was Kattea.—*Op. cit.* p. 349.

would recognise no claims arising out of the assumed relations of master and slave as between the Bechuanas and the Ba-Kalahari.

The Bushmen

The Ba-Lala are generally understood to be true Bechuanas, the term Ma-Sarwa being applied to the half-breeds, who represent all shades of transition between the Bantu and Bushman races. Although scattered in small fragments or family groups all over South Central Africa, the Bushman aborigines are at present mainly confined to the Kalahari wilderness, and here alone it is possible to study them in their primitive condition, in many cases still unmodified by contact with the surrounding peoples.

The Bosjesmans or Bushmen of the Dutch settlers are known to the Cape Hottentots as *San-qua* or *Soan-qua*, and to the Namaquas as *Saan-qua* or *Zaan-qua*, while, according to Arbousset, they generally call themselves *Khwai*,¹ that is, "men." Their ethnical relation to the Hottentots has already been indicated at p. 183. The affinities are probably fundamental, both in physical type and speech, though there are many important features in which the Khwai differ greatly from the Khoi-Khoin. The expression is far more animated and wild, the glance more furtive, the gestures and movements quicker and more agile. The Bushman in this respect may be described as mercurial, the Hottentot as leaden, and the distinction applies with equal force to their mental qualities. Hence, although the former

¹ *Khwai* is the same word as the Hottentot *Khoi*, and the Hottentot plural ending *qua*, *kua*, *kha*, another indication that the Hottentot and Bushman languages are fundamentally one.

occupies a much lower position socially, he appears to be endowed with a greater share of natural intelligence, as shown both in his artistic taste and skill, in which the latter is singularly deficient, and in his folk-lore, which is so rich and varied, so charged with natural wisdom and sentiment, as to rank as an oral, national literature, fully on a level with that of the Polynesian islanders. H. H. Johnston met a Bushman who could speak Dutch fluently, besides English, Portuguese, Hottentot, and several Bantu languages. Like Lichtenstein, Bleek, and many others, this observer was struck by the "mental ability" of the race, so "strangely at variance with their low physical characters."¹

All travellers speak in eloquent terms of their remarkable powers of observation and skill in delineation, as evidenced by their pictorial representations already referred to at p. 257. These rock drawings and paintings "differ much in aim and character. A large portion are of the caricature class, rudely, but very spiritedly, drawn in black paint. The class representing fights and hunts are a large and interesting one. It will be noticed that many of the drawings are representative of figures and incidents among white people, also of other native tribes. Some even suggest actual portraiture. The ornamentation of the head-dresses, feathers, beads, tassels, etc., seems to have claimed much care, and to have given the native artists great pleasure in delineation. The higher class of drawings will be seen to indicate correct appreciation of the actual appearance of objects; and *perspective and foreshortening are found correctly rendered.*"²

¹ *Jour. of the Anthropol. Institute*, 1883, p. 463.

² "Notes on a Collection of facsimile Bushman Drawings," by Mark Hutchinson, *Jour. of the Anthropol. Institute*, 1882, p. 464.

Yet these intellectually gifted aborigines live a life of extreme misery and hardships. By preference they dwell in caves on the uplands, descending from time to time to the plains to shoot game with their poisoned arrows, and collect the roots, berries, ants, locusts, lizards, or snakes, which form their chief nutriment. For they neither keep flocks nor herds, nor till the land, but depend almost entirely on the chase for their sustenance. Hence they are unattached to the soil, which for them has no value, and easily move about from place to place in quest of food. Owing to this hard struggle for existence they have acquired extraordinary powers of endurance, and will often pass four or five days without eating. But when any large game is captured an incredible quantity of meat is consumed in a semi-raw state, and the gorge is followed by a long interval of repose, broken only by the necessity of again seeking for food to allay the pangs of hunger.

The Bushman stands at the lowest stage of human culture, with no sense of property, no social organisation, no chiefs or established tribal usages, no religion, no domestic animals, no industries, no utensils or weapons, except the bow and arrow required for the hunt, no dwellings beyond a trench dug under some sheltering bush, no clothes but undressed skins thrown over the body in cold or wet weather, no marriage rites or family ties. In the Bushman language there are no words to distinguish the girl from the wife; a couple live together and rear their offspring by the same instinct that perpetuates the brute creation; the mother comes and goes at pleasure; infidelity is an unknown offence, and the women are often the prize of the stronger.

There appear to be neither tribal nor even family groups in the strict sense of the term, but only the

rudimentary elements, out of which the community might under favourable conditions be gradually evolved. Hence it is that the remarkable Bushman folk-lore is concerned not so much with human as with animal life in general. The hare, the crocodile, the lion, or quagga plays quite as important a part in the scene as the native, who is more often absent than present. These *dramatis personæ* are even made to speak, each his own proper language, which is indicated each by its proper click. Thus, while the number of these strange sounds is restricted to six for the ordinary Bushman language, in the "literary" language they are practically unlimited, each animal introduced into the dialogue having its characteristic click used only by itself. The lessons of wisdom conveyed by these stories are all derived from the habits of the animal world, so that the Bushman may truly be said unconsciously to follow the advice of the inspired writer, "Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways and be wise."

The Kalahari Bushmen are described as taller, and altogether a finer race than those of Cape Colony. But travellers' reports differ considerably; nor is it always easy to sift their evidence, for the term "Bushman" is often applied in a very loose way to dispossessed Hottentots, half-castes, or broken tribes, which own no flocks or herds. Even the Ma-Denassa of the Makarikari salt-pan, and the Ba-Yéyé of Lake Ngami, have been called Bushmen, although the former are certainly Bechuana half-breeds, the latter a Bantu people originally from Nyassaland, but now reduced and degraded by the Ba-Twana conquerors. Many of the so-called western Bushmen as far north as Ngami are really impoverished Namaquas, of the same extraction as the Topnaars of Walvisch Bay. They call themselves Aunin, and appear

to be numerous, occupying the boundless plains extending far to the east and north to Lake Ngami.

The above account applies to none of these, but only to the true Bushmen, or rather to such as have not yet been influenced by contact with their neighbours. These are now reduced to a mere handful, and are rapidly disappearing, either dying out or adapting themselves to the changed conditions of their environment. "The Bushmen in Bechuanaland in the present day are following their masters' lead in the ways of civilisation. They are employed as herds and waggon servants in South Bechuanaland; and on our recent journey to Shoshong we found on entering Khama's country that that chief had entrusted a flock of goats to the Bushmen who were living at Mamabula. In the heart of the Kalahari the vassals have flocks of goats of their own, while they herd also the flocks of their masters."¹

Stations and Trade Routes—Material Progress

The great highway running through Bechuanaland along the west frontiers of Transvaal and Matabililand north to the Zambesi, mainly traverses a somewhat arid region, which in places might even be called desert.² But at certain intervals along its course occur more or less extensive fertile tracts, which owe their productivity to the presence of copious perennial springs, underground

¹ Rev. J. Mackenzie, Blue Book, 1885, p. 63.

² "West of Shoshong it is waterless desert for hundreds of miles, which can only be crossed in rainy seasons, and lived in by Bushmen and Bakalagari (Ba-Kalahari). Between Shoshong and Molepolole is a corner of this desert. The distance between the two places is about 120 miles. I have, in some years, in this journey had to cross an interval of sixty miles through deep sand from one water to another."—Rev. J. S. Moffat, Blue Book, 1885, p. 105.



MASINYA'S KRAAL—MOAMILAND.

reservoirs, or surface streams. In these oases, as they may be called, are necessarily situated nearly all the chief centres of population, which have at some time been, or still are, royal residences, and which have in recent years assumed the character of market towns, trading marts, seats of British administration, centres of missionary activity, and even railway and telegraph stations. The whole present life and future prospects of the land are thus concentrated along the line of the vital artery, the possession of which is of paramount political importance to the suzerain power, and through which flows a continuous stream of civilising influences, thence diffused throughout the whole of South Central Africa.

Shoshong, till lately the residence of the Ba-Mangwato chiefs, is the largest native place south of the Zambesi, with a mixed Bechuana and Makalaka population, at one time estimated at 30,000. It has still a considerable population, although it has ceased to be the Mangwato capital, Khama having recently removed some miles farther north to the busy station of *Palapye* (*Palachwe, Palatswie*). Shoshong lies on the slopes of two parallel ridges which enclose a fertile plain at the converging point of the routes leading north to the Zambesi and north-west to Lake Ngami.

Molepolole (*Lepelole*), headquarters of the famous Ba-Kwena chief, Secheli, lies between Shoshong and *Kanya*, capital of the Ba-Wanketsi nation, 120 miles south-west of the former, 70 miles north of the latter. In the neighbourhood of Molepolole is a celebrated cave which, according to the national legends, is the cradle of the Bechuana race. From it issued all living things, and on its rocky wall is shown the imprint of the first step taken by the first man emerging from its cavernous

recesses.¹ Kanya stands on a well-wooded hill rising nearly 200 feet above the surrounding plain, and contains, with the five outlying villages at the foot of this hill, over 3500 huts. Much of the cultivated land is owned by the English missionaries, who have here a substantial church, residence, and schools.

Kanya is followed 66 miles farther south by *Mafeking* on a headstream of the Molopo close to the Transvaal frontier, and just within the frontier of the Crown Colony, of which it is at present the chief emporium, and residence of the British Commissioner. Mafeking is the present terminus (1895) of the South Central African trunk railway, which, before the end of 1890, had already reached *Vryburg*, 94 miles farther south. Mafeking was also till lately the terminus of the Cape telegraph system, which in 1890 was continued by the South Africa Chartered Company to Ramutsa, 80 miles farther north, and, since then, *via* Palapye to Mashonaland.

Vryburg, that is, "Freetown," was founded by the Boer filibusters as the capital of their ephemeral "republic" of Stellaland, but has now been chosen as the seat of administration of the British Crown Colony. It lies 130 miles by rail due north of Kimberley, the only important intervening station being *Taung* (*Taungs*) on the Katong (Hart's river), present residence of the Ba-Tlapi chief, Mankoroane Molehabangue.

Kuruman, one of the earliest Bechuana towns visited by Europeans, is noteworthy as the only important place in the country which does not lie on the main route between the Orange and Zambesi. It is situated some miles west of Taungs, at the foot of a sandstone hill on the right bank of the upper Kuruman river.

¹ Livingstone, *Last Journals*.

After the rupture between the Ba-Tlapi and Ba-Rolong nations, Kuruman succeeded *Latuka* (*Lakatu*) on the Takun branch of the river, as the new capital of the Ba-Tlapi people. Here the first missions were founded, and Kuruman is still the chief centre of missionary work in Bechuanaland. *Kolobeng*, Livingstone's first station, and the neighbouring *Liteyani*, in the Ba-Kwena territory, have long been abandoned.

In the Kalahari there are no settlements or permanent centres of population, but only a few scattered farmsteads and camping grounds near the springs and vleys. Along the routes between Shoshong or Molepolole and Lake Ngami, such places are characteristically called "waters," and are described as a "brackish pan," a "small pit of fresh water," a "deep well," a "spring in the reeds," "water only during the rains," and so on. Two of these, *Lohudatu*, 275, and *Ghansi*, 445 miles from Molepolole, are the most important places in the whole wilderness, the former having several large pans and permanent waters supporting numerous herds of cattle, the latter (150 miles from Ngami) having a copious perennial spring near some probably auriferous quartz reefs and large baobab forests. Such places mark the necessary sites of future villages, and possibly even of flourishing agricultural and industrial centres.

That this is no sanguine forecast may be inferred from the rapid settlement and material progress of Bechuanaland since the occupation of Mashonaland. In his official Report for 1890, the Administrator, Sir Sidney Sheppard, speaks of the enormous strides that have been made in opening up and developing the country, especially since the foundation of the British South Africa Company in 1889. The completion of the railway to Mafeking, the construction of the telegraph

with iron poles to the Zambesi, the sinking of wells, the making of roads, the building and fortifying of camps at commanding points, and the vastly increased traffic with waggons laden with stores and merchandise of all kinds along the great route to the north and north-east, all testify to the new life which the prospect of untold wealth in the goldfields of Mashona and Matabili Lands has already infused into the country.

II. Zambesia South and North (Rhodesia)

In strict geographical language the new term "Zambesia" should be confined to lands comprised within the Zambesi hydrographic system. But convenience and political exigencies have already overridden such physical considerations, and "British Zambesia" in its widest sense includes districts in the extreme south which drain to the Indian Ocean through the Limpopo and other coast streams, and districts in the extreme north which drain through the Congo to the Atlantic. These outlying districts, however, are relatively of small extent; and, broadly speaking, the region in question may be said to coincide with the middle Zambesi catchment basin. It is nearly bisected by this great South African watercourse, which forms its salient geographical feature, while clearly separating the southern plateaux from the northern highlands and lacustrine depressions.

South Zambesia—Boundaries—Extent

The southern section of Zambesia comprises two main divisions—Matabililand (Matabeleland), lately ruled by the once powerful Zulu chief, Lobengula, and Mashonaland, both of which are administered by the Chartered

South Africa Company. Matabili and Mashona Lands, or "Rhodesia," as they are now officially called in honour of Mr. Cecil Rhodes, founder of the South Africa Company, occupy jointly the whole of the hilly plateau which stretches from the Limpopo northwards to the Zambesi, and which is conterminous west and east with the Bechuanaland protectorate and the Portuguese sphere of influence. Towards Bechuanaland the ill-defined frontier claimed by the Ba-Mangwato chief, Khama, runs from the confluence of the Shashi (Tati) with the Limpopo in a zigzag line north-westwards to the Guay ("Tobacco"), and then follows the course of that river northwards to its junction with the Zambesi below the Victoria Falls. On the west side the long-contested frontier with Portugal is only provisionally settled by the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of June 1893, the Zambesi and its Kabompo affluent forming the provisional boundary. On the east the boundary is deflected along the northern scarp of the Mashonaland uplands south-eastwards to the Ruenya river at 33° E. long., and then coincides with that meridian southwards to the Pungwe river, where it is again deflected round to the west and south so as to leave to Portugal the Massi-Kessi district of the disputed Manica territory. Beyond this district the line again coincides with 33° E. long. as far as the Bosi river, where it turns south-westwards to $32^{\circ} 30'$ E. long., which meridian is then followed southwards to the Sabi at the Lunda confluence. Beyond this point the frontier is indicated by a line traced south-westwards to the confluence of the Pafurie with the Limpopo, where the navigation is arrested by the falls.¹ By this modification of the unratified 1890 Convention, England advances her eastern frontier so as to embrace the whole of

¹ This boundary is (1895) in the hands of an eminent Italian jurist for arbitration.

the breezy Mashona and Matabili uplands, which here rise abruptly above the level and marshy plains of Gazaland.

The northern division of British Zambesia, now known as Northern Zambesia and British Central Africa, comprises two very distinct political regions, the protectorate of Barotseland in the west, since 1894 directly administered by the South Africa Company, and in the east the Nyassaland highlands, administered by a British Commissioner; with an intermediate group of petty states about Lakes Bangweolo and Moero, most of whose chiefs accepted the British protectorate early in 1891. But here we seem to plunge into the unknown, and all the information we possess of this region is derived from the rapid journeys recently made for the first time by Mr. Joseph Thomson and Mr. Alfred Sharpe from Lake Nyassa westwards to Bangweolo and Moero, and south-westwards to the Zambesi. According to the "Concession" made in 1890 by Lumanika, king of Barotseland, in favour of the South Africa Company, the boundaries of the protectorate are—on the south, the Zambesi, Chobe, and Lomba rivers to 20° E. long.; on the west, the same meridian to where it is crossed by the Lumedzi; on the north, the watershed of the Zambesi to the confluence of the Lunga and Kafue rivers, about where 27° E. long. is intersected by 12° S. lat.; on the east, the whole of Mashukulumbweland, whose chiefs, hitherto independent, are now recognising Lumanika as the paramount ruler.

Eastwards the frontier, as modified by the Anglo-Portuguese Agreements of 1891 and 1893, is laid down in such a way as to surrender to Portugal a tract of about 30,000 square miles on the north side of the Zambesi, which river, with all its affluents, is in return thrown open to the free navigation of all nations on the

same terms as the Congo. On the north-east the frontier line runs from the north end of Lake Nyassa to the south end of Tanganyika, and is traced so as to keep Stevenson's Road within British territory. British North Zambesia is thus conterminous westwards with the Congo Free State and Portuguese West Africa, south-eastwards and eastwards with Portuguese East Africa, north-eastwards with German East Africa, northwards with Tanganyika and the Congo Free State.

Although Zambesia nowhere approaches the seaboard, ample provision is made in the Anglo-Portuguese Agreements for easy access to the Indian Ocean, not only by the free navigation of the Zambesi with the Shiré and all its other tributaries, but also by the stipulation that Portugal shall construct a railway between Mashonaland and the coast¹ either by the Pungwe or the Bosi river valley, and shall also open a highroad from Beira at the mouth of the Pungwe to the British frontier. By these clauses Portugal, after 400 years of jealous exclusiveness, enters, so to say, into the comity of nations, and removes for ever the artificial barriers which had hitherto obstructed free intercourse between her eastern possessions and the interior of the continent. British Zambesia, the region more immediately affected by this liberal measure, stretches across nearly fourteen degrees of latitude for about 1000 miles, from Tanganyika southwards to the Limpopo; and for nearly 900 miles west and east between the Portuguese spheres of influence on the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. Even after the recent cessions to Portugal north of the Zambesi, the total area cannot be less than 550,000 square miles, with a probable population of 3,000,000.

¹ This railway is now complete from Fontesvilla, 40 miles up the Pungwe river, to Chimoiis on the plateau; it is being extended southward to Beira and westward to Untali in the Mashonaland division of Rhodesia.

Historic Retrospect—The Zimbabwe Ruins

At the southern extremity of Nyassa there is an abandoned missionary station called Livingstonia, and the lofty range rising above the north-west shore of the lake is known as the Livingstone Mountains. But the name of the illustrious explorer occurs nowhere else in Zambesia, a land which is nevertheless for ever sacred to his memory, for this is the scene of his great discoveries, and here he ended his days on the desolate shores of Bangweolo in the very heart of the vast region bequeathed by him as a trust to his fellow-countrymen. Down to the middle of the nineteenth century our knowledge of the Zambesi basin had made no perceptible advance since the middle of the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese plundering expeditions under Francis Baretto (1569) and others had already reached the Manica goldfields, and had established permanent stations (Sena and Tete) on the main stream. It is evident from the contemporary writers De Barros (1496-1570) and Ivano dos Santos (1505-1580) that the Portuguese at that time possessed a considerable knowledge of both banks of the Cuama (Zambesi), probably as far inland as Zumbo, though that station was not actually occupied by them till 1740. De Barros knew that "other people inland call this river Zambere,"¹ that is, *Zambese*, the letters *r* and *s* normally interchanging in the southern Bantu dialects;² and of the six tributaries mentioned by him all but one may be still identified with some certainty. They are the Panhames, that is, the Hanyani, rising at Mount Hampden in Mashonaland, and flowing north to the Zambesi a few miles below Zumbo; the Luamguoa, which

¹ *Asia*, First Decade, Book X. ch. i. Lisbon, 1777.

² Comp. the Sechuana *Morimo* with the Zulu-Kafir *Mosimo*.

is the Lu-Oangwa, a large western affluent of the Hanyani; the Arruya, that is, the Ruia or Luia, an upper branch of the Ruenya, which reaches the Zambesi below Tete, after draining a large part of the north Mashona escarpments; the Ruenia, which still bears the same name, now usually written Ruenya; lastly, the Manjovo, which is the Majova, a northern tributary of the Zambesi just below the famous Lupata gorge. The identification is confirmed by the statement that all these rivers "water Benomotapa's country, and the greater number of them carry down much gold which is yielded by that land."¹ This Benomotapa is elsewhere called Monomotapa,² and his territory is described as "the great kingdom of Sofala," with a coast-line limited north and south by the Cuama and Espirito Sancto (Zambesi and Limpopo), and extending for an unknown distance inland, but so as to include the gold mines of Manica, "which lie nearest to Sofala," as well as those of Matuea

¹ It is from these very rivers, Hanyani, Ruenya and its tributaries, that the Mashona natives still "bring gold-dust in quills for sale to the white men."—Maund.

² Both titles have in fact the same meaning; the first components, *Bena* and *Mono*, being the still current Bantu words *bwana*, *bana*, *muene*, *mwana*, that is, "lord," "master," "chief," "ruler." The second part, *motapa*, common to both, probably means a "mine," from the Bantu word *tapa* = "to dig," "excavate." Hence De Barros so far rightly explains these terms in the sense of "prince," or "king," or "ruler" in general, the full meaning being "Lord of the Mines," an appropriate title for the ruler of the auriferous Manica and Mashona Lands. Dos Santos, who resided in the country as a Dominican missionary, and was personally acquainted with this potentate, never uses either title, but always calls him the Juiteva. "The name of Juiteva is common to the sovereign lord of the country bordering on the river Sofala (Sabi or Pungwe), which at his accession to that dignity he assumes, to the exclusion of the titles he might before have been known by, this dignity in the esteem of the people placing him on a level with the Deity; indeed, the Kafirs acknowledge no other god than their monarch, and to him they address those prayers which other nations are wont to address to heaven."—*History*, Book I. ch. iv. That De

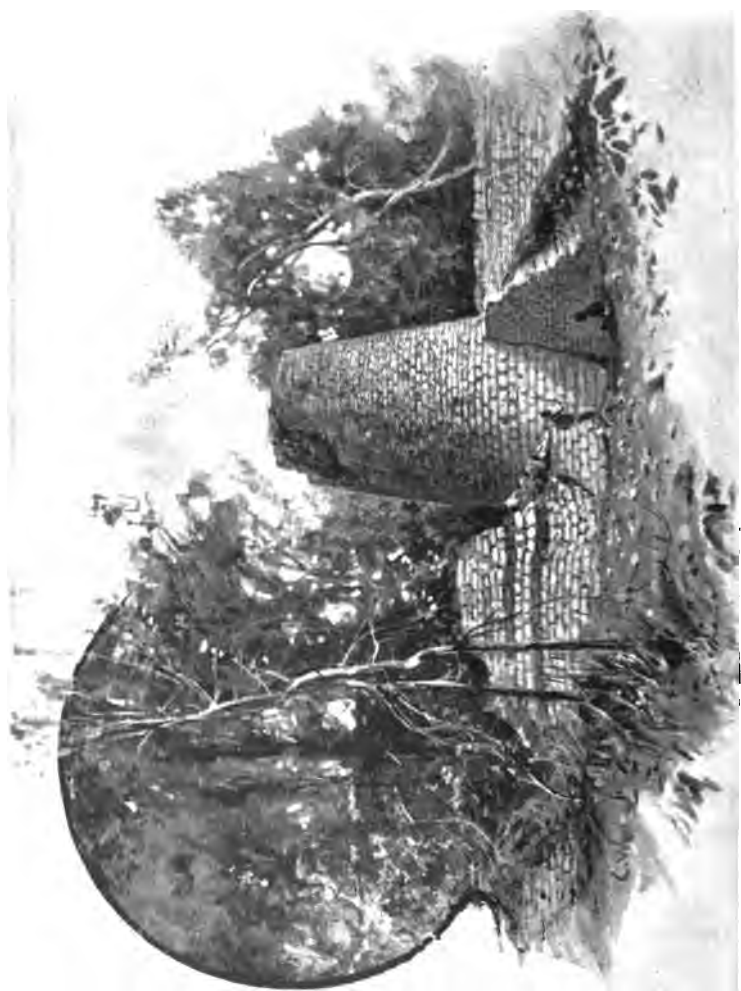
(Mashonaland), Toroa, or Butua, and others in the present Matabililand.

De Barros had also a fairly accurate knowledge of the famous monuments of Zimbabwe,¹ near the present Fort Victoria in Matabililand, which were rediscovered by Adam Renders in 1868,² and revisited and described by several members of the Chartered Company's memorable expedition to Mashonaland in 1890. His account of these monuments, now ruins, corresponds even in some of the details with that given by Maund, Bent, and other recent observers. "There are other mines," writes De Barros, "in a district called Toroa, which is otherwise known as the kingdom of Butua, whose ruler is a prince by name Burrow, a vassal of Benomotapa. This land is near the other which we said consisted of extensive plains, and those ruins are the oldest that are known in that

Barros's Monomotapa and Dos Santos's Juiteva were one and the same person is evident from the fact that both are described as ruling over the same country about Sofala, and that the capital or royal residence of both was the same, *Zemboe* in Dos Santos, *Symbaos* in De Barros, already mentioned in 1514 by Barbosa, who speaks of the "large town of the Gentiles which is called Zinbaoch."—*Voyage to Malabar*, translated from a Spanish MSS. for the Hakluyt Society, by the Hon. H. E. J. Stanley. In the Atlas of 1753 occurs the legend, *Cujus rex Quitove*, in reference to Sofala.

¹ He even gives the correct meaning, "royal residence," of this word, the Bantu components of which are *nzimba* = "a house," especially a substantial building, and *mbuie* = "a lord," or "chief"; hence *nzimbarmbuie* = Zimbabwe = a chief's dwelling, a royal residence, *sedes regia*, as on some of the older maps. *Mbuie* still means "a lord" in the Chi-Nyanja language of Nyassaland. (See A. Riddell's *Grammar*, London 1880. See also, for the general elucidation of these matters, A. H. Keane's *The Portuguese in South Africa*, in R. W. Murray's *South Africa*, London 1891.)

² "It was really Renders who first discovered these ruins, three years before Mauch saw them, though Mauch and Baines first published them to the world, and they only described what the old Portuguese writers talked of hundreds of years ago."—E. A. Maund, *Geo. Proc.* February 1891, p. 105.



region. They are all in a plain, in the middle of which stands a square fortress, all of dressed stones within and without, well wrought and of marvellous size, without any lime showing the joinings, the walls of which are over 25 hands thick, but the height is not so great compared to the thickness. And above the gateway of that edifice is an inscription which some learned Moorish (Arab) traders who were there could not read, nor say what writing it was. And grouped, as it were, round this structure are others on the same heights, like it in the stonework, and without lime, in which is a tower twelve braças (72 feet) high. All these structures the people of the country call Symbaoe (Zimbabue), which with them means a court, for every place where Benomotapa stays is so called; and as they speak of this as being a royal building, all the other dwellings of the king bear the same name. . . . They lie west of Sofala in a straight line 170 leagues more or less under the latitude of 20° and 21° south. . . .¹ In the opinion of the Moors who saw them they seemed to be very ancient, and were built there to hold possession of those mines, which are very old, from which for years no gold has been taken owing to the wars.”—*Loc. cit.*

With this may be compared the present state of the Zimbabue structures as described and illustrated by Mr. Baumann, who accompanied the Chartered Company's expeditionary force in 1890. The ruins, which stand on the edge of the Mashonaland plateau, are scattered

¹ This latitude and relative position to Sofala corresponds exactly with the site of the chief ruins which are identified in Maund's map with Zimbabue, and which lie due west of Sofala, near the recently-erected Fort Victoria in Matabililand, 20° 15' S. latitude. But the distance (170 Portuguese leagues = 640 miles) is much too great, as the ruins in question are not more than about 230 miles “in a straight line” west of Sofala. The Portuguese league equals 3·84 English miles.

to a great distance over a gentle slope, where a large koppje or knoll is crowned with a sort of fort composed of huge masses of granite. The main ruins on the slope below consist of massive circular walls, sometimes arranged in concentric rings, and a main building of the same form no less than 80 yards in diameter, within which a large solid conical tower, the most interesting feature of all, is enclosed by loftier and still more massive walls. The whole is built without mortar, in regular and neatly dressed courses, of uniform pieces of granite about twice the size of an ordinary brick, very hard, greenish-black in colour, and giving a metallic ring when struck. The work of disintegration is being slowly carried on by burrowing and climbing plants, but the wall is still 30 feet high with an average thickness of 18 feet at the base, tapering to about 8 feet along the irregularly broken top. On the entrance side the passage widens out so as to contain the great conical tower or keep 35 feet high and 18 feet in diameter at the base.¹

Similar ruins, very old and very extensive, occur at the Benningwa hills about the upper waters of the Lunde river, and numerous other remains are now known to exist in various parts of the Matabili and Mashona plateaux all apparently connected with long-abandoned gold mines. Those at Massi-Kessi may possibly be of comparatively recent date, for the Portuguese had a mining station in that district down to the end of the last century, when they were expelled by the Ba-Rue natives driven to open revolt by their intolerable oppression. But it is evident from De Barros that the chief monuments, both at Zimbabwe and elsewhere, date from an epoch anterior both to Portuguese and Arab times.

¹ *Pall Mall Gazette*, 13th October 1890.

Many conjectures have been hazarded regarding their builders, some looking on the ruins as of Phœnician or Axumite (Abyssinian) origin, others attributing them to the Persians of the Sassanid epoch.

In 1891 Mr. Theodore Bent, commissioned by the Royal Geographical Society to examine the remains with a view to determining their origin, discovered some images and pottery which appeared to be of Sabæan workmanship, and which consequently tended to support the opinion of those archæologists who identify this auriferous region with the Land of Ophir. Mr. Bent describes the ruins as absolutely unique, the walled enclosure, 260 yards round, containing many phallic emblems, which belonged evidently to a phallic temple, with walls in some places 16 feet thick and still 40 feet high. Some neighbouring remains of the same age and style comprise numerous walls and steps, arches and walled-up caves, built probably by Sabæan Arabs. A phallic altar has been found sculptured with birds and large vases, and with a frieze representing a hunting scene—four quaggas, at which a man is throwing a dart while holding a dog in a leash, and two elephants in the background. Some blue and green Persian pottery, and a copper blade plated with gold, have also been found, but no inscriptions. On the whole, Mr. Bent is inclined to attribute these monuments to pre-Mohammedan Arabs, probably of the Sabæo-Himyaritic period.¹

Geographical Research—British Occupation of Mashonaland

After their occupation of Manicaland before the close of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese made no

¹ *Proc. R. Geo. Soc.* May 1892.

further attempt to open up or even to explore the interior till comparatively recent times. Except on the banks of the Zambesi, their stations were confined to the coastlands, and their knowledge of the country inland from Sofala instead of advancing remained stationary, and in some respects even deteriorated. Thus the map accompanying Dapper's *Africa*, issued at Amsterdam in 1684, shows scarcely any improvement on Pigafetta's published at Rome in 1591. So great was the prevailing ignorance that De Barros's Monomotapa, that is, Dos Santos's Juiteva, paramount lord of the kingdom of Sofala, already figures in Dapper, not as a personal title but as a vast empire, "Monomotapaland," as he calls it, and historical geographers have ever since been searching in vain for this fabulous empire or kingdom of Monomotapa, which never had any existence, but had its origin in a misunderstanding of the early Portuguese texts.

Although possessing at least temporary stations on the Zambesi as far inland as Tete and Zumbo, the Portuguese knew nothing of the extent of the great river, had never heard of the Victoria Falls, or even of the vast Nyassa basin, which lay so near their outpost at Sena, until the era of modern research was ushered in by Livingstone's brilliant achievements. They held the seaboard for purely fiscal purposes, and concerned themselves with nothing but slave-dealing, tax-gathering, the levying of extortionate customs, and other vexatious regulations at the mouths of the water-courses giving access to the interior. Thus the coastlands between the Limpopo estuary and Zambesi delta continued to present formidable difficulties to travellers and explorers, until the barriers of seclusion were broken down by the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of June 1891. Hence it

was that the inland regions were first reached by Livingstone and the other pioneers of South Central African exploration, not from the Indian Ocean by the natural highways of the Zambesi, Pungwe, Sabi, or other independent coast streams, but by the long overland route from the Cape through Bechuana and Matabili Lands. Livingstone had led the way along this route by the memorable expeditions of 1849-56, during which he discovered Lake Ngami (1849), reached the Liambai (1851), afterwards found to be the true upper course of the Zambesi, ascended this river and gained the west coast at Loanda (1854); then, retracing his steps, descended the Zambesi to the Victoria Falls, first sighted by him (1855), and reached the east coast at Quilimane, thus earning the distinction of being the first European to cross the continent from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. During his next expedition (1858-63) he discovered and explored the Shiré valley, Lakes Shirwa and Nyassa, crowning these brilliant exploits by the discovery of Lakes Moero and Bangweolo (1868), and tracing a great part of the Luapula, or eastern head-stream of the Congo, as far as Nyangwé (1870).

Thus the whole of the vast Zambesi basin was traversed in its entire length and breadth by this illustrious explorer, who left little for his successors to do except fill up the details of the picture roughly drawn by him. During the last two decades this work has been steadily prosecuted by travellers, hunters, traders, missionaries, scientific explorers, mining prospectors, and others, whose itineraries intersect each other in almost every direction throughout the whole of South Central Africa. In 1884 the whole region from the Cape to Nyassa was for the first time traversed in a north-easterly direction by W. Montagu



SALISBURY.

Kerr, to whom we owe the first detailed account of Matabili and Mashona Lands. Yet so rapid has been the progress of events in the last few

years that this comparatively recent expedition seems already forgotten, and some of the districts for the first time visited by this pioneer are now being permanently occupied by British settlers. Before Mr. Kerr's expedition, others, such as Mohr, Selous, and Holub, had also reached and even crossed the Zambesi farther west; missionary stations, some since abandoned, some still flourishing, had been founded in the Shiré and Nyassa uplands (1872); the Matabili goldfields had been discovered and surveyed by Hartley, Baines, and Mauch (1868); and the whole region between the Limpopo and Zambesi had become the "Paradise of hunters," some of whom, notably Mr. Selous, have published valuable descriptions of the geographical features and ethnological relations of the great southern "Mesopotamia." Lastly, in 1890, the expeditionary force organised by the Chartered South Africa Company to take formal possession of Mashonaland, marched from the Limpopo along the eastern frontier of Matabililand to Mount Hampden, culminating point of the Mashona highlands,

constructing a permanent highway, throwing bridges across the streams, and erecting fortified stations, such as Forts Tuli, Victoria, Charter, and Salisbury, along the line of march.

Matabilliland

By this occupation of Mashonaland, a memorable event in the history of British colonial enterprise, an end was put to the reign of terrorism which had prevailed in the region between the Limpopo and Zambesi ever since its invasion by Umsilikatzi and his disciplined hordes in 1838 (see p. 286). After crossing the Limpopo the Matabili chief had established his headquarters at Buluwayo¹ in the Matoppos hills, and here was founded the fortified encampment which enabled Umsilikatzi and his successor, Lobengula, to hold military possession of the country (henceforth known as "Matabilliland"²) for upwards of half a century. Here was

¹ Usually, but wrongly, written Gubuluwayo, the *gu* being merely the Zulu prefixed particle of motion "to," and forming no part of the word, which has the characteristic meaning of the "Shambles," or "Place of Slaughter." The original Buluwayo stood on the summit of the Zambesi-Limpopo water-parting; but the royal residence was afterwards removed 18 miles farther north to the present or New Buluwayo, on a headstream of the Umkhosi or King river, 20° 10' S. lat., about 150 miles due west of the Zimbabwe ruins, and 118 north-east of the Bechuana frontier at Tati.

² Matabili, however, which is a corrupt form of the Se-Suto Ama-Ndabeli, is not the national name at all. "The proper name for my people is Zulu," said Lobengula to Mr. Kerr, in reply to a question on the subject (*op. cit.* p. 67). In fact the original tribe that Umsilikatzi led out of Transvaal was the Abesanzi branch of the Zulu family. These, though no longer full-blood Zulus, still form the first of the three Matabili classes, the two others being the Abemhla, originally Bechuana prisoners of war, and the Maholi, a motley gathering of Mashonas (Ama-Swina), Makalakas (Ma-Kolanga), and other broken tribes swept into the Matabili kraals during their incessant pillaging expeditions.

introduced the terrible Zulu system of government, which had depopulated the present Natal and many broad tracts of the present Transvaal, and which speedily reduced much of the region beyond the Limpopo to an uninhabited wilderness. The Matabili occupation was practically in the nature of a hostile camp planted in the midst of peaceful and industrious populations, such as the Ma-Kalakas, Ba-Nyais, and Ma-Shonas, who were partly exterminated, partly enslaved, or driven to the more inaccessible highland districts by the periodical razzias of the Zulu impis. The sphere of these raids was gradually widened, until they embraced the whole region west to Lake Ngami, east to Gazaland, north to and even beyond the Zambesi. They may be compared to the plundering expeditions of the Turkoman marauders, finally suppressed by the Russian occupation of Merv, and as British philanthropists eagerly applauded that occupation, preceded as it was by torrents of blood, it is strange that many of the same philanthropists have uttered disapproval of the Chartered Company's bloodless occupation of Mashonaland, by which the period of Matabili government by systematic plunder and massacre was closed for ever.

What this regime meant for the unfortunate aborigines has been vividly told by Mr. Kerr. "Attack is entirely a matter of cunning and stalking. A Matabili impi (army) will approach as stealthily and as invisibly as snakes, crawling as closely upon the ground, and concealed by the undergrowth, they watch the movements of their intended victims, the timid Mashona. Then, when a favourable opportunity occurs, up they rise like a wild black cloud of destruction. Hissing and shrieking their fiercest battle-cry, they bound and leap like the *klipspringer* (antelope) from rock to rock, deal-

ing with fearful precision the death-giving blow of the assegai, and ever and anon shouting with a thrilling ecstasy their terrific cry of triumph, as they tear out the yet beating hearts of their victims. After a pursuit of the flying and panic-stricken horde, the ravagers herd in the straying cattle, and then the devastating cloud moves away, gathering in its circuitous route other nebulæ in the shape of slave girls and boys, as well as the cattle from perhaps hundreds of hitherto quiet and smiling valleys. They return to their king with news of victory; dancing as they sing the story of their soul-stirring and daring deeds, while in feasting they drink the beer made by the hands of the girls whose parents' lives and property were the fruits of the chase, their bones lying bleaching in the sun amid the weather-worn rocks of the deserted highland home."¹

But the system could not last. The periodical raids yearly became less "profitable"; those sent against the Bechuanas and Towanas of Lake Ngami often ended in disaster; there was no source whence the losses of the Zulu impis could be repaired; the missionaries at Hope Fountain, Buluwayo, Inyati, and other stations, though making scarcely any converts, had a certain influence in mitigating the ferocity of the Matabili hordes; the country was invaded by Boer squatters and overrun in all directions by British hunters, travellers, and mining prospectors; the indunas themselves felt that their occupation was gone; thanks to arrangements made by English agents at Buluwayo no attempt was made to interfere with the Chartered Company's expeditionary force to Mashonaland; Lobengula, who had succeeded Umsilikatzi in 1870, felt his position so insecure, that he more than once made preparations to migrate

¹ *Op. cit.* vol. i. p. 104.

northwards beyond the Zambesi. In the hope of saving a remnant of his waning authority, he had accepted the British protectorate, undertaking to introduce orderly government and put a stop to the periodical raids in the surrounding lands. But this arrangement did not suit his unruly subjects, who lived by war and rapine, and who, about the middle of the year 1893, began to renew their plundering expeditions in Mashonaland. This brought about the inevitable collision between the impis and the levies of the Chartered Company, which, acting in concert with the imperial forces advancing from Bechuanaland, defeated the king's best troops in every encounter, and occupied Buluwayo in November 1893. Lobengula, who had already taken flight in the direction of the Zambesi, died of fever on 23rd January 1894, at a spot some 40 miles south of that river. He had been abandoned by nearly all his followers, and after his death the whole nation ceased all further resistance. With the disbandment of the impis, the Zulu military system was brought to an end, and Matabililand was incorporated in the territory of the Chartered Company. A peaceful and equable settlement speedily followed, and the system of administration already adopted in Mashonaland has been extended to the newly acquired territory, with such modifications as were required by the changed conditions. The effective administration remains in the hands of the Chartered Company, the responsible authority being vested, not in the Administrator alone, as heretofore, but in the Administrator in Council, who thus takes the place of the Governor in Council of Crown Colonies. The Council consists of three nominated members, and a judge nominated by the Company with the assent of the Secretary of State, and removable by the Secretary of State alone. The arrangement, which

applies equally to Mashona and Matabili Lands, is thus in the nature of a compromise between a Crown Colony and territory administered exclusively by a Chartered Company.

The Barotse and Makololo States

In the regions beyond the Zambesi, the chief part has been played in recent times, not by Zulu but by Bechuana or Basuto intruders from the south. At some unknown but apparently not very remote epoch, a branch of the Barotse nation had passed northwards and founded a large "empire" about the middle course of the Zambesi. But when Livingstone first penetrated to this region he found that the rulers of the land were no longer the Barotse but the kindred Makololo (Mantati), a branch of the Basuto or eastern Bechuana. These Makololos, whose name has become a household word throughout the Zambesi and Shiré basins, moved northwards about the year 1835 under their chief, Sebituana, who, like Umsilikatzi, had been one of Chaka's indunas, and who, like him also, was thoroughly familiar with the Zulu military system. About that time a general dislocation of the tribes north and south of the Vaal was caused by the combined pressure of the conquering Zulu hordes advancing from the east, and of the Boer Voor-Trekkers moving up from the south. Thus threatened on two sides in their original homes about the sources of the Vaal, the Makololos were led by Sebituana along the eastern verge of the Kalahari in quest of new lands, but found no resting-place until they had reached the banks of the Zambesi. Here their disciplined valour enabled them rapidly to overrun the Barotse territory, and reduce the natives to a state of servitude.

Sebituana was succeeded in 1850 by his son, Livingstone's friend, Sekeletu, and he by Impololo (Impororo), last of the Makololo dynasty. Constant fratricidal strife and rivalries for the leadership soon wasted the strength of the intruders, and a sudden rise of the oppressed Barotse resulted in the total extermination of all the Makololos settled in the region north of the Chobe. Those dwelling south of that river took refuge with the Ba - Twana of Lake Ngami, but only to meet a like fate; nearly all the men were massacred, and the women and children distributed amongst the surrounding tribes. The Barotse empire was thus reconstituted and even advanced in several directions beyond its former limits, absorbing the Mabunda and others on the terraces north of the Zambesi, and reducing either to servitude or vassalage the Masupias about the Chobe and Zambesi confluence, the Ba - Tonga occupying the north bank of the Zambesi above the Victoria Falls, and quite recently (1891) the numerous Bashukulumbwe (Ukulombwe) tribes of the Kafukwe basin, as well as some of the Manica¹ people, whose little known territory appears to extend east to the Chogwe affluent of the Zambesi, and north to the Iramba country towards Katanga. At the time of Dr. Holub's visit (1875) the restored Barotse kingdom comprised eighteen large nations with over a hundred subdivisions, and stretched from the Zambesi-Chobe confluence for fifteen or twenty days in the direction of the north. At present King Lumanika, who accepted the British protectorate in 1890, rules directly or indirectly over the whole of the Middle Zambesi basin south and west to the Chobe, east to and beyond the Kafukwe, north to the head-waters

¹ Not to be confounded with the historical Manica people of the auriferous region east of Mashonaland.

of the Kabompo, a vast region embracing an area of at least 250,000 square miles, with a population vaguely estimated at from 600,000 to 1,000,000.

Short as was the political sway of the Makololo, it lasted long enough to impose their Sesuto language on the Barotse nation and several of the surrounding tribes. Hence the curious phenomenon that, while the Makololo people have disappeared from this part of Central Africa, their speech continues to be the chief medium of communication amongst the riverain populations and generally throughout the Barotse kingdom. Sesuto being itself merely a variety of Sechuana, it follows that this Bantu idiom is now almost exclusively current from the banks of the Orange to the confines of Katanga, where it comes in contact with Umbundu and Ki-Swahili (see p. 148).

Nor have the Makololo ceased to exist, even as a political factor, as is asserted by some writers.¹ In the year 1859, that is, some time before the Barotse "Revolution," Sekeletu sent a small party of Makololo, Barotse, Batoka,² and other subject tribes, with Livingstone to the east coast in quest of a cure for leprosy, from which the king was suffering. This little band, which took the collective name of Makololo, never returned to Barotseland, but settled on the right bank of the Shiré below the falls. Here they gradually reduced most of the surrounding tribes and founded several petty "Makololo" states which still exist, and at

¹ Referring to the successful Barotse rising, Mr. Mackenzie writes: "Thus perished the Makololo from among the number of South African tribes. No one can put his finger on the map of Africa and say, 'Here dwell the Makololo.'"—*Ten Years North of the Orange River*.

² Properly Ba-Tonga, of which Batoka is a corrupt Makololo form. The Ba-Tongas are closely related in speech and usages to the neighbouring Ba-Shukulumbwe people (Selous).

present comprise the whole of the lower Shiré valley between the falls and the Ruo confluence. But they are Makololo states in name only, for of the original founders not more than two were of Makololo stock, and the prevailing language is not Sesuto, as in Barotseland, but the Chi-Nyanja of the Anyanja (Manganja), the dominant aboriginal race between Lake Nyassa and the Zambesi.

Long before the arrival of the Makololo, the Nyassa uplands had been invaded by other intruders from the south, who were chiefly of Zulu race, or at least passed for Zulus, and had been trained to the use of arms under Chaka or some of his military chiefs. North of the Zambesi these Landins, as they are called by the Portuguese, bore many names, such as Ma-Viti, Ma-Zitu, Ma-Ngone (A-Ngone), U-Mgoni, Munhae, and so on; but although they arrived as invincible conquerors, exterminating whole tribes and laying waste many lands, especially between the Rovuma and Rufigi rivers east of Nyassa, they nowhere succeeded in founding a powerful state such as those of Umsilikatzi in Matabililand and Manikus in Gazaland. Possessing no political cohesion, and arriving in separate bands at different times, each successive horde regarded its predecessor in the light of an enemy, and while occasionally combining to plunder the native tribes they more frequently turned their arms against each other. At present none of the Zulu fighting bands possess any dominant power in Nyassaland. The Ma-Viti of the upper Shiré districts have even made treaties with the English political agents, binding themselves to give up slave-hunting, to resist the Arab slave-dealers, to respect the missionary stations, and generally to abandon their lawless predatory habits and settle down to peaceful

ways. Thus the beneficent results of the spread of British influences are already being felt throughout North as well as South Zambesia.¹

Physical Features of South Zambesia—Mineral Wealth

The region between the Limpopo and Zambesi may be regarded as a northern extension of the Transvaal plateau, standing at a mean elevation of from 3000 to 4000 feet, and obliquely intersected by the Matoppo hills, which culminate north-eastwards in the Mashona highlands, and which, throughout their entire length of about 400 miles, from Tati to Mount Hampden, form a distinct water-parting between the streams flowing north-west and north to the Zambesi, south-east to the Limpopo, Sabi and other affluents of the Indian Ocean. The plateau falls abruptly northwards to the Zambesi and eastwards to Gazaland, so that the outer escarpments seen from these low-lying alluvial plains present the aspect of unbroken mountain ranges from 4000 to about 5000 feet high. Elsewhere the incline is much more gentle, and the main routes pass from Shoshong and Palapye through the Tati hills north-eastwards, or from Fort Tuli northwards, by a gradual but continuous ascent to Mount Hampden (5000 feet), apparently the

¹ To these results the Zulu half-breeds have themselves contributed. When Captain H. J. Keane was engaged in composing the fresh disturbances that had broken out in 1892 in the Zambesi-Nyassa region, he found the Angoni well disposed towards the English, and received willing aid from them in his efforts to restore order. This unexpected change in their attitude was due to the fact that, since the overthrow of the Zulu empire, they have renewed relations with their kindred beyond the Limpopo, and Captain Keane ascertained that "word had been sent northwards from the Cape Zulus that their industry in the diamond and gold fields might be injuriously affected if the northern Zulus in our country were unfriendly to us."

highest point in South Zambesia. The former runs from Tati (2630 feet) through Buluwayo (3500) and Umbajin (3600) to Hartley Hill (3800), while the latter, opened by the Chartered Company's expeditionary force in 1890, ascends from Fort Tuli (3000 ?) through Forts Victoria (3670) and Charter (4750) to Salisbury (4960) on Mount Hampden.

A striking feature of the tableland are the numerous granite koppjes, hills or knolls which are widely distributed, especially over the southern districts beyond Tati and about the Lunde and Sabi river valleys. These koppjes appear to represent the harder core of rocks, the softer parts of which have been extensively eroded or weathered during the long ages that the plateau stood out as dry land between the waters of the Indian Ocean on the east and of the great inland Zambesian sea on the west and north. The whole region has been compared to a "storm-tossed sea of granite," where huge boulders of fantastic shape are balanced upon granite hills often of considerable size, in the wildest confusion, as if resulting from some suddenly arrested convulsion of nature. "These koppjes are formed of immense blocks of granite piled up in every conceivable form, some looking like the ruins of old castles perched on crags unassailable by aught but time, others taking the fantastic shape of animals, or standing up like obelisk monuments fashioned by nature out of one piece of granite of gigantic size, often poised on the point of a steep koppje where none but the Great Architect of the Universe could place it. The country is one bristling mass of such koppjes from the Samokwe to the Shashani river (75 miles from Tati). Thence they stretch away to the Matoppo Mountains, and culminate near Old Buluwayo in Tab Ingoko Mountain, 5000 feet above the sea" (E. A. Maund).

Quartz reefs crop out in the valleys between the granite hills, and much gold is said to be washed down by the numerous streams flowing from these hills to the Shashani, which traverses an extensive koppje district on its course to the Limpopo. The richest gold-bearing reefs, however, seem to lie mainly in the Tati hills and Mashona mountains, that is, at the south-western and north-eastern extremities of the Zambesi-Limpopo water-parting, and along the eastern escarpment of the plateau towards the Gazaland frontier. But the extensive ruins at Zimbabwe, in the Benningwa Hills and many other places, all evidently associated with old mining operations, show that the auriferous deposits are probably widely distributed throughout the whole of the plateau. In 1891 large deposits of alluvial gold were discovered so far north as the district of Mount Shankuru, about 70 miles north-west of Mount Hampden, and every indication tends to show that either native or alluvial gold occurs almost everywhere in the region stretching from Swaziland and the Natal frontier north to the Zambesi.

Formerly the Portuguese exported from the Manica district alone about 130 lbs. weight per annum, and the quantity forwarded from their possessions in a few years was estimated at 2,000,000 metigals, or over £1,000,000 sterling. But the Manica mines were closed by the Zulus early in the present century, and the occurrence of gold in South Zambesia seemed to be almost forgotten till its rediscovery in 1865-68 by Henry Hartley, Thomas Baines, Carl Mauch, and C. J. Nelson. The glowing descriptions of these pioneers, who were either practical miners or skilled geologists, have been largely confirmed by more recent research, which so far bears out Mr. F. Mandy's assertion that the northern slopes of Mashonaland "will eventually prove to be the alluvial

goldfields of the world. The neighbourhood of the Amazoe and its tributary streams is a veritable El Dorado. I have seen ignorant natives, with the rudest appliances, and practically no knowledge of gold working, wash large quantities from the surface soil. Over an area of several hundred square miles gold is to be found in every stream. Here is what will prove the largest and richest goldfield that the world has ever seen; extending from the great granite backbone in the south to within 60 miles of the Zambesi in the north, and from the Sabia (Sabi) in the east to the Nata river (flowing to the Makaraki Salt-Pan) in the west, this huge auriferous area ever improves and grows richer to the north, north-east, and east. The immense waves of promising quartz which seam the country, cutting through the soft soapy slate in a north-easterly direction, the numberless old workings to be found everywhere, and the inability of some of the reefs to hide their gold from the prying though cautious gaze of the observant white man, all tends to prove the wonderful mineral wealth here locked up. Right through the royal town of Buluwayo runs an immense reef carrying visible gold. Close alongside Umvuchwa, country residence of Lobengula, streams another great reef, also unable to hide the gold imprisoned within its bosom. Two miles north-east of the old capital is still another grand quartz reef with visible gold, and all these reefs have been traced for some miles. In every direction you may chance to ride the same indications greet your gaze—soft slate on edge with intersected veins of quartz.”¹

At Sinoia's kraal, near the source of the Angwa, about 60 miles north-west of Fort Salisbury, Mr. Selous lately discovered a most remarkable old working, which

¹ *Matabililand*, 1889.

he describes as a vast circular pit, over 100 feet deep and at least 60 in diameter, now flooded by a lake which extends some 180 feet into a spacious cavern under the rock. The water is of a lovely deep cobalt blue, and so clear that pebbles are visible at the bottom. A slanting shaft, running at an angle of about 45° from a point 300 feet from the top of the pit, strikes the bottom just at the edge of the water. All the excavations appear to be the result of old workings, which, after exhausting a vein of quartz along the shaft, tapped a spring of water, which, welling up, formed the underground lake and flooded the works. The rocky walls of the tunnel are covered with innumerable scores, apparently made by some kind of iron instrument, and the remains represent a prodigious amount of human labour. There are no native traditions regarding these works, or about the extensive lemon and citron groves in the same district, which being here exotic plants, were no doubt introduced by the old miners from Persia or the Mediterranean.¹

Besides gold, other metals, especially copper and iron, are widely distributed throughout South Zambesia. The large perennial pool near the confluence of the Tati and Shashi rivers is the centre of an old mining district, where iron and copper, as well as gold, were worked by the Mashonas before they were conquered or driven north by Umsilikatzi's impis. Hartley Hill also consists largely of rich iron deposits;² and still farther north, in

¹ The introduction of the orange and lemon is generally attributed to the Portuguese missionaries. But long before their time these plants were widely diffused throughout the eastern seaboard. Barbosa (1514) already speaks in several places of "oranges, lemons, and cedrats" as abounding in Mombasa, the island of St. Lawrence (Madagascar), and Zanzibar (*op. cit. passim*).

² Its native name is *Thaba Insibi*, the "Iron Mountain"; and here "virgin iron is dug out that without smelting is hammered into assegai heads and hoes" (F. Mandy).

the Mashona highlands, the natives mine and smelt iron ores, working the metal into spear-heads, knives, hoes, and many other articles, well wrought despite their primitive processes. The iron is white, very tough, and malleable. In 1894 a survey of the Lebangwe affluent of the Zambesi revealed the presence of large copper deposits, and of extensive coal beds, and even gave indications of diamond-bearing ground. The seams of coal vary in thickness from nine inches to four feet, and appear to be of great extent.

Matabilland Scenery—Climate—Fauna

Altogether the South Zambesian uplands are one of the most highly-favoured regions in the whole of Africa. "The scenery of the country is of the grandest type, but mingled with it are the loveliest and most fairylike scenes that can be conceived. At first the hills are scattered; but the landscape becomes more broken as you proceed to the north. At last, after passing the Mangwi river, we enter a very world of mountains, where colossal granite boulders are pitched in every direction, where every valley is a rippling stream of pale-blue water, from whose bed the ground gently rises, covered with most luxuriant grass, to where those wonderful granite structures rear their time-worn sides. Then grand trees rise up, and from out the spaces between these Titanic rocks hang forth their graceful and brilliant foliage, toning down their otherwise desolate grandeur to an aspect of almost enchanting loveliness. . . . Hundreds of streams are born here; fountains are everywhere; and the curious pale-blue water, peculiar to granite formations, can be seen gliding along the bottom of every valley. Crossing the Sheshani,

and climbing a steep and very difficult ascent, we emerge on the summit of the great divide between the Zambesi and Limpopo watersheds. From here the view to the east, west, and south is indescribably beautiful. At sunrise, with the delicate purplish haze of the early morning mists mantling the distant peaks, the wondrous combination of peaceful glades rich with yellow waving grasses, the more sombre hues of the scattered clumps of forest trees, and the grandeur of the granite hills, their sides and tops shining and polished by the hand of ages; this mingling of the beautiful with the sublime, softened by distance, and the iridescent tints of the mist-charged air, forms a scene of glorious beauty, and Fairyland seems spread before one."¹

The same writer, who has an extensive personal knowledge of this region, assures us that no South African country offers such splendid advantages to the British farmer as Matabili and Mashona Lands, being well suited for irrigation and small holdings, and capable of supporting a vast population. All European cereals, as well as most European and tropical fruits and vegetables, thrive well; while the climate is for the most part quite as healthy as that of Transvaal, and European children born in the country grow up strong and healthy. The climate of Mashonaland has been declared by Mr. Selous, than whom no better authority could be quoted, to be "as good a one as any man has a right to expect in this troublesome world." The despatch of the late expeditionary force has placed beyond doubt the existence of a lofty plateau from 4000 to 5000 feet high, abundantly watered, and, as a rule, well timbered, with a climate well adapted for Europeans, with a constant fresh breeze settling from the south-east, and tempering

¹ F. Mandy, *op. cit.*

the tropical rays to a degree of actual coolness. A rainfall of over 40 inches has been registered at Buluwayo; and although the glass rises at times to 105° and even 111° F. in the shade, this intense heat, thanks to the dryness of the atmosphere, is less oppressive than 85° on the seaboard, where the air is saturated with moisture. The temperature is not quite so cold as that of South Transvaal in winter, and somewhat higher in summer, during which, being the wet season, the extreme heats are tempered by frequent thunderstorms. Diarrhœa and dysentery, caused probably by the water, are the most prevalent disorders amongst strangers, ague being mainly confined to the low-lying swampy and riverain tracts. In the extensive high veldt of Matabililand proper, "fever is unknown, and white children could be reared, which is a *sine quâ non* in a country if it is to be colonised by white men" (Lieut. Maund, Blue Book, August 1885, p. 117). Elsewhere this well-informed writer remarks that Matabililand "is probably the most healthy part of South Africa, and its agricultural capabilities are surpassed by none. The soil is very rich, and there is plenty of water in running streams that abound." He also declares that the climate of the Mashona highlands "is far more healthy than that of the now well-colonised seaboard of South Africa. The seasons are well marked, and the rainfall good. For eight months, from April to November, the air is particularly dry and salubrious; during and just after the rains one must be careful, as in all tropical climates. But with proper precautions, dwellings placed high and above exhalations from the marshes left by the subsiding rivers, the new mining and farming communities will be as healthy as are the missionaries who have lived so long there with their families" (*Geo. Proc.* Dec. 1890).

The fat-tailed Cape sheep do well everywhere, but the open uplands are not suited for milch cows in winter, and although good pasturage abounds, lung sickness and other distempers are prevalent amongst the cattle and horses. The tsetse pest appears to be mainly confined to



TWO-HORNED RHINOCEROS.

the Limpopo and Zambesi valleys, and even here it tends to disappear with the disappearance of large game. In former times De Barros tells us that elephants were very numerous, yielding large quantities of ivory, which, together with gold, was exported through Sofala to the Indian market in exchange for silk and cotton stuffs from Cambay. Elephants still exist, though in reduced

numbers, as well as other large South African fauna, such as the lion, leopard, hippopotamus, rhinoceros,



GIRAFFES.

buffalo, baboons, koodoo, water-buck, bush-buck, stein-buck, giraffe, pheasants, guinea-fowl. In fact, game is still so abundant that the expeditionary force of

1890 was able to supply itself "all along the road" (Ellerton Fry).

Inhabitants of South Zambesia

When Umsilikatzi was driven across the Limpopo (see p. 286), the upland region between that river and the Zambesi was mainly occupied by three Bantu nations, forming a more or less homogeneous group different both from the Bechuanas and Zulu-Kafirs, and on the whole at a somewhat lower stage of culture than either of those half-civilised peoples. These were the *Makalakas* (Ma-Kolonga¹), chiefly in the south, that is, about the streams flowing from the Matoppo divide, south-east to the Limpopo; the *Banyai* (Ba-Nyai), chiefly in the north-west, that is, about the streams flowing from the same divide north-west to the Middle Zambesi; and the *Mashonas* (Ama-Swina), chiefly in the north, that is, on the highlands to which they give their name. A clear understanding of this geographical distribution of the primitive populations will enable the historical student at once to recognise the sagacity of the Matabili chief, who, by establishing his central military kraal at Buluwayo on the Matoppo divide, was able to overawe both the Makalakas and Banyai occupying its two watersheds, and at the same time to show a bold front towards the Mashonas, better protected than the others in the natural strongholds of their northern highlands. The result is that, although all three still exist, the Mashonas alone retain a semblance of national coherence; while the Makalakas and Banyai have been effaced as distinct nationalities from the map of South Zambesia.

Certainly the Mashonas have suffered terribly from

¹ Ma-Kalanga, *i.e.* "The Children of the Sun."

the periodical attacks of the disciplined Zulu hordes, those dwelling on the southern slopes having been either exterminated or reduced to a hard servitude, the rest maintaining their independence only by leading the life of troglodytes in their mountain fastnesses. But nothing could save the Makalakas and Banyai, who have been everywhere enslaved except in the extreme west and north-west, where a few Makalakas have settled in Shoshong and along the Guai valley in Bamangwato territory, where some Banyai groups have found a refuge in the Mafungobuzi hills and on the right bank of the Zambesi. Some of the Makalakas have even moved across the Zambesi, and are now settled on the left bank between the Victoria Falls and the Guai confluence. On the other hand the Mashona territory has been encroached upon by some Barotses (Bechuanas), who have established themselves in the district south-west of Mount Wedza, about the head-waters of the Sabi; but they have forgotten their Se-Chuana language, and now speak the dialect of the surrounding Mashonas. The son of their chief, Sipiro, lately subject to King Gungunyana of Gazaland, but now under the British protectorate, informed Bishop Knight Bruce that they were kinsmen of the Zambesi Barotses, the Matabili having driven one section northwards, the other southwards.¹

Both the Banyai and Makalakas "are closely allied by language and customs to the Mashonas" (Mackenzie), who may be regarded as the primitive stock of this Zambesian group. Although physically inferior, they are in other respects greatly superior to the Matabili, being naturally of peaceful disposition, agriculturists rather than herdsmen, growing large quantities of rice,

¹ *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* June 1890.

Indian corn, and tobacco, and showing great skill in several arts, such as cotton weaving, dyeing (with native indigo), and especially iron and copper work. But morally they stand at a somewhat low level, being described as cowardly, suspicious, and selfish, and there can be no doubt that the race has been degraded by the wars, massacres, and oppression of the Matabili conquerors. The Matabili themselves have suffered by contact with these peoples, and not more than a fourth of the Abezansi, or First Class, can now pretend to be of pure Zulu blood. In their marauding expeditions their constant practice was to kill all adults and carry off the children, who were brought up in the military kraals, where they soon forgot their mother tongue, and prided themselves on being "Matabili." Thus in this region, as in so many other parts of Central Africa, the Zulu name rather than the race has been perpetuated by alliances and interminglings of all sorts with the aborigines.

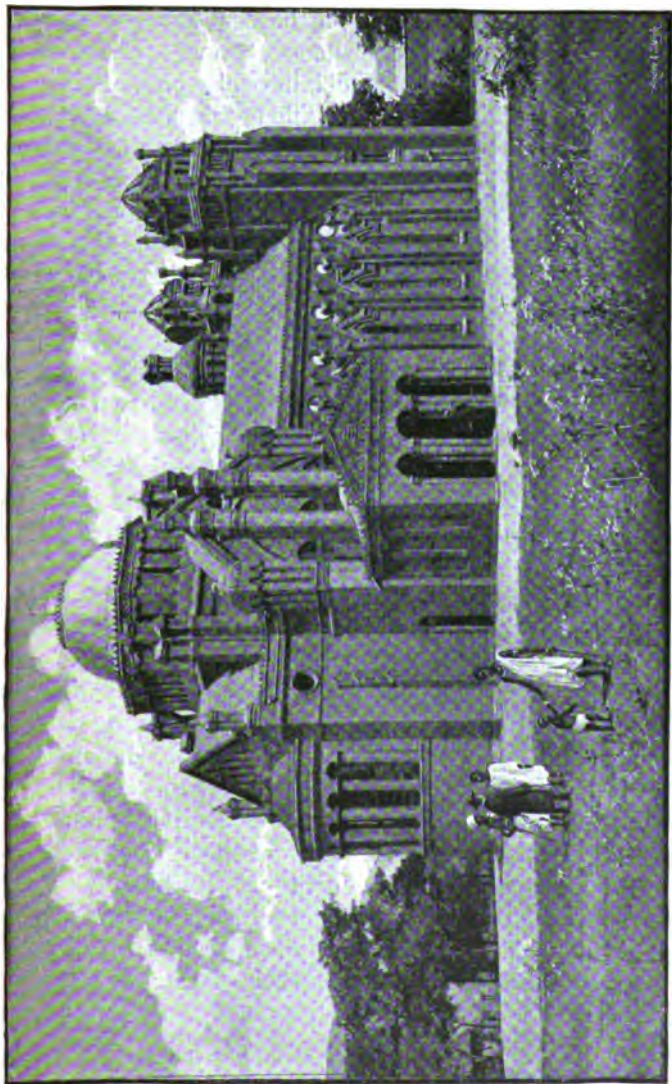
Besides the recognised tribal groups, scattered over Matabililand are certain low-caste tribes collectively known as Ama-Zizi. They appear to be survivors of the primitive Hottentot-Bushman race, whose domain formerly extended north to the Zambesi. At present these Ama-Zizi lead a sort of wandering gipsy life, conjurers, and medicine-men, held in much awe for their supposed supernatural powers. The European gipsies are similarly credited by the ignorant classes with second sight and other "uncanny gifts."

North Zambesia

In no part of the continent have more surprising scientific, political, and social transformations taken place in recent years than in the region between the Zambesi

and Lake Tanganyika. Within less than a single decade the rough work of exploration accomplished by Livingstone has been completed in all essential details throughout the whole of the lacustrine and highland district of Nyassaland, from the Shiré river and Lake Shirwa northwards to Lakes Rukwa and Tanganyika. These magnificent uplands, with their vast flooded basins, which had remained unknown to the Portuguese settled for nearly four hundred years at their very portals, have become the scene of British missionary and commercial enterprise. Portuguese slave-dealing has been suppressed in the south; Arab slave-raiding has been successfully resisted, and, it may be hoped, permanently arrested, by a handful of brave Englishmen in the north. Steamers, serving the highest interests of humanity, have been launched on both of the great lakes, which are now connected by a highway familiarly known as "Steven-son's Road." Temporary or permanent missionary and trading stations have been founded at Blantyre and Mandala in the Shiré highlands,¹ at Livingstonia, Band-

¹ Hermann von Wissman, who passed through Nyassaland in 1887, describes the Scottish missionary station at Blantyre, and the African Lakes Company's station at Mandala, as the best and finest European settlements he had seen in any part of inner Africa (*Meine Zweite Durchquerung Aequatorial-Afrika's*, etc.; Frankfurt am Oder, 1891). Still more recently (1889) the French traveller, Captain Trivier, was struck by the rapid spread of humanising British influences throughout the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau. "When I met Captain Trivier at Karonga he had prepared me for the marked way in which the people of Mambwe and Uluŋgu had been 'Britannicised,' more by the presence among them of the London Missionary Society's agents than by the Lakes Company. What struck Captain Trivier most forcibly was that, wherever he went through those lands, the natives invariably greeted him with 'Good morning,' a salutation originally learnt from the missionaries (it dates back to Livingstone's days), but which has now come into common use among many of the people who have not yet seen a white man."—Consul H. H. Johnston in *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* December 1890, p. 736.



BLANTYRE CHURCH.

awe, Sikoma, and Karonga, on the southern and western shores of Nyassa and elsewhere. Strong military posts, garrisoned by Sikhs from India, have also been established at several points, such as Fort Fife on the plateau between Nyassa and Tanganyika, Fort Abercorn at the southern extremity of Tanganyika, Fort Rosebery on the Luapula midway between Lakes Bangweolo and Moero, Fort Maguire on the south-east side of Lake Nyassa, Fort Sharpe on the Shiré below Lake Pamalombe, and Fort Johnston, also on the Shiré five miles from the south end of Lake Nyassa. Successful political and exploring expeditions have penetrated from the Nyassa basin westwards and north-westwards beyond the Zambesi-Congo water-parting. A journey of great scientific interest has been made along the frontier of the Nyassaland Protectorate by Mr. Consul J. Buchanan.¹ Lastly, the A-Nyanja, or "Lake People," hitherto plunged in the deepest ignorance and superstition, have already made some progress both in letters and European mechanical arts. Even the fierce Yao slave-hunters have been partly reclaimed, and Commissioner Johnston tells us that the entire work of setting up and printing the *British Central Africa Gazette* is done by members of this predatory tribe.² According to the report for 1891 of the Livingstonia Mission on Lake Nyassa, supported by the Free Church of Scotland, as many as 4000 children are at present receiving systematic instruction in the local schools; excellent bricks are made by the natives in large quantities at a surprisingly cheap rate; they are thus acquiring a taste for neat and comfortable dwellings, one of the primary conditions of social progress, while the influence of their teachers is becoming yearly more widespread, discouraging the barbarous

¹ See Report in the *Kew Bulletin* for July 1891.

² Report for 1891-93, p. 24.

practice of witchcraft, substituting free labour in the fields and houses for domestic slavery, and showing by precept and example the advantage of peaceful ways over chronic intertribal warfare. Since the suppression of the Arab and Yao slave-hunters legitimate trade has begun to flourish, the exports having risen from nearly £7000 in 1891 to over £85,000 in 1894, and the imports from £33,000 to £76,000 in the same period. Of the exports the most important at present are ivory, oil-seeds, and especially coffee, which appears to grow wild throughout the Congo and East African forest. Coffee-planting promises to become the staple industry of British Central Africa. The export of this article has increased in geometrical proportion since 1892, and that of 1895 "can now be definitely expected to fully double that of 1894."¹

Physical Features

The Mashona uplands are continued north of the Zambesi by the Shiré and Nyassa highlands, the whole system forming part of the outer continental escarpments, which are here pierced both by the Zambesi at the Kebrabase Falls above Tete, and by the Shiré at the Murchison, Pampaze, and other rapids above the Elephant Marsh. On the probable assumption that a great part of Central Zambesia at one time formed a vast lacustrine basin, it was through these flood-gates that much of the great inland sea was gradually discharged eastwards to the Indian Ocean.

Although Nyassa, southernmost member of the East African lacustrine group, lies at an altitude of scarcely more than 1570 feet above sea-level, the Nyassa-Shiré uplands

¹ Consul-General Sharpe's Report for 1894.

attain far greater elevations than those of Mashonaland. The lake itself is encircled by mountains, which even on the west or lower side rise to 5500 feet in the sandstone Chombe (Waller) peak near Florence Bay, and which in the Kirk range farther south have an elevation of over 6000 feet. West of these escarpments the Vipsha (Zipsha) plateau presents the appearance of an open grassy plain, extending westwards to the territory of Muasi (successor of Livingstone's Muasi), at a mean elevation of from 4000 to 5000 feet (Sharpe). Far loftier is the imposing Livingstone range which sweeps round the north-eastern shores of Nyassa, rising sheer above the water's edge to a height of from 9000 to 10,000 feet. South of this range Mount Mtonia, at the source of the Rovuma river, is probably over 5000 feet, while the whole system culminates in the Shiré highlands with the magnificent Milanji Massive, which stands 9000 feet on a pedestal already 2000 feet above the sea. Milanji extends 20 miles eastwards to a narrow pass separating it from Mount Cheza, whose wooded crests tower above the south side of Lake Shirwa.¹

From Karonga on the north-west coast of Nyassa the Stevenson Road leads across the level N'Konde plain (60 feet above the lake) and over some very rough hilly ground up to the plateau between Nyassa and Tanganyika, which for a breadth of about 170 miles maintains an altitude of from 4000 to 5000 feet. This plateau, which is skirted north and west by the Chingambo Mountains

¹ Milanji was ascended for the first time in October 1891 by Mr. Alexander Whyte, who found it more suitable for a sanatorium than many of the hill-stations in India and Ceylon. Both the flora, with its gigantic conifers (*Widdringtonia*) and gorgeous wild flowers, and the fauna with its immense variety of finches, honey-birds, warblers, fly-catchers and other birds, presented many features of great interest to the naturalist (*Parliamentary Papers, Africa*, No. 5, 1892).

(6000 to 7000 feet), forms one of the great continental water-partings. Within one and a half day's march Dr. Kerr Cross has stood on the banks of streams such as the Songwe and Loangwa, flowing, the former through Lake Nyassa, the latter through the Zambesi to the Indian Ocean; the Saisi running to the closed basin of the salt Lake Rukwa, and several headstreams of the Chambezi, farthest south-eastern affluent of the Congo.¹

This upland region is generally well watered, and covered with rich herbage interspersed with clumps of fine timber presenting the park-like aspect so characteristic of the African tablelands. The whole country is evidently one of the most highly favoured in climate, fertility of soil, abundance of water, and natural products in the whole continent, its proximity to the equator being more than counterbalanced by its mean elevation of over 4000 feet, and by the invigorating south-eastern breezes from the austral seas. "The land at the north end of the lake (Nyassa) is a veritable African Arcadia. You may walk for miles and miles through banana plantations; then you may emerge upon wide-stretching fields of maize and millet and cassava. All the oozy water-meadows are planted with rice; but above all, the great wealth of the country is in cattle, which thrive remarkably in the N'Konde district, and consequently milk and beef are cheap and abundant. The inhabitants of this happy land are a contented, pleasant-dispositioned folk, who knew no trouble until the Arabs sought to subdue them a few years ago. . . . The ordinary route to Tanganyika leads you up through the most beautiful gorge of Fwambo to and through the mountain ranges which look down on the south end of Tanganyika. The gorge of Fwambo is an exquisite bit of scenery. A

¹ *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* February 1891, p. 92.

beautiful stream dashes down in many cataracts and rapids through a deep but not very narrow gorge between precipitous mountain sides, and this gorge is filled with magnificent forest of a truly West African character—an ideal tropical forest with its immense umbrageous trees, its graceful oil-palms, its parasitic orchids and trailing, swinging creepers.”¹

Here the precious metals of South Zambesia are mainly replaced by the useful minerals, iron on the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau and in Muasi's west of Nyassa, copper farther west in Katanga and perhaps in Iramba. “Ironstone is found extensively, and in places old workings are observed. On the hillside I counted five smelting kilns standing in the bush not many hundred yards from one another. Each will contain half a ton of iron ore. They use charcoal when smelting, and are well acquainted with the principles of the working of iron. Spears, hoes, axes, knives are manufactured extensively. The ore found is the brown hematite, which is very hard and compact, and is often found in beds 10 feet thick. The banks and bed of the Songwe river in some places are formed of this ore.”²

But gold also undoubtedly exists in the elevated region, which stretches from Nyassa westwards to the Loangwa river,³ and which was traversed for the first time by Mr. Alfred Sharpe in 1890. At Missala in Mpeseni's territory this explorer was shown specimens of alluvial gold, which betrays the presence of auriferous reefs in the hills skirting the Loangwa valley. After losing all his canoes during the descent of this rapid

¹ Consul Johnston, *loc. cit.*

² Dr. Cross, *loc. cit.*

³ That is, the large affluent of the Zambesi, not to be confused with the much smaller Loangwa which flows through Muasi's country east to Nyassa between Bandawe and Kota-Kota (Ngota-Ngota).

stream, which in some places flows at the rate of 8 or 9 miles an hour, Mr. Sharpe passed south-westwards overland to the Zambesi 30 miles above Zumbo. Here he came upon painful evidence of the disastrous results of Portuguese rule far beyond Zumbo, their farthest station in the interior. Between the Loangwa and Kafue confluences the country is now an uninhabited wilderness, all the people "having been killed off or driven away by the Zumbo half-castes. I ascended the river (Zambesi) for a day's journey, but could get no food, as the country is desolate and uninhabited." In the district east of the Loangwa and north of Zumbo "population is very scanty, though the frequent remains of ruined villages showed that very recently this must have been a well-populated country. About the ruined villages and on the road we constantly saw human skulls and bones, all that the Zumbo half-castes have left of the original Asenga (A-Senga) inhabitants."¹

From the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau the Congo-Zambesi water-parting runs north-west of the route followed by Mr. Sharpe, trending south-westwards along the Lokinga range, which skirts the southern shores of Lake Bangweolo parallel to and north of the Mchinga² mountains west of the Loangwa valley. Here also the divide between the two great hydrographic systems is so contracted that Capello and Ivens, who passed through in 1885, in a short march of three hours drank the

¹ *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* December 1890, p. 748.

² The term Mchinga, Muchinga, Moshinga, is of frequent occurrence in this part of East Central Africa. In the local Bantu dialects it simply means any lofty ridge, and is merely another form of Livingstone's Lokinga; hence the alternative name Mushinga often applied to this range. In the Bantu linguistic group *k* interchanges with *ch* and *sh*, as in other groups; compare *kirk* and *church*. Hence kinga = chinga, the first syllables being the prefixed class element *lo*, *mo*, *mu*, etc.

waters of the Lufira flowing to the Congo, and of the Loengue (Kafue) running through Mashukulumbweland to the Zambesi.¹

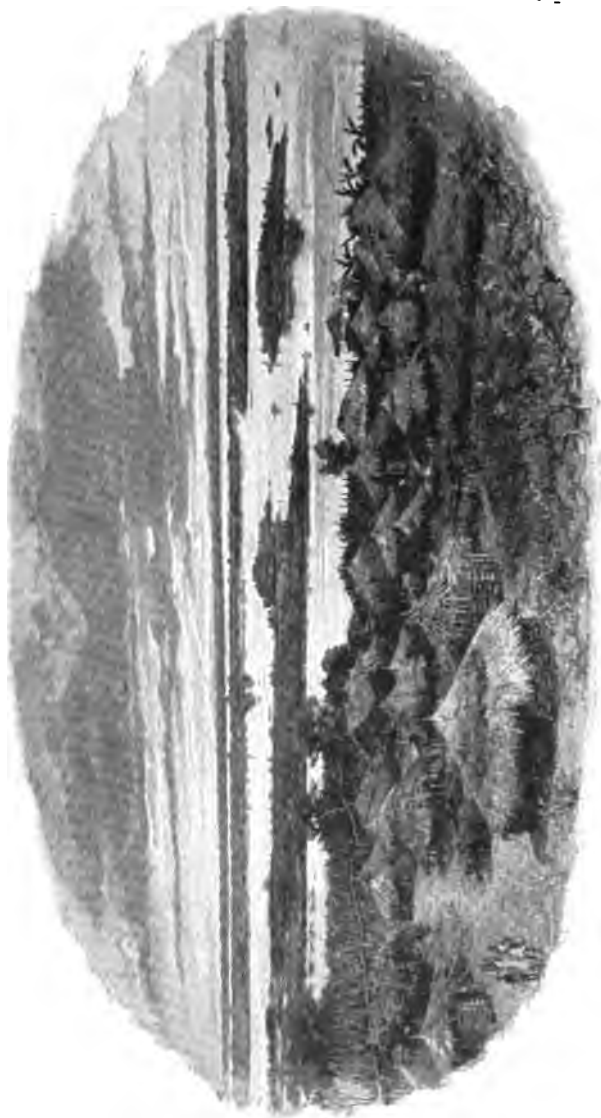
West of Iramba the two great fluvial basins are scarcely anywhere separated by any distinct dividing line. Here the central plateau of Austral Africa presents the aspect of a boundless level plain from 4000 to 5000 feet above the sea, so little inclined either way that in many places the headstreams of the Congo and Zambesi either intermingle their waters, as in the marshy depression of Lake Dilolo, or else overlap each other, as about the sources of the Lualaba and Kabompo, which belong respectively to the Congo and Zambesi systems. In former geological times, when both basins were flooded by vast inland seas, the intervening dry land must have presented the aspect of a broad level or slightly undulating isthmus intersected by 10° to 12° south latitude, and stretching without interruption from the Lokinga and Garenganze uplands westwards to the Angolan highlands. The irregular southern escarpments of this elevated isthmus are still closely followed by the irregular windings of the Zambesi from below its sources in the Dilolo depression to its confluence above Zumbo with the Kafue, its great northern affluent from the Lokinga mountains.

Rivers of Zambesia—The Zambesi

Apart from the Pungwe, Bosi, Sabi, Manitze, Tuli, Shashi and a few other streams flowing either directly or through the Limpopo to the Indian Ocean, all the running waters of British Zambesia find their way to the same marine basin through the Zambesi, which for length, volume, and extent of its drainage area takes the fourth

¹ Capello and Ivens, *De Angola à Contra-Costa*, ii. p. 159.

ZAMBESI AT SHUPANGA.



place amongst African rivers. But although exceeded in these respects by the Nile, Congo, and Niger alone, this great artery of South Central Africa can only in a limited sense be regarded as a navigable highway. Till recently it was approached from the sea by the Kwa-Kwa, that is, the Quilimane or northernmost branch of its delta, which is at present severed from the main stream by a sandy tract several miles wide. But in 1889 Consul Johnston successfully crossed the bar at the Chinde mouth, and ascended in the steamer *Stork*, drawing 13 feet, through that branch up to the point, 40 miles from the sea, where the tidal influence ceases. The voyage thence to and up the Lower Shiré to Mount Morambala was continued in a flotilla of small boats, and from this point to the head of the Zambesi-Shiré navigation at Katunga, fluvial port of Blantyre, in the African Lakes Company's steamer, the *James Stevenson*, drawing about 18 inches. This expedition showed that the Chinde branch is the most accessible; and that through that channel there is continuous waterway at all seasons for small craft from the sea to Blantyre port. But the main stream is so shallow in parts, and so beset with shifting sandbanks, that, during the dry season, even the navigable section to the Kebrabasa rapids and Chikarongo Falls, 334 miles from the coast and 50 miles above Tete, is accessible only to canoes and small keel boats.

The Middle Zambesi, that is, the section between Kebrabasa and the stupendous Victoria Falls, is a fine deep stream, in many places from 300 to 400 yards wide, and with a moderate current of about 3 miles an hour, interrupted only by the Kansalo Rapids a few miles above the confluence of the Sanyati-Umfuli, which descends from Hartley Hill in Mashonaland. In this section the main stream is joined, besides the Sanyati, by

the Guai, Angwa (Voangwa), Hanyani, and all its other southern tributaries from the Matoppo and Mashona watershed, with the single exception of the Ruenya, through which the auriferous Mazoe, Inyagwe, Mudzi, Gavaresi, and others converge on the right bank below Tete and above the Lupata Gorge. But all these rivers, descending from elevations of 4000 to 5000 feet down to the normal level of the Zambesi valley, have extremely rapid courses, and are, therefore, useless as navigable waterways. A similar character is presented by the Loangwa, which reaches the left bank at Zumbo, but which flows from the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau so rapidly that the natives "do not travel up or down the river in canoes, as the current is too swift for any going down stream to return."¹ Yet the Loangwa has a course of at least 400 miles, and with its great tributary the Lusenfwa (Lukusasi) drains the greater part of the uplands between Lakes Nyassa and Bangweolo, a region several thousand square miles in extent.

Beyond the Loangwa, and still in its middle section, the Zambesi is joined on the same side by the far more extensive Kafue (Kafukwe, Kahowhe), which describes a figure of S in its winding southerly course through Iramba and the Barotse territory from the Katanga highlands. The Loengwe, as its northern course is called, rises at an altitude of 4640 feet at the narrowest point of the Congo-Zambesi divide, so that a short cutting across the porterage at this point would afford continuous waterway through the Congo-Zambesi fluvial systems from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. But such a waterway would not be continuously navigable, being interrupted at many points by the falls and rapids of both systems. The Kafue itself, whose sources were

¹ Sharpe, *loc. cit.*

discovered by Capello and Ivens in 1885, appears to be navigable throughout most of its course, being obstructed only by a single cataract about a day's journey from the confluence.

The Liba, one of whose headstreams has its source in the Dilolo lagoon, has been generally regarded as the true upper course of the Zambesi ever since its discovery by Livingstone in 1855. Yet Livingstone himself considered that this distinction belonged rather to the Kabompo, which joins the Liba from the north-east, and which was selected by the Agreement of August 1890 as the provisional frontier between the British and Portuguese spheres of influence in this part of Central Africa. The term Zambesi, that is, the "River" in a pre-eminent sense, is first applied to the main stream formed by the junction of the Liba and Kabompo in the level swampy Lobale plain above Libonta, and is then retained by the populations along its banks all the way to the delta.

The Victoria Falls

Below the Kubango confluence the Upper Zambesi loses its fluvial character in the wet season, when it assumes the aspect of a vast shallow lagoon, spreading far and wide over the level plains with scarcely any perceptible current. But after the subsidence of the flood-waters it is confined to a narrow channel, where it has to force its way over numerous rocky ledges, rapids, and even cataracts, such as those of Gonyé and Katima Molelo, until at last it seems to disappear bodily in the tremendous chasm of the Mosi-oa-Tunya or "Thundering Smoke," better known as the Victoria Falls. These falls, below which the Zambesi enters on its more placid middle course, were discovered and so named in November



VICTORIA FALLS OF THE ZAMBESI.

1855 by Livingstone, whose graphic description of the magnificent spectacle has not been surpassed by that of any more recent observer. The dense volumes of vapour, rising above the narrow gorge where the whole stream is suddenly contracted to one thirty-sixth of its normal breadth, presents from a distance of five or six miles the appearance of the clouds of smoke caused by an African steppe fire. When first seen by Livingstone five columns arose, white below, darker higher up, and closely simulating smoke. "The whole scene was extremely beautiful; the banks and islands dotted over the river are adorned with sylvan vegetation of great variety of colour and form. At the period of our visit several trees were spangled over with blossoms. There, towering over all, stands the great burly baobab, each of whose enormous arms would form the trunk of a large tree, beside a group of graceful palms, which, with their feathery-shaped leaves depicted on the sky, lend their beauty to the scene. The falls are bounded on three sides by ridges 300 or 400 feet in height, which are covered with forest, with the red soil appearing among the trees. Then about half a mile from the falls, I left the canoe by which we had come down thus far and embarked in a lighter one, with men well acquainted with the rapids, who brought me to an island in the middle of the river and on the edge of the lip over which the waters roll. Though we had reached the island, and were within a few yards of the spot a view from which would solve the whole problem, I believe that no one could perceive where the vast body of water went; it seemed to lose itself in the earth, the opposite lip of the fissure into which it disappeared being only 80 feet distant. Creeping with awe to the verge, I

peered down into a large rent which had been made from bank to bank of the broad Zambesi, and saw that a stream 1000 yards broad leaped down 100 feet, and then became suddenly compressed into a space of 15 or 20 yards. The entire falls are simply a crack made in a hard basalt rock from the right to the left bank of the Zambesi, and then prolonged from the left bank away through 30 or 40 miles of hills. In looking into the fissure on the right side of the island, one sees nothing but a dense white cloud, which at the time we visited the spot had two bright rainbows on it. From this cloud rushed up a great jet of vapour exactly like steam, and it mounted 200 or 300 feet high; there condensing, it changed its hue to that of dark smoke, and came back in a constant shower which wetted us to the skin."

At the Victoria Falls the channel of the Zambesi still stands about 2500 feet above the sea, and this appears to have been the normal altitude of the great inland sea which formerly occupied most of the region stretching south and west of the main stream. So level is the bed of the ancient lacustrine basin, that after leaving the Angolan uplands, the Ku-Ndo (Chobe), Ku-Ito, Ku-Bango, and other western affluents fail to reach the Zambesi throughout the year. During the dry season they go wandering with uncertain flow over the plains, where they disappear in the shallow saline depressions of Lakes Etosha, Ngami, Makarikari, Chobe, and Mababe. But in exceptionally wet seasons many if not all of these depressions form a continuous sheet of water, temporarily restoring the old inland sea and sending their overflow through the Chobe and Mababe to the Zambesi for the Indian Ocean, and occasionally, perhaps, through Etosha to the Cunene for the Atlantic.

Thus the Zambesi would present the rare phenomenon of at times intermingling its waters with two other fluvial systems, that of the Congo through Lake Dilolo, and that of the Cunene through Etosha.

Including the Ku-Bango (Okovango), which undoubtedly belongs to the Zambesi system, and which rises on the east slope of the Benguelan divide within 250 miles of the Atlantic, the Zambesi has a total length of little less than 2000 miles, and a catchment basin which cannot be estimated at under 1,000,000 square miles. In this estimate is necessarily included the great Lake Nyassa, which discharges its overflow through the Shiré emissary southwards to the left bank of the Lower Zambesi, about 40 miles above the head of the delta, and 250 from the outlet at the south end of the lake.

Lake Nyassa

Nyassa appears to have been known by report to the Portuguese missionaries on the Lower Zambesi in the seventeenth century, and from their accounts d'Anville was able to indicate it on his maps under the name of Lake Maravi.¹ Later it was again heard of as the Nyanja² Mucuro; but it was first discovered by Livingstone, who reached it from the Shiré in September 1859. Two years later he returned in company with his brother Charles and Dr. Kirk, and succeeded in surveying the west coast as far north as the present station of Bandawé. During subsequent visits in 1863 and 1866, he continued the work of exploration, which

¹ So named from the fierce Maravi (Zulu) hordes, who had already penetrated to the Nyassa basin from the regions south of the Zambesi.

² Nyassa is the Manganja form of the Yao word Nyanja, which is merely a dialectic variety of the northern Nyanza, all meaning a lake, large river, or any great expanse of water.

has since been completed by E. D. Young (1875), Elton and Cotterill (1877), and, more recently, by James Stewart, L. Moir, Dr. Laws, and Rev. W. P. Johnson.

In form, size, contour lines, and longitudinal disposition, Nyassa strikingly resembles Tanganyika, and it seems evident that both belong to the same geological formation. They occupy deep fissures in the same central plateau, where Nyassa extends north and south a distance of about 350 miles, with a mean breadth of 50 to 60 miles, a depth ranging from 50 to over 100 fathoms, and an area of 14,200 square miles, or rather less than Tanganyika. It is nearly destitute of islands and safe havens, although a few of the creeks and inlets indenting the coast afford good anchorage and some little shelter from the fierce squalls that occasionally sweep down from the surrounding slopes. Vast clouds of tiny midges, driving before the wind, settle at times on the surface, where they present the appearance of a light silvery haze in the bright solar beams. The water is quite fresh, and so pure that no sediment is formed in the boilers of the Lakes Company's steamers which now ply on Nyassa and the Upper Shiré. The low-lying margin of rich alluvial or sandy and marshy plains between the lake and encircling ranges varies from about two to ten miles in width everywhere, except on the north-east side, where the Livingstone mountains approach close to the waterside. Owing to this configuration Nyassa is fed only by a few mountain torrents on the east side; but from the west and north-west, where the chains are less continuous, it receives several considerable streams, such as the Songwe, Kasitu, Loangwa, Bua, and Nkanda, collectively draining a region nearly 20,000 square miles in extent. Most of these rivers, however, run

out in the dry season in the swamps and sands before reaching the lake, where their mouths are visible only during the rains.

The Shiré Basin

Complete equilibrium does not seem to be established between the contributions from these rivers and the losses sustained by evaporation and the discharge through the Shiré. Hence, during the brief historic life of Nyassa, changes of level in both directions have already been recorded, apparently analogous to those of Tanganyika. The Shiré, which issues from the southern end in a broad sluggish stream, soon expands into the spacious but shallow Pamalombe lagoon, whose low reedy banks are the haunt of the hippopotamus and of innumerable aquatic birds. Farther on, the Shiré becomes entangled in a series of rocky gorges where all navigation is arrested, and where the stream descends from the plateau through the Pampaze Rapids, the Murchison and Namvira Falls down to its lower course. Here it also broadens out into vast expanses, such as the Elephant Marsh, beyond which it is joined from the north-east by the romantic River Ruo, boundary line of the British and Portuguese possessions in this direction. The Ruo (Luo), which throughout the year is navigable for several miles by light draught steamers, is precipitated from the Blantyre uplands over the magnificent Zoa Falls, first seen and described by Consul John Buchanan in 1891. These falls, which lie 25 miles above the confluence, take the form of a horse-shoe, and are no less than 200 feet high. "Above the chasm on the left bank there stands a huge mass of rock, from behind which and down whose face during the wet season pours a gigantic cataract. At the time of my first visit the water from



FALLS OF ZOA ON THE RIVER RUO.

various channels collected into one main stream, which thundered down the chasm, foaming and tossing between its walls, sending heavenwards clouds of vapour, and in emerging from its confinement dashes itself out into a breadth of 150 yards, and continues its angry course impinging on rocks and boulders till reaching Nakale, where it composes itself into dark-blue lakelets. The face of the falls abounds in several large and many small "pot-holes," from 18 inches to 10 feet in diameter, and from 1 to 10 feet deep. I was not fortunate enough to see the water at its work of forming these holes, but the stones lying at the bottom of them, some in the rough, others kidney-shaped, and others almost round, are conclusive evidence of the water's action."¹

Below the Ruo confluence, the Shiré winds through the great Morambala Marsh and between the jagged peaks and cones of the Pinda and Matunda ranges east and west to the Zambesi, which it enters through a sort of inland delta enclosed between the Ziwe-Ziwe or Sena branch and the navigable channel of the Shiré proper.

Lake Shirwa

Neither Rukwa nor Shirwa belongs to the Nyassa catchment basin, both being, at least at present, little centres of inland drainage without seaward outflow. It seems, however, quite certain that Shirwa was formerly connected, not southwards with the Ruo-Shiré, as was at one time supposed, but northwards with the Lujenda, that is, the southern headstream of the Rovuma. Its waters probably still at times communicate over the low intervening Chelomoni ridge (50 feet) with the chain of shallow lagoons—Mpiri, Chinta, Namaramba—where the

¹ *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* May 1891, p. 268.

Lujenda has its source. On the south side the divide between the Shiré basin and Shirwa stands 230 feet above the level of the lake, and from 600 to 700 feet above the Shiré, so that "there can be no possible connection between these two water systems."¹ Shirwa (Chirwa), which is enclosed on the west side by a range of lofty peaks, such as Chikala (6000 feet), Chaoni (5000), Malosa and Zomba (both 7000), has considerably subsided since 1880, when its waters reached quite up to the Chelomoni divide. At present it is little more than a huge permanently flooded salt-pan, nearly 40 miles long by 16 wide, very shallow, and 350 square miles in extent, a mere remnant of an extensive lagoon, which formerly covered the broad Shirwa plain far to the east, and formed a continuous sheet of water with the Lujenda lagoons.

Climate of North Zambesia

All that part of the Middle and Upper Zambesi valley which was formerly comprised within the limits of the inland sea, as well as the river banks thence to the coast, belongs distinctly to the characteristic malarious African climate. Here the altitude, ranging from sea-level to 2500 or at most 3000 feet, is not sufficiently elevated to counteract the malignant influences which are the inevitable result of tropical heat and a considerable rainfall, combined with extensive swampy tracts traversed by sluggish streams and periodically flooded by stagnant waters. Hence the Zambesi basin in the narrower sense, that is, excluding the uplands comprised within its drainage area, is unanimously pronounced a hotbed of fever by all unprejudiced observers. Thus Mr. F. C. Selous, who has a wider experience of South

¹ Rev. A. Hetherwick, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* 1888, p. 26.

Central Africa than any other living authority, tells us that "the Barotse Valley (Upper Zambesi) is a miserable part of the country, and about the best place to get fever in that I know of," adding generally that death "is the end of every one who remains long in the terrible climate of this part of Africa."¹ This remark is equally applicable to the Lower Zambesi and Lower Shiré, as witness the graves of Mrs. Livingstone and Bishop Mackenzie, the sad tale of British missionary records, and the fact that, after 400 years of occupation, the Portuguese find it impossible to perpetuate their race beyond a single generation at any of their riverain stations.

Even on the uplands the flat and marshy tracts are not exempt, and the Free Church had for a time to abandon Livingstonia, its first station on the low-lying promontory at the south end of Nyassa. But the higher parts of Nyassaland, and especially the Shiré highlands, enjoy a climate which is said to be suited for European settlement. "The Shiré highlands, with their cold bracing air, have proved by the test of many years to be well adapted to the conditions of European life. Scotch and English ladies have lived there in excellent health, and their children are robust and healthy."² Even Commissioner Johnston, a very cautious writer, thinks that "as life becomes less uncomfortable than at present, it would be actually possible to found European Colonies on some of the highest plateaux, that is to say, in districts which are over 5000 feet in altitude. In these regions I really believe that Europeans might retain good health, and even rear children without much, if any, deterioration of race."³

¹ *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* 1889, pp. 220, 228.

² Captain F. D. Lugard, *ib.* 1889, p. 692.

³ *Report on British Central Africa for 1891-93*, p. 33.

The mean day temperature in November, the hottest month, rarely exceeds 86° F., while the night temperature in May, the coldest month, is never below 59°, showing an annual range of not more than 27°. As in most tropical lands, two seasons alone can be clearly distinguished,—the rainy from December to April, the dry for the rest of the year; the mean annual rainfall being about 40 inches at Cape Maclear and nearly 100 at the more exposed station of Bandawé on the west coast of Nyassa. The north wind prevails with remarkable regularity throughout the wet season, and is followed by the south wind in the dry season, when fierce storms are frequent especially in September.

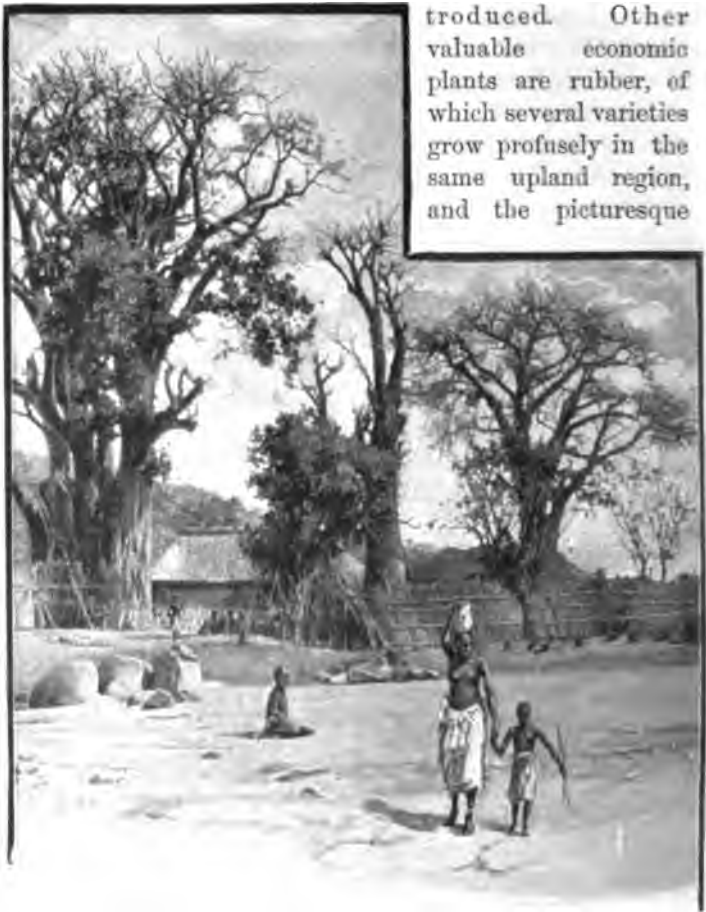
Even some parts of the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau, such as the Buntali district within 10 degrees of the equator, are favoured by a delightful and equable climate. "With its red soil, its rounded hills covered with short green turf, its many rills and rivulets, its cool misty climate and rank vegetation, Buntali is an African Devonshire perched up at an average height of 5000 feet above the trough of Lake Nyassa, and certainly fitted by its natural advantages to be a healthy home for European settlers" (H. H. Johnston).

Flora and Fauna

On the whole the Zambesi flora is less exuberant than that of the Congo, and far less diversified than that of the Cape. The prevailing forms are the same as in the equatorial zone, but are here and there intermingled with a few intruders from the south, such as the silver-tree (*Leucadendron argenteum*) of Cape Colony. The coffee shrub appears to be indigenous in the Zambesi basin, and in any case it is now successfully cultivated

at the European stations in Nyassaland, where tea has

also been lately introduced. Other valuable economic plants are rubber, of which several varieties grow profusely in the same upland region, and the picturesque



BAOBABS ON THE ISLAND OF CHISUMULU, LAKE NYASSA.

misanguti tree, which yields incredible quantities of scarlet beans, used both as food and for the rich

oleaginous or fatty substance obtained by boiling. The wood of the *misanguti* is hard and durable, while the bark supplies an excellent mahogany dye. Fibrous plants, such as the *Borassus* palm, the plantain, cotton, and a hardy species of hemp, grow freely almost everywhere. The Zambesi botanical zone coincides with the southern limit of the gigantic baobab, now rivalled in size by the Australian eucalyptus, thousands of which have already been planted in the Shiré uplands. European cereals, fruits, and vegetables thrive well on the uplands, but require artificial irrigation during the dry season, when scarcely any moisture is precipitated for months together. The Blantyre district "is a place of roses and geraniums, pink-cheeked English children, large-uddered cattle, and laying hens, riding horses, and lawn tennis. You may pick raspberries and strawberries in Mr. Moir's garden, enjoy all sorts of English vegetables, and, but for the black inhabitants, really cheat yourself into the belief that you are in some agricultural village in the Scotch Lowlands" (H. H. Johnston).

Nearly all the large African fauna occur in the Zambesi region, where even the giraffe was heard of by Mr. Sharpe in the Loangwa valley. Both the dry savannahs and the marshy tracts about the Upper Zambesi and the Nyassa-Shiré highlands teem with animal life. From the steamers plying on the Shiré, the observer, provided with a good glass, may distinguish the huge forms of large-eared elephants, the gnu, water-buck, eland, buffalo, reed-buck, zebra, and pallah. The crocodiles, and especially the hippopotamuses, are a real danger to the navigation, and lions have been shot from the deck of a passing steamer. Here the marshy lagoons are frequented by myriads of aquatic fowl, such as pelicans, cranes, ibises, swans, herons, geese, and duck.

In the great Morambala swamp "the air was full of screaming birds, some hovering in clouds in the way that reminded us of a great rooks' meeting, some swooping down to catch fish for their supper, others again swimming placidly on the surface, while the more shallow places were occupied by legions of storks, cranes, herons, etc."¹

Characteristic animals of the Upper Zambesi are the kishobo and nakong antelopes, which have become amphibious, their broad flat feet being more adapted for swimming than for bounding over the steppes. In this region Dr. Holub describes no less than seven varieties of rhinoceros, four of lions, and three of elephants. But, as in Mashonaland, the inoffensive white rhinoceros has almost disappeared, while the savage black variety still infests the less frequented districts. A noteworthy fish in the Middle Zambesi is the mosheba, which, like the marine flying-fish, uses its pectoral fins as wings, rising into the air and sustaining a flight of several yards. Here also the fish-eagle often snatches his prey, not from the water, but from the capacious mandibles of the pelican paralysed with fear by the sudden flap of his wings. In the same region, the widespread *Parra africana* has developed such broad feet that he is enabled to walk on the expanded foliage of the lotus floating on the surface of the stream. Unfortunately all the low-lying and marshy tracts throughout the Zambesi valley are infested by voracious mosquitoes and the deadly tsetse fly, whose bite is fatal to so many domestic animals.

Inhabitants of North Zambesia

Here the ethnical relations are far more complicated than in South Zambesia. Doubtless all the innumerable

¹ Mrs. Pringle, *op. cit.* p. 142.

tribes appear, as far as is known, to belong, at least in speech, to the Bantu family. But the whole region has been in remote and recent times the theatre of so many peaceful or warlike migrations, devastating slave-hunting expeditions, and political convulsions that the national and tribal groups have everywhere been displaced, disintegrated, and re-formed, often under new names and changed social conditions. Fierce conquering hordes have swept like a fiery tempest over the land, leaving in their wake widespread havoc, and have themselves more than once disappeared amid the ruins of cruel despotisms or peaceful agricultural communities. Twice during the present century the Upper Zambesi has witnessed the foundation and overthrow of empires created and destroyed, and again restored by intruding Bechuanas and Basutos from beyond the Limpopo and the Vaal.

The Nyassa lands, especially, have for generations been sorely afflicted by the conflicts of local Mohammedan (Yao) and Pagan (A-Nyanja) peoples, by incessant Zulu invasions, and above all by the organised razzias of Arab and half-caste Portuguese slave-hunters. Recently the Arabs, thwarted and baffled at so many points in the interior, have even dared to turn their arms against the whites, and but for the heroic defence of Karonga and neighbouring stations by a handful of brave Englishmen against apparently hopeless odds, the shores of Nyassa would be again overrun, and the surrounding regions still a prey to their ruthless depredations. For two years (1887-89) these men — Consul O'Neill, Captain Lugard, Dr. Cross, L. Monteith Fotheringham, Agent of the Lakes Company, and historian of the episode,¹ and half a dozen others—held these almost defenceless

¹ *Adventures in Nyassaland*, London, 1891.

outposts with a scanty supply of ammunition, until relieved by the cessation of hostilities brought about by Consul H. H. Johnston's skilful diplomacy. After the appointment of Commissioner Johnston to the administration of North Zambesia (British Central Africa) in 1891, the Yaos in alliance with the Arab slavers continued to give great trouble until the crushing defeat and submission of their most powerful chief, Makanjira, in March 1894. This event puts an end for the present to all slave-trading in Nyassaland, and gives promise of the establishment of permanent peace in that distracted region.

In the Shiré highlands a fruitful source of confusion are the large number of captives rescued from the Arab gangers on their way down to the coast, and now settled about Blantyre and the other missionary stations between Nyassa and the Zambesi. The process has been going on ever since 1861, when Bishop Mackenzie and the other pioneers of the Universities Mission reached the Upper Shiré, under the guidance of Livingstone, and began at once to liberate the gangs of slaves passing through the district. "As we had begun, it was no use to do things by halves," was the trenchant remark of the great explorer.¹ The captives were of course told they were free to stay or go as they pleased. But their homes had been destroyed, their villages burnt, their kinsfolk butchered or dispersed, they were alone in the world, and they invariably preferred to stay. Thus were gathered together in this region representatives of innumerable tribes from every part of the interior, and these, amalgamating with the Manganja (A-Nyanja) aborigines, have little in common except the Chi-Nyanja language, which is necessarily adopted by all.

Other conditions have brought about other results

¹ *A Popular Account of the Expedition to the Zambesi*, p. 248.

on the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau, and on the alluvial Nkonde plains, between the escarpments of the plateau and the north end of Nyassa. Here the deeds of violence and cruelty perpetrated by the Arab and Swahili slaves with their Mohammedan Wanyanwesi allies have been nowhere exceeded in any part of the continent. "For fifty miles we came across no tokens of native prosperity, though there were abundant signs of Arab cruelty and carnage. The blackened ruins of the villages, and the bleached bones of human beings on the grass, told their own tale. 'Who has been here?' I inquired of my carriers. 'Kabunda,' said they, and they pronounced the name with evident terror. Kabunda was a wealthy Arab, who had settled in the valley of the Lofu some ten years ago."¹ Having picked a quarrel with the local chief, here is how "this dignified and cultured Arab, full of courtesy in his dealings with Europeans," set about his work of extermination. After seizing all the chief's cattle, he "organised a sudden raid throughout all the valley, and every man, woman, and child who could be found was seized and tied up. Very few managed to escape him or his keen hunters, and a caravan was made for the coast; but the smiling valley, that had been known as the garden of Tanganyika, from the fertility and industry of its people, now silent and desolate, was added to that already long stretch of hungry wilderness through which we had passed."² Elsewhere we read of the natives about the Kambwe lagoon, north of Nyassa, being suddenly set upon, when "those who did not perish by the rifle and the spear were either burnt to death or devoured by the innumerable crocodiles that infest the lagoon" (*ib.* p. 81).

¹ *Adventures in Nyassaland*, p. 15.

² Fr. Moir, quoted by Fotheringham, p. 16.

Driven to desperation by these incessant atrocities, the fragments of various broken tribes took refuge in the somewhat inaccessible Songwe valley, where the Free Church had founded the station of Chirenje. But the missionaries being powerless to protect them against the Awemba confederates of the Arabs, the refugees did



CHIEF'S HOUSE, WANKONDE TRIBE, LAKE NYASSA.

not here merge in one community as on the Shiré uplands, but each remnant of a tribe continued to occupy some remote and isolated village, fortified by stockades against the common enemy. Hence each retains its own dialect, and "one might almost imagine that it was in the neighbourhood of Chirenje that the confusion of tongues took place. First of all there is Mwiniwanda, who is recognised as the chief of the country, simply on account of his being the first settler in the locality. His people

speak a language of their own. Next comes Titima's village, with its distinct inhabitants and distinct dialect. Eight miles distant is Chitipa's—a people using a unique speech, which an Admirable Crichton might despair of acquiring. Then there is Nyondo's, the people there also talking in an uncouth tongue. Were they all huddled together round a tower, the traveller might fancy he had discovered Babel.”¹

Amid all these elements of confusion in a region a large portion of which still remains to be explored, it would be premature to attempt any scientific classification of the inhabitants, hence little more than a geographical grouping is attempted in the subjoined

TABLE OF THE CHIEF TRIBES AND NATIONS IN NORTH ZAMBESIA.

GANGUELLA, Upper Kubango valley; a branch of the Angolan Ganguellas.

AMBOELLA, Kubango and Kwa-Ndo (Chobe) valleys.

LUSHAZÉ, Upper Kwo-Ndo valley.

MA-HES, Kwa-Ndo valley from Linyanti to 6° south latitude.

BA-VIKO

RA-NAJAO

MUKOSSO

DARICO

} Lower Kubango and neighbouring lacustrine plains.

BA-LUNDA, Liba and Lobale valleys (Upper Zambesi head-waters).

MAKOLOLO, Basuto intruders in the Upper Zambesi; extinct.

BAROTSE { Bechuana intruders in the Upper and Middle Zambesi; the present dominant people in the Barotse Empire.

MAMBUNDA { Gnoko, Lombe, and Loi rivers; dominant people in the Mambunda State.

MA-NCHOIA, north-east of the Barotse.

MA-TOTOLA, north of Shesheke, are the Ba-Nyati of some writers.

MA-SHUBIA { south-east of the Barotse, from Sekhosi to within 30 miles of the Chobe-Zambesi confluence.

MANKOE, north of the Mambunda State.

BA-LIBALE { north-east of the Mambunda, both banks of the Liba to its source.

MAMBOE { Middle and Lower Kabompo and Liba rivers; some also on the Zambesi.

¹ Fotheringham, *op. cit.* p. 132.

- MABOMBA** } Kavagola territory, Upper Zambesi.
MANENGO }
- BA-RAMBA**, Iramba district, and North Manica, Upper Kafue basin.
- BA-TOKA** } properly **BA-TONGA**, between the Lower Kafue and the Middle Zambesi.
- BA-SHUKULUMBWE**, left side of Middle and Lower Kafue.
- MAKALAKA**, Zambesi, below Victoria Falls.
- BA-SENGA** } left bank Lower Loangwa, thence to the Zambesi.
MANO }
- BADEMA**, Zambesi, east of Ba-Senga.
- BA-NYUNGWE**, Zambesi, about Tete, and thence to the Lower Shiré.
- MPESANI** } between the Loangwa and Lake Nyassa.
MUABI }
- WA-NKONDE**, north end Nyassa.
- A-WIZA, A-KUNTUNDA, A-MANGOCHI,** } west side Nyassa.
A-BANDA, A-TONGA, A-KAMANGA }
- MANGANJA** } south-east of Nyassa, and Shiré valley.
(A-Nyanja) }
- A-JAWA** } Ruo valley, and thence north-east to and beyond Lake Shirwa.
(Wa-Yao) }
- MACHINGA, AMASANINGA,** } east side Nyassa.
ANGULU (Wa-Jenga) }
- MAVITI** }
MAZITU }
MANGONI } The Zulu intruders in the Nyassa region, chiefly on the
(Angoni) } south-west side, collectively called Landins by the
MARAVI } Portuguese.
MUNYAI }
"LANDIN" }
- MAKOLOLO**, Lower Shiré, between the falls and Ruo river.
- AWAWAMBA** }
(Wa-Nkonde) } **Awankonde** } Nkonde plain and southern slopes of the Nyassa-
Awaniakyusa } Tanganyika plateau.
Awakukwe }
Awabundali }
Awamesuko }
- AWAWANDIA, AWATAMBO, AWARAMBO,** } Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau.
AWANYIKA, AWANYAMWANGA, AWEMBA }
- AWAFIPA**, west side Lake Rikwa.
- AWAKHONONGO**, east side Lake Rikwa.
- AWAUNGU**, south side Lake Rikwa.

The Ba-Lunda ; Barotse ; Mambunda

Dr. Holub, who visited the Barotse country in 1875, gives a long list of about eighty tribes subject to that state.¹ But the Jesuit missionary, Père Depelchin, who has more recently spent some years amongst the people, finds that many if not most of those so-called "tribes" are merely trading communities, not distinguishable in an ethnical sense from the mass of the population.² In this region the really important nations, politically, are the Ba-Lunda, the Barotse, the Mambunda, the Ba-Shukulumbwe, and the Ba-Toka (Ba-Tonga).

The Ba-Lunda, who occupy both slopes of the Congo-Zambesi divide, appear to be a division, probably the original stock, of the powerful Ka-Lunda nation, dominant in the Muata Yamvo's territory. Like them they file their teeth, practise tattooing, and smear their bodies with vegetable oils. The Ba-Lunda are extremely ceremonious, and to the native forms of salutation they have added both the Mohammedan "Allah" and the Portuguese "Ave-ria" (*Ave Maria*). They are a mild inoffensive people, friendly towards strangers, addicted neither to cannibalism nor to any cruel practices, and showing marked deference to their women. Some of the Lunda tribes are governed by "queens," at whose death the settlement is abandoned, and a fresh start made in a new district. From the Lunda forests comes most of the bees-wax exported from the west coast. The cleared lands are fertile and well watered, and yield abundant produce to the industrious Ba-Lunda husbandmen.

It has been seen (p. 385) that the ruling race in the "Marotse Mambunda Empire," as it is designated by

¹ In *Mitteilungen* of the Vienna Geographical Society, 31st Jan. 1879.

² *Précis historiques*, Brussels, Feb. 1883.

Holub, are a branch of the Barotse Bechuanas, though now speaking the Se-Suto language, imposed on them during the temporary supremacy of the Makololos. They were probably driven north by Umsilikatzi's impis about the year 1835, when the Zulus overran the western parts of the region now known as Transvaal. Soon after the overthrow of the Makololos, the Luinas, as the Barotse are called by their neighbours, reduced the extensive territory of the Mambunda (Ma-Bunda) nation, at that time ruled by a queen. Their system of administration is to a large extent inherited from the Makololos, and is specially noted for its Draconic penal code, which has given rise to the local saying that nobody grows old in Barotseland. It is understood that, since his acceptance of the British protectorate, the present king, Lumanika, has undertaken to modify the rigours of this drastic code. Other reforms are in progress, and, through the influence of the traders and missionaries, the bulk of the population have already substituted European clothes for the old national costume of tanned skins and flowing cotton robes.

The Mambundas, living farther north on the plateau enclosing the alluvial plains of the fluvial valley, have been brought less in contact with Europeans, and still practise the old superstitious rites. They worship the sun and moon, and believe in the transmigration of souls, not from animals to man, but from man to animals; man himself apparently possessing the power to control his future destiny, by eating the flesh and rehearsing the voice and attitudes of the lion, buffalo, rhinoceros, or any other beast of his choice. The Mambunda chiefs still retain a certain degree of independence, some of them even sharing jointly with the Barotse notables in the general administration of the empire.

The Ba-Shukulumbwe

The Ba-Shukulumbwe savages are even still more independent, constituting a numerous nation under many separate chiefs, who have never been reduced by conquest, but who have in many instances recently acknowledged the supremacy of the paramount Barotse ruler. The Ba-Shukulumbwe (Ukulombwe) territory, occupying most of the Kafue basin, is one of the least known regions in Zambesia, having hitherto been visited only by three Europeans, Silva Porto, and Holub with his wife. Mrs. Holub was regarded by the natives as a supernatural being, and by one tribe chosen as their queen. These people are distinguished almost above all African tribes for the extraordinary care lavished on their head-dresses, which often assume the most astounding forms, towering tiara-fashion two or three feet above their heads.

Farther east and north, the Manica and Iramba territories are inhabited by Waramba tribes, who, at the time of Capello and Ivens's visit (1885), were ruled by Licuco, brother of Msidi, late king of Garenganze. Licuco is described by the Portuguese travellers as a ferocious tyrant and "monster, whose atrocities exceed human imagination."¹ Some of his underlings appear to be no better, and of one Iramba petty chief we are told that he "chopped up a woman with his own hand, and put her in a huge flesh-pot, which was at once placed on the fire," all because she had cooked his supper badly (*ib.*) Certainly there is ample scope for the exercise of humanising influences in this part of the new British protectorate.

¹ *De Angola à Contra-Costa*, ii. p. 171.

The Ba-Tonga

South of the Ba-Shukulumbwe domain follows that of the Ba-Tonga (Ba-Toka), who, though now reduced almost to servitude by the Barotse, were formerly a powerful and numerous nation. They may even almost claim to rank as an historical people, having migrated from the auriferous Manicaland, which, three hundred years ago, was ruled by the Monomotapa, and which is still inhabited by the Batoka race. Another branch has moved southwards beyond the Lower Limpopo to the district from them now known as Amatongaland. All Ba-Tongas of both sexes extract the upper incisors, as they say, to make themselves look like oxen. It is noteworthy that the same custom, based on the same motive, prevails amongst some of the western Damaras, whose traditions point to the north-east as the quarter whence they reached their present homes on the south-western seaboard. Thus it might almost seem as if, during their migrations, the Ba-Tongas had made the complete circuit of the Austral Continent.

The Manganja and Makololo

In Nyassaland, by far the most important indigenous element are the A-Nyanja, that is, "Lake People," who, however, call themselves Manganja. During the last quarter of a century their domain has been greatly encroached upon by the Wa-Yao from the north-east, and by the Angoni (Zulus) from the south-west, while those dwelling along the Shiré have been reduced by the Mackingas and the Makololo usurpers to a state little differing from absolute slavery. But formerly they occupied the whole region from Lake Shirwa westwards

to Chipata, and from the Zambesi-Shiré confluence northwards to about the latitude of Bandawé, on the west side of Nyassa. They thus held a territory of about 40,000 square miles, and their Bantu language (Chi-Nyanja, reduced to written form by the Rev. Alexander Riddel) is still current throughout the whole of this region. It appears to be intermediate between the Ki-Swahili of Zanzibar and the Zulu-Kafir of the south-east coast, and it is of considerable historic importance, for by its means may best be interpreted the Bantu terms, such as Benomotapa, Zimbabwe, etc., occurring in the early Portuguese writers.

No people could have offered a finer field for evangelical labour than the Manganja, who, despite the combined efforts of the Universities, Free Church, and Scotch Established Church Missions, are in some places still a prey to the gross superstitions and barbarous practices specially characteristic of the African populations. Witchcraft here assumes its most repulsive forms, ordeals by the poisoned cup are universal, while the punishments inflicted on the wretched natives for trivial or imaginary offences would appear incredible were they not attested by unimpeachable evidence. The Makololo chiefs on the Lower Shiré, who rose suddenly from obscurity to the position of rulers, look on their Manganja subjects as mere slaves, and treat them with atrocious cruelty. "The Makololo prepare mwai (the poison cup), call their people in great numbers, and command them to drink it. Several die in one day, who were therefore bewitched, and deserved their fate. . . . Investigation by torture is one of the saddest things that the Makololo practise. It is often employed in cases of alleged adultery. When a Makololo suspects his wives, he places a stone in a jar of boiling water or oil, and orders them to fetch it up with their bare arms.

He then judges of their guilt by the amount of injury they sustain. When a woman is thus convicted, he makes her confess who seduced her. Notwithstanding that her arm is severely scalded, she is subjected to the most cruel torture by a kind of 'thumbscrew' (mbanilo), which is applied to her head. A small tree is partly divided along the middle, the skull of the poor woman is inserted as if it were a wedge for splitting the tree still farther. Great pressure is exerted by forcing the halves of the tree together with the aid of pulleys. The instrument works like a gigantic nut-cracker, and during its operation the chief and his assistants look on with calm satisfaction, and suggest the name of her seducer. When the woman, under this torture, indicates that the man is guilty, he is put to death without a trial. Perhaps the woman herself is quite guiltless, and has been convicted solely by the ordeal. . . . Petty theft, as of a fowl, is punished among the Makololo by flogging with whips of elephant hide. There is no formal trial. Cropping a thief's ears, and cutting off his fingers, are also practised. For theft of anything more valuable the punishment is death. A man that steals a sheep or a goat is stabbed and thrown into the river. On other occasions he is flogged to death with whips of elephant hide." ¹ Since their arrival in Nyassaland, under the auspices of Livingstone (see p. 387), these Makololo chiefs have always professed great friendship for the English, and from the first were looked upon by the natives as our protégés. But their harsh rule, and wholesale practice of domestic slavery, for it came to that, had compromised the English name before orderly government was established in the Lower Shiré valley under British administrators.

¹ Rev. Duff Macdonald, *Africana*, i. pp. 200-202.

The Awamwamba and Awawandia

In the region of plains and plateaux between Nyassa and Tanganyika, the construction of the Stevenson Road, the treaties with the Arabs following their repulse at Karonga, and the foundation of missionary stations and military posts between the two lakes, have already brought about a great improvement in the social relations. Here the Nkonde plains are occupied by various branches of the industrious Awamwamba (Wa-Nkonde) people, who had lived happy contented lives before the Arab invasion of 1887. They are a stalwart, muscular, well-proportioned race, who raise large quantities of bananas, plantains, yams, pulse, maize and millet, and are also excellent stock-breeders. "Their language is wonderfully rich in terms descriptive of cattle. Cattle diseases are known and healed so perfectly that the veterinary surgeon of Europe might here learn something of them. To look across the plain or down the valley and see two or three herds of these beautiful animals browsing in the long grass, and to hear the rude tinkle of the iron bells (for each cow has a bell), convinces one of the peacefulness and happiness of these primitive people. Or to look in upon one of these villages, hidden among the banana trees, in the sultry afternoon, to see the men stretched at full length, lying on mats or banana leaves, the women grinding the flour for the evening meal, and the cattle standing in the smoke of the dry cow-dung fires chewing the cud, unmolested by flies, is a picture of primitive happiness that may even make us envy the black man's lot."¹

The Awawandia and other closely-allied tribes on the Nyassa-Tanganyika plateau, being still more exposed to

¹ D. Kerr Cross, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* Feb. 1891, p. 87.

the Arab and Wa-Nyamwezi raiders, usually dwell with their cattle and other domestic animals in strongly-palisaded villages. They are very industrious, and are noted for their skill as weavers, potters, and blacksmiths, manufacturing various iron implements, and weaving cotton fabrics in pretty patterns from the bush and tree varieties which grow wild in the district.

The Stevenson Road

The Stevenson Road, of which so much has lately been heard, traverses this district in an oblique direction from south-east to north-west. It takes its name from Mr. James Stevenson, Chairman of the African Lakes Company, who in 1881 contributed £4000 to its construction and maintenance. So far as completed, that is, for 70 miles from Karonga on Nyassa to a point 10 miles beyond Mwiniwanda station on the plateau, it is a creditable piece of engineering work, running for several miles through primeval forest and involving some heavy cuttings in the ascent from the Nkondé plains to the plateau. "With the exception of some nine miles it is practically terraced out on the hillsides from Nkondé to the mission station."¹ From the present inland terminus to Lake Tanganyika there still remain 180 miles to be completed; but the worst obstacles have already been surmounted, the route thenceforth lying across the tolerably level plateau.

¹ Fotheringham, *op. cit.* p. 8.

CHAPTER IX

PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA

(GAZALAND ; MOZAMBIQUE)

Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Population—Portuguese Maladministration—Historic Retrospect ; Present Relations—Physical Features ; The Namuli Highlands—Rivers ; Zambesi Delta—The Sabi, Pungwe, and Rovuma Rivers—Climate—Flora—Fauna—Natural Products—Inhabitants of Gazaland : Tongas ; Ba-Lempas ; Banyans ; The Portuguese Half-breeds—Inhabitants of Mozambique : Wa-Yao ; Makua—Table of the Chief Tribes and Nations in Portuguese East Africa—Towns and Stations : Lourenço Marques ; Delagoa Bay ; Inhambane ; Sofala ; Quilimane ; Mozambique ; Angosha ; Fernão Vellozo ; Ibo ; Zumbo ; Tete ; Sena.

Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Population

As partly settled by the Agreement of June 1891, the Portuguese sphere of influence on the eastern seaboard extends from the conventional line at Kosi Bay, separating it from Zululand for about 1400 miles north-eastwards to the Rovuma river separating it from German East Africa. It is divided into two nearly equal sections by the lower course of the Zambesi, the southern stretching from the coast for an average distance of some 200 miles inland to the already described eastern frontiers of Transvaal and British Central Africa,

the northern extending also from the coast for an average distance of 300 miles to Lakes Nyassa and Shirwa and the River Ruo, where it is again conterminous with British territory. But along both banks of the Zambesi a narrow Portuguese zone is also wedged in between North and South British Zambesia as far as Zumbo, 500 miles above the delta. The southern and northern sections, which roughly correspond to the regions commonly designated respectively as Gazaland and Mozambique, have a collective area of about 620,000 square miles, with an estimated population (1894) of 1,500,000. Till recently the term *Mozambique* officially comprised the whole region, being synonymous with the expression *Portuguese East Africa*. But in 1891 the colony was constituted the "State of East Africa" (*Estado d' Africa Oriental*), and divided into two provinces—*Mozambique* and *Lourenço Marques*, coinciding with the above-described northern and southern sections. The State is administered by a Royal Commissioner appointed for three years, and residing alternately in the respective capitals, Mozambique and Lourenço Marques.

Portuguese Maladministration

Hitherto a thin bordering of green on the eastern seaboard has been more than sufficient to indicate the nature and extent of Portuguese power in East Africa. For nearly four hundred years, since the occupation of Sofala, Quilimane, Mozambique, Sena, Tete, and a few other stations along the coast and on the banks of the Zambesi, the authority of the Crown of Portugal has been mainly confined to the vicinity of those stations. At one or two points farther inland, such as Massara (Gouveia's) in the Gorongoza district, and Massi-Kessi

in East Manica, a certain jurisdiction has at times been exercised at least indirectly through the missionaries, the agents of the Mozambique and earlier mining companies, or the so-called Capitães Mórs ("Captains major"), generally half-caste chiefs or headmen supported and supplied with firearms and fire-water by the officials of the maritime or riverain districts. The green bordering must now, however, be extended into the interior, so as to embrace the sphere of influence assigned to Portugal by the Agreement of June 1891. But despite diplomatic arrangements, the actual conditions remain unchanged, and are well expressed by Lord Salisbury in his speech at Glasgow on 20th May 1891 in reference to the recent negotiations: "The territory we shall recognise as belonging to South Africa is *high land*, on which white men can work and settle. All the land on the banks of the Zambesi which we have offered to Portugal in exchange, and to which we think she has some historical claim, is land which can only be dealt with by those born in the country. And I think the melancholy peculiarity of the rule of Portugal is that she does not pour her own people into the country and people it with her own blood,¹ but is satisfied with ruling the natives whom she finds there. It is therefore fitting that the territory which can only be cultivated by the natives should fall under her rule, and it is fitting that the territory on which white men can work should fall to the more active and robust Anglo-Saxon race."

How entirely Portuguese influence has been confined to the coast is shown by the fact that the route from

¹ Efforts, however, were in former times made to introduce Portuguese women into Mozambique, and thus at least develop a half-caste race in that region. But the attempt was mainly a failure, and the Mestizoes sprung from unions between Portuguese men and native women are, as a rule, little better than the natives themselves.

Matabililand eastwards to Sofala, consisting of a waggon-road to a point on the Lundi river 80 miles short of the Sabi, and thence of a mere track for 260 miles through Gazaland to the coast, has never yet been used by traders, though "there appears to be no obstacle to prevent a waggon travelling from Umzila's (Gungunyana's) to the coast" (Lieutenant C. E. Haynes). But even on the coast communications are so irregular that in 1880 the people of Sofala had not yet heard of the Franco-German War; and when the Governor of Lourenço Marques was killed and the fort destroyed by the Zulus in 1842, it took a whole year for the news to reach Mozambique by the roundabout way of Brazil! Mozambique itself, capital of all the Portuguese East African possessions, is still at times dependent on the goodwill of the neighbouring tribes for its supply of provisions. It exercises scarcely any control beyond the reach of its guns and gun-boats, and the coast populations are practically as independent as they were before the arrival of the Portuguese nearly four centuries ago. Till the late explorations of Consuls O'Neill, Johnston, and Last, the surrounding country had remained almost a *terra incognita*, for this station "had never been utilised as a starting-point for exploring expeditions in the interior, and the Portuguese continued to occupy it for three hundred years without collecting any information regarding the neighbouring lands and peoples that might, nevertheless, have easily been visited."¹

The same picture of apathy and helplessness in the presence of the native and half-caste populations is presented by all the riverain stations from Quilimane to Zumbo. Quilimane, hitherto wrongly supposed to be the indispensable gateway of the Zambesi, is mainly inhabited

¹ Keane's *Reclus*, xiii. p. 281.

by a few dozen whites, mostly convicts or descendants of convicts, and a few thousand blacks, mostly descendants of slaves or still virtually slaves. When the Rev. Duff Macdonald passed through the place in 1878, one of the sights he beheld was a number of natives "employed in carrying enormous trees, each of which required about thirty bearers. Every party was accompanied by a man with a whip, who seemed to have as hard work as any of them."¹

In fact these stations were chiefly maintained as centres of the slave trade long after the traffic had been abolished by most other Christian States. When the Universities Mission, under Bishop Mackenzie, began operations in the Shiré valley in 1861, it was discovered that the Portuguese officials and traders were everywhere carrying on the traffic to such an extent that a clause was inserted in the treaty with the A-Nyassa (Manganja) people to the effect that "if any Portuguese or other foreign slavers came into the land, they (the A-Nyassa) would drive them away, or at once let us know of their presence."²

While the slave trade flourished, the Zambesi stations enjoyed a degree of murky prosperity. When the traffic was at last suppressed under pressure of European public opinion, the stations fell into a state of hopeless decay. Zumbo, where a few crumbling ruins mark the extreme limits of Portuguese influence on the east side of the continent, was entirely abandoned till 1881, when nominal possession was resumed under a Capitão Mór. But desolation reigns supreme both here and lower down at Tete, where the old Roman Catholic Church is a picturesque forest-grown ruin worshipped by the natives

¹ *Africana*, ii. p. 56.

² See full text of treaty in *Africana*, ii. p. 11.

as a kind of fetish. But despite the abolition of the traffic, domestic slavery is still rife, and the worst atrocities are practised by the local chiefs, who regard their subjects as slaves and often treat them with fiendish cruelty. When Montagu Kerr visited Tete (1885), the people were at the mercy of a capricious polygamist kinglest, who put his wives to death on the slightest pretext. "Executions are carried out sometimes in the presence of the woman's father, who, through fear of giving offence to the king, will exhibit satisfaction rather than sorrow. Any appearance of grief would be fatal to him. Occasionally the king may order the father to be the executioner, and even then the horribly unnatural command is obeyed with apparent satisfaction."¹

The Portuguese do not themselves perpetrate these horrors, but they are fain to tolerate, because helpless to prevent them. Were they to attempt to enforce orderly government, they would soon be swept from the Zambesi valley, where they are at the mercy of their *Capitães Mórs*, that is, of their own native and half-caste officials. Hence, even in Portugal, impartial observers are beginning to see that the Portuguese rule is a curse to the natives themselves, as well as a burden to the mother country. In 1894 the total revenue of the Colony was only £260,000, and the expenditure £520,000, while the exports, chiefly to Great Britain, scarcely exceeded £12,000. Many true patriots have openly declared that the alienation of the whole of Mozambique would be a wise step, and in the autumn of 1891 informal negotiations were actually opened by the Lisbon Government for the cession of Delagoa Bay to England, which, according to the Agreement of June 1891, has a preferential right of purchase.

¹ *The Far Interior*, ii. p. 52.

Historic Retrospect—Present Relations

The foundation of Portuguese power in the eastern seas dates from the year 1497, when Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape, coasted the African seaboard as far north as Malindi (Melinda), and then, under the guidance of local pilots, sailed across the Arabian Sea straight for India. Within a decade of that date the whole of the east coast from Natal to Cape Guardafui was visited, and nearly all the present Portuguese stations—Inhambane, Sofala, Quilimane, Angosha, Mozambique, Ibo—were permanently occupied, with the single exception of Lourenço Marques on Delagoa Bay, where a factory was first established by a trader of that name in the year 1545. Sofala, which had already been visited by the Portuguese captain, Peroda Covilhams, in 1480, that is, seventeen years before Vasco de Gama had opened the route to India, was captured in 1505, and here was erected the Fort Ophir, the ruins of which still exist. It was so named because Sofala, the Safar of the Arabs, had from time immemorial been the outport of the gold brought down from the Manica mines, and was consequently identified with the Ophir of Solomon. For the same reason the River Sabi, which reaches the coast a little farther south, was associated with the name of the Queen of Saba (Sheba), whose lineage was supposed by many to be perpetuated in the powerful Monomotapa, at that time paramount lord of the kingdom of Sofala, with all its auriferous dependencies in the interior. Farther up, Quilimane, despite its unhealthy climate, was occupied, at first in vassalage to the neighbouring chief, and afterwards in absolute tenure, because it was supposed to stand at the mouth of the chief branch of the Quama (Zambesi), and

many years passed before it was discovered that this branch scarcely belonged to the Zambesi system at all, and, in any case, only communicated with the main



THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL'S PALACE, MOZAMBIQUE.

stream during exceptional floods. Already, in Barbosa's time (1514), the Portuguese had a fort at Angosha, which, like the neighbouring Mozambique, and all the

other seaports as far south as Sofala, had a king subject to the powerful Sultan of Quiloa.¹ The island of Mozambique itself, which had long been a famous Arab mart, trading with Zanzibar and India, was permanently occupied in 1507, and exactly a hundred years later chosen instead of Sofala as the capital of all the Portuguese East African possessions. These possessions extended along the coast from Delagoa Bay to Cape Guardafui till the close of the seventeenth century, when the Arabs of Mombasa, aided by the Sultan of Omân, succeeded in driving the Portuguese from all their northern stations as far south as Mikindani. Since that time Cape Delgado, at the mouth of the Rovuma, has marked the extreme northern limit of the jurisdiction exercised by the Governor-General of Mozambique.

There can be no doubt that Portuguese traders and missionaries visited various parts of the interior from their stations on the seaboard. But no scientific expeditions were despatched inland before that of Lacerda, at the close of the eighteenth century. Hence the whole country beyond the coast-line remained unknown till the recent journeys of Erskine, Wood, Browne, Kuss, O'Donnel, and Daly in Gazaland; and those of Roscher, Johnston, Last, and especially O'Neill² in Mozambique.

Gazaland takes its name from the Zulu, or, rather,

¹ "When the King of Portugal discovered this land, the Moors of Sofala and Zuama (Quama, *i.e.* Quilimane), and Anguox (Angosha), and Mozambique, were all under obedience to the King of Quiloa, who was a great king amongst them" (Stanley's *Barbosa*).

² The first trustworthy map of the country north of the Lower Zambesi dates only from 1885, and is due to Mr. Henry O'Neill, who had long been British Consul at Mozambique. The whole country was, in fact, first opened up by this indefatigable explorer, who completed the hydrographic surveys of the British Admiralty between Cape Delgado and Mozambique Island, and thence to Angosha; explored the course of the

Swazi chief, Gaza, who, according to the national traditions, was a contemporary and rival of Chaka, King of Zululand. Gaza, however, does not appear to have made any permanent conquests in the region north of the Limpopo, which was first overrun and reduced by his son Manikûs (Manikosa, Manukuza), about the year 1833. Manikûs had been sent by Chaka's successor, Dingaan, to drive the Portuguese from Delagoa Bay, but, having failed in the attempt, he escaped the tyrant's vengeance by passing with all his impis to the coastlands north of the Limpopo. Here he established his military kraal at Chamachama (Nodvengu), in the hilly district about the source of the Bosi, 3650 feet above the sea, and 120 miles inland from Sofala (Erskine). From this commanding position his impis rapidly overran the whole land, taking Inhambane in 1834, plundering Sofala itself in 1836, and almost driving the Portuguese completely out of the country. At the same time some of his Zulu followers, known as Maviti, or Landins, that is, "Couriers," swept like a storm-cloud right up to the Zambesi, where they levied tribute on Tete and Sena, and where their descendants are now settled on both banks of the main stream, and in the Shiré basin.

Manikûs, the real founder of the Gaza Kingdom, was succeeded in the north by his son Umzila, a renowned chief, from whom the country often takes the name of Umzilaland; and he by his brother Umdugaza about 1882. In the south, Umzila's brother, Guzana, better known as Gungunyana,¹ for a time exercised a joint

Rovuma; visited Lake Shirwa, and determined the water-parting between the Shiré basin and the Indian Ocean. (*Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* 1882-1885 *passim*.) His work was continued chiefly by Cardoso down to 1886, and since then by H. H. Johnston, Lugard, and Keane.

¹ Usually written Gungunhana; but this is Portuguese orthography, in which *nh* = English *ny*.

authority with Umdugaza, but has in recent years assumed the supreme control, and has at the same time removed his headquarters from near Umzila's kraal southwards to a place not far from Delagoa Bay. Despite semi-official Portuguese assertions to the contrary, no member of Gaza's dynasty has ever acknowledged the suzerainty of the Crown of Portugal, and in 1891 Gungunyana sent two indunas to England for the purpose of placing his kingdom under the British protectorate. But meantime the Lisbon Cortes had ratified the Agreement of June 1891, which includes Gazaland within the sphere of Portuguese influence. Consequently, the mission ended in failure, and the Portuguese, officially masters of Gungunyana's country, continue to be *de facto* at the mercy of, as they have at times been tributary to, that state. In 1892 Gungunyana was with difficulty restrained from driving them out of the country.

The descendants of Manikûs's warlike hordes "appear not to have degenerated from the Ama-Swazi type, and in Matabililand the women of Umzila's kraal are noted for their size and beauty" (Lt. Haynes). Their general attitude towards the aborigines of the country has been much the same as that of the Matabili conquerors. The plundering expeditions have perhaps been less systematic and less frequent, because there has been less to plunder on the more sparsely inhabited marshy plains of Gazaland than on the Matabili plateau. But here, as elsewhere, the Zulu military system has been attended by the same disastrous results—the arrest of all social progress, the dispersion of peaceful settled communities, the suspension of all industrial pursuits, such as the mining industry in the Massi-Kessi district, Manica, where the gold mines were closed and the miners dispersed by Umzila's impis. During

their remarkable journey of 740 miles through Gazarland in 1891, Dr. Jameson, Messrs. Doyle and Moodie found "a great part of the country uninhabited," and for a distance of at least 150 miles the route lay through swamps. The northern tribes, such as the Ba-Rue and Ba-Tokas of East Manica, still entertain such a dread of the Zulus that, when they were visited in the spring of 1891 by some of the South Africa Company's agents, "their cry everywhere was the same: 'Take our country; only protect us from Gungunyana'; and again: 'Do not talk of the Portuguese protecting us; they cannot save us from Gungunyana. Come, and leave us only room to save our crops.'"¹

Little had been done to open up the country till the year 1892, when, in accordance with the provisions of the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of 1891, a beginning was made with the "Beira Railway," which runs from Fontesvilla on the Pungwe above Beira north-westwards in the direction of Massi-Kessi near the British frontier. In 1894 about 90 miles of this line had been constructed as far as Chimoya, within five days' journey of Fort Salisbury. A junction will eventually be effected with the British South African system, thus giving the capital of British Central Africa access by rail southwards to the Cape, and eastwards through Portuguese territory to the Indian Ocean.

Plans have also been prepared for the construction of other railways from Quilimane to the Lower Shiré river, with extensions at both ends, the object being to avoid the intricacies of the delta navigation, and to turn the rapids on the main stream above the delta.² But the

¹ *Times* Correspondent, 26th June 1891.

² A. de Moraes Sarmiento, *Carta do delta do Zambeze e Terrenos Adjacentes*, Lisbon 1891.

deficient local revenue, and the serious financial embarrassment of the home government, must prevent the execution of these works, unless foreign capital can be attracted by an improved and more vigorous administration.

Physical Features

From Delagoa Bay the coast-line trends in a series of curves north-eastwards to Mozambique Island, and thence due north to Cape Delgado. But the escarpments of the continental plateau continue to follow a northerly direction from Swaziland to the Nyassa highlands, broken only by the broad valley of the Lower Zambesi. The result of this conformation is that the whole of the coastlands are mainly level, and often swampy, alluvial plains, broadening out northwards, and interrupted here and there either by isolated mountain masses, such as the Namuli Mountains in Mozambique, or by a few eastern spurs and offshoots of the plateau, such as the foot-hills of the Gorongoza district (Mounts Zangwe and Miranga), and of the Ubiri district (Mounts Sipungambili and Silindi) in Gazaland.

All the lowlands may thus be regarded as so much land reclaimed from the sea by the continuous action of the running waters — Limpopo, Sabi, Bosi, Pungwe, Zambesi, Lukugu, Lurio, Mtepwesi, Rovuma, and others — which, with the sedimentary matter washed down from the uplands, gradually formed banks, islands, and continuous land in the shallows of the Indian Ocean. Then the new coast-line thus projected seawards was again attacked in the north by the full force of the Mozambique current setting westwards from the high seas, and deflected southwards between Madagascar and the mainland. Hence the northern section of the sea-

board is carved into numerous capes and headlands, which here and there enclose well-sheltered creeks, inlets, and even magnificent havens, such as Mwambi, Mamba, Conducia, Mokambo, and especially Fernão Vellozo—havens crowded with shipping before the advent of the Portuguese, since then mainly silent and lifeless. Lower down the marine stream flows southwards, parallel with the coast, which is, moreover, somewhat protected by the advanced breakwater of Madagascar. Consequently the section of the seaboard south of the Zambesi delta is almost destitute of good harbours, until it again becomes exposed at Lourenço Marques, where has been developed the spacious harbour of Delagoa Bay.

In Gazaland the ground slopes from the coast through marshy, wooded, or grassy tracts up to the Matabili and Mashona escarpments. Here the porphyry and basalt Silindi, Sipungambili, and Ubiri peaks rise to a height of some 4000 feet above the banks of the Upper Sabi river. Northwards follows the Sita Tonga range, where the Gundi-Inyanga ("Moon-shaver") and some other crests attain an altitude of about 5000 feet. Still farther north this rugged region about the Anglo-Portuguese frontier, which forms the divide between the Pungwe, Busi, and Sabi basins, culminates in the many-peaked Panga (6970 feet), west of the Inyamkarara valley.¹ Eastwards this valley is enclosed by the precipitous slopes of Gorongoe (Gorongozo), terminating in a remarkable sugar-loaf peak 5690 feet high. Other lofty summits in this highland region are Mount Lunji, a conspicuous pyramid rising to a height of 5960 feet; the dome-shaped Mount Doé (6725 feet), formerly supposed to be the highest point between the Zambesi and Limpopo; lastly, the wooded granite Miranga Peak (6700 feet?).

¹ Major J. J. Levenson, *Geo. Jour.* 1893, p. 512.

The Namuli Highlands

North of the Zambesi the chief physical features are the magnificent Namuli highlands, in every respect one of the finest upland districts in the whole of Africa. This delightful region, recently revealed to the outer world by the explorations of O'Neill and Last, lies in the south-western part of Mozambique, where have their rise the numerous headstreams of the Lukugu, Ligonya, Lurio, and other rivers flowing in various directions to the Indian Ocean. The whole group of peaks, cones, and crests, standing on a pedestal 2000 feet above sea-level, culminates in the precipitous and quite inaccessible twin-peaked Namuli, which is at least 8000 feet high, but not snow-clad, as was formerly supposed. This majestic summit is flanked by several other lofty heights, such as Malisani, Mruli, Pilani, Mresi, Likilakwa, and Kwiani, ranging from 6000 to nearly 7500 feet. Mr. Last, who spent three months in the country in the year 1886, speaks in enthusiastic language of its wild romantic scenery, fertile and well-watered upland valleys, healthy temperate climate, and luxuriant vegetation. "The slopes of Namuli are clothed with verdure, in which large trees, india-rubber and other vines, tree-ferns, palms, bamboos, and a great variety of shrubs and bushes all combine to add beauty to the scene. In some places deep gorges have been cut away by the ever-rushing torrent, and small streams come skipping and sprinkling down on all sides. In one place there is a beautiful double waterfall of some 500 feet over the clean rock, and on each side of it large beds of gently waving maidenhair ferns. On reaching the top of the mountain mass one sees a large extent of deeply-undulating

country, gentle valleys, mountain ridges gradually rising and culminating in abrupt peaks, very deep gorges caused by some enormous force and the continual flowing of the larger streams. Nature seems to have especially exerted herself in the formation of this mountain mass. On all sides high conical peaks may be seen raising their heads from 1000 to 3000 feet high above the common level. Look a little away and you see gently-rising ridges with one or both sides forming fearful precipices from 1000 to 2000 feet deep. Along the depths of these gorges and precipices the rivers may be seen, like so many silvery lines, wending their way to the green valleys beyond.”¹ The scenery of the Volo, and especially of the Malema valley, is quite enchanting. “Here you may see a large plot of soft green grass as smooth as a lawn, there a bed of aloes in full flower; a little farther on a belt of tall trees covered with creeping plants and parasites, orchids and ferns in great variety. Underneath there is the clear sparkling brook, gaily rushing along to add its quota to the main stream. Nature here seems to have used all her power to make the place a lovely spot—a feast for human eyes” (*ib.*)

Rivers—Zambesi Delta—The Sabi, Pungwe, Rovuma

The whole of Portuguese East Africa belongs to the maritime slope of the continental plateau, draining either indirectly through a few tributaries of the Limpopo and Zambesi, or directly through the Sabi, Bosi, Pungwe, Lukugu, Ligonya, Mluli (Angosha), Lurio, Mtepwesi, Lujenda-Rovuma, and a few smaller coast streams to the Indian Ocean. None of these rivers have much com-

¹ *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* 1887, p. 471.

mercial value, being navigable either not at all or only to a very limited extent. Even the Zambesi is accessible only for sea-going vessels as far as the Shiré confluence through the Chinde branch of the delta. The other broad channels traced on the maps are either sluggish, shallow streams, obstructed by bars at their mouths and higher up by shifting banks, islands, and mangrove forests, or else are intermittent branches connected only during the floods with the main stream. To the former class belong the Inyamissengo, Melambe, Kongoni, and Musulo; to the latter, the Luasse and Qua-Qua, or "River of Quilimane," all converging near Mopea, at the head of the delta, about 40 miles from the coast, and enclosing a marshy triangular space, with a seaward base of nearly 60 miles, and a total area of perhaps 2000 square miles.

But at a former epoch, when the Zambesi was not only a great continental artery, but the emissary of a vast inland sea, the delta was much more extensive than at present. Even still its waters are intermingled during the floods not only with the Qua-Qua and Rio Mutu on the north side, but also southwards with the Pungwe through the Rio Zangue, and a continuous chain of marshes or lagoons, collectively known as Lake Tandora Sungue. After the inland waters had been drawn off the old delta gradually contracted in size, and most of it is now represented only by numerous backwaters, stagnant pools, false or erratic rivers scattered over the seaboard between the Pungwe and Lukugu estuaries. Meantime the main stream has itself been recently shifted several miles northwards, that is, nearer to the Qua-Qua; and should the tendency continue, the two branches will probably become merged in a single, deep, and navigable channel, accessible to large vessels far

beyond the Mopea poppy-fields at the head of the present delta.

South of the Zambesi, Gazaland is watered by three considerable streams, the Pungwe, Bosi, and Sabi, all of which have some of their farthest sources on the slopes of Mount Doé in Manicaland. But the Sabi, by far the largest river between the Limpopo and Zambesi, draws some of its supplies from Mount Hampden in Mashonaland, while its great tributary, the Lunda, flows with numerous branches from the eastern watershed of the Matoppo divide in the very heart of Matabililand. Yet this extensive fluvial system, with a catchment basin of many thousand square miles, is absolutely useless for navigation purposes. Many of the headstreams traversing the somewhat arid districts of South Matabililand run dry for a great part of the year, while the main stream loses much of its volume by evaporation and infiltration on the hot marshy plains of Gazaland.

Recently the Pungwe has been much spoken of as offering probably the best means of access from the coast to the South Africa Company's settlements in Mashonaland. But it is to be feared that the prospective advantages of this river, which has a total length of nearly 300 miles, have been somewhat overrated. It has been described as navigable by small steamers for a distance of 100 miles from Beira, at its mouth, to Mpanda (Mupanda's). But Mr. Neville H. Davies, late hydrographer to the Queensland Government, who visited it in 1890, speaks of 50 miles as the limit of its navigation for "vessels drawing between 5 and 6 feet of water."¹ He adds that the Pungwe flows through low, muddy, and malarious flats, which are flooded to a vast extent during the rainy season from February to April, the swampy

¹ Paper contributed to R. W. Murray's *South Africa*, p. 213.

land extending all the way to Mpanda. Hence he concludes that even the proposed railway by this route from the coast to Mashonaland would prove to be a tremendously costly undertaking. Nevertheless, a steamer service from the Cape to Mashonaland, *via* Beira, was organised in 1891, the Pungwe having been declared free by the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of that year.

North of the Zambesi the chief watercourse is the Rovuma, which rises on the east slope of the Livingstone Mountains, and which receives on its right bank the Lujenda, flowing from Lake Amaramba, north of Lake Shirwa (see p. 422). Although much the larger of the two forks, and about a mile wide at the confluence, the Lujenda is quite unnavigable, being obstructed by rapids along its whole course. It is thickly studded with beautifully wooded islands, some of which are three or four miles long, and covered with fine trees, whose branches are festooned with graceful creepers. Below the confluence, the Rovuma, which here forms the political frontier between the Portuguese and German spheres of influence, overflows its right bank into the temporary Lidedi and Nagandi lagoons during the rainy season. At this time the Rovuma, which forms no delta, and is obstructed by no bar at its mouth, is navigable at least to the confluence for riverain craft of considerable size. The Rovuma (Lovuma) is intimately associated with the early explorations of Livingstone, who surveyed its channel during the low-water season for a distance of 180 miles in a small boat.

Next in size to the Rovuma is the Lukugu, whose source west of Namuli, at the north foot of Mount Pilani, was discovered by Mr. Last in 1886. It flows through a well-watered and fertile, but sparsely inhabited country, nearly due south to the coast, a few miles north

of Quilimane. Although sending down a considerable volume, and swollen by a large affluent from the north-west, the Lukugu is unnavigable even by canoes. Its mouth is closed to coasting vessels by a formidable bar, while its middle and upper reaches are obstructed by a long series of rapids and waterfalls.

Equally useless is the Mtepwesi, which flows from near the Changwari hills north-eastwards to the coast at Ibo. None of the other Mozambique streams—Msalu, Lurio, Mkubure, Mikati, Mluli, Ligonya—have yet been surveyed for any distance from their mouths. But this is partly due to the fact that they are inaccessible to the smallest craft, while their course lies mainly through the fever-stricken coastlands.

Climate

There can be no doubt that most of the uplands, both in Gazaland and Mozambique, are salubrious, and suitable to form health resorts and permanent settlements for Europeans. During his residence in the Namuli hills, Mr. Last found the normal temperature ranging from 55° to 75° Fahr., with a maximum of 95° , and a minimum of 26° , when water froze at night towards the end of the austral spring. Here very strong frosts appear to prevail in the cold months; so that on the Namuli uplands, within 16 degrees of the equator, there seems to be a regular succession of four seasons, as marked as in the temperate regions of the northern hemisphere.

But, on the other hand, all the coastlands from Delagoa Bay to the mouth of the Rovuma, low-lying, marshy plains, in many places overgrown with mangrove, lie well within the zone of endemic African fever. Hence such places as Sofala, Quilimane, and Mozambique are notori-

ously unhealthy, while the whole of the Zambesi delta is a hot-bed of malarious exhalations. Delagoa Bay, with the district between the coast and the foot-hills, now traversed by the railway to the Transvaal frontier, is not much better, and here, as well as along the lower course of the Limpopo and Zambesi, the country is infested by the tsetse fly. On the Gazaland seaboard the mean summer temperature is 90° Fahr. in the shade, and 72° in winter, and this, combined with the miasma rising from the decaying vegetation on the low, muddy, and periodically flooded plains, supplies all the elements of a climate as murderous as any in the tropical world.

Owing to the disturbing influence of Madagascar, the normal south-east trade winds, which in Gazaland are sometimes followed by heavy downpours, are little felt in Mozambique. After sweeping round the south end of the great island, the atmospheric currents, prevailing from April to September, are deflected northwards in the direction of Zanzibar. During the rest of the year their course is reversed, and then the Mozambique marine current, under the influence of the northern winds, runs at an accelerated velocity of 3 or 4 miles an hour. Here the conditions are favourable for the coral builders, which have constructed a series of barrier reefs and islands from 12 to 20 miles from the coast, all the way from the Zambesi delta to Cape Delgado. In these waters cyclones are rare, none having occurred since the disastrous hurricanes which visited the Mozambique seaboard during the summer of 1841, and again the two following years.

Flora—Fauna—Natural Products

In Gazaland most of the moisture from the Indian Ocean is precipitated on the terraces and escarpments of

the plateau, which are consequently clothed with a fine forest vegetation. Here are found a great variety of forms, including the curious odoriferous *mopane*, a large tree with its leaves disposed vertically, like those of so many Australian plants; and the valuable *imbunga*, an india-rubber creeper whose fruit serves, like the "traveller's tree" of Madagascar, to quench the wayfarer's thirst. Owing to the deficient rainfall, the low-lying plains are covered with a scanty vegetation of herbage, alternating with scrub and thorny plants, and on the coast mostly replaced by arid sands.

Mozambique, where the rainfall is more uniformly distributed, almost everywhere abounds in tropical forms, and the Namuli uplands are especially remarkable for their rich and varied flora. The plantations, which suffer from the want of capital, yield a little coffee, tobacco, rice, and sugar, besides rhubarb, jalap, and other medicinal plants. Recently the cultivation of opium has been introduced, with some success, on the left bank of the Zambesi, near the head of the delta.

But the chief articles of export continue to be timber, drugs, oleaginous seeds, gold dust, ivory, cotton, coffee, rubber, gum copal, cereals, tobacco, rice, indigo, skins, honey, beeswax, and salt, all in small quantities. These items may at present be regarded rather as samples of what the country is capable of producing under a vigorous administration, than of its actual contributions to the commerce of the world.

Inhabitants of Gazaland: Tongas, Ba-Lempas, Banyans

Before the arrival of Manikosa with his Zulu (Swazi)¹

¹ These Zulus, constituting the military and politically dominant class in Gazaland, are called Landins or "Couriers" by the Portuguese, and

following, the dominant people in Gazaland were the Tongas, who appear to be the aborigines of this region. They are still found everywhere, and the term *Tonga* is commonly applied collectively to all the natives except those claiming Zulu descent. Judging from their language, appearance, and customs, the Tongas are more closely related to the Ba-Sutos, or eastern Bechuanas, than to any other branch of the Bantu race. For *Tonga*, a term of contempt applied by the Zulus to all inferior races, some writers have substituted *Gwamba*, which appears to be the national name of one of their leading tribes about the Transvaal frontier. Here are also several other groups belonging to the same connection, such as the Ba-Hlengwe (*Hlenga*), who are the "Knob-noses" of the Dutch and English settlers; the Chobi ("Bowmen") of the Lower Limpopo, with a branch in the Inhambane district; the Ma-Kwakwa, north-west of the same district; the Bila-Kulu, near the Sabi delta; and the Ba-Tevi and Ba-Rue, of East Manicaland.

Most of these tribes recognise the Zulu king, *Gungunyana*, as their suzerain lord, whereas the *Mutandi*, *Chacondas*, *Valenghi*, *Varendi*, *Atavaras*, and other fragmentary groups about the Zambesi, between *Zumbo* and *Tete*, have long been subjected to direct Portuguese influences, and are ruled either by *Capitães Mórs*, or by *Ba-Nyungwi*, that is, chiefs from the reduced *Nyungwi* people, between *Tete* and the Lower *Shiré*. They all understand the *Se-Shona* language, and appear to belong

Umgoni by the southern populations. *Umgoni* is the same word as *Angoni* (*Mangoni*), applied to the kindred Zulu people of South *Nyassaland*, who formed part of *Manikosa's* conquering hordes. But while the *Umgoni* of *Gazaland* have preserved their racial purity, the northern *Umgoni* have become intermingled with the surrounding aborigines, retaining of their Zulu nationality little more than the name, language, and traditions.

to the same stock as the Mashona nation, though now differing from them "in customs, appearance, and mode of living."¹ Within the Portuguese sphere of influence, as extended north of the Zambesi by the Agreement of 1891, are also the Ba-Dema, Ba-Senga, Achewas, Mano, and others, of whom little is known beyond their tribal names. The Ba-Senga (A-Senga), formerly a numerous people about the Lower Loangwa, have been almost exterminated by the Portuguese half-castes of Zumbo, under their chief Matakanya (Alfred Sharpe).

Amongst the Ba-Tevi of the East Manica mining district (Massi-Kessi) dwell some scattered communities of the so-called Ba-Lempas, who are mentioned by Mauch as practising circumcision, and resembling the Jews in appearance and usages. Many, like the Polish Jews, are noted for their red eyes and fiery eyebrows. It is certainly curious to find apparent traces of a Semitic element in this region, where the latest researches seem to show that the Zimbabwe and other ruins are most probably of Arabian origin.

Another foreign element are the Banyans, Hindoos of the trading caste, who have for generations almost monopolised the export traffic of the east coast from Sofala to Somaliland. They were first attracted to Africa by the Portuguese edict of 1686 granting to a Banyan company the exclusive right of trading between Diu and Mozambique. Although deprived of their monopoly and other privileges in 1777, the Banyans continued to prosper, and the field of their operations has been steadily enlarged during the past century. "The feeling of antagonism with which these traders are regarded arises chiefly from the fact that the profits made by them are neither invested in, nor serve any useful purpose to this country.

¹ Bishop Knight Bruce, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* June 1890, p. 350.

India is the land of their nativity, and out of it the law of their race does not permit them to permanently settle, or even to carry their women. Residence abroad is therefore to them but a temporary sojourn, and the wealth they gain is naturally remitted to the only country custom allows them to call their own." ¹

The Half-Breeds

A race of Portuguese mulattos has sprung up in this region under somewhat peculiar circumstances. Early in the eighteenth century the home government organised a scheme of colonisation on quite an original plan. A number of Lusitanian women were sent to Mozambique, where they received grants of land in their own right, on the sole condition of marrying Europeans. These Crown lands (*Prazos da Corva*) were settled for three generations on the female line, that is, from mother to daughter, to the exclusion of all male issue. But the scheme soon broke down, owing to the excessive mortality, and the return of the immigrants or their failure to comply with the terms of the concessions.

These terms had then to be modified, and free grants of land were made to the "daughters of Africans or Asiatics," in other words to any half-breeds of Portuguese descent on the mother's side. Several of the estates were also merged in one, and thus arose a number of powerful half-caste planters, who surrounded themselves with harems of female slaves, indulged in the worst vices of European and African culture, and found themselves at times strong enough to defy the government itself. The edicts of 1836 and 1854, abolishing this strange feudal system, remained a dead letter, owing to the lack

¹ Consul H. E. O'Neill, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* October 1882.

of military force to give them effect ; and matters had to be compromised by conciliating the potent mestizo lords of those vast domains, who enjoyed the status of semi-independent princelings. From their number have in recent times been selected many of the Capitães Mórs, whose black Negroid features, high-sounding Portuguese names, and truculent ways are so frequently referred to by travellers in the Portuguese East African possessions.

A typical official of this class was a certain Gouveia, who lately occupied the natural stronghold of Messara, in the mountainous Gorongoza district, and who appears to have been a prime mover in the troubles that arose between the Portuguese and the British South Africa Company's Agents in the Massi-Kessi district in 1891. This local potentate resided in the village of Inyangu, from him called "Villa Gouveia," where he kept a garrison of Landins (Zulus), who, like the native troops at Tete, were armed by the Portuguese Government, and and who, like them also, were a terror to the surrounding peaceful populations.

The Mozambique Tribes ; Wa-Yao, Makua

North of the Zambesi nearly all the aborigines belong either to the Makua or to the Yao branch of the eastern Bantu peoples. Many, doubtless, call themselves Maviti, *i.e.* Zulus, for this region has also been overrun by that warlike nation. But they are Zulus only in name and customs, which, after being reduced, they have adopted, proud to identify themselves with the fierce warriors who, in recent times, have spread the terror of their arms throughout East Central Africa, from Natal to Victoria Nyanza. Such are the Ma-Nindi and the kindred Ma-Gwangwara, both fierce predatory tribes,

whose original homes are on the eastern slopes of the Livingstone Mountains, and about the head-waters of the Rovuma and Rufiji rivers. The Ma-Nindi have converted most of the Lower Rovuma valley into a howling wilderness, sweeping the timid Ma-Tambwe and Ma-Nyanja natives into slavery, or driving them to seek refuge in the islands and the more inaccessible wooded recesses about the Lujenda confluence. "All the country along the Rovuma, from near Newala to Ngomano, was formerly well populated, as the sites of the old villages show; but now there is not a house to be seen, the district having been overrun by the Makwangara (Ma-Gwangara) and other marauding tribes, and is now become the home of a great variety of game."¹

The Wa-Yao, or Wa-Hiyao, the Ajawa of Livingstone, occupy the region between the Upper Rovuma and the Lujenda, whence, during the present century, they have advanced south-westwards into the Shiré highlands. Formerly they were a very aggressive people, much addicted to slave-hunting, and in this respect acting as a sort of middlemen between the inland populations and the Arab dealers on the seaboard. Here many acquired a certain degree of culture from long contact with the Mussulman peoples, and some have even put on a veneer of Mohammedanism. But the great bulk of the nation still adhere to the old pagan practices, and at the funeral of chiefs a few women and slaves are said to be still secretly sacrificed, or buried alive. Mr. Last states that even cannibalism is still to some extent indulged in by the great chiefs. "I have been frequently told by Yao men, who are well acquainted with the habits of the chiefs, that feasts of human flesh are frequently made in secret by the chiefs, and partaken of by them. Mtarika

¹ Last, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* 1887, p. 468.

has been known to make feasts of this kind, and then to invite Mohammedaus and other strangers to partake of it, telling them that it is goat's flesh, of which the coast people are very fond" (*ib.*) Nevertheless the Wa-Yao are undoubtedly the most intelligent, industrious, and enterprising people in Mozambique. They acquire the political predominance wherever they penetrate, as amongst the A-Nyanjas of the Upper Shiré basin. Here they have been studied by Mr. John Buchanan, who compares them favourably with the Manganja (A-Nyanja) aborigines. "In comparing the Wa-Yao with the Manganja, I have always maintained that the people of the former tribe are superior. The Wa-Yao seem to me to be a more manly and independent set of blacks than the Manganja. Amongst the Manganja there are a number of fine, intelligent old men, quiet and civil, whom one admires when they assemble to arrange a *milandu* (council); but many have a hang-dog look about them which you do not meet with so frequently amongst the Wa-Yao. The Wa-Yao are absolutely free when not slaves, and will not stand being curbed to the same extent as the Manganja. At the same time it must be admitted that the Wa-Yao have been a slaving tribe, and are so still whenever an opportunity affords itself." ¹ Chuma, Livingstone's faithful attendant, was an Ajawa.

With perhaps the doubtful exception of the Ma-Viha (Ma-Hiba) coast tribe and the Lombwe ² (Lomwe) of the Upper Lurio valley, all the rest of the Mozambique populations may be grouped as Makuas (Ma-Kua, Ma-

¹ *The Shiré Highlands*, 1885, p. 103.

² Consul O'Neill regards the Lombwe as undoubtedly Makuas, though they themselves repudiate the connection. Anyhow the language seems distinct.

Kwa). Already mentioned by the early Portuguese writers, the Makuas may almost be regarded as an historical people. But their history chiefly resolves itself into a series of bickerings with the Portuguese authorities on the seaboard, and with endless inter-tribal feuds, by which the whole nation has been disintegrated. Hence a great diversity of usages, and while some have acquired a moderate degree of culture, others are still plunged in the depths of savagery, practising barbarous rites, wearing the hideous *ndomya* or *pelele* (lip-ornament),¹ common also to some of the Shiré peoples, and even addicted to cannibalism. Thus the Ma-Wa (Maua), who occupy the southern slopes of the Namuli hills, about the headstreams of the Lukugu, are pronounced anthropophagists, eating their slaves, those killed in war, and even their own dead. "A common practice was that when it had been privately determined to kill a certain person, a public beer-drinking would be convened, and the intended victim invited to the festival. As soon as he was fairly intoxicated, the men told off for the purpose would seize and carry him off to the bush and spear him, then a feast would be got up, of which all would partake" (Last, *ib.*)

None of the Makua people have founded any powerful states, though Mveli and Mtarika, between the Namuli hills and the coast, are spoken of as "great chiefs." The Portuguese profess to have lately made treaties with these, thus acquiring a right over all their

¹ "At Mkwai's I saw a woman with an enormous *ndomya*, or lip-ring, quite $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter. This is the common ornament of the women in all these districts. In addition to this some of them wear a brass or iron nail from 4 to 7 inches in length. It is passed through a hole in the lower lip, and left hanging in front of the chin. When the lady cannot afford a metal ornament of this kind she utilises a piece of stick, which she covers with beads" (Last, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* 1887, p. 44).

lands. But Mwelî assured Mr. Last that he had never made any treaty with them, while Mtarika had refused to place himself under the protection of the Portuguese Government. In any case, it is beyond doubt that none of the inland populations have ever been reduced, and even the coast tribes have even in quite recent times often defied the authority of the Portuguese officials.

Subjoined is a table of the

CHIEF TRIBES AND NATIONS IN PORTUGUESE SOUTH AFRICA.

ZULUS	}	the dominant military class in Gazaland, chiefly in the hilly districts about the head-waters of the Bosî, here called <i>Umgoni</i> and <i>Landins</i> ; are mostly of Swazi descent.	
TONGA (GWAMBA)	}	<i>Chobi</i> , left bank Lower Limpopo.	
		<i>Mindong</i> (northern Chobi), Inhambane district.	
		<i>Ma-Kwakwa</i> , the plains north-west of Inhambane.	
		<i>Ma-Gwanza</i> , left bank Middle Limpopo and affluents.	
		<i>Ma-Longwa</i> (Ma-Rongwi), north of the Ma-Gwanza.	
		<i>Ba-Hlengwe</i> ("Knob-nose"), inland plains between Limpopo and Sabi basins.	
		<i>Bila-Kulu</i> , towards the Sabi delta.	
		<i>Mandanda</i>	
		<i>Mandowa</i>	} inland plains south and south-east of the Zulus.
		<i>Aba-Tevi</i>	
<i>Ba-Rue</i>	} East Manicaland.		
<i>Ba-Lempa</i>			
		<i>Ba-Toka</i> , north of the Ba-Rue.	
MUTANDI	}	broken or scattered tribes, between right bank Zambesi and the northern escarpments of Mashonaland.	
BA-NYAI			
CHACONDA			
VALENGHI			
VARENDI			
ATAVARA			
		<i>BA-NYUNGWI</i> , between Tete and the Lower Shiré.	
BA-DEMA	}	left bank Zambesi, between Zumbo and Tete, and thence northwards in the direction of the Loangwa river.	
BA-SENGA			
MANO			
ACHEWA			
MA-GWANGWARA	}	so-called "Maviti," about head-waters of the Rovuma and Rufiji rivers.	
MA-NINDI			

- MA-TAMBWI } the islands and right bank of the Rovuma, and about the
 MA-NYANJA } Lujenda confluence.
- WA-YAO (AJAWA), the region between the Lujenda and Upper Rovuma.
- MAKUA { *Ma-Wa (Maua)*, southern slopes Namuli Hills.
Alolo, Mount Cheza district.
Ma-Hivani, between the forks of the Lukugu river.
Medo, Upper Lorio valley.
Atakweni, between the Lower Zambesi and the Lukugu.
Bororo, north of the Zambesi delta.
Lombwe (?), Upper and Middle Lorio basin.
- MA-VIHA (MA-HIBA), coastlands, south from the Rovuma river.
- BANYANS, Hindu traders in the seaports.

Towns and Stations: Lourenço Marques, Delagoa Bay

Lourenço Marques, on the north-west side of Delagoa Bay, has the distinction of being the only Portuguese settlement on the east side of the continent. All the other towns and seaports occupied by them between that point and Cape Guardafui are historical places, most of which were already flourishing marts long before the Portuguese "burst into the Indian Ocean like a pack of hungry wolves upon a well-stocked sheep-walk" (Sir George Birdwood). Lourenço Marques, founded by a trader of that name in 1545, was too far removed from the centre of authority ever to become a thriving settlement, even if it could have overcome the drawbacks of a pestilential climate and the neighbourhood of the fierce Zulu tribes. It was a mere factory, engaged almost exclusively in the slave-trade, and after the emancipation it sank even to a lower depth of obscurity, being for a time almost cut off from communication with the outer world. Recently, however, Lourenço Marques has acquired considerable commercial and political importance as the terminus of the railway to Transvaal, and the natural outlet of the Boer Republic. The harbour, where three

streams enter the bay through a common estuary, gives access to ships drawing 15 or 16 feet; while the bay itself, 12 miles wide, and over 50 feet deep at the entrance, affords well-sheltered anchorage for the largest vessels, in depths of from 40 to 120 feet. The railway, 57 miles long, enters Transvaal territory at Komati Poort, where a junction is made with the South African system.

Inhambane—Sofala

On the monotonous low-lying Gaza coast follow the ports of *Inhambane*, just above Cape Correntes; *Sofala*, in the swampy district between the Sabi and Pungwe estuaries; and *Beira*, at the mouth of the Pungwe. *Inhambane*,¹ on a spacious inlet over 12 feet deep, has a mixed population of about 3000 natives, Arabs, Banyan and Parsee traders, with a few Portuguese officials. Here the Mohammedans have a mosque, being the southernmost centre of Moslem propaganda on the east coast. Mrs. Pringle, who visited the place in 1884, describes it as the most beautiful town she had seen in Africa. "As we approached our anchorage, the broad river became blocked with wooded islands. Everywhere we looked there were forest (cocoa-nut groves) and low-spreading bushes. The town, nestling under wooded hills, is situated at the head of a deep bay about 14 miles from the mouth of the river. . . . Then the sunset, though short, was exquisite. The whole sky was full of fleecy clouds, a mass of red and yellow, while the bay looked as brilliant as a rainbow under the evening sun,

¹ *Inha*, occurring in the names of so many places in Portuguese East Africa, answers to the Spanish *h*, transliterated in English by *ng*; hence *Inhambane* = *Ngambane*.

which slanted across its waves, lighting them up with the constantly-varying tints of green and gold.”¹

Sofala, formerly capital of a flourishing native state and centre of the Portuguese administration till the beginning of the seventeenth century, appears to have been from remote times one of the great trading places of the Indian Ocean. Here the Arabs had a permanent settlement; and long before their advent, Sofala, possibly the Ophir of the Phœnicians, was the outlet for the produce of the surrounding regions,—“amber,” that is, gum copal, ivory, and especially gold from the historical mines of Manica, and the other auriferous districts of the interior. Barbosa calls it “a town of the Moors” (Arabs), who “established themselves there a long time ago on account of the great trade in gold which they carry on with the Gentiles of the mainland. And the mode of their trade is, that they come by sea in small barks, which they call *zanbucs* (*sambuk*), from the kingdoms of Quiloa and Mombaza and Melindi; and they bring much cotton cloth of many colours, and white and blue, and some silk, and grey and red and yellow beads, which come to the said kingdoms in other larger ships from the great kingdom of Cambay. . . . And the said Moors sell these cloths to the Gentiles of the kingdom of (the) Benamatapa, who come there laden with gold, which gold they give in exchange for the before-mentioned cloths without weighing, and so much in quantity that these Moors usually gain one hundred for one.”²

But Sofala now belongs to the past almost as much as Tyre itself. The harbour, never very commodious, has silted up, and has already been to a large extent replaced by the far more convenient port of Beira, which lies a little farther north, and which gives more easy and more

¹ *Op. cit.* p. 68.

² Stanley's *Barbosa*.

direct access to the gold districts of Manica and Mashonaland.

Quilimane—Mozambique—Angosha

A similar fate threatens *Quilimane*, at the mouth of the Qua-Qua branch of the Zambesi delta, which is greatly inferior as a waterway to the neighbouring Chinde branch. *Quilimane*¹ suffers both from its malarious climate, and from the bar at the mouth of the estuary, which has scarcely more than 12 feet of water, though the inner port affords excellent anchorage all the way to the town, some 12 miles up the river. Till recently it also languished from the vexatious harbour regulations and customs, which have now been modified in accordance with the terms of the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of 1890, throwing open the Zambesi to the free trade of the world.

Much of the ivory, formerly conveyed to *Mozambique* by the slave caravans, is now brought down by steamer, and shipped at *Quilimane*. All the trade lately developed by the African Lakes Company between Nyassaland and the coast also necessarily follows the Zambesi-Shiré route. Hence *Quilimane*, or some more convenient future seaport in the delta, seems destined to completely eclipse the ancient emporium of *Mozambique*, which has been the administrative centre of the Portuguese East African possessions since the beginning of the seventeenth century. *Mozambique* stands, not on the mainland, but on an adjacent coralline islet 2 miles long, which forms a natural breakwater to the spacious harbour of Mossoril Bay, where large vessels find good anchorage and shelter from the south-east monsoons in depths of from 25 to 50 feet. This bay is enclosed on the north side by the

¹ Pronounced, and often written, *Kilimane*.

Cabeceira headland, which in its turn serves to protect the equally commodious harbour of Conducia Bay. A little lower down is developed a third haven, the port of Mokambo, an almost landlocked circular basin over 30 feet deep, forming with the others a group of magnificent harbours with little trade or shipping, and no communications with the interior except the grass-grown tracks of the former slave-routes. Thus, here, as elsewhere, the flag of Portugal waves over scenes of decay and desolation; for before the arrival of Vasco de Gama in 1498, the famous island of Mozambique was the centre of commercial relations which radiated in all directions, south to Sofala, north to Zanzibar and the Red Sea, east to Cambay and Malabar.

At the mouth of the Mluli river, a few miles lower down, stands the scarcely less renowned port of *Angoxa* (*Angosha*), now a mere fishing village with a little local traffic, but formerly a royal residence, where the Moorish traders dealt in "gold, ivory, silk, and cotton stuffs and beads of Cambay, the same as do those of Sofala. And the Moors bring these goods from Quiloa and Mombaza and Melynde in small vessels, hidden from the Portuguese ships; and they carry from there a great quantity of ivory and much gold. And in this town of Angos there are plenty of provisions of millet, rice, and some kinds of meat." ¹

Fernão Vellozo—Ibo

Still nearer to Mozambique, but on the north side, are the almost deserted bays of Momba and Masasima (Fernão Vellozo), the latter penetrating like a Norwegian fjord six miles inland, and then branching off north and south to form the secondary inlets of Belmore and Nkala, both

¹ Barbosa, *op. cit.*

protected from every quarter, and spacious enough to accommodate whole navies. Thus Masasima, that is, in the Makua language, "Complete Shelter," forms a group of splendid landlocked basins, ranking with Milford Haven, the Cove of Cork, Rio de Janeiro, and Port Jackson, amongst the supremely excellent harbours of the world. The surrounding district also is both healthy and fertile, but it has been so entirely neglected by the Portuguese that a neighbouring Makua chief was allowed in 1870 to waste the whole country, which is now entirely uninhabited.

Farther north follow the little port of *Ibo*, at the mouth of the Mtepwesi river, and Tunghi Bay, at Cape Delgado, wrested by a Portuguese gunboat from the Sultan of Zanzibar in 1886, but never settled. The fine inlet of Mwambi (Pemba) Bay, south of Ibo, was the scene of another abortive attempt at colonisation in 1857. A number of Portuguese emigrants were induced to settle in the district by the offer of free lands, live-stock, provisions, and even firearms, to defend themselves against the neighbouring predatory tribes. But they were, at the same time, subjected to such a rigorous system of "paternal government," that they lost all personal initiative, and the colony, after languishing a little while, rapidly died out.

Zumbo—Tete—Sena

In the Zambesi valley, almost the only centres of Portuguese authority are Sena, Tete, and Zumbo, the last mentioned occupied intermittently since the middle of the eighteenth century, the two former more permanently held since the early period of colonisation. *Zumbo*, about 500 miles from the coast, was never anything more than a trading station, visited now and then during the local fairs

by the so-called "Canarese" dealers, that is, pedlars from the province of Canara, on the west coast of India. Full-blood Portuguese officials are seldom seen in the place, which, since its reoccupation in 1881, continues to be administered by a half-caste Capitão Mór, a kinsman of the local chief, and at about the same level of culture.

Tete, on the right bank between the Kebrabasa and Lupata rapids, commands the easiest route between the British territories of Mashona and Nyassa Lands, which in fact are here practically separated by the strip of Portuguese territory extending along both banks of the Zambesi. The district, being hilly, is comparatively healthy, and enjoys the great advantage of being free from the tsetse scourge. It is the centre of a vast mineral region, occupying both sides of the main stream, and including extensive coalfields, as well as gold and iron ores. Yet *Tete*, formerly a flourishing place, trading in gold, ivory, cereals, indigo, and slaves, is now a picture of desolation, where little is to be seen beyond a cluster of wretched native hovels grouped round a crumbling Portuguese fort.

A similar picture is presented by *Sena*, "*São-Marçal*, the Moribund," as the Portuguese themselves call it. It stands also on the right bank, opposite the navigable Ziwe-Ziwe branch of the Shiré delta; but, despite its relative proximity to the coast, it has frequently been entirely cut off from communication with the outer world, paying tribute to the neighbouring Zulu tribes, and even "barri-cading itself at night against the lions." The climate also is deteriorating, owing to the stagnant waters left by the Zambesi, which at this point is slowly shifting its channel northwards, and threatening to leave *Sena* a prey to marsh-fever and the beasts of the jungle.

CHAPTER X

GERMAN EAST AFRICA

Historic Retrospect—Boundaries ; Extent ; Prospects—Geographical Exploration—Physical Features—Kilimanjaro—Rivers and Lakes ; Sources of the Nile—Lakes Manyara, Eiassi, Victoria Nyanza, and Rukwa—Climate—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—Wa-Zambara ; Wa-Zeguha—Wa-Sagara ; Wa-Hehe ; Ma-Kondé ; Wa-Swahili ; Wa-Taveita ; Wa-Gweno ; Karagwe ; Wa-Huma Migrations—Table of the Chief Tribes and Nations in German East Africa—Towns ; Stations—Kiloa ; Dares-Salaam ; Bagamoyo ; Mpwapwa ; Taborah ; Ujiji.

Historic Retrospect

WHILE the history of Portuguese rule on the eastern seaboard extends over centuries, that of the Germans in the same region is covered by only a decade. Their sudden intrusion dates only from the autumn of the year 1884, when three Ma-Duchi ("German") political agents,¹ in the undignified disguise of needy travellers, passed over from the island of Zanzibar to the mainland at Saadani, and at once proceeded to make treaties of annexation with the local chiefs. Some of these treaties

¹ They were called "excursionists," and their names were Dr. Peters, afterwards distinguished as an explorer, Dr. Jühlke, and Count Pfeil. Their unconventional action was supported by the famous *Schutzbrief* ("Letter of Protection") of 27th February 1885, a new device of international diplomacy.

were absolute fictions, while all the chiefs had hitherto been recognised as vassals or subjects of the Sultan of Zanzibar. The Sultan himself was virtually a protégé of Great Britain, though no formal protectorate had ever been declared, and his name and authority were acknowledged by all the Mohammedan and many of the native communities between the coast and Lake Tanganyika. Nevertheless, the treaties were at once endorsed by the Imperial Government as "accomplished facts," and forced on the acceptance of the Sultan by the appearance of a German fleet in the Zanzibar waters. Events now followed rapidly, and by the two Anglo-German Conventions of 1886 and 1890, the Sultan was successively relieved of all his possessions on the mainland as well as of all the contiguous islands except Zanzibar and Pemba. Lastly, the Sultanate itself, thus reduced to two islets with a joint area of scarcely 1000 miles, was, in the same year, 1890, declared a British protectorate.

Thus was extinguished the last semblance of political independence enjoyed by the later representatives of the ancient Zang empire, whose rulers claimed the proud title of "Sovereigns of the Sea," and whose dominions, before the advent of the Portuguese, embraced the whole seaboard from Cape Guardafui to Sofala. The Persian term *Zang*¹ had reference to the dark colour of the dominant race, who are spoken of by the early Arab writers as Mohammedan Negroes, and who are still represented by the Wa-Swahili, that is, "coast people,"²

¹ *Zang*, softened in Arabic to *Zenj*, explains the double forms: *Zangue-bar*, formerly applied to the coastlands, and *Zanzibar*, an Indian corruption of the same word, now restricted to the neighbouring island. In Arabic, *bar* means "land" as opposed to water; hence *Zangue-bar*, the "land of the Zang people," answers to *Hindu-bar*, the "land of the Hindu" (India) on the opposite side of the Arabian Sea.

² From ساحل *Sāhil* = coast.

the mixed Arabo-Bantu Mohammedans of Zanzibar and the adjacent mainland. By the Portuguese writers they were grouped with the Arabs under the general designation of "Moors,"¹ and were carefully distinguished from the "Caffres," who were always pagans. In Edrisi's map (1154) a large section of the seaboard, including Melinde and Manisa (Mombasa ?), is already comprised in the Zenj State, whose sultan at the arrival of the Portuguese had his residence as far south as Quiloa. At that time this famous capital, with its "300 mosques" (Ibn Batuta), was a flourishing emporium, "built of handsome houses of stone and lime, and very lofty, with their windows like those of the Christians; in the same way it has streets, and these houses have got terraces, and the wood worked in with the masonry, with plenty of gardens, in which there are many fruit trees and much water" (Barbosa). But then came Francisco d'Almeida, who captured the place after a ruinous siege (1505), and then "the King of Portugal ordered a fortress to be built, and thus he holds under his command and government those who continued to dwell there" (*ib.*) But these were not many, and Quiloa, abandoned by commerce, which withered under the blighting rule of Portugal, soon decayed. The same fate rapidly overtook Mombasa, Melinde, Brava, Magdosho, and most of the other seaports as far north as Cape Guardafui, where the Portuguese stationed a fleet to lie in wait for the Arab vessels plying between India and the Red Sea, "and take them with all their riches" (*ib.*)

Thus was destroyed the powerful Zenj empire, of which nothing now survives except the name, banished

¹ This fact is well brought out by the language of Barbosa, who describes the Moors as "of a dusky colour, and some of them are black (Zenj) and some white" (Arabs).

from the mainland to the neighbouring island of Zanzibar. But on its ruins rose another Mohammedan state, that of the so-called "imâms" (properly "sayyids") of Mascat, who ruled over a great part of South Arabia, and early in the eighteenth century drove the Portuguese from all their stations on the African seaboard as far south as Cape Delgado. This maritime state, however, was too unwieldy to hold together, and at the death of the Sayyid Saïd, in 1856, a dispute about the succession was settled by the friendly interference of the Indian Government, which awarded the Asiatic section to his son, Thowayni, and the African to Thowayni's brother, Sayyid Majid. Majid, who had selected the city of Zanzibar for his capital, and thus became commonly known as the "Sultan of Zanzibar," was succeeded at his death in 1870 by his younger brother, Bargash ibn Saïd. Under these rulers, both of whom were guided by the wise counsel of the British political agent, Sir John Kirk, Zanzibar rose to a considerable degree of commercial and social prosperity; the island became the centre of far-reaching humanising influences, the headquarters of the Universities and other Protestant missions, and the starting-point of nearly all the famous geographical expeditions which have filled up so many of the blank spaces on the map of equatorial Africa. Nevertheless, Bargash, who had visited England in 1882, lived to see the dismemberment of his dominions by a process of acquiring colonies, which for cynical disregard of international rights has not been surpassed in modern times. His brother, Khalifa, who had ascended the throne in 1888, survived only till February 1890, when he was succeeded by Sayyid Ali, also a son of Saïd, on whose death in March 1893 the present ruler, his nephew Hamed ibn Thwain, was appointed by

the British Government as the most suitable of several claimants.

Boundaries—Extent—Prospects

As definitely settled by the two above-mentioned Conventions and the Agreement of December 1886 with Portugal, the portion of East Central Africa assigned to Germany forms a compact territory with a base line on the Indian Ocean, extending from Cape Delgado nearly due north for about 480 miles to the mouth of the Umba. From this coast-line it extends inland along the course of the Rovuma to Lake Nyassa, and thence along the north-east side of the Stevenson Road to Lake Tanganyika, which with a conventional line running from its northern extremity northwards to 1° S. lat. forms the western frontier towards the Congo State. The northern frontier is extremely irregular and also purely conventional. It runs from the Umba estuary north-westwards to Lake Victoria Nyanza, making a loop round the north side of Kilimanjaro, so as to enclose that mountain. Then the line crosses Victoria Nyanza at 1° S. lat., and continues along the same parallel westwards to 30° E. long., but making another loop to the south so as to exclude Mount Mfumbiro. German East Africa is thus conterminous north with British East Africa, west with the Congo State, south with British Zambesia and Portuguese East Africa, comprising altogether an area of 400,000 square miles and a population vaguely estimated (1894) at 2,900,000.

But only a small part of this vast domain is actually administered under an Imperial Commissioner by the German East Africa Company, which was chartered in 1885, and which received a concession of the Usagara uplands, in all respects the finest district in

the whole region. The country had hitherto been exploited almost exclusively by Arab dealers in slaves and ivory, and the attempt of the German Company to interfere with their privileges brought about a serious outbreak of hostilities in 1889. This caused the ruin or abandonment of nearly all the fifteen stations that had already been founded. But the rising was ultimately quelled by imperial aid in 1890, though a military element was thus introduced which has led to further troubles, such as the disastrous collision in September 1891 with the Wa-Hehe people south of the Rua-Ha river, involving the total destruction of a large expeditionary force under the command of Captain von Zalewski.

Meantime the Company has received substantial support in divers ways from the Government, including heavy subsidies for railways, steamers, and public works. Nothing but good can accrue to the native populations by this policy, which, however, could scarcely be indefinitely continued unless some return were made besides empty prestige for the continual drain on the imperial treasury. Hence it is satisfactory to note that, despite the political troubles and the efforts to suppress the slave traffic, there has been a steady increase in the general trade of the country, the imports and exports having risen from about £350,000 in 1889 to £665,000 in 1894. At present the most important exports are ivory, cocoa-nuts, copra, gum copal, rubber, and sesame seed. But much other local produce, such as timber, cereals, drugs, tobacco, cotton, sugar, coffee, vanilla, will doubtless be raised for the foreign market, according as orderly government is established, the communications with the interior developed, and more capital attracted to the plantations on the rich alluvial coastlands, and on

the still richer southern slopes of Kilimanjaro. But the hope at one time entertained that this region can ever become a home for German settlers, or even a great storehouse of colonial produce, such as Java, Cuba, and parts of British India, must be abandoned. It lies close under the equator, a position not counteracted by any great extent of highlands or of lofty plateaux. Hence, "for the present at all events, the white man must be content to settle there temporarily to teach the natives the dignity of labour, and to lead them on to a higher plane of civilisation."¹

The extent of ground capable of profitable tillage is also relatively very limited. According to Dr. Hans Meyer, an excellent authority on this point and quite above the suspicion of prejudice, the German East African Protectorate consists of eighty per cent "of barren, almost uninhabited steppe, savannah, and bush."² Dr. Wissmann is also quoted as declaring that "one-fifth of German East Africa is good land, the rest is a barren waste," where "good land" includes both pasturage and arable soil. Altogether there are probably not more than 30,000 square miles available for plantations and other branches of husbandry, most of which lies in a decidedly insalubrious climate. These are the data on which must be based all calculations as to the future prospects of the protectorate.

Geographical Exploration

The exploration of this region was originally undertaken not so much for its own sake as for what lay beyond it. Curiosity had long been excited by the

¹ E. G. Ravenstein, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* January 1891, p. 31.

² *Across East African Glaciers*, 1891, p. 327.

native reports of great lakes in the interior, reports which seemed to confirm the vague traditions handed down from remote antiquity. It was to verify these reports that Speke and Burton started from Zanzibar on their eventful expedition of 1857-58, the first fruit of which was the discovery of Tanganyika. On the return journey Speke took advantage of a delay, caused by the state of Burton's health, to make an excursion to the north-east, where he had heard of a still larger basin, and where he reached the south side of Kerewe,¹ renamed by him Victoria Nyanza, on 30th July 1858. In September 1860, Speke, now accompanied by Grant, again set out from Zanzibar, and passing as before through Bagamoyo westwards to Taborah, here struck north to the Victoria Nyanza. After surveying the west side of Victoria, and visiting the native states of Karagwe and Buganda, the explorers continued their northern journey down the Nile valley to the Mediterranean. Meanwhile Nyassa had been discovered by Livingstone, and thus the vast inland sea, still figuring under the name of Lake U-Nyamezi on Erhardt and Rebmann's map of 1856, was at last dissolved into its constituent elements—Tanganyika, Nyassa, and Victoria.

Somewhat different routes across the Kingani and through Taborah westwards to Ujiji on Tanganyika, and northwards to Victoria, were followed by Stanley on his quest for Livingstone in 1871, and on his great expedi-

¹ Kerewe (U-Kerewe) was properly the name of the large island at the south-east corner of Victoria, though the term was generally applied by the natives of that district to the lake itself. There was no generally accepted native name beyond the term *Nyanza*, applied to any large body of water, whether lake or river; hence Speke was fully justified in retaining this word, and giving it a more definite sense by the addition of the epithet Victoria. The same principle was followed by Baker and Stanley in designating the other members of the equatorial group: Albert, Albert Edward, and Alexandra Nyanza.

tion of 1874-77, round Victoria, and down the Congo to the Atlantic. Hence these otherwise memorable journeys already added considerably to our actual knowledge of the region between the Indian Ocean and the great lakes. The northern districts also, comprising the Kilimanjaro and Kenia highlands, had already been traversed so early as 1848-49 by the missionaries Krapf and Rebmann. Kilimanjaro had doubtless been heard of by the Portuguese during their occupation of Mombasa (1507-1700), and is already referred to by the Spanish pilot and geographer Enciso in 1519 as the "Ethiopian Mount Olympus," correctly placed by him "west of Mombasa," and described as "very high, and farther off are the Mountains of the Moon (Ruwenzori?), in which are the sources of the Nile."¹ The two German pioneers were followed in 1861 by R. Thornton and Baron von der Decken, and they by the Rev. Charles New in 1871, the survey of this African giant being completed by Mr. Joseph Thomson (1883), H. H. Johnston (1884), and Dr. Hans Meyer (1889).

Meanwhile the caravan routes running from Bagamoyo through Usagara, Ugogo, and Unyamwezi to Tanganyika had become beaten tracks, from which Livingstone, Cameron, Thomson, Price, Kaiser, Mackay, Wilson, Cambier, Reichardt, and Trivier had diverged right and left, and their itineraries have become gradually connected with those of Elton, Cotterill, and others advancing from Lake Nyassa northwards to the Rufiji valley, and north-westwards to Lakes Rikwa and Tanganyika. Lastly, the various military and commercial expeditions undertaken by Wissmann, Emin Pasha, Baumann, and other German officials have now completed the survey,

¹ *Suma de Geographia*, Seville, 1519, fol. 57, quoted by G. E. Ravenstein and H. H. Johnston in *The Kilimanjaro Expedition*, 1886, p. 7.

at least in all its essential features, of the rugged tableland, stretching over 500 miles north and south between Nyanza and Nyassa, and 600 miles west and east between Tanganyika and the Indian Ocean.

Physical Features

Captain Burton, who had a keen eye for the prominent characteristics of the lands explored by him, distinguishes five physical zones in the region traversed by the route from Bagamoyo to Ujiji. First come the low-lying coastlands, reaching from the sea to the Usagara Mountains, which bear somewhat the same relation to the eastern seaboard that the Ghâts do to the west coast of India. The second zone comprises the Usagara Mountains themselves, which are not merely the escarpments of the continental plateau, but veritable highlands which, even on the landward side, rise to considerable elevations above the normal level of the surrounding tablelands, and which have an absolute altitude of about 6500 feet. They form an irregular orographic system of granites, diorites, schists, and sandstones, disposed mainly in two parallel chains, running south-west and north-east, but nowhere very clearly defined, owing to the numerous transverse ridges branching off in all directions. The Usagara Mountains are evidently a mere fragment of a mighty range which, before its reduction by weathering and denudation, was probably connected south-westwards with the Livingstone system, and northwards through the Paré foothills with Kilimanjaro.

Beyond Usagara follows the third zone, the Ugogo plateau, a dry and barren region, extending some 150 miles inland, at a mean elevation of from 3500 to 4000 feet, and forming the divide between the streams flowing

north to Nyanza, west to Tanganyika, and east to the Indian Ocean. Westwards Ugogo becomes continually more arid, merging at last in the dreaded Mgunda Mkhali ("Land of Fire"), a dreary waterless plain, partly covered with scrub, partly with shingle washed down by long dried-up torrents, and here and there broken by isolated masses of syenite or granite, piled up in chaotic disorder, or affecting the fantastic outlines of towers, gateways, or frowning citadels. Nevertheless the terrors of the Mgunda Mkhali would appear to have been somewhat exaggerated by the early explorers. Mrs. Hore speaks of it as "really one of the most beautiful parts of the route, abounding in game, and affording ample water for travellers about nine months of the year. It must have acquired its name rather from the effects of long marches and heavy loads, to which porters are necessarily subject in crossing it, than from any unusual natural condition."¹

After crossing this inhospitable tract the traveller enters the fourth zone, the hilly tableland of Unyamwezi, a land of comparative plenty, fertile and well watered by the numerous headstreams of the Malagarazi, easternmost affluent of the Tanganyika-Congo basin. In Unyamwezi the most fertile and populous district is Unyanyembé, where is situated the flourishing Arab and missionary station of Taborah (Kazeh). Unyanyembé, the "Land of Hoes," i.e. the "Tilled Land," is intersected in the south by numerous rocky ridges, but in the north is more level, and is here thickly dotted over with villages, surrounded by impenetrable hedges of the milk-bush. Before the troubles caused by the revolt of the native chief, Mirambo, the Arabs of Taborah lived in comparative luxury, occupying spacious, well-built houses,

¹ *To Lake Tanganyika in a Bath Chair*, 1886, p. 127.

with gardens and fields, where they raised wheat, onions, cucumbers, and fruits. From the coast they drew their supplies of tea, coffee, sugar, and other comforts, and the station was guarded by a thousand Baluchis, in the pay of the Sultan of Zanzibar. But although reinforced by other troops from the coast, they were unable to prevent the country from being ravaged by Mirambo, who was originally the headman of a small district in Unyamwezi, traversed by the trade route to Tanganyika. Having in vain appealed to the Taborah Arabs against a trader who had defrauded him of some ivory, Mirambo closed the caravan route, fell on the Arab settlements, compelled the natives to join his bands, and for many years maintained a desultory and determined warfare in Unyamwezi. Hence Stanley, Cameron, Livingstone, and other travellers passing to and fro between the coast and Tanganyika during the seventies were always compelled to make a long detour to the south in order to avoid the disturbed district. After Mirambo's death in 1887, the ephemeral state founded by him dissolved into its primitive heterogeneous elements.

Unyamwezi, the "Land of the Moon,"¹ absurdly identified by some historical geographers with Ptolemy's "Mountains of the Moon," extends for about 140 miles westwards to the alluvial plains of the Lower Malagarazi, which form the fifth zone, corresponding on the shores of Tanganyika to the first zone on the shores of the Indian Ocean.

The coast zone rises somewhat abruptly north-westwards to the Usambara escarpments of the continental plateau. Beyond these escarpments the rise is continuous still north-westwards to the Paré range, which is continued in the same direction by the Ugweno uplands

¹ *Mwezi* = "moon" in many Bantu dialects.

south of Kilimanjaro, and west of Lake Jipé. This depression stands at an elevation of nearly 2400 feet, while some of the Ugweno crests rise to heights of 5500 and 6000 feet, culminating in Mount Gamualla (6560



ROCK HILLS, USAMBARA.

feet), ascended in 1889 by Hans Meyer. The bare rounded peak of Gamualla stands like the highest island of an archipelago in a sea of emerald green, commanding a superb prospect of the neighbouring lake and of the distant Paré hills away to the south, while to the north,

high above all, and monarch of all, is the twin-crested Kilimanjaro, "towering skyward zone above zone, its crown now frosted white as silver with freshly-fallen snow." ¹

Kilimanjaro

Kilimanjaro, also for the first time scaled by Meyer in 1889, attains in the Mawenzi and Kibo peaks the respective altitudes of 17,570 and 19,720 feet. It thus appears to be loftier than its northern rival, Kenia, and is consequently the culminating point of the African continent, unless it is to be dethroned from its pre-eminence by future surveys of Stanley's Ruwenzori. It is a huge, long-extinct volcanic cone, standing on a pedestal itself over 8000 feet high, nearly midway between the coast and Victoria Nyanza, three degrees south of the equator, and just within the conventional frontier line of German East Africa. The two peaks really represent two distinct volcanoes, connected by a saddleback like that of Ararat, but higher (14,400 feet), the whole forming an enormous igneous mass nearly 60 miles long both ways, with a total periphery of about 170 miles. A marked contrast is presented by the arid northern and fertile southern slopes, which are exposed to the wet south-eastern monsoons, and are consequently clothed with luxuriant vegetation, belonging in ascending order to the tropical, temperate, and arctic botanical zones. The highest slopes, where all vegetation ceases, are snow-clad for a great part of the year, and some of the deeper crevasses are permanently streaked with white. The natives, to whom snow is elsewhere an unknown phenomenon, suppose these glittering crests

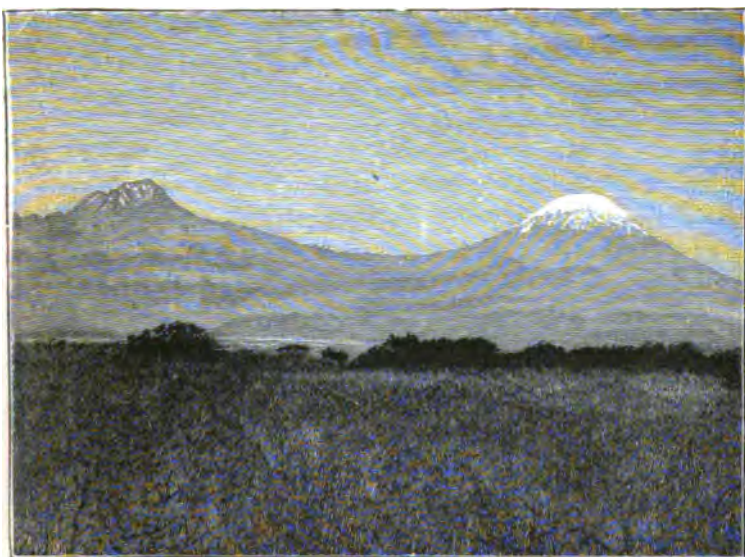
¹ Hans Meyer, *op. cit.* p. 211.

to be covered with molten silver, and attempts have even been made to reach the top in quest of the precious metal.

Kibo terminates in a vast crater 6500 feet in circuit and 600 feet deep; numerous well-preserved parasitic cones,¹ from 60 to 500 feet high, also occur all along the southern foot of Kilimanjaro, while the western horizon is bounded by the isolated Mount Meru, 16,000 feet high. Meru lies within the great trough or volcanic fault, which is indicated by the chain of land-locked lakes, the chief links of which are Samburu (Rudolf) in the north, Baringo, Elmeteita, and Naivasha in the centre, the Natron Lake and Manyara in the south. The long, rocky wall rising abruptly on the west side of the trough is not a mountain range, but merely the scarp of the central plateau, which extends from Meru westwards to the far larger depressions flooded by Lakes Eiassi and Victoria Nyanza. Beyond Nyanza the plateau stretches still westwards to the Karagwe and Ankori uplands, culminating north-westwards in Ruwenzori, possibly the highest land in Africa (19,000 to 20,000 feet?). Here another great fault, parallel with the Samburu-Manyara trough, seems to be indicated by another and far larger lacustrine chain, formed by Albert Nyanza, Albert Edward Nyanza, Kivu, Tanganyika, and Nyassa. Such appears, roughly, to be the geological structure of these equatorial uplands and depressions, flanked on the east side by Kilimanjaro and Kenia, on the west by Ruwenzori and Mfumbiro. But much of this region is included in the sphere of British influence, and its description

¹ When visited by Mrs. French Sheldon in 1891, one of these craters at the south-east foot of Kilimanjaro was found to be flooded by Lake Chala, a little tarn swarming with crocodiles, and circled by densely wooded rocky walls. Chala had already been sighted by H. H. Johnston in 1884 (*Kilimanjaro Expedition*, p. 290).

must therefore be reserved for the next chapter. It may here be remarked that the conventional line drawn by diplomatists between the two political spheres violates the physical unity of the land almost at every step.



MAWENZI.

KILIMANJARO.

KIBO.

Thus Kilimanjaro is separated from Kenia, the eastern and western troughs are cut in two, and even Victoria Nyanza is divided into a British and a German section.

Rivers and Lakes; Sources of the Nile

Thanks to this eccentric political arrangement, the German protectorate belongs to three distinct hydrographic systems. From the central plateaux its surface waters flow through the Malagarazi (see p. 94), west to

Tanganyika and the Congo for the Atlantic, through the Kagera, Shimiya, and some other southern affluents of Victoria Nyanza, north to the Nile for the Mediterranean, through the Rovuma, Rufiji, Kingani, Wami, Pangani, Uмба, and a few smaller coast streams, eastwards to the Indian Ocean. None of the coast streams north of the Rovuma are navigable, except the Rufiji (Lufiji),¹ which reaches the sea opposite the island of Mafia (Monfia), and which is chiefly remarkable for its vast delta, out of all proportion to the extent of its basin. This intricate system of shifting channels and backwaters has a coast-line of over 50 miles, and an area of no less than 600 square miles, or about one-tenth of the whole drainage area. In the same proportion the Nile or Mississippi delta would cover a space of some hundred thousand square miles. One or two of the branches are accessible to small coasters at high water; and above the delta the main stream is navigable by light river craft for 120 miles to the Pangani Falls. The Rufiji is formed by the junction of the Luwego (Luvu), rising on the eastern slope of the Livingstone Mountains, and of the Uranga, descending from the Unyamwezi plateau. Below the confluence it is joined by the Ruaha, a large tributary from the south.

The Kingani or Rufu, flowing from the Usagara uplands to the coast near Bagamoyo, may be ascended by boats for a considerable distance at high water. The name of this river constantly recurs in the records of the early explorers, who, soon after leaving Bagamoyo, had to cross it on the caravan route leading to the interior.

¹ The liquids *l* and *r* are not always clearly distinguished in pronunciation, and constantly interchange in the different Bantu idioms; hence *lu* and *ru*, *lo* and *ro*, *lua* and *rua*, all meaning river, as in Rufiji, Lufiji; Rovuma, Lovuma, etc.

The Wami, which reaches the coast a little farther north, drains a much larger area, but is equally useless for navigation. Beyond the Wami follows the Pangani (Ruvu), which drains the southern slopes of Kilimanjaro, and collects the running waters from Ugweno and the west side of the Paré range. Lastly, the Uмба (Wanga), an insignificant coast stream, has acquired some importance since it has been chosen as the frontier line between the German and British East African possessions.

On his route to Victoria Nyanza in 1874-75, Stanley came upon a stream variously known as the Liwumba, Luwambé, and Mwaru, which had a northern trend, and which he supposed to be the upper course of the Shimiyu, another stream soon after struck by him, and followed along its lower course to Speke Gulf, at the south-east corner of Nyanza. He therefore concluded that the Liwumba, which rises about 5° S. lat., on the northern slope of the Unyamwezi plateau, must be the southernmost affluent of Nyanza, and consequently the farthest headstream of the Nile. Since then the Rev. Mr. Pearson has shown that the Liwumba has no connection with the Shimiyu, that it flows at a lower level than Nyanza, and that it is cut off from Tanganyika by ridges 500 feet high; consequently it cannot possibly belong to either the Nile or Congo systems, and in all probability it is the upper course of the Wembere, which is reported to flow to the great Lake Eiassi (Nyanza ya Nyalaya).

This important addition to the great equatorial lakes was unexpectedly discovered by Dr. Oscar Baumann in March 1892 during his expedition from Lower Arusha on the Upper Ruvu river to Speke Gulf at the south-east corner of Victoria Nyanza. After tracing from south to north the western shore of Lake Manyara, which he found to be 74 miles long, with a mean breadth of 19

or 20 miles, this explorer struck north-west to the little salt lake Ngorongoro, west of the Natron Lake. Then turning westwards he soon reached a vast sheet of water called Lake Eiassi, and marched along its northern shore without anywhere sighting the opposite extremity. "I was exceedingly surprised," he writes, "by this discovery, as no information, even from hearsay, is possessed about the existence of so extensive a basin. The Masai, whose raids extend along its shores, informed me that it reached as far as Iramba, in which case it must be over 93 miles long, its breadth in the northern portion varying from 18 to 30 miles. The Masai follow the eastern shore in their expeditions, because the route on the west side is obstructed by a river which must be the Wembere, about whose course little has been hitherto known."¹

The farthest absolute headstream of the Nile is probably the Kagera (Kitangula), the lower course of which was surveyed by Stanley in 1876, and which was traced to its source by Dr. Baumann in 1893. Here, according to this explorer, is the "Caput Nili," the true source of the Nile, and here also is a *Missozi ya Mwezi* ("Mountain of the Moon"), where the ancients supposed the Nile to take its rise. From this point it flows north-eastwards between the Ruanda and Karagwe countries to the west coast of Nyanza, receiving on its left bank the Ruvuvu and the Mworongo, a considerable stream descending from the southern slopes of Mount

¹ *Report to the German Anti-Slavery Association*, 13th April 1892. It is, however, to be noted that when Dr. Fischer crossed the Liwumba in 1885 he was told that it ran out in the Wembere Steppe, where it formed a small lake in the rainy season. Is this "small lake" Dr. Baumann's Eiassi, a broad but shallow swampy depression, occasionally flooded after exceptionally wet seasons? It is certainly remarkable that a permanent lacustrine basin of such vast dimensions should never have been heard of by any previous explorer.

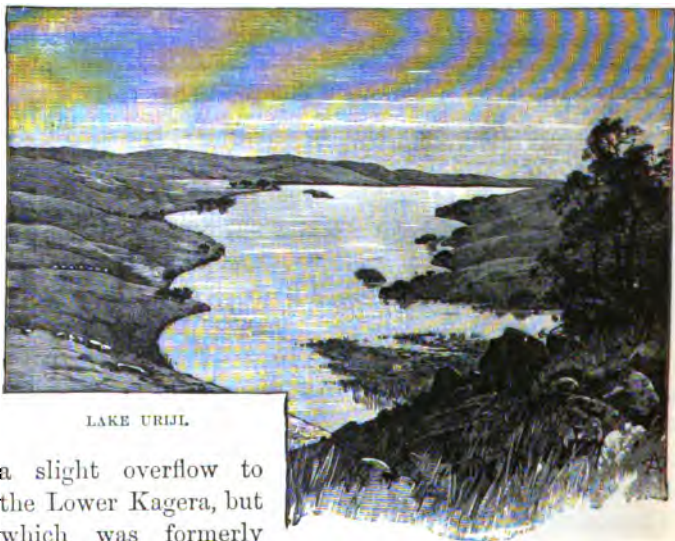
Mfumbiro. Beyond the confluence the Kagera floods the long lacustrine depression between the Ruanda and Karagwe uplands, and, after receiving the overflow from Lakes Windermere and Uriji on its right bank, enters Victoria Nyanza in an imposing stream, which is certainly far more entitled to be regarded as the true upper course of the Nile than is the Shimiya, which, by Pearson's discovery, has been reduced to quite an insignificant watercourse.

The Kagera, or Tengure, wrongly named Kitangula by its discoverer, Speke (1862), from a place on its banks, and re-named the Alexandra Nile by Stanley in 1875, is in any case the most copious of all the Victoria Nyanza affluents. Where it was crossed by Stanley during his second expedition (1889), at the point where it turns sharply east to the lake, "it was about 125 yards wide, with an average depth of 9 feet, flowing 3 knots per hour in the centre."¹ Higher up it flows for 60 miles along the east frontier of Karagwe, in a series of marshy lagoons, varying from 5 to 14 miles in width, covered with floating fields of papyri, large masses or islands of which drift to and fro. At the northern outlet of this lagoon the Kagera contracts, becomes tumultuous and noisy, and dashes in foam and spray against the opposing rocks, till it finally rolls over a rocky ledge 10 or 12 feet deep with tremendous uproar; hence its native name Morongo, the "Noisy Falls." From this point the river trends eastward to the Victoria in a somewhat narrow bed 150 feet wide and no less than 50 feet deep. The Lake Akenyara (Alexandra Nyanza) spoken of both by Speke and Stanley as traversed by the Kagera, appears to have no existence.

Lake Windermere, so named by its discoverer, Speke,

¹ *In Darkest Africa*, ii. p. 353.

from its resemblance to the Westmoreland lake, lies embedded in one of the most romantic spots in Africa. Raveru, as the natives call it, stands at an altitude of 4300 feet, but is not an alpine lake, its depth nowhere exceeding 45 or 46 feet. Farther east lies the still shallower basin of Lake Uriji, a sheet of water 23 miles long by 1 to 3 broad, which at present sends



LAKE URIJI.

a slight overflow to the Lower Kagera, but which was formerly accessible to boats all the way from Victoria Nyanza. "Its receding waters have left great extents of flat plain on the sides and around the bays running far inland into valleys. Its shores and waters are favourite haunts of birds, from cranes, herons, and pelicans, to the small black *Parra Africana*, egrets, and waders, which find excellent feeding over the large spaces near the extremities and shore-line of bays, covered with closely-packed growths

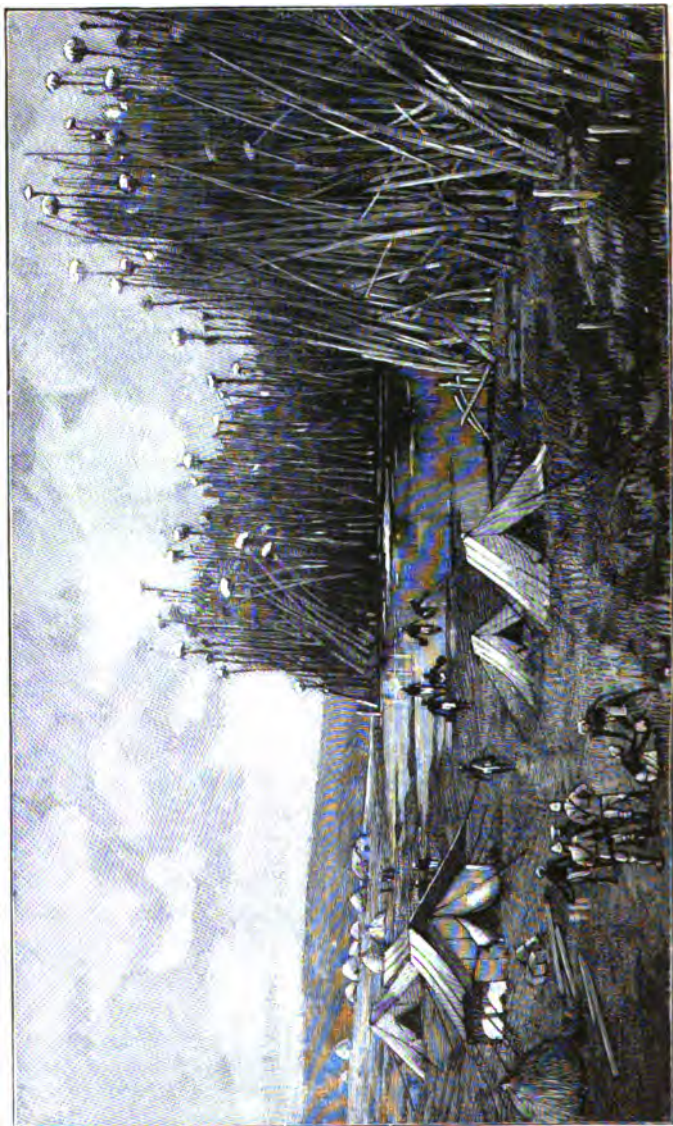
of *Pistia stratiotes* plants, until they resemble green lawns from a little distance off. Hippos abound, and, unfortunately, armies of black mosquitoes. A large supply of fish is found in the lake, but they are infested with guinea-worm—at least those which we purchased were deemed quite uneatable from that cause.”¹

Lakes Victoria Nyanza and Rukwa

Victoria Nyanza, Speke's great discovery (1858), was first revealed in the fulness of its magnificent proportions by Stanley's circumnavigation in 1875. It fills a vast cavity at least 600 feet deep, and some 27,000 square miles in extent,² on the central plateau, midway between the Indian Ocean and the Congo, 3800 feet above sea-level, and almost exactly the same number of miles from the mouths of the Nile, of which it is the main reservoir. Its shores, nearly 800 miles round, are generally somewhat low-lying, but rise to considerable heights at the Majita headland (3000 feet), and some other points, especially on the east and north-east sides. They are also nearly everywhere diversified by numerous bays and inlets, such as Speke Gulf and Kavirondo Bay, also on the east side, while the expanse of blue waters is broken by several little clusters of verdant islets, and even large islands, such as Sesse in the north-west, Usuguri and Ugingo in the north-east, Bambiré off the west coast, Ukerewe and Ukara in the south-east corner. Some of the small islands are occupied by herds of fierce hippopotami, who ward off all intruders; and the shallow

¹ *In Darkest Africa*, ii. p. 381.

² Nyanza, the "Lake" or "Sea," as it is called by the natives in a pre-eminent sense, thus ranks next to Superior (34,000 square miles), as the largest freshwater basin in the world. It appears even to exceed the Aral Sea by a few hundred square miles.



SOUTH-WEST EXTREMITY OF LAKE VICTORIA NYANZA.

inlets, especially Speke Gulf, are infested by crocodiles of enormous size. Sesse, which, with the neighbouring islets, forms an extensive archipelago, is noted for its charming scenery; Battle Cove, in Bambiré, commemorates the punishment inflicted on the treacherous natives by Stanley during his first expedition; and Bridge-Island, in the north-east, consists of two basalt columns connected by a natural arch with a 24-foot span, so overgrown with vegetation that nothing is visible but two columnar masses of verdure gracefully festooned with lianas. Basalts, granites, and gneiss crop out everywhere round the coast except where the margin spreads out in level treeless plains. The Nyanza catchment basin is almost everywhere contracted, so that the only large affluents are the Kagera and Katonga, on the west side. The overflow is discharged through the Somerset Nile, north to the Mediterranean.

The mysterious Lake Rukwa (Lukwa, Rikwa, Leopold), heard of by Speke and Burton, first sighted by Joseph Thomson in 1879, visited by Dr. Kaiser in 1882, and again in 1889 by the Rev. D. Kerr Cross and H. H. Johnston, occupies a deep depression between the Nyassa-Tanganyika and Unyamwezi plateaux, near the north-east frontier of British Zambesia. Formerly supposed to be merely a natron lagoon, it was found by Mr. Cross to be a salt lake from 80 to 100 miles long and 30 to 40 broad, fed by the Nkanna-Saisi river from the southern plateau, and without any outlet. It stands 2900 feet above sea-level, in an arid almost rainless district, where no rain had fallen for two years before 1889, but where there had formerly been an abundant rainfall. "Its waters are dark in colour, very brackish, very muddy, and quite undrinkable. Several trees were pointed out to me as having been, a few years ago, at the water's edge,

but which would now be some miles from the water. Fish are numerous, but are not much sought after by the natives. I saw no hippopotami, nor crocodiles, nor canoes in its dark, uninviting waters. . . . The lake is skirted on its east shore by a range, a high range, of mountains that rise as a jagged wall of several thousands of feet, in some places as sheer precipices from the water. . . . Its shores are perhaps the most uninviting we have ever seen, its country the poorest, its rainfall nil, and its temperature in the shade at noon stood about 98° F.”¹

Climate

A region of alternating low alluvial plains, grassy or scrubby plateaux, wooded uplands and alpine heights, naturally presents a great diversity of climates. Nevertheless, the Protectorate, part of which lies about the equator, is essentially a tropical land, where low latitudes are but slightly counteracted here and there by favourable local conditions. Fever, not merely chills and agues caught by overwork or exposure to wet and draughts, but real bilious fever, from which no precautions will purchase exemption, is prevalent on all the low-lying tracts and even on the plateaux. It has made fearful ravages amongst the German officials and the English missionaries, and its character is well brought out in the graphic account given by the late Mr. A. M. Mackay (himself a victim) of the death of Bishop Parker and Mr. Blackburn in the Usambiro country in 1888. “Blackburn lay a week in a semi-conscious state. The bishop was only one day ill, and quite delirious most of the time. Both had become perfectly yellow with jaundice. Bile seems a terrible poison to the blood and

¹ Rev. D. K. Cross, *Proc. R. Geo. Soc.* Feb. 1891, p. 95.

brain, rendering one dead to all outside, and the other wild with delirium.”¹ It may be remarked that when introduced into the New World this African bilious fever developed into yellow fever, the two differing little from one another, except that the latter alone is infectious.

The marked contrast observed between the well-watered coastlands and the somewhat arid inland plateaux is mainly due to the Usagara mountains, and farther north to the Paré, Ugweno, and Kilimanjaro uplands, which intercept the moisture-bearing clouds from the Indian Ocean. It is noteworthy that the aërial currents set normally in the direction of the coast-line, whether these are due to the south-eastern monsoons, which prevail during most of the year, or to the returning north-eastern trade winds of January and February. Thus the clouds drift mainly either south and north or north and south between the coast and the highlands, beyond which very little moisture reaches the inner districts, especially between Kilimanjaro and Nyanza, between Usagara and Unyamwezi, and between the Livingstone range and Tanganyika. Thus are to be explained the distinctly arid tracts extending west from Mount Meru, the Marenga Mkhali desert of Ugogo, and the almost rainless region of Lake Rukwa. But there are no very lofty ranges between the Livingstone and Usagara uplands, and a free passage is thus left for some of the rain-bearing clouds driving before the south-eastern gales over Mozambique in the direction of the elevated Unyamwezi plateau, which consequently receives a sufficient supply to feed the numerous perennial headstreams of the Malagarazi basin. Here the annual rainfall probably exceeds 40 inches, falling to less than 20 in Ugogo, and again rising to nearly 180 on the coast (170

¹ *A. M. Mackay, Pioneer Missionary, etc., by his sister, 1890, p. 383.*

at Zanzibar in 1859). But the contrasts of temperature are much slighter, and the range of the thermometer, especially in the arid districts, is relatively far greater between day and night than between one season and another. Thus at Zanzibar the glass falls only about seven degrees between March the hottest and July the coldest month, 82° and 77° F. respectively; whereas, on the dry plateaux, sultry days are followed as in the Sahara by cold nights, often visiting the unwary traveller with chills and ague.¹

Flora and Fauna

The irregular distribution of the rainfall fully explains the enormous contrasts in the character of the vegetation observed in the various zones between the coast and Tanganyika, as well as between the southern and northern slopes of Kilimanjaro. H. H. Johnston, who encamped for six months in 1884 on the south side of this mountain, found himself in the midst of a rich and endlessly diversified flora, while the opposite side was almost bare of vegetation. Continuous forest growths are mainly confined to the coastlands, the Usagara and Kilimanjaro uplands, though isolated clumps or solitary specimens of such African giants as the baobab, euphorbia, tamarind, sycamore, or calabash tree are still met on the open savannahs. The copal (*msandarusi*), yielding the best of all gums, abounds on the banks of the Lower Rufiji;

¹ In the open plains, H. H. Johnston recorded 91° F. in the early afternoon and 58° before dawn, a range of no less than 33° within the twenty-four hours. At his higher collecting stations (10,000 to 11,000 feet) on Kilimanjaro he found the lowest night temperature 29°, the highest at 3 P.M. 65°; at Taveita 60° and 90° respectively, while "the highest temperature ever recorded on the plains between Kilimanjaro and the coast was 91°" (*The Kilimanjaro Expedition*, 1886, p. 323).

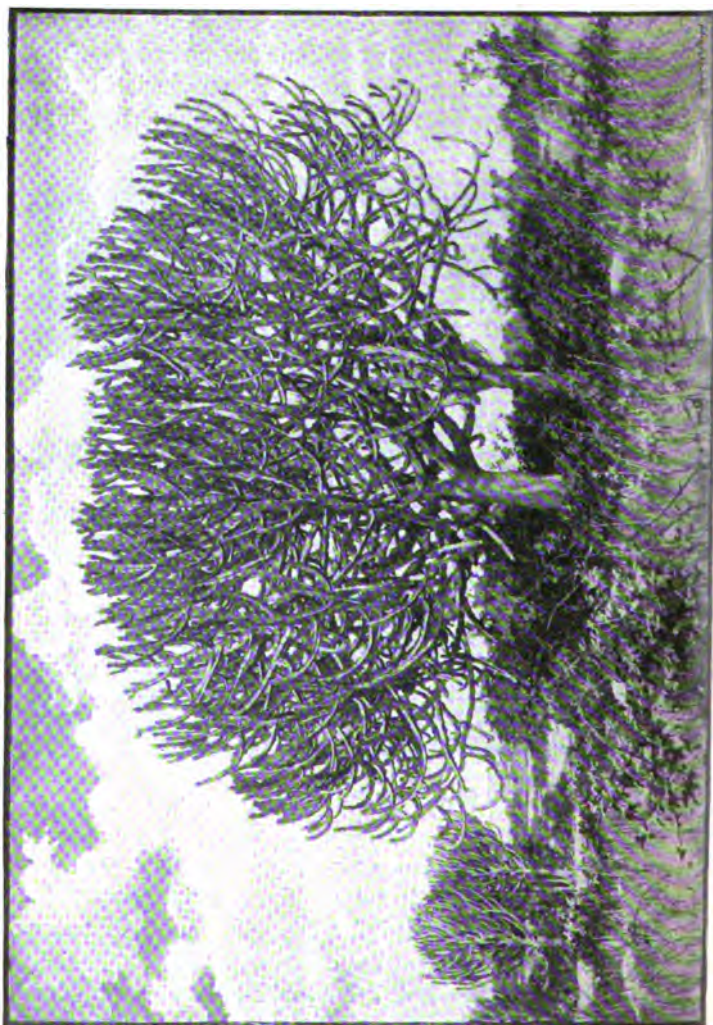
dense jungles of reeds and grasses, 14 feet high, grow with rank exuberance in the low-lying swampy districts; a tangle of scrub and brushwood impedes progress on the dryer terraced escarpments, and are replaced in the favoured upland valleys of Usagara by flowering and



THE FLOWER OF THE BAOBAB TREE.

fruit-bearing arborescent growths. Plantation culture has already been introduced on the alluvial coastlands, which are specially suited for the cultivation of sugar, cotton, rice, vanilla, and other colonial produce.

The Taveita district at the south-east foot of Kili-manjaro, watered by the romantic River Lumi, and everywhere clothed with a glorious tropical vegetation,



seemed to Mr. Johnston "one of the loveliest spots on the earth's surface. Imagine first a charming river, of crystal clearness, winding in curves and loops through tropical forest of such an imposing grandeur that it rather recalls to one's imagination the vegetation of some more lusty epoch of the earth's youth than the present degenerate days of exuberant growth. The river flows sometimes between high banks—little cliffs of red soil—crested with gigantic trees, whose enormous roots, detached from the crumbling earth, stretch out like grey sprawling fingers high in air above the rushing water; sometimes curls itself wantonly in loops, cutting out sweet little peninsulas of forest-clad mounds and hillocks, on which one longs to go and build a little hut and live for ever; sometimes flows solemnly and slowly, with glassy look, amid winding avenues of palms, acacias, albizzias, sterculias, parinariums, sycamores, and wild bananas, through the stately architecture of a vegetable Venice. . . . Here and there amid the lofty aisles of the Taveitan forest are little clearings, pretty homesteads of yellow bee-hive huts, neat plots of cultivated ground, groves of emerald-green bananas, which are the habitations of the happy Arcadians who have made this tropical paradise their home."¹

The neighbouring Lake Jipé is as remarkable for its fauna as is Taveita for its flora. The vicinity is much frequented by game, and its waters teem with big fish, "principally siluroids and cyprinoids. Hippopotami and crocodiles are plentiful. Numbers of water-birds haunt the reedy shores—storks, egrets, pelicans, spur-winged plovers, ducks, and Egyptian geese."² Elephants and buffaloes range as high as 12,000 or 14,000 feet on Kilimanjaro, where A. B. Meyer came upon a dead

¹ *The Kilimanjaro Expedition*, p. 208.

² *Op. cit.* p. 298.

gazelle near the summit. Here is the native home of the lovely black and white long-haired *Colobus Guereza*; and on the plains the large red hartebeeste mimics the outlines of the tall red ant-hills, so that at a little distance it is difficult to know which is the hartebeeste and which the ant-hill.¹ The plateaux are still fre-



COLOBUS GUEREZA.

quented by the giraffe, rhinoceros, buffalo, elephant, and ostrich, where they are still pursued by the lion and leopard. The tsetse fly infests many districts, and a few years ago proved fatal to the tame elephants that had been introduced as an experiment from India. This winged pest is now believed to be a parasite of the large African game; if so, the much-maligned British sports-

¹ *Op. cit.* p. 65.

men, who are gradually exterminating these animals, may after all prove to be the true pioneers of civilisation in the Dark Continent.

Inhabitants—Wa-Zarambo, Wa-Zeguha

The whole of the Protectorate belonged, till comparatively recent times, exclusively to the Bantu domain, in which it is still mainly comprised. But for centuries the populations between the seaboard and the great lakes have been subject to Arab influences from the coast, and to Zulu incursions from the south; while on the north side their territory has been encroached upon by Nilotic Negro peoples, such as the Kavirondo and especially the Masai, who have wedged themselves in between Victoria Nyanza on the west and Kenia and Kilimanjaro on the east. Owing to these disintegrating forces, by which territory has been lost in the north, and whole communities largely Arabised on the coast (Wa-Swahili) and even far inland (Vua-Nyamwezi), the tribes have nowhere been fused together in large nationalities; nor have any powerful native states been constituted, unless the late ephemeral "empire" of the "black Napoleon," Mirambo, be regarded as such.

On the other hand, Arab civilising influences have not penetrated very deeply into the seething mass of heathendom, gross superstition and utter savagery being still or till quite recently prevalent among the Bantu populations between the Rovuma and Kilimanjaro. Hence the startling contrasts observed by Speke, Burton, and other early explorers between contiguous peoples, such as the Mohammedan Wa-Swahili, differing little from the Arabs in general culture, and their western neighbours, the Wa-Zarambo north of the Rufiji river, who still go

naked but for a fringe of grassy fibre, slash their cheeks with deep gashes, knead their hair with clay and grease into towering head-dresses, use poisoned arrows, burn the wizard and all his family, throw twins to the bush or children born on unlucky days.

Wa-Sagara ; Wa-Hehe ; Ma-Kondé

North of the Wa-Zarambo, the Wa-Zeguha of the Lower Wami are at constant feud over the succession to their petty chieftaincies. In one of these conflicts the ferocious Wa-Doe cannibals, dwelling almost within sight of Zanzibar, were nearly exterminated, the survivors escaping north to the vicinity of Kenia, where a few are still found. Inland from all these coast peoples follow along the main caravan route between Zanzibar and Tanganyika the three more powerful nations, or rather tribal groups, of the Wa-Sagara, Wa-Gogo, and Wa-Nyamwezi, who give their names to their respective territories. All are broken into numerous independent communities, having little in common except a faintly developed national sentiment, their Bantu speech, and, till lately, their concerted action in upholding the traditional vexatious system of blackmail levied on all travellers and traders passing through their country.

The Wa-Sagara are a widespread people, whose language extends as far north as Mombasa, and whose various branches show every transition from extreme barbarism to a certain degree of culture due to contact with the Arabs, and, in recent years, with Europeans. They occupy all the Usagara highlands, and one of their chief divisions are the Wa-Hehe, south of the Ruaha affluent of the Rufiji, who, in September 1891, cut off a powerful German expeditionary force. They are fierce moun-

tainers, occupying a hilly plateau over 6000 feet above sea-level, and, owing to their marauding practices, are much dreaded by the surrounding tribes. Like so many



VICTORIA NYANZA CHIEF.

other peoples of this region, such as the Ma-Gwangwara of the Upper Rovuma (see p. 468), and the Ma-Kondé, who hold the north bank of the Lower Rovuma, the Wa-Hehe

claim Zulu affinities, and pretend to have come originally from the south. But their language closely resembles Ki-Swahili, while that of the Ma-Kondé is one of the few Bantu tongues which still preserve all the sixteen class prefixes of the primitive Bantu speech.

The Ma-Kondé, who are related to the Ma-Viha, on the opposite side of the Rovuma (see p. 470), are still a savage people, who scarify face and body with "high relief" tattoo scorings, and whose women wear the pelele (see p. 471) in their upper lip. They were first visited in 1877 by Chauncy Maples, who was taken for a ghost, but nevertheless supplied with food. Their Masasi, Wa-Mwera, and Wa-Ngindo neighbours are all probably branches of the Makua nation (see p. 471), which formerly occupied all the coastlands from the Zambesi delta north to the vicinity of Zanzibar. In fact, the whole seaboard from near the equator south to Algoa Bay has during the historic period been mainly occupied by three Bantu groups of Ki-Swahili speech in the north, Makua in the middle, and Zulu-Kafir in the south.

Wa-Swahili

The Wa-Swahili, that is, "Coast People," although numbering scarcely a million altogether, have in recent years acquired almost greater prominence than any other Bantu group. For this position they are not indebted to any special quality, such as the martial spirit of the Zulus, but simply to the fact that they have adopted the Mohammedan religion, and identified themselves with the Arabs, whose traders and raiders have overrun half the continent. The result is that not Arabic but Ki-Swahili has become the *lingua franca*, the great medium of intercourse throughout West Central Africa (see p. 148).

But, like the people themselves, the language is the most corrupt, or at least the most affected by foreign elements, chiefly Arabic, of all Bantu idioms. About half of its vocabulary, including most abstract terms, is Arabic, although the grammatical structure remains strictly Bantu; and it was formerly written with the Arabic characters. But in their Ki-Swahili writings (dictionaries, grammars, translations of scripture, religious treatises) Bishop Steer and other missionaries have wisely substituted the Roman system, which is in every way better adapted for expressing the sounds of all Bantu languages. The Wa-Swahili, whose domain on the mainland is confined to the strip of seaboard extending from the neighbourhood of Dar-es-Salaam north to Vitu, are not a tribe, nor yet a nation, having no common political aspirations, but rather an amalgam of the most diverse ethnical elements, possessing religious and linguistic unity, and linked together by a highly-developed commercial spirit.

Wa-Taveita, Wa-Gweno

As a rule the Bantu populations in the extreme north (Paré and Gweno uplands, Taveita, Teita, and Chaga, on the southern slopes of Kilimanjaro) are of a milder disposition, and, if not less superstitious, at all events less cruel and ferocious than those of the central and southern districts. Travellers speak in the highest terms of the Wa-Taveita, who live in friendly association with the Wa-Kwavi, that is, the settled agricultural section of the Masai nation, as well as with their numerous other guests or visitors from all parts of the country; for Taveita, like Stanley Pool on the Congo, or Khartum on the Nile, is a great trysting-place of "tribes, tongues,

peoples, and nations. You may sit here in the porch of your comfortable thatched house, and receive visits from representatives of most of the nations found in East Central Africa. Arabs, Gallas, Masai, A-Kamba, Wa-Chaga, Wa-Paré, Wa-Teita, Wa-Gweno, Wa-Swahili, Wa-Sambara, the people of Kavirondo on the Victoria Nyanza of Buganda and Bunyoro, of Njemps and Zamburu, all find their way to Taveita somehow, whether as slaves, traders, tramps, criminals, or refugees. You may hear about twenty African languages talked around you, and by searching among the slave caravans, which stop here for repose, a list of hundreds of East African tongues might be composed.”¹ Yet good order prevails in this *refugium peccatorum*, which is ruled by the Wazēē, or elders, whose “gentle behaviour and kindly manners were at all times charming.”

Nor was there much to complain of the Wa-Chaga, who have long been at feud amongst themselves, and harassed by the marauding incursions of the Masai nomads. Mandara and other chiefs are consequently well disposed towards Europeans, to whom they look for protection against neighbouring tribes, and especially against the common enemy, the Masai raiders.

The Wa-Gweno of the Ugweno uplands, first visited by Hans Meyer in 1889, are a branch of the Wa-Mbugu of Central Usambara, whose tribal mark, a round spot in the middle of the forehead, is, however, replaced by a black streak running from the middle of the forehead to the nose. All the upper part of the body is also scored with hundreds of small incisions, partly charms, partly ornamental. From the Masai the young warriors have borrowed the practice of plastering themselves with a coating of grease and red ochre. A common way of

¹ *The Kilimanjaro Expedition*, p. 211.

dressing the hair is to twist it into thin strings, which hang down all round the head, and are cut away above the eyes in a regular fringe. "Here and there a dandy of the tribe screws up the strings into rows of rigid love-locks, while another draws a handful down either cheek, and ties them together under his chin, finishing off the elaborate coiffure with a sprinkling of coloured beads."¹ The Wa-Gweno are an industrious agricultural people, possessing some skill in iron smelting and forging, and raising good crops of bananas, pulse, maize, millet, manioc and sweet potatoes in the southern and eastern districts, which are less exposed to the raids of the Masai and Wa-Chaga.

Karagwe, Wa-Huma Migrations

Apart from the Kavirondos of the north-east coast, who were first visited by Joseph Thomson in 1882, and who appear to be an outlying branch of the Shilluk Negroes from the White Nile, Victoria Nyanza is everywhere encircled by peoples of Bantu speech. In the German section the most important tribes are the Wa-Sukuma, Vua-Zinza, and Vua-Tuzi on the south side, and the inhabitants of Karagwe on the west. When first explored by Speke, and afterwards by Stanley, Karagwe formed a large kingdom, being one of those powerful equatorial states which, like Buganda and Bunyoro, had been constituted after the dismemberment of the ancient empire of Kitwara. At that time it was ruled by the gentle and intelligent King Rumanika, who was later exposed to attacks from Buganda and Bunyoro, and from the Arab slavers, who had established themselves at Kafuro, in the heart of the country. Rumanika was succeeded by his eldest son, Kyensi, who, however,

¹ Hans Meyer, *op. cit.* p. 223.

reigned only nine months, when the throne was usurped by his brother Kakoko. This sanguinary tyrant held his ground for three years, during which he slew seventeen brothers, and put out the eyes of his youngest brother, Luajumba. Then Kakoko, while stupefied by drink, was speared by Ka-Chikonju; and, when Stanley passed through in 1889, the rightful heir to the throne was Kyensi's son Ndagara, called also Unyagumbwa, a youth at that time in his sixteenth year.

It does not appear that the Karagwe rulers have ever acknowledged the German protectorate. Here the bulk of the people are Bantus; but, as in the other equatorial states, the nobles and ruling class are Wa-Huma ("Northmen"), a conquering pastoral people, originally from Gallaland, who have penetrated as far south as Unyamwezi. In different places they bear different names—Wa-Tusi (Ba-Tushi), Wa-Nyambu, Wa-Ima, Wa-Witu, Wa-Chwezi,—but everywhere present the same Hamitic features, like those of the Galla and Somali Hamites in the north-east. Besides the local Bantu dialects, they also still speak Galla amongst themselves; and their Galla origin, first conjectured by Speke, has since been thoroughly established by Stanley and other recent explorers. They are essentially herdsmen, who despise the surrounding Bantu husbandmen, from whom they mostly keep aloof, and are then almost white, or, at all events, very fair, as in Toru (Gambaragara). Traditionally they fought their way through Somaliland southwards to Mombasa, and passed thence westwards to the equatorial lake region, where they founded the Empire of Kitwara, and afterwards moved gradually southwards to Unyamwezi. It is noteworthy that their most common national name, Wa-Witu, points to the territory of Witu (Vitu), on the east coast above Mombasa, as the district whence they began to

push inland up the Tana valley, that is, the line of least resistance in this direction. Mutesa, King of Buganda, Kaba Rega of Bunyoro, and Rumanika of Karagwe, were all Wa-Huma, representing various branches of the old Kitwara dynasty.

The Masai, whose true home lies north of Kilimanjaro, will be described in the next chapter.

In the subjoined table are comprised all the chief Bantu

TRIBES AND NATIONS OF GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

- MA-KONDÉ { North bank Lower Rovuma, akin to the Ma-Viha, south of Cape Delgado.
- MA-NYANJA } Wa-Yao tribes, Rovuma river below the Lujenda con-
MA-TOMBWE } fluence.
- MA-SASI }
WA-LINDI } Makua tribes, north side Upper Rovuma basin.
MA-MWERA }
- MA-GWANGWARA, pretended Zulus, east slope Livingstone range.
- WA-NGINDO or } North and north-west of the Ma-Kondé; called also
WA-GINDO } Wali-Huhu.
- MA-HENGE, Rufiji basin between Uranga and Ruaha rivers.
- WA-NYAKANYAKA, serfs of the Ma-Henge.
- WA-NDONDE or WA-DONDE, Rufiji basin, east of the Ma-Henge territory.
- WA-ZARAMO, between the Rufiji, the Kingani, and the Swahili Coast.
- WA-KWERE }
WA-KAMI } Hill tribes chiefly about head-waters of the Kingani; akin
WA-KHUTU } to the Wa-Zaramo.
- WA-ZEGUHA or WA-ZEGURA, Middle and Lower Wami basin.
- WA-DOÉ { Cannibals formerly in Wami basin, now scattered in small groups northwards to Masailand.
- WA-SAGARA, the chief nation in the Usagara highlands.
- WA-HEHE } Southern branches of the Wa-Sagara, between the Ruaha and
WA-BENA } Uranga affluents of the Pangani.
- WA-MEGI }
WA-KUGURU } Northern branches of the Wa-Sagara, chiefly about the
WA-GEJA } upper affluents of the Wami.
- WA-GOGO { Widespread nation on the plateau between the Usagara highlands and Unyamwezi.

WA-NYAMWEZI } The dominant nation in Unyamwezi; numerous tribal subdivisions, such as the Wa-Rambo, Wa-Yui, Wa-Nyambembe, Vua-Galla, and in the extreme south Vua-Kanongo.

VUA-HHA, and other Tanganyika tribes, for which see p. 121.

WA-SUKUMA }
VUA-ZINZA } Southern shores of Victoria Nyanza.
VUA-TUZI }

WA-SHENZI or WA-BONDEI, Lower Pangani and adjacent coastlands.

WA-SAMBARA } Numerous nation, Usambara highlands, west and north of the Wa-Shenzi.

WA-RUVU ("River People"), chiefly in the islands of the Lower Pangani.

WA-PARE, the Paré range, north-west of Usambara.

WA-GWENO, the Ugweno highlands, north of the Wa-Paré.

WA-TEITA, hilly district east of Taveita, within the British frontier.

WA-TAVEITA } The wooded district between Lake Jipé and Kilimanjaro, within the British frontier.

WA-CHAGA } Northernmost branch of the Wa-Sambara, on the southern slopes of Kilimanjaro, with numerous subdivisions: Shiro, Kibonto, Uru, Mashame, Kibosho, Mpokomo, Moshi, Kirua, Kilema, Maranu, Mamba, Mwika, Nsai, Rombo, Useri, Kimangelia.

Towns, Seaports, Stations—Kiloa

Till comparatively recent times all the civilised populations were confined to the coastlands; hence here alone are found towns, in the strict sense of the word. Some of these are historical places, which, like most of the seaports on the eastern seaboard, have never recovered from the ruin brought on them by the early Portuguese filibusters. Such is *Kiloa*, on the islet of the same name, midway between the Ukeredi and Rufiji estuaries, hence called *Kiloa Kisiwani*, or "Insular Kiloa," in contradistinction to the modern *Kiloa Kivinji*, or "Continental Kiloa," founded 18 miles farther north. The island forms, with the opposite shore, a sheltered inlet, which penetrates 12 miles inland, and which was frequented by Persian

shipping so early as the tenth century. Later it became the capital and chief emporium of the Zenj empire, and at one time was said to contain as many as 300 mosques. "When the King of Portugal discovered this land," writes Barbosa, "the Moors of Sofala, and Zuama, and Anguox (Angosha), and Mozambique were all under obedience to the King of Quiloa,¹ who was a great king amongst them." But "this king, for his great pride, and for not being willing to obey the King of Portugal, had this town taken from him by force, and in it they killed and captured many people, and the king fled from the island, in which the King of Portugal ordered a fortress to be built." This refers to the siege and capture of the place by Francisco d'Almeida in 1505, soon after which the Portuguese had themselves to fly from the malarious climate, and now little remains except the houses of a few Banyan and Arab traders, grouped beneath the crumbling walls of the Portuguese fortress.

The new Kiloa, though possessing a far less commodious harbour, and perhaps even more insalubrious, owing to the neighbouring swamps, rose to great prosperity during the flourishing days of the slave trade. Now, however, it is almost as deserted as its neighbour, and the only seaports on the whole coast south of the Rovuma are *Lindi*, at the mouth of the Ukeredi, which does a considerable export trade in rubber, and *Mikindani*, farther south, which, despite its fine, well-sheltered harbour, is little frequented.

Dar-es-Salaam, Bagamoyo

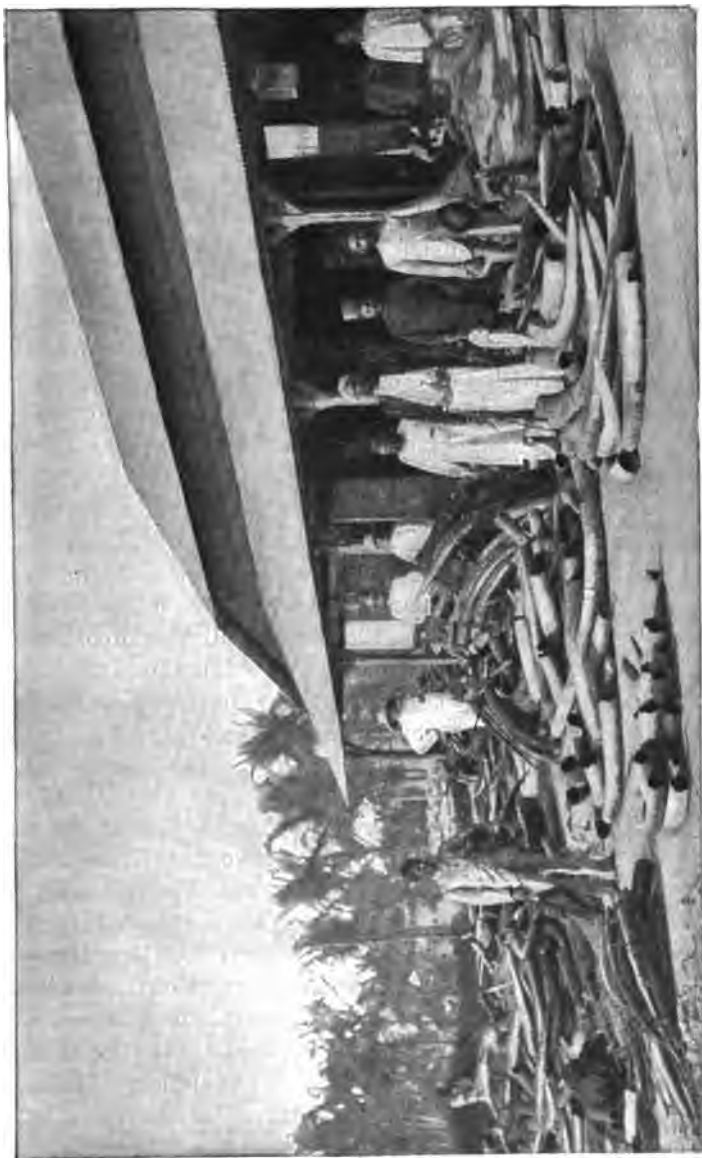
Along the coral-fringed coast, between Kiloa and Dar-es-Salaam, no settlements occur except at *Chobe*, on

¹ In Portuguese *qu=k*, hence Quiloa=Kiloa, often written and pronounced Kilwa.

the adjacent island of Mafia (Monfia). This coralline rock, some 200 square miles in extent, and mostly covered with cocoa-nut groves, is already mentioned by Barbosa, who, however, wrongly places it with Zanzibar and Penda (Pemba), between St. Lawrence (Madagascar) and the mainland. At low water Chobe is inaccessible even to small craft, which have to anchor some miles to the south-west awaiting the turn of the tide.

Dar-es-Salaam, the "Place of Peace," is a popular Arab etymology for the Ki-Swahili *Dari-Salama*, "Safe Roof." It stands on one of the finest harbours along the whole seaboard, formed by a deep fjord-like creek, which runs 5 miles inland, but which is approached from the sea through a narrow channel winding its way through the fringing reefs. Since the German occupation, efforts have been made to make this place a commercial rival of Zanzibar, and for this purpose a beginning has been made with a fine highway to the interior, ultimately to be replaced or supplemented with a railway. After traversing the low-lying coastlands the road ascends the escarpments of the plateau, and has already reached *Kola*, some 30 miles from Dar-es-Salaam, on the divide towards the Kingani valley.

Should this project be fully carried out, *Bagamoyo*, hitherto the gateway of the continent, will necessarily lose much of its importance, for it enjoys no natural advantages beyond its greater proximity to Zanzibar, and part of the scheme is to cut out Zanzibar itself. At Bagamoyo there is no harbour, nothing but an open roadstead, which shoals so gradually that vessels of any draught have to ride at anchor in exposed waters some 2 miles off the coast. Fierce hurricanes occasionally sweep in between the island and the mainland, strewing the shores with wreckage, and levelling the frail habita-



IVORY AT BAGAMOYO.

tions of the natives in Bagamoyo itself. Here are still equipped most of the caravans starting for the interior; several houses in the European style have already sprung up; the bazaar has become a busy mart, where travellers complete their outfits before plunging into the wilds of equatorial Africa, and the neighbouring rising ground is crowned with the extensive buildings of the Roman Catholic Mission, which, in ecclesiastical language, ranks as the metropolis of all the churches in East Central Africa. These missions had hitherto been administered chiefly by French *pères*, but the policy of the German Government, warned by their attitude in Uganda and elsewhere, has aimed at gradually replacing them by zealous pastors from the Fatherland.

The English Mission is stationed 30 miles farther north, at the seaport of *Saadani*, which lies a little north of the Wami estuary, about the same distance, 26 miles to the west, that Bagamoyo does to the south-west of Zanzibar. Beyond it are the two equally unimportant ports of *Pangani*, at the mouth of the Ruvu, or Pangani river, and *Wanga*, at the mouth of the frontier river Umba, also from its port often called the Wanga.

Mpwapwa, Taborah, Ujiji

In the interior the most noteworthy Arab and European stations going westwards are *Mpwapwa* and *Taborah*, both near the main caravan route, of which Ujiji is the terminus on Lake Tanganyika. *Mpwapwa*, 220 miles from the coast, about the frontiers of the fertile Usagara uplands and the arid Ugogo plateau, occupies one of those sites which seem prepared by the hand of nature to become great centres of population. Here many highways meet, and here travellers find a con-

venient resting-place, either after traversing or before facing the dreaded Marenga Mkhali. At present it is little more than a thriving native village, though its importance has somewhat increased since it has been chosen as a station of the Church Missionary Society.

Taborah occupies a position on the Tanganyika corresponding to that of Mpwapwa on the Oceanic slope. It lies in the heart of Unyamwezi, 4000 feet above the sea, near the highest point of the Malagarazi basin, and is consequently a strategical site of vital importance, commanding all the routes here converging from Nyanza, Tanganyika, and the coast. These routes, as they approach the station, pass through "an almost continuous series of gardens surrounding the numerous villages, some of which were very large, enclosing many fine conical-roofed huts, all quite superior architecture to anything we had seen since leaving the coast."¹ In the station are many large Arab houses built of adobe, with large doors and windows; here a daily market is held, "and the business attendant upon this, the presence of so many well-clothed people, the various fruit trees, and the whole appearance of the place has an air of plenty and civilisation very attractive to the traveller" (*ib.*) The Church Missionary Society has a station at the neighbouring village of *Uyui*, and the whole region between Tanganyika, Nyassa, Nyanza, and the coast is already dotted over with similar establishments, such as those of Masasi in the extreme south, and Usambiro (Makolo's) in the extreme north, all so many centres of civilising influences, where nothing but pure savagery prevailed before Burton and Speke's memorable expeditions to the equatorial lakes.

The great Arab slave and ivory depôt of *Ujiji*, from

¹ A. B. Hore, *op. cit.* p. 180.

which, before the discovery, Tanganyika itself was known by report as the "Sea of Ujiji," is admirably



UJJI, GENERAL VIEW.

situated for trading purposes on the direct route from the Upper Congo (Nyangwe) across the lake and through Unyamwezi to Zanzibar. Under the changed conditions

AFRICA



it might hope to become the great emporium of the lacustrine basin, and one of the future centres of culture in Central Africa, but for its malarious climate; for it lies low, on the very margin of the lake, and behind it spreads the swampy district of the Lower Malagarazi, which, in the rainy season, becomes an almost impassable quagmire. Ujiji, so called from the local Vua-Jiji tribe, is properly the name of this district, the real name of the station being *Kahwele* or *Kavele*. Except for the fine prospect it commands of the lake, here over 40 miles wide, Ujiji is not an attractive place; "the big Arab houses, although assuming to be built after the mode of Solomon's Temple, are after all only huge mud huts, and the general aspect of the place is squalid and unwholesome in the extreme."¹

In this respect Ujiji presents a marked contrast to *Warahanjé*, capital of Karagwe, and the late King Rumanika's residence, which stands at an altitude of 4350 feet, in one of the most salubrious and romantic districts in Africa. It commands a charming view of the lovely Lake Raveru (Windermere), and a little to the east lies the Arab trading station of *Kufro* (*Kafuro*). But regular communications have long been interrupted with Karagwe, and it is uncertain whether, amidst the local political convulsions, the Arabs have been able to maintain their position at Kufro, their farthest outpost west of Victoria Nyanza.

¹ A. B. Hore, *op. cit.* p. 160.

CHAPTER XI

BRITISH EAST AFRICA

General Survey ; Extent, Population, Political Situation—Progress and results of Geographical Exploration—The Tana, Juba, and Sabakhi Basins—Exploration of Masai and Kavirondo Lands—Exploration of the Equatorial Lake Region—Physical Features ; the Coastlands—Masailand—Lakes Naivasha, Baringo and Samburu—The Kenia and Aberdare Highlands—Kavirondoland—Usoga ; Uganda ; the Victoria Nile—Unyoro, Koki, Ankole—The Albertine Nile ; Lake Albert Edward—The Semliki River ; Lake Albert Nyanza—Ruwenzori—Inhabitants—Table of the Chief Tribes and Natives of Ibea—General Ethnical Relations in Ibea—The Bantus of the Tana Basin—The Masai, Wa -Kwafi, Andorobo—The Waganda ; the Kitwara Empire ; Historical Survey—Political and Social Institutions—The Wanyoro ; Kingdom of Unyoro—Towns, Stations, Progress and Prospects—The Zanzibar Protectorate.

General Survey ; Extent, Population, Political Situation

THE territory secured by England in East Equatorial Africa as a result of the dismemberment of the Zanzibar domain has received the somewhat fantastic name of *Ibea*, a term formed by the initial letters, I. B. E. A., of the full title *Imperial British East Africa*. As in the Niger and Zambesi regions, this territory was organised and for some time administered, not by the British Government, but by a trading association which bore the name of the "Imperial British East Africa

Company," and which held a royal charter dated 3rd September 1888. So early as the year 1824 a British protectorate had been proclaimed by Captain Owen of the *Leven* over part of Mombasa, the neighbouring island of Pemba, and the strip of coastland between Malindi and the Pangani river. But Captain Owen's action was not ratified by the home government, and no further attempt was made to occupy any territory on the east coast till the appearance of the Germans on the scene in 1884. When it became evident that they aimed at the annexation of all the mainland belonging directly or indirectly to the Zanzibar Sultanate, England was compelled again to intervene, ultimately securing as her share of the spoils all the coastlands north of the Uмба river. By the Anglo-German Agreements of October 1886 and July 1890, the southern frontier was made conterminous all along the line with German East Africa, Germany also withdrawing from the territory of Witu (Vitu) and the neighbouring islets of Manda and Patta, north of the Tana delta, to which she had extended her protectorate in 1885. By the treaties of 1888 and 1889 the Sultan of Zanzibar had ceded to the British East Africa Company all his towns and possessions north of the German domain—that is to say, Mombasa and Malindi, south of the Tana river; Kau and Kipini, with Lamu Island, on the Witu coast; Kismayu, just south of the Jub (Juba) river at the equator; the ports of Brava (Barawa), Merka, Magdisho (Magadosho), Warsheikh, and Maroli along the east Somali coast. But by the Anglo-Italian Conventions of 1889 and 1891, the whole of this coast, from the Juba northwards to Cape Bowen, has been transferred to the Italian sphere of influence, the Juba being here accepted as the common frontier as far inland

as 6° N. lat. The line then coincides with this parallel westwards to 35° E. long., which is followed northwards to the Blue Nile at Fazokl.

British East Africa is thus conterminous with the Italian sphere of influence in Somaliland, Gallaland, and Abyssinia, and is bounded westwards by the Congo Free State¹ and the Congo-Nile water-parting, and southwards by German East Africa. Within these spacious limits are comprised about 450 miles of coastlands, with all the adjacent islands as far south as Zanzibar; a considerable section of South Somali and Galla Lands; the Kenia highlands, with Masailand and the Lake Rudolf (Samburu) depression; the northern section of Lake Victoria Nyanza, with the surrounding native states of Usoga and Uganda; the "Albertine" or south-western head-waters of the Nile, with Lakes Albert and Albert Edward, the Ruwenzori highlands, and surrounding territories of Unyoro, Ankori, Mpororo, Koko, and part of Ruanda; lastly, the Bahr el-Ghazal and White Nile valleys, with a great part of Eastern (Egyptian) Sudan, north-westwards to the frontiers of Wadai. Taken in its widest sense, this vast domain probably exceeds 1,250,000 square miles, with a population vaguely estimated at about 13,000,000. But the portion actually held and directly or indirectly administered by the British Commissioner comprises little more than the coastlands, the Tana basin, the trade routes thence through Masailand and Kavirondo to Usoga and

¹ Towards the Free State the limits are usually made to coincide with the thirtieth meridian, which is claimed by Belgium as its eastern boundary. But the claim has never been formally recognised by England, and as that meridian about bisects Lake Albert Edward and the Ruwenzori highlands, it obviously encroaches on the British sphere of influence, both the lake and the mountains lying well within the Nile basin. In this direction the frontiers should follow the Congo-Nile divide, which has not yet been accurately determined.

Uganda, Uganda itself, with parts of Unyoro, and a few outlying stations on the Ruwenzori slopes and in the Albertine Nile valley. Even from Uganda, owing to political and financial difficulties, the Company had announced its intention of withdrawing at the end of 1892, but was induced to remain till March 1893, an Imperial Commissioner (Sir Gerald Portal) being meantime appointed by the British Government to visit Uganda and report on the state of affairs in that distracted region. At one time it seemed probable that the country would have been abandoned altogether, at least temporarily. But public opinion in England having pronounced emphatically against that policy, it was decided, in accordance with the recommendations contained in Sir Gerald Portal's Report, presented in April 1894, to extend the British protectorate to Uganda proper, with its natural and political dependencies. The protectorate was formally proclaimed at Mengo, present capital of Uganda, on 29th August 1894.

Progress and Results of Geographical Exploration

Although the Portuguese had occupied Mombasa, Malindi, and other points on the coast soon after their arrival in the eastern waters at the close of the fifteenth century, no attempt was ever made by them to penetrate into the interior. The navigable river Tana, giving relatively easy access to the Kenia highlands, was never explored beyond a few miles above Formosa Bay and the neighbouring delta; while Kenia itself, like its southern rival Kilimanjaro, continued to be shrouded in mystery till the veil was slightly lifted by Krapf in 1849. The same pioneer explorer again sighted Kenia in 1851 from the Upper Tana, which he had reached by an overland

route from the missionary station of Rabai, near Mombasa. Our knowledge of this region was again somewhat advanced in 1865 by Baron von der Decken, who first determined the true relations of the Ozi to the Tana, ascending the former river to Kau, and passing thence through the deep and rapid Beledzoni Channel into the Tana at Charra about the head of the delta. Further progress was made in 1866-67 by the English missionaries Wakefield and New, who reached Ngao on the Tana, and navigated Lake Ashakababo, which at that time communicated with the river, but which since the floods of 1873 has greatly subsided, and is now no longer connected with the main stream.

The Tana, Juba, and Sabakhi Basins

But the first systematic survey of this important artery was made in 1878 by the Brothers Denhardt, who ascended to Masa (Ripa), 160 miles from its mouth, and found it navigable throughout the year to this point. Its exploration was completed by the expeditions of the British East Africa Company's officials, Mr. Pigott (1889) and Captain Dundas, who in 1891 took the steamer *Kenia* as far as Hameye above the Ibea Company's station of Balarti, and a short distance below the Hargazo or Hoffmann Falls, at the head of the navigation, some 360 miles from its mouth. From this point the course of the Tana was followed partly by canoe, partly by land, to the Grand Falls in the Wathaka country, where there is a clear drop of about 60 feet close to the confluence of a large tributary from the north-west. Beyond these falls the main stream was traced to some of its head-waters on the southern slopes of Kenia, which was ascended to a height of 8700 feet. Above

Hameye the Tana was found to be quite unnavigable, presenting the aspect of a large mountain torrent obstructed by boulders or tumbling over a succession of falls and rapids. But its navigable middle and lower course has been compared to "a miniature Nile," winding through a vast alluvial plain, and for the most part confined between low banks, which are overflowed and the surrounding districts flooded during the rainy season. A great drawback is the shallow bar at the entrance, and, like most streams flowing through alluvial tracts, the Tana has many sharp bends, "with a constantly shifting channel, caused by the water undermining the concave side of the banks and throwing up the sand on the convex points opposite, thus rendering it impossible to mark out any regular channels."¹

On his return to the coast Captain Dundas took the *Kenia* up the frontier river Juba to Bardera, 387 miles from its mouth, and after overcoming the hostility of the local chiefs, he ascended 20 miles farther up to the rapids at the head of the navigation, in the very heart of the Somali country. In his survey of this river he had been preceded by the disastrous expedition of Baron von der Decken (1864), who was murdered with five of his companions at the foot of the rapids, where Captain Dundas found the wreck of his steamer, the *Guelph*, embedded in the rocks, the funnel still standing, cylinders and boiler still in position. Since von der Decken's time, the Juba had remained closed to European enterprise till the way was again opened by the tact and skill of Captain Dundas. Beyond the rapids all navigation ceases, the stream here rushing at a velocity of 7 miles an hour between its rocky walls, with a depth in many places of little over 3 feet. But

¹ Ernest Gedge in *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* August 1892, p. 529.

the country was found to be highly productive, the rich and fertile Goosha lands extending for over 100 miles along the river banks, and yielding plentiful crops of tobacco, cotton, and several kinds of cereals. At Bardera the Juba is also crossed by the great caravan route, by which large quantities of ivory and other produce are brought down from the rich Boran country. Hitherto all this merchandise has been forwarded to the coast by camels, but the successful issue of the Dundas expedition shows that it may be intercepted at Bardera and sent down by the river at greatly reduced rates.

Thus, despite the difficulties of their navigation, both the Tana and the Juba possess great economic importance, their rich alluvial valleys presenting broad belts of well-wooded fertile lands, which afford relatively easy means of access across the arid steppe to the productive plateau regions of the interior. The same remark applies even more forcibly to the Sabakhi, which reaches the coast at Malindi, and is navigable only for small craft up to the first rapids, some 60 or 70 miles from its mouth. But it offers an excellent highway to the inland plateaux, affording a supply of water throughout the year, besides an abundance of fodder in the rich grassy glades fringing its banks. The Athi, as its upper course is called, rises on the Kikuyu plateau, south of Kenia, and flows in a south-easterly direction through the arid steppe, where the cactus, prickly pear, mimosa, acacia, and other thorny or scrubby plants form the characteristic vegetation. Here the huge granite rocks cropping out above the surface often contain large natural water-worn reservoirs four or five feet deep. "These water-holes are a singular phenomenon, seeing that the country shows so few other signs of the action of running water. Through scores of years, perhaps

centuries, the stone which had found its lodgment in a hollow in the rock must have ceaselessly revolved round and round, impelled by an eddying whirlpool of water, wearing for itself a larger and larger cavity, deeper and deeper, with perfectly rounded and smooth sides. And now the rock forms part of the waterless plain; the very stone which wore the strange hole is often to be seen; the cavity worn by ages of water-action is now the sole storage for water in a waterless country. Strangest of all, it seemed that these water-holes at Taru were not in the bed of a stream nor even on the low-lying ground, thereby indicating a complete change of configuration as well as of climatic conditions."¹

The projected railway from the coast to Lake Victoria will probably follow the Athi valley to its source, and then continue in a north-westerly direction by Lakes Naivasha and Nakuro and across the Mau plateau to Upper Kavirondo, descending by the Nzoia valley south-westwards to the north-east corner of the lake.

Exploration of Masai and Kavirondo Lands

Previous to its ascent by Captain Dundas, Kenia had never even been sighted since Krapf's time till the year 1883, when it was twice seen from distances of 60 and 25 miles by Joseph Thomson during his memorable expedition through Masailand to Lake Victoria Nyanza. The most successful attempt hitherto made to reach the summit must be credited to Count Teleki and Lieutenant von Höhnel, who on their journey to Lake Samburu in 1887 ascended to a height of 15,350 feet, or within about 3000 feet of the loftiest peak.

¹ Captain F. D. Lugard, "Travels from the East Coast to Uganda, etc.," in *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* December 1892, p. 819.

A great blank on the map of East Central Africa was removed by the expedition of Thomson, who was the first to visit Masailand proper; that is to say, the region stretching from Kenia westwards in the direction of Lake Victoria, and northwards to Kaffaland. The route followed by this intrepid pioneer ran from Mombasa on the coast mainly in a north-westerly direction round the flanks of Kilimanjaro and to the west of Kenia, along the east side of the great lacustrine depression of volcanic origin, which traverses Masailand in its entire length from north to south. After discovering Lakes Naivasha, Elmeteita, and Nakuro, the explorer reached Lake Baringo, which was long supposed to be a great inland sea, either a rival or an easterly extension of Victoria, but was now found to be quite a small basin, with no visible outflow. From Baringo he turned westwards across the Mau plateau and through Upper Kavirondoland to the north-east corner of Victoria, being the first traveller to reach the great lake from the east. A long series of brilliant discoveries was completed on the return journey by a preliminary survey of the lofty Elgon (Ligonyi) and Chibcharagnani cones at the north end of the Elgeyo (Mau) escarpment. Thomson also approximately determined the position of the great lake Samburu, which lay some 300 miles to the north-east of Victoria, and which was discovered in 1887 by Count Teleki and by him renamed Lake Rudolf, the neighbouring but much smaller basin taking the name of Stefanie.

Hitherto all the routes from Kenia to Victoria had taken a north-westerly direction, so that the tract extending from the mountain due west to the lake had remained a blank on the map of East Equatorial Africa until it was traversed by the expedition of Messrs. Jackson and Gedge, through South Masailand to Uganda

in 1889-90. This important expedition, which was organised by the Ibea Company for the purpose of opening a new road to Lake Victoria, starting from the Machako station at the foot of the Ukamba Hills, in August 1889, traversed the broad grassy valley of the river Athi, which extends some 30 miles northwards to the densely-wooded Kikuyu district. Beyond the undulating Kikuyu plateau (5000 to 8000 feet), the expedition followed Thomson's route to Lake Naivasha, after which it trended westwards over the Mau escarpment (9620 feet), and across a rolling grassy plateau to the thickly-wooded Wandorobo country. A long and difficult march of several days, through dense forest, and across the "Elephant Plain," where the only paths were elephant tracks running in all directions through the woodlands, brought the caravan to the rugged hilly districts of Sotik and Lumbwa, which are separated by a tract of stony hills from Lower Kavirondo.

Here the expedition turned north-west to a point on Victoria Nyanza at the head of Stanley's Ugowe Bay, and thence by Mount Mnioro northwards to Upper Kavirondo, where a junction was effected with Thomson's route. At this point Jackson turned aside to visit Mount Elgon, which had been discovered by Thomson, and which was now ascended to the rim of the crater (14,044 feet), apparently within 50 feet of the highest peak. The remarkable inhabited caves on the slopes of this mountain were also examined, and found not to be artificial, as Thomson had supposed. There were no indications in any of them to suggest that they could possibly be the work of man. From Upper Kavirondo the expedition continued its route westwards through Busoga (Usoga) to Buganda (Uganda), and reached the Ripon Falls at the head of the Somerset Nile on 6th

April 1890, having traversed 727 miles of a mostly unknown region in 138 marching days.

Exploration of the Equatorial Lake Region

The more inland regions of Buganda and Bunyoro (Unyoro) had already been visited by Speke and Grant, discoverers of Victoria Nyanza, in 1858; by Sir Samuel Baker, discoverer of Albert Nyanza, in 1864; and again in 1875-76, by Stanley on his great expedition across the continent. But beyond the circumnavigation of Albert Nyanza by Mason, Gessi, and other officials of the Khedival Government during the seventies, no further progress was made in this direction till the whole region, from the Middle Congo to the great lakes, was opened up by Stanley penetrating up the Aruwimi valley at the head of the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition in 1887-88. Then were discovered the snowy Ruwenzori Mountains and the Semliki river flowing from the lake now named Albert Edward, northwards to the head of the Albert Nyanza, and all these waters were thus shown to constitute a continuous system, which may be aptly named the Albertine branch of the Nile. Some of the details of this system have since been supplied by Captain Lugard of the Ibea Company, who even established outposts on the flanks of Ruwenzori in 1891. In the same year the Albertine branch was extended far to the south by Emin Pasha and Dr. Stuhlmann. In 1894 Count von Götzen explored the almost unknown region between Lakes Albert Edward and Tanganyika, and discovered the Kifu Lake and the Virunga Mountains, an isolated volcanic group standing in the centre of this great longitudinal trough.

Physical Features ; the Coastlands

North of Mombasa, where the present coast-line begins to trend rapidly north-eastwards, the general rim-like configuration of the continental periphery becomes greatly modified, if not altogether effaced. Here we enter a region where the geological continuity of the eastern seaboard has been broken by the underground forces, which have been at work till comparatively recent times, and which in some places even still reveal themselves by such phenomena as hot springs, sulphurous exhalations, and escapes of vapour from extinct or quiescent craters. All the lofty ranges and culminating peaks — Kilimanjaro, Kenia, Donyo Longonok, the Aberdare mountains, Chibcharagnani, Elgon—are clearly of igneous origin, while the whole of Masailand is traversed south and north by a remarkable volcanic fault extending for hundreds of miles from below Lake Manyara to the foothills of the Abyssinian highlands.

All travellers penetrating from the coast to the interior have been struck by the marked differences presented by the general aspect and relief of the lands traversed by the main caravan routes south and north of the parallel of Mombasa. Those proceeding from Zanzibar towards Tanganyika speak of the narrow strip of low-lying fever-stricken coastlands suddenly interrupted by imposing mountain ranges, or, more correctly speaking, precipitous plateau escarpments, springing abruptly from the plains, and raising an apparently insurmountable barrier to all further advance inland. But the district traversed by the route leading from Mombasa, or the Tana delta, towards Victoria Nyanza presents "no pestilential coast region, and though travelling in the height of the wet season, we have found

no swamps or marshes. On the contrary, we suffer hardships for want of water, as we traverse, upon the whole, a singularly arid region. Neither have we been called upon to ascend any plateau escarpment, or cross any mountain range. A gentle rise, not noticeable to the eye, has carried us over a smooth or slightly undulating country, culminating at Taveta in a height of 2350 feet. We have crossed, it is true, a narrow, low-lying area close to the coast, and made a sudden ascent of some 700 feet to Rabai [near Mombasa]; but this is in no sense comparable to the features we have described farther south. Geologically it has no connection, and geographically a short examination shows that the Rabai hills are a mere local excrescence, with no resemblance to the continental feature of coast mountains succeeding to lowlands.”¹

Masailand

North of Kilimanjaro the waterless Dogilani desert, a boundless saline steppe strewn with fragments of obsidian, is skirted along its western margin by the gloomy escarpment of the Mau plateau, and on the opposite side by the rugged walls of the Kapté and Kikuyu tablelands. Here rise, south of Lake Naivasha, the imposing igneous cones of Donyo Kisali, Donyo la-Nyuki, and Donyo Longonok (nearly 9000 feet), the last mentioned ascended in 1884 by Joseph Thomson, who from the sharp crater-like rim on its summit peered into a yawning chasm from 1500 to 2000 feet deep.² “It was not, however, an inverted cone, as volcanic craters

¹ *Through Masailand*, p. 202.

² In this region the geographical nomenclature is Masai, in which language the frequently recurring *donyo* (*dunyo*, *dunys*) means “mountain,” hence *Donyo Longonok* = “The Mountain of the Big Pit.”

frequently are, but a great circular cavity, with perfectly perpendicular walls, and about three miles in circumference, without a break in any part, though on the south-western side rose a peak several hundred feet above the general level of the rim. So sharp was the edge of this marvellous crater that I literally sat astride on it with one leg dangling over the abyss internally, and the other down the side of the mountain. The bottom of the pit seemed to be quite level, covered with acacia trees, the tops of which, at that great depth, had much the general aspect of a grass plain. There were no bushes or creepers to cover in the stern and forbidding walls, which were composed of beds of lava and conglomerate. Looking towards the north, the first sight that riveted my gaze was the glimmering many-isled expanse of Naivasha, backed to the west by the Mau escarpment. To the south stretched the desert of Dogilani, with the less perfect but larger crater mass of Donyo la-Nyuki.”¹

Lakes Naivasha, Baringo, and Samburu

Lake Naivasha, which Thomson beheld from Donyo Longonok and afterwards surveyed, cannot belong geologically to the remarkable lacustrine system of this region. It is a shallow sheet of fresh water studded with islands, and standing on the plateau at an altitude of 6000 feet. There is no present outflow, and it is evidently of comparatively recent origin, having probably been formed by the damming up of the headstreams of the river Tana by matter erupted from Kenia or some of the other neighbouring cones. It forms an irregular quadrilateral, about 14 miles by 10, and, though destitute

¹ *Through Masailand*, p. 332.

of fish, abounds in hippopotami, and is much frequented by aquatic birds. Some 22 miles farther north are the smaller salt lakes, Nakuro and Elmeteita, whose sparkling waters contrast sharply with the sombre hues of the neighbouring Mau escarpments. In this desolate region of the great median depression the land is strewn with the skeletons of thousands of dead trees, killed either by an escape of mephitic gases, or by the slower process of desiccation, due to a gradual modification of the climate.

A little north of Nakuro the meridional depression inclines northwards in the direction of the lovely Lake Baringo (M'baringo), which, before its discovery by Thomson in 1883, was supposed to be either one of the great equatorial lakes or else a north-easterly extension of Victoria Nyanza. But it was found by Thomson to be a small freshwater basin not more than 200 square miles in extent, without any visible outflow, although fed by several perennial streams from the surrounding heights. It stands at an altitude of 3217 feet, about 40 miles north of the equator, the central attraction of an extremely rugged and picturesque landscape. "Imagine, if you can, a trough or depression 3300 feet above sea-level, and 20 miles broad, the mountains rising with very great abruptness on both sides to a height of 9000 feet. In the centre of this depression lies a dazzling expanse of water, glittering like a mirror in the fierce rays of a tropical sun. Almost in its centre rises a picturesque island surrounded by four smaller islets, a group of nature's emeralds in a dazzling setting of burnished silver. Round the irregular-shaped lake appears a strip of pale green, which indicates a marshy border, and in an outer circle extending up to the mountains spreads a very dark green area, which you know to be table-topped

acacia trees. A remarkable assemblage of straight lines, wall-like extensions, and angular outlines, produces an impressive and quite unique landscape. It speaks eloquently, however, of igneous disturbances; for here you observe numerous earth movements, faults crossing each other at right angles, and other features, which are clearly not modelled by surface agencies, all of them so recent in origin as to remain comparatively untouched by the hand of time."¹

Beyond Baringo the great volcanic fault traversing Masailand is still continued northwards, nearly to the foothills of the Kaffa highlands, here terminating in the flooded saline basins of Basso-Narok and Basso-Ebor, discovered in 1887 by Count Teleki, and by him renamed Lakes Rudolf and Stefanie. Rudolf, which has been identified with the Samburu heard of by Thomson and other travellers advancing from the south, and with the Shambara heard of by M. Jules Borelli advancing through Shoa from the north (1888), is a long narrow sheet of water stretching over 160 miles north and south, with a mean breadth of about 20 miles and a somewhat shifting area of 3000 square miles. It lies some 300 miles north-east of Victoria Nyanza, in a bare arid region scantily peopled by a few Galla fishing tribes, and, like the neighbouring and much smaller Lake Stefanie, it appears to be a closed basin with no visible emissary. It may perhaps send its overflow intermittently eastwards to the Juba, but its level of about 1550 feet, as determined by Teleki's companion Lieutenant von Höhnel, shows that it cannot possibly communicate with Victoria Nyanza (3800 feet), nor apparently with the Sobat or any other south-eastern affluent of the White Nile. It is fed by two considerable tributaries from the north, one of

¹ *Through Masailand*, p. 395.

which, Teleki's "Niam-Niam," is evidently Borelli's Omo flowing southwards from the Kaffa uplands. But until the gap of 60 or 70 miles is filled up between the itineraries of Teleki and Borelli, the interesting problems connected with the hydrography of this region must remain unsolved. The water of Lake Rudolf is potable, although charged with much soda in the south, and yellow and turbid in the north, where its two chief influents, the Omo and Bass, deposit "an extraordinary quantity of dark earth."

The Kenia and Aberdare Highlands

Most of the so-called mountain ranges in Masailand are either plateau escarpments skirting both sides of the lacustrine depression at a remarkably uniform mean elevation of 8000 to 9000 feet, or else huge and somewhat isolated volcanic masses scarcely anywhere presenting the aspect of a continuous system. Kenia, however, hitherto supposed to be a detached cone, like its southern rival Kilimanjaro, appears, on the contrary, to be a true mountain chain, "stretching from west to east, commencing in the high Leikipia (Lykipia) plateau, and rising steadily until it culminates in the great double peak. Then comes the second large peak, with five or six other smaller ones; after these again some lower mountains, all more or less connected; and, finally, an isolated hill is seen rising in the Barra to the east."¹ But the dominant snow-clad peak, rising to a height of from 18,000 to 19,000 feet close under the equator, towers so much above the surrounding crests as to present the appearance of a solitary majestic cone to observers surveying it from

¹ "The Dundas Expedition up the River Tana to Mount Kenia," *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* August 1892.

a distance. "The sides of this upper peak are so steep and precipitous that on many places the snow is quite unable to lie, and in consequence the rocks appear here and there as black spots in the white marble. Hence its Masai name of Donyo Egèrè, the speckled or grey mountain. The peak is strikingly suggestive of an enormous white crystal or stalagmite, set upon a sooty basement, which falls away gradually into the dark emerald green of the forest region round the base."¹

Kenia is separated from the eastern scarp of the median depression by the Aberdare Mountains, another chain disposed at right angles with it, and running north and south for a distance of 60 miles at an altitude of about 14,000 feet. Having no collective native designation, it was named the Aberdare Range by its discoverer, Thomson, in honour of the President of the Royal Geographical Society, which had despatched him to Masailand. From the slopes of these mountains the traveller, looking westwards, commands an extensive view of the long dark line of the Mau escarpment, which, under the name of Elgeyo, is continued northwards to Mount Chibcharagnani (12,000 feet), facing the still loftier peaks of the cavernous Mount Elgon or Ligonyi (14,000 feet), a little farther west.

This northern, more mountainous, and generally more elevated division of Masailand, with a mean altitude of about 6000 feet, differs in a marked degree from the southern and more arid section of the Dogilani wilderness, with an altitude of less than 4000 feet. "A more charming region is probably not to be found in all Africa, probably not even in Abyssinia. Here are dense patches of flowering shrubs; there noble forests. Now you traverse a park-like country enlivened by groups of

¹ *Through Masailand*, p. 386.

game; anon great herds of cattle or flocks of sheep and goats are seen wandering knee-deep in the splendid pasture. There is little in the aspect of the country to suggest the popular idea of the Tropics. The eye rests upon coniferous trees, forming pine-like woods, and you can gather sprigs of heath, sweet-scented clover, anemone, and other familiar forms. In vain you look for the graceful palm—ever present in the mental pictures of the untravelled geographer.”¹

Thomson speaks favourably of the climate of Masailand, which, though hot, is dry, with a rainfall of about fifteen inches on the lower desert region, and of from thirty to forty on the higher plateaux. Owing to this slight precipitation, which is almost entirely confined to the months of February, March, and April, “the lower plains are practically desert, though the soil is of the richest character. There are absolutely no marshes, with their physical discomforts and poisonous exhalations breeding disease and death. The air is dry and invigorating, and, though the days are hot, yet the breezes blow with refreshing coolness, and a night of low temperature—and even frequently of intense cold—braces one up for the fatigues of the garish day. The contrast indeed is felt to be just a little too great, when you rise shivering in the morning, to see the grass covered with hoar frost, and then in the afternoon find yourself perspiring in the airiest of costumes under a shady bush with the temperature above 90° Fah.”²

Kavirondoland

Masailand proper is separated westwards by the extensive forest zone of the Nandi and Wandorobo

¹ Thomson, *op. cit.* p. 407.

² *Loc. cit.* ii. p. 409.

elephant hunters from the Victoria Nyanza coast region of Kavirondoland, which, like Masailand itself, comprises two distinct sections—Upper and Lower Kavirondo. The former presents the appearance of a rolling expanse of highly-cultivated fertile land, well watered by numerous streams mostly flowing from the Elgon and Chibcharanga heights through the Nzoia south-westwards to the north-east corner of Victoria Nyanza. There is a general absence of trees, but much rich pasturage; and Thomson, the first European who traversed the district, was much impressed by the surprising number of villages, the comfortable air of the teeming population, and the apparently inexhaustible abundance of cattle, sheep, goats, poultry, milk, eggs, honey, beans, and other supplies. Upper Kavirondo extends from the equator for about 30 miles northwards to the southern slopes of Mount Elgon, while Lower Kavirondo, first visited by F. J. Jackson in 1889, stretches for about the same distance from the equator southwards to the Sotik district at the southern extremity of Ndoroboland. It is separated by a range of stony hills covered with grass and scrub from the eastern district of Lumbwa, and some of the central parts are thickly peopled and fairly well cultivated. But elsewhere the prevailing features are low hills or rolling tracts covered with grass, scrub, or bush. The drainage is to Ugowe Bay through the Nyando and a few other small coast streams.

Despite its equatorial position, the Kavirondo plateau, standing at elevations of from 7000 to 8000 feet, enjoys a cool and exhilarating climate, and, taken as a whole, is regarded by Lugard as a promising field for European colonisation. "This country," he writes, "seems to me to be one of great possibilities. To us who have spent so long in the Tropics it seemed like one of Arctic cold at an elevation of 7000 to 8000 feet and more. It is here that

I should like to see the grand experiment of European colonisation tried, the experiment the result of which is to determine the future of the vast continent. The locality is admirably adapted to stock-rearing operations, and ranching on the lines adopted in Manitoba and the Far West. This plateau is crossed by the equator . . . and should it appear that the nearer the equator the healthier the locality, given sufficient altitude to ensure the requisite climate, a point will have been established which may revolutionise our ideas of the Dark Continent and transform its history.”¹

A striking feature of the local flora is a magnificent species of juniper, which shoots straight up without a branch to a height of 50 feet, with a girth of 15 or 16 feet. Bamboos also flourish in these forests, as well as the various species of fig, from the bark of which the Wasoga and Waganda manufacture the beautiful soft *mbugu* cloth forming the material of the national costume.

Usoga ; Uganda ; The Victoria Nile

Kavirondoland is conterminous westwards with the great empire of Uganda, which with its vassal states of Usoga, Usongora, Uzinja, Budu, and other outlying provinces comprises all the northern and north-western coastlands of Victoria Nyanza. In its physical aspects Usoga, which comprises the whole region between the frontier river Sio and the Victoria Nile, does not differ greatly from the less elevated parts of Kavirondo. But the transition is somewhat startling, from the rude and naked Wakavirondo to the semi-civilised Wasoga, arrayed in their flowing black-dyed *mbugu* robes. Usoga is a densely-populated region covered in many parts with a

¹ *Loc. cit.* p. 822.

continuous succession of large settlements, cassava and banana plantations. Most of the horned cattle have been swept away by the terrible plague which is even still devastating the east equatorial regions; but numerous flocks still remain, and such is the abundance of agricultural produce that Usoga has been called "the cook-pot of Uganda." It is ruled not by a king but by about twenty semi-independent chiefs, over whom the feudal lords of Uganda claim a sort of paramount jurisdiction.

Uganda proper, which, with the provinces of East and West Singo, extends from the Upper Victoria Nile to Unyoro, is a region of interminable rounded hills of red marl, shaly gravel, and iron-ore slag, rising little more than 300 feet above the intervening gently sloping valleys of a rich black humus, which stand at a mean altitude of about 4200 feet above sea-level and 400 to 500 above the great lake. So regular are the contour lines of the billowy heights that many affect the appearance of artificial mounds or barrows usually clothed with pasturage of fair quality, or else a peculiar sharp-pointed spear-grass, while the marshy depressions are in many places overgrown with coarse elephant-grass and dense papyrus, with an undergrowth of reeds and marsh ferns.

There is a great dearth of timber in East Singo, where the date palm is almost the only tree. But West Singo is somewhat densely wooded with borassus, acacia, euphorbia, and other growths characteristic of a poor and rocky soil. In this district, which abounds with elephants, the marls and iron-ore slag are replaced by granite and sandstone, and the soil and herbage are of inferior quality. But still farther west the ground falls in the direction of Unyoro to an elevation of 3900 feet,

here broadening out in a vast plain or level plateau of great fertility. Despite its altitude and general hilly character, the whole of Uganda is characterised by a singular absence of rapidly-flowing waters. "Even in April, in the daily deluge of rain, there is no marked watershed. The valleys are merely damp or even swampy, but in almost every instance can be crossed dry-shod. The rivers are large papyrus-swamps with no perceptible current and little water."¹ The Katonga frontier stream towards Budu, although figuring on the maps as a large river, is little more than a broad marshy expanse draining eastwards to Victoria Nyanza. The Mwanja, with its Mwerango tributary and most of the other sluggish swamp-rivers, drain to the Kafur, which flows north-east to the left bank of the Somerset Nile at Mruli. This characteristic absence of free-flowing water-courses is probably due to the dense vegetation on the lower slopes of the hills intercepting the tropical down-pours, while much moisture is absorbed and the natural drainage obstructed by the tangled masses of papyrus and other aquatic growths in the depressions.

In Uganda there are two rainy seasons—a lesser usually from October to the middle of December, and a greater from March to the end of May. The former is followed by a period of great heat and dryness, during which the grass is burnt and the vegetation everywhere parched, except in the swampy districts. But occasionally the rainfall of both seasons is equally copious, and in 1891 the precipitation was so heavy that Lake Victoria rose fully six feet above its normal level. Hence the exceptionally high floods recorded in the month of September of that year in Egypt, 3000 miles away.

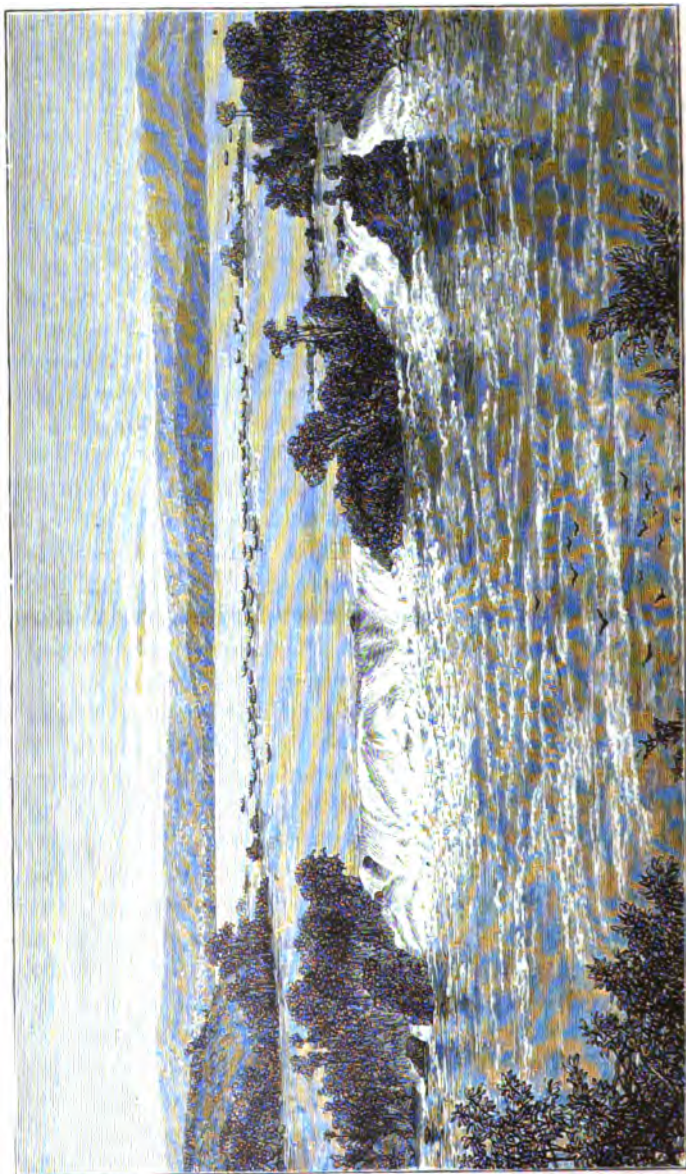
The Somerset Nile, so named by its discoverer, Captain

¹ Captain Lugard, *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* for April 1892, p. 239.

Speke, in 1862, but now better known as the Victoria Nile, sends the whole of the overflow of the Victoria Nyanza northwards to the Mediterranean. Immediately after leaving the lake a little north of the Equator, it develops the Ripon Falls, where it descends 12 feet between protruding gneiss walls. This may be regarded as the first step in the somewhat rapid incline from the more elevated southern to the more spacious northern section of the continental plateau (see vol. i. p. 5). Beyond the Ripon Falls Speke followed the stream in its northerly course for 35 miles to Urongani, where he was obliged to leave it and turn north-westwards to the kingdom of Unyoro; he did not again strike the river till he had reached Mruli, at that time capital of Unyoro, so that a stretch of about 60 miles remained to be explored. It was not till 1874, when Colonel Long made a perilous canoe voyage down the river from Urongani to Mruli, that this gap was filled up, and the connection of the Victoria Nyanza with the Nile basin placed beyond all doubt.

After two or three days' paddling down stream between banks covered with an impenetrable growth of papyrus, the canoe emerged in a broad expanse where the river seemed to be lost. "I looked in vain," says Long, "for the opposite shore. Stretching away to the eastward a scarcely visible line seemed to indicate land, certainly 20 miles away."¹ As he advanced into the lake, since named Lake Ibrahim, what seemed to be land towards the west proved to be a vast sea of lilies floating on the surface and growing up from great depths. A great papyrus jungle, springing from the so-called "sudd" or tangled mass of floating vegetation, surrounds the lake, which extends N.W. and S.E. a distance of some 30

¹ Colonel C. Chaillé Long, *Central Africa*, 1876.



VII
VIEW OF RII'ON FALLS.

miles. Detached islets of matted growths drift away with the current from the north-west corner of the lake, whence the stream flows in the same direction beyond Mruli; then north to the Karuma Fall, discovered by Speke and Grant; then due west over the grand Murchison Falls (120 feet high), first seen by Sir Samuel Baker,—and so on to the northern end of Lake Luta Nzige, renamed Albert Nyanza by its discoverer, Baker, in 1864. It would appear that the Victoria Nile, a broad, deep rapidly flowing stream, “a giant at its birth,” carries off a much larger volume from Lake Victoria than the combined contributions of the Nzoia, Kagera, Simiyu, Ruwana, and all its other affluents, which are neither numerous nor copious. When the enormous evaporation of an equatorial basin 27,000 square miles in extent, is also taken into account, it seems difficult to explain this excessive discharge. Doubtless much of the evaporation is returned by the heavy local rains, and what is still required to maintain the basin at a constant level and feed its great emissary may perhaps be supplied by a subsoil drainage carried to the lake by perennial springs (Lugard).

Unyoro, Koki, Ankole

The middle and lower course of the Victoria Nile forms, with Lake Albert, the eastern, northern, and western limits of Unyoro, which, although separated towards the south by no very distinct physical features from Uganda, nevertheless presents in its general aspect a decided contrast to that region. Gently rounded grassy knolls give place to rugged granite heights, boulders of fantastic shape, bare rocky peaks and crags. Many of the hills are full of large caves, which, like

those of Mount Elgon, are spacious enough to shelter the natives and their herds. The soil in the valleys and on the slopes of the hills is extremely fertile; the country is tolerably well timbered, and yields great quantities of crops, although the people depended largely for their support on their cattle, until the herds, as in Uganda and Masailand, were recently swept away by the plague. Bananas are not so prevalent as in Uganda, but much more maize is raised, besides cassava, sweet potatoes, beans, caffre-corn, semsem, and dhal. Streams of running water are numerous, and Captain Lugard considers Unyoro to be "healthy, and second to none in natural resources and richness of soil."¹

Beyond the southern frontier of Uganda proper the vassal states of Budu, Koki, East and West Ankole, and Kitagwenda occupy the whole region comprised between the Katonga and Kagera rivers north and south, and between the Victoria and Albert Edward Nyanzas east and west. This was practically an unknown land before its exploration in 1891 by Captain Lugard, who, in the summer of that year, conducted an expedition from Uganda to the relief of the Sudanese refugees at Kavalli's, on the south-west shore of the Albert Nyanza. After determining the position of Lake Kasherā between the petty state of Koki and Ankole, the explorer surveyed numerous other deep circular depressions, like volcanic craters, some of which were flooded with clear blue water of great depth; while others resembled dried-up ponds sinking over 100 feet below the surrounding country, which stood about 4200 feet above sea-level. East Ankole, a rugged hilly district traversed in all directions by ranges about 5000 feet high, has a poor, unproductive soil yielding little but spear-grass, acacias, and thorny scrub, though in some

¹ *Loc. cit.* p. 239.

places abounding in game and even elephants in the wet season. West Ankole, on the other hand, and the neighbouring Kitagwenda, are extremely fertile and well cultivated, producing great quantities of mtama (caffre-corn), bananas, cassava, maize, beans, and sweet potatoes. Iron ores occur in many places, and some mines were passed which had formerly been worked by the natives. Even the more sterile districts afford plenty of pasture, besides much babul (thorny acacia), which the Somali accompanying the expedition considered excellent fodder for camels.

The Albertine Nile ; Lake Albert Edward

Beyond Kitagwenda the route trended south-west to the channel, 500 yards wide, connecting the main body of Albert Edward Nyanza with the north-eastern basin of Lake Rusango ; that is, the Beatrice Gulf, discovered by Stanley in 1876, and long supposed to be a southern inlet of Albert Nyanza.¹ Rusango now appears, on the contrary, to be a north-eastern extension of the Mwutan-zigé ("Barrier to Locusts"); that is, the Albert Edward

¹ This identification is established by Stanley's remark that, looking across Beatrice Gulf, he obtained a glimpse of the Usongora country, noted for its mud springs, its conical hills emitting fire and smoke, its frequent earthquakes, and its plains covered with salt and alkali. The position of Usongora is now accurately determined by recent surveys, showing that it is limited by Lake Rusango (Beatrice Gulf) and the Isango or Upper Semliki river east and west, and by Ruwenzori and Lake Albert Edward north and south. In 1891 the I. B. E. A. Company had already founded the outlying stations of Fort Edward, in the Toru district north of Usongora, and Fort George, on the tongue of land separating Albert Edward from the Salt Lake, a shallow little basin lying a short distance west of Rusango. The water of this crater-like cavity is of a deep claret-red, and its banks are covered with a fine saline efflorescence yielding a white rose-tinted salt of excellent quality. Rusango is also known by other names, such as Ruisamba, Kafuru, and Ramsakara.

discovered by Stanley in 1888. Its long axis runs south-west and north-east, and its shores are free from swamp except at the north-west end, where a marshy tract, overgrown with dense jungle, and frequented by great herds of elephants, is traversed by the Wami and Mpanga rivers, through which the countless streams descending from the eastern and southern slopes of Ruwenzori reach the lake. In its lower course the Mpanga flows through a romantic forest-clad gorge 700 feet deep, where its pent-up waters chafe and fret as they rush over the sunken reefs of their rocky bed. The Mpanga is stated to send down a larger volume than is discharged through the Semliki (Isango, Itiri) emissary of Lake Albert Edward to the lower basin of the Albert Nyanza. As the Albert Edward receives several other affluents, especially from the south, the excess of inflow over outflow must be almost too great to be accounted for by evaporation. But such hydrographic difficulties, which so often present themselves on the discovery of large water systems, are usually removed by later surveys and more accurate measurements.

Albert Edward appears to cover a much smaller area than formerly. "Five feet of rise would increase its extent five miles to the north and five miles to the south. Fifty feet of rise would restore the lake to its old condition, when its waves rolled over the pebbled beach under the shadows of the forests near Mtsora. . . . If we sound its depths, the pole drops through four or five feet of grey mud, to which are attached thousands of mica flakes and comminuted scales and pulverised bones of fish, which emit an overpowering stench. And atom by atom the bed-rock between the forest of Awamba and the Lake Albert Edward is being eroded and scoured away, until, by and by, the lake will

have become dry land, and through the centre of it will meander the Semliki, having gathered the tributaries from Ruwenzori, the Ankore and Ruanda uplands, to itself." ¹

The Albert Edward Nyanza was again visited in 1891 by Emin Pasha and Dr. F. Stuhlmann for the purpose of determining its extent and exploring the surrounding districts. They found that it stretched from the equator about 45 miles to the south, where it receives two considerable influents, the Ruanda and the Ruchuru, descending from the Ruanda uplands through the broad savannah-covered plain which occupies the whole space between the plateau escarpments of Mpororo and the Kasali mountains towards the south-west.² Here the British is conterminous with the German sphere of influence, the frontier line being indicated by Mfumbiro (11,500 feet) and several other undoubtedly volcanic peaks, culminating in Mount Kisigali, about 13,000 feet high. According to Count von Götzen, who ascended it in 1894, Virunga (Viagongo), the most distant of these cones towards the south-west, is still active.

From the present level of Albert Edward (3300 feet),³ the ground slopes gradually upwards to about 5300 feet at Kiaya. Here the route followed by Lugard descends to the head of a narrow glen, while the plateau trends away to the right, forming the Unyoro uplands, and from the Semliki valley presenting the aspect of a lofty range. The fertile Kiaya valley is watered by numerous streams and occupied with banana groves and much tilled land. Beyond Kiaya the route lay through a wilderness of

¹ *In Darkest Africa*, ii. p. 309.

² *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* August 1892, p. 541.

³ This is Stanley's estimate, which is reduced by Stuhlmann to 2850 feet, or not more than 550 feet above Albert Nyanza.

quartz under scrub, and intersected at right angles by extensive ravines of rich soil, dotted over with villages, forests, and cultivated tracts. Then followed a lower plateau overlooking the Semliki valley, and commanding a view on the one hand of the Ruwenzori slopes, on the other of what seemed to be a long mountain range increasing in height from south to north, but which were in reality the escarpments of the plateaux, where the head-waters of the Aruwimi, Welle-Makua, and other great Congo affluents have their rise. Here stood the station of Chief Kavalli, whence Captain Lugard brought away some 8000 of the turbulent Sudanese troops who had caused so much trouble to the leader of the Emin Relief Expedition in 1888.

During their stay at Kavalli's these troops had added much to the distress of the unfortunate natives, already exposed on the one hand to the chronic plundering expeditions of Kabarega's bands from Unyoro, on the other to the slave-hunting raids of the Manyemas penetrating eastwards from the Congo basin. How order was now restored, and protection extended to the surrounding populations, is best told in Captain Lugard's simple, dignified language: "So I brought down the Sudanese from Kavalli, and I built five forts from north to south from the Albert to the Albert Edward, and I located the Sudanese in them by regiments and companies; and I left De Winton in charge of Toru—the country bordering the base of the Ruwenzori range—with orders to protect these people both from the licence of the Sudanese and from Kabarega. And the fugitive Wahuma came out from their hiding among the mountains, escaped from their slavery among the Wanyoro, or bade farewell to Ntali, who had sheltered them, and with great rejoicing recognised the boy Kasagama as their king. But old men, chiefs of influence in

the old time, came to me and said, 'The people are eager to come to you. They have seen that you hurt neither man nor woman. They know Kasagama to be the true son of their old king; but they fear that you will go as Stanley went, and then there is only torture and death before them at the hands of Kabarega's armies. In old time the white men came to Mruli and Fauvera in North Unyoro, and the people did not believe they had come to stay, and they would not accept them. But they built forts and stayed, so the people came. And one day they gathered up their things and went; and Kabarega killed all those people who had been friendly to them.' And I replied, 'Do as you prefer; but these lands are British. We have taken them by the agreement of the nations of Europe, and are come to stay.' And when the people saw that we had built these forts and left these Sudanese, and a European was come to live among them, they doubted no longer that we meant to protect them, and place a barrier between them and Kabarega on the one hand, and the Manyema on the other. And De Winton wrote to me shortly afterwards, and said they were escaping from their slavery in Unyoro, and coming in on every side by thousands, with great rejoicing.

"And De Winton did as I had told him, and went round the country with Kasagama, and appointed chiefs to districts, and helped him to arrange the country in peace. And in this task this brave young officer died."¹

The Semliki River; Lake Albert Nyanza

On issuing from Lake Albert Edward the Semliki crosses the equator, and sweeps round the western foot of Ruwenzori on its north-easterly course to the south

¹ *Loc. cit.* p. 839.

end of Albert Nyanza, which it enters through two or more sluggish channels. The fluvial delta thus formed is so completely masked by a waving forest of ambach reeds growing in the shallow waters at the head of the lake that it escaped the notice of Mason, Gessi, and the other Khedival officials sent to survey this great reservoir of the Nile during the seventies. Hence it was that the existence of the Semliki was unsuspected until it was struck by Stanley in 1888 some 30 miles above its mouth. At this point it was 60 yards wide, with a velocity of about five miles, and a little lower down it broadened out to a fine, deep stream 100 yards wide. Higher up it is described as "a loopy, and twisting, crooked stream, forming a wide-stretching S in every mile of its course, and its water was of a whitey-brown colour and weighted with sediment. Out of a tumblerful of the liquid a fourth of an inch of fine earth would be deposited."¹

That section of the Semliki valley which lies under the shelter of the mighty Ruwenzori barrier is described by Stanley as a natural hothouse, where vegetation finds all the conditions necessary to promote a riotous profusion of tropical growths. "Where the humus is deep we find a tall and stately forest, with impervious underwood of young trees, bound together and sometimes altogether hidden by countless climbing vines and robust plants; where the humus is thinner, as near the foot of the range, dense crops of cane-grass, from 10 to 15 feet in height, flourish luxuriant and impenetrable. Every tree-stem has its green robe of soft moss, dripping with dew, and each tree-fern or horizontal branch has its orchids, or broad elephant-eared plant. Every rock is clothed with lichens, and if but the slightest hollow is

¹ *In Darkest Africa*, ii. p. 237.

found in it, there will be seen a multitude of tropical plants crowding every inch. In short, everywhere, except upon the perpendicular face of a late-moved boulder, vegetation thrives of every variety of greenness, form, and character.”¹

During its meandering course of about 150 miles this important section of the Albertine Nile has, according to



Stanley, a total fall of nearly 1000 feet between the Albert Edward and Albert Nyanzas. Long after its discovery by Baker (1864), Lake Albert was supposed to be little more than a backwater of the Victoria Nile, which reaches its northern extremity at Magungo. Later, it was extended on the maps far to the south, so as to form a continuous sheet of water with Stanley's Beatrice Gulf, from which we now know that it is

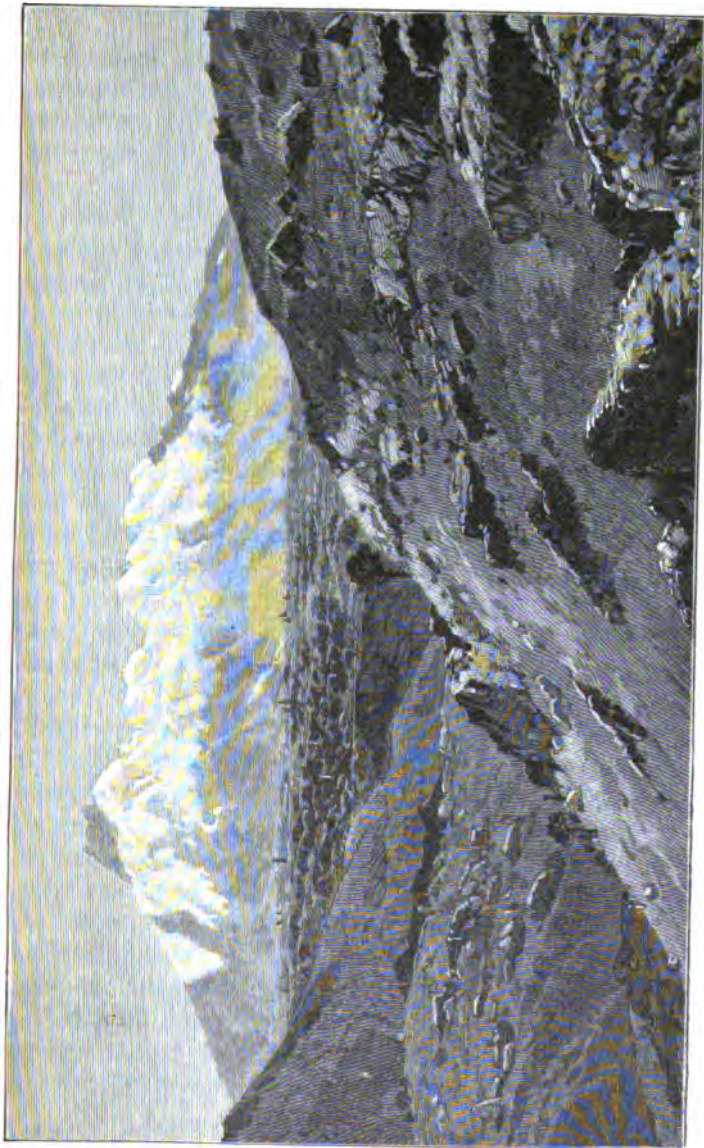
¹ *In Darkest Africa*, ii. p. 296.

separated by the Semliki valley and the Ruwenzori highlands.

Even before its discovery by Sir Samuel Baker advancing southwards from the White Nile, the existence of Albert Nyanza had already been reported by Speke in 1862. But its extent and general outlines were not accurately determined till 1876, when it was first almost completely circumnavigated by the Italian explorer, Romolo Gessi, a member of Gordon's Egyptian expedition. Gessi found it to be 25 miles wide and 100 miles long in the direction from north-east to south-west, where he came upon the already-mentioned impenetrable ambach forest filling the whole southern end of the lake. "From the mast of the boat," says Gessi, "I observed that the forest of ambach extended very far, and that beyond it there succeeded a field or valley of herbs and vegetation which reaches to the foot of the mountains." Lofty mountains, or rather plateau escarpments, enclose the lake east and west, sending down their steep slopes numerous streams and rushing torrents. In 1877 Colonel Mason, an American officer in the service of the Egyptian Government, made a more careful survey of the lake, which fully confirmed Gessi's report.

Ruwenzori

The mountains seen by both of these explorers away to the south proved to be the Ruwenzori highlands, which were discovered and roughly surveyed by Stanley in 1888. They enclose the Semliki valley on the east, and lie nearly due west of Kenia, a little north of the equator, where they culminate in numerous snowy peaks, more than one of which appears to attain an altitude of



RUWENZORI FROM KARIMI.

at least 18,000 feet. From their flanks descend to Lake Albert Edward and to the Semliki river innumerable icy-cold sparkling streams, fed by the everlasting snows of these Alpine uplands, where the snow-line is estimated at about 13,000 feet. Ruwenzori, the "Cloud King," was scaled to a height of 10,677 feet by Lieutenant Stairs, of the Stanley expedition, and again in 1891 by Dr. Stuhlmann, of Emin Pasha's expedition, to within 500 feet of the snow-line. This observer describes the range as for the most part composed of mica-slate, with old granitic eruptive rocks, and adds that it "appears to consist of a number of parallel chains running north-north-west and south-south-east."¹ He distinguished several belts of vegetation, such as bananas and tall grasses, between 3850 and 5350 feet; colocasia and beans cultivated up to 6700 feet, the upper limit of native settlements; deciduous forest trees, with erica and bamboos (6700-8530); erica forests, with bogs and vaccinium (8530-11,800); erica bushes, tree-ferns, senecio, grass, mosses, and lichens up to the snow-line.

From the Semliki valley at Mtsora, Stanley enjoyed a superb prospect of the Ruwenzori heights, which skirt the winding stream for a distance of nearly 100 miles. "A large field of snow and snow-peaks beyond the foremost line appeared in view. During the whole day our eyes had rested on a long line of dark and solemn spurs, their summits buried in leaden mist; but soon after 5 P.M. the upper extremities of those spurs loomed up one after another, and a great line of mountain shoulders stood out; then peak after peak struggled from behind night-black clouds into sight, until at last the snowy range, immense and beautiful, a perfect picture of

¹ *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* August 1892, p. 548.

majestic desolateness, drew all eyes and riveted attention, while every face seemed awed." ¹

In 1894 Mr. Scott Elliot succeeded in reaching an altitude of 12,640 feet, and made a fairly representative collection of the flora. "The conclusion I came to was that a practical mountaineer and a strong man could manage the ascent. I do not believe any peak I saw was above 16,500 feet." ²

Inhabitants of British East Africa

British East Africa, comprising the borderlands between the southern Bantus and the northern Negroes, Hamites, and Semites, is naturally a region of great ethnical diversity, where every race in Africa, the Bushman-Hottentots alone excepted, is more or less numerously represented. Here all the transitions may be studied between the almost pure Negro type of Lower Kavirondo and the nearly perfect European features of the Gallas of the Tana basin; between the dwarfish Batwa of the Semliki forests and the gigantic Wa-Ruguru cavemen of the Kenia uplands; between the wild hunting groups of the Ndorobo forests, who have scarcely yet developed a tribal organisation, and the semi-civilised Waganda, already merged in a somewhat compact nationality.

The present distribution of all these heterogeneous ethnical groups is shown in the subjoined table.

¹ *Op. cit.* ii. p. 264. It was here that the explorer learnt the meaning of the word Ruwenzori, the "Rain-Maker" or "Cloud King." It is known to the surrounding populations by several other names, and much ingenuity has been displayed by commentators in their essays to identify the range with the *Lunæ Montes* of the Ancients. Such speculations seem unprofitable in the utter impossibility of even approximately locating these shadowy "Mountains of the Moon" themselves.

² *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* Oct. 1895, p. 308.

TABLE OF THE CHIEF TRIBES AND NATIONS OF IBEA.

	<i>Wa-Nyika</i>	{ i.e. "Lowlanders," plains north of the Sambara uplands.
	<i>Wa-Duruma</i> ,	near Mombasa district.
	<i>Jalicha</i>	{ Coast people between the Sabakhi and Tana Kalindi rivers.
	<i>Wa-Swahili</i> ,	Kau district, Tana-Ozi delta.
	<i>Dakalo</i> ,	Coast north of Mombasa, serfs of the Gallas.
	<i>Weichu</i>	{
	<i>Chaffa</i>	{ Inland from the Jalicha people.
	<i>Kofira</i>	{
	<i>Wa-Boni</i>	{ About Formosa Bay ; also north of Wituland and on the Middle Tana ; now speak Galla.
	<i>Wa-Sanieh</i>	{
	<i>Wa-Bura</i>	{ Teita district, between the Sabakhi and the German frontier.
	<i>Woramule</i>	{ (Woramle), widespread steppe people, north from the Middle Sabakhi.
	<i>Wa-Pokomo</i>	{ Left bank Lower Tana, from the delta to Kidori, 1° S. lat.
BANTUS	<i>Wa-Kamba</i> ,	Ukamba plains, south-east of Mount Kenia.
	<i>Korokoro</i>	{ Left bank Tana, from the Wa-Pokomo to the Hargazo Falls.
	<i>Wa-Thaka</i>	{
	<i>Wa-Mbé</i>	{ Upper Tana basin, east and north-east of Kenia.
	<i>Wa-Daicho</i>	{
	<i>Wa-Ruguru</i>	{ Cave-dwellers, north slopes Kenia ; doubtful Bantus.
	<i>Wa-Kikuyu</i>	{ Head-waters of the Sabakhi ; south and south-west of Kenia.
	<i>Wa-Nandi</i> ,	east of Upper Kavirondo ; doubtful Bantus.
	<i>Wa-Soga</i>	{
	<i>Wa-Ganda</i>	{ The agricultural and numerically dominant populations of Usoga, Uganda,
	<i>Wa-Nyoro</i>	{
	<i>Wa-Du</i>	{ Unyoro, Udu (Budu), Koki, and Usongora.
<i>Wa-Koki</i>	{	
<i>Wa-Songora</i>	{	

NOMAD MASAI (IL-OIKOB)	{	<i>Turkana</i>	{	Between Lakes Baringo and Rudolf, and thence westwards to the east affluents of the White Nile.
		<i>Elgum</i>		
	{	<i>Molilian</i>	{	Full-blood Masai, ranging from Lake Baringo southwards to Mount Kilimanjaro.
		<i>Lyseré</i>		
	{	<i>Leleyo</i>	{	
		<i>Ngajé</i>		
	{	<i>Kapotei</i>	{	(Kapté), about head-waters of the Athi, west of Ukamba.
		<i>Matumbatu</i>		between the Kapotei and Kilimanjaro.
<i>Kinangop</i>		North-west and west of Kilimanjaro, ranging north to Ndorobo and Nandi, south to Lake Manyara.		
<i>Dogilani</i>				
<i>Engishu</i>				
SETTLED MASAI (WA-KWAFI)	{	<i>Enjemé</i>	{	(Niempse), south of Lake Baringo.
		<i>Kamasia</i>		Wei-Wei basin and Mau plateau, west of Lake Baringo.
	{	<i>Elgeyo</i>	{	West of Kavirondo.
		<i>Kosova</i>		
	{	<i>Lumbwa</i>	{	About sources of the Tana, west of Kenia, and on east slopes Aberdare Mountains.
		<i>Leikipia</i>		
	{	<i>Arusha</i>	{	North-west and west of Kilimanjaro; El-Konono, the serfs or slaves bilingual.
		<i>Meru</i>		
<i>Ruva</i>				
<i>Nguru</i>				

SOMALI: Ogaden branch, between Lower Juba and Tana rivers.

GALLAS PROPER (OROMO)	{	<i>Kokawe</i>	{	Left bank Lower Tana, nearly exterminated by the Somali.
		<i>Bararcta</i>		right bank Middle and Lower Tana.
		<i>Borani</i>		(Arbore or Vuorena), Lower Omo basin, north end Lake Rudolf; two divisions—Ya and Yul; range southwards nearly to Mount Kenia.
BANTU GALLAS (WA-HUMA)	{	<i>Wa-Nyamba</i>	{	Uganda, originally from Karagwe.
		<i>Lango</i>		(Longo), both banks Victoria Nile, between Foweira and Magungo.
		<i>Wa-Hinda</i>		Magungo district, Unyoro.
		<i>Wa-Toru</i>		east slopes Ruwenzori Mountains.
		<i>Wa-Sambo</i>		East Mpororo.
		<i>Ruhayana</i>		West Mpororo.
<i>Waima</i>	(Wa-Nyavingi), Ruanda.			

		<i>Wa-Kavirondo</i> , Kavirondoland.
	}	<i>Shefalu</i> { (Wa-Chopi), Unyoro, south from Murchison Falls, Victoria Nile; traditionally from the White Nile (Shilluk Land).
		<i>Magaya</i> , Juaya and Baganghese districts, Unyoro.
	}	<i>Wichwezi</i> { Aborigines of Unyoro, mostly driven beyond the Semliki to Ulegga.
		<i>Madundi</i> , left bank Victoria Nile below Mruli.
NEGROES	}	<i>Drugu</i> { Wa-Legga, the people of Ulegga, originally from Unyoro.
		<i>Drudu</i> { The people of Lendu, west of Albert Nyanza, akin to the Drugu.
		<i>Wa-Konjo</i> { Large nation west from the Semliki and Albert Edward.
		<i>Wambuba</i> , left bank Semliki, about Lulu confluence.
		<i>Wa-Wamba</i> , right bank Semliki, opposite the Wambuba.
	}	<i>Wa-Lenga</i> { West Mpororo and Butumbi; south of Lake Albert Edward.
		<i>Wa-Yerra</i> {
		<i>Wa-Sigawa</i> }
NEGRITONES	}	<i>Ndorobo</i> { Dwarfish hunting tribes, scattered all over Masailand.
		<i>Efe</i>
		<i>Akka</i>
		<i>Ba-Isua</i>
		<i>Wa-Twa</i>
	}	Upper Ituri and Semliki forests.
		<i>Wa-Sumbo</i>

General Ethnical Relations in Ibea

Here are seen various Bantu, Galla, and Somal peoples in the closest proximity, and at some points even overlapping each other in the Tana basin, which is also exposed to the Wa-Kamba and Masai raiders, and in fact from the ethnographic standpoint presents one of the most remarkable ethnical parting lines in the whole world. For ages it has marked the southern limits of the territory roamed by the pastoral Masai, Galla, and Somal Hamitic peoples, and the northernmost range of the Wa-Pokomo and other agricultural Bantu communities. All these races have long struggled, and

are still struggling for the supremacy, with the result that the pastoral Hamite nomads have for the most part gained the mastery over the settled Bantu peasantry. The same phenomenon is witnessed throughout the whole of these borderlands, as in Uganda and Unyoro, where the intruding Wa-Huma herdsmen from Gallaland are politically the dominant element, and look with contempt on the indigenous Bantu tillers of the land. But the latter being always and necessarily the more numerous, the tendency almost everywhere is for the conquerors to merge in the conquered, whose language they have in some districts already adopted and to whom they have in other respects been largely assimilated. As in England the Anglo-Saxon serfs ultimately absorbed their Franco-Norman rulers, so in Uganda the Luganda Bantu dialect is now current even in court circles, although the late king Mutesa still retained a knowledge of his Galla mother-tongue. So also the Wa-Kwafi, a large section of the Masai pastors, have abandoned their nomad ways, and formed settled agricultural communities in the Lake Baringo district, in Lumbwa and elsewhere. The prefix *Wa-*, apparently adopted by themselves as an element of the collective national name, distinctly points at the growing social ascendancy of their Bantu neighbours. On the other hand, the reverse process has, under exceptional conditions, taken place in some districts, as around the shores of Formosa Bay and along the Lower Tana, where the Wa-Boni and Wa-Sanieh Bantus are now of Galla speech.

Occasionally the process of assimilation, and especially the tendency to exchange a nomad for a settled life, is stimulated by local causes. Thus the terrible plague which has already carried off millions of cattle in Masailand and Uganda, and which is still raging, has driven

many of the Masai and Wa-Huma pastors to take to agriculture. "Before the cattle all died of the plague the Wa-Huma were a purely pastoral people, like the Masai, and such cultivation as existed in the country was entirely undertaken by the Bantu races. . . . Now in their distress and starvation the Wa-Huma are largely dependent on these Bantu settlers for sustenance, *though they are learning gradually to cultivate for themselves.*"¹ But the old habits are difficult to eradicate, and in the Sabakhi valley Captain Lugard met a little group of Gallas wandering aimlessly up and down the steppe. They declared that they were merely "walking about for pleasure, but on inquiry you find that this walk probably began a month or two ago, will continue a month or more yet, that he covers from 20 to 30 miles a day, has no object in walking except the Galla love of roaming, and no wardrobe or belongings of any kind except his 7-foot spear."² But people cannot go on walking for ever, and the time may be foreseen when the wearied Galla pedestrian will find repose in some pleasant farmstead by the shady banks of the Tana or Sabakhi. These Gallas, now located in the steppe region south of the Tana, all belong to the Barareta family, and are "a wonderfully handsome race, with high foreheads, brown skins, and soft, wavy hair, quite different from the wool of the Bantu races."³

The Bantus of the Tana Basin

During the progress of these racial conflicts the sedentary peoples almost invariably play the passive, the nomads the aggressive part. Hence it is that the Bantu tribes along the banks of the Tana have hitherto fared

¹ Lugard, *loc. cit.* p. 832.

² *Loc. cit.* p. 820.

³ *Loc. cit.* p. 821.

no better at the hands of their hereditary Somal, Galla and Masai foes than did the Persian husbandmen of Khorassan at the hands of the Turkoman marauders before the Russian conquest of Turkestan. They have also suffered in recent times from the attacks both of the Wa-Kamba raiders of the Ukamba plateau, and from the Swahili of the Kau district in the Tana-Ozi delta, who appear to have compelled many to become Mohammedans, and now claim all the Wa-Pokomo as their serfs along the Lower Tana as far north as the Ndera district (2° S. lat.) They "take what they require, and then present the owners with a hoe or two, or perhaps not so much, in mock payment" (Gedge). Until recently the Bantu peasantry received similar treatment from the Gallas of the coastlands; but a few years ago the Swahili formed a sort of alliance with the Ogaden Somali (between the Lower Juba and Tana), who swept down on the Galla settlements, captured their stronghold of Kitumbini, and carried off all their cattle. Since then the power of the Gallas has been broken in the Lower Tana districts.

In this basin the most important Bantu nation is the Wa-Pokomo, from whom the river takes its Bantu name, Pokomani. Those of its lower course are a somewhat dejected, servile people, their spirit having been broken by the long oppression of the neighbouring Galla and Swahili populations. Many have become Mohammedans, and even speak the Galla language. The up-country tribes are much more independent, and well able to hold their own against the Wa-Kamba and Masai marauders. But all alike are a kindly, affectionate people, truthful and honest, and strict monogamists. They are skilled boatmen, pursuing the hippopotamus and crocodile with their 10-foot spears. Their settlements line the river-banks, where their bee-hive huts stand on

platforms raised above the highest floods. The Wa-Pokomo, who are of a light-brown colour, are closely allied in speech and appearance to the Wa-Nyika of the southern plains, and, like them, are divided into tribal groups under district chiefs assisted by a council of elders. They are well disposed towards the British authorities, to whom they henceforth look for protection against their former taskmasters.

The Masai, Wa-Kwafi, Andorobo

The Upper Tana regions, beyond the Pokomo territory, are still exposed to the raids of the fierce Masai marauders, who, so recently as 1891, brought swift ruin on the unfortunate people of the Mbé district, on the south-eastern slopes of Kenia. On the return march to the coast the Dundas expedition found the country strewn with decomposing corpses and burnt villages, and met "groups of disconsolate people sitting and standing about, who gave detailed accounts of the horrors of the raid. Their men, women, and children had been slaughtered indiscriminately; the children, being collected, were shut up in huts, which were afterwards burnt over them; the cattle had been seized, and the people's homes broken up and ruined."¹ There is no hope of such chronic miseries being arrested until the British power is as firmly established in the Tana basin as is that of the Russians on the banks of the Murghâb.

The Masai, of whom little was known until their country was traversed by Joseph Thomson in 1883-84, stand out, like the Fulahs, the Fans or Zandehs, as one of the most characteristic races of the African continent. Their ethnical relations to the surrounding peoples have

¹ Gedge, *loc. cit.* p. 528.

been much discussed by anthropologists, though sufficient data have scarcely yet been collected to speak confidently on the question of their origin. At the first glance it is evident that they are neither Negroes proper nor yet Negroid Bantus, from whom they are separated by their language, which is not a Bantu dialect, but apparently a Hamitic idiom betraying some features in common with the Galla branch of that linguistic family. The solution of the problem will probably be found in this fact taken in connection with the physical type, which is nearly as fine as that of the Gallas, Bejas, or any other eastern division of the Hamitic race. But for the slightly oblique Mongolic eye, frizzly hair, and chocolate complexion, they might pass for ordinary Europeans; while the Ngajé, Molilian, and other full-blood tribes are "the most magnificently modelled men conceivable."¹ Not one of the El-moran (warrior class) is under six feet, though their figures are less suggestive of Herculean strength than of Apollonesque grace. "In most cases the nose is well raised and straight, frequently as good as any European's, though passing into the Negro type in the lower class, such as Wa-Kwafi. The lips also vary from the thin and well-formed down to the thick and everted. The jaws are rarely prognathous, while the hair is a cross between the European and the Negro, rarely in piles, but evenly spread over the head" (*ib.*) All this points at the intrusion, at some remote epoch, of a Hamitic people into Negroland, where, like the kindred Wa-Huma Gallas, they have become intermingled in various degrees with the indigenous black populations.

The Masai proper, who affect the title of *Il-Oikob* or "Freemen," are grouped not so much in tribal as in territorial divisions, with no kind of political cohesion,

¹ *Through Masailand*, p. 427.

but often at deadly strife one with the other. Each district is under a *Lytunu*, or fighting chief, elected mainly for his prowess in battle, and a *Lygonani*, a kind of president of the national assembly, elected mainly for his oratorical powers. Beyond this there is no kind of government, and the whole nation may be described as an organised body of cattle-lifters, whose raids have, till recent times, frequently extended to the coastlands, and even as far south as Bagamoyo over against Zanzibar. The El-moran or young men of the fighting class are all trained to this service, for which their strange equipment and formidable weapons—spear, sword, shield, and club—are well suited. In the eyes of the natives no more terror-inspiring figure can be imagined than the young Masai warrior bounding over the grassy steppe, his face enframed in a fantastic ostrich-feather head-dress, a strip of cotton six feet long streaming from his neck, and his legs above the ankle decked with the flowing hair of the colobus monkey, simulating wings. After some twenty years of a roving life, passed amid constant scenes of murder and rapine, the El-moran settles down in his kraal with one or more wives, obtained by barter, and in any fitful mood cast to the prowling hyæna, the fate that awaits himself when his end comes. His religion rejects an after-life, takes no account of visions, dreams, or ancestral ghosts, recognises only the *Ngai*, or supreme being, in a vague way, and believes or fears nothing but witchcraft and the *lybon*, or medicine-man, accredited with the power of conjuring all evil.

But in natural intelligence the Masai, like all other Hamites, far surpass the most gifted Bantu peoples. Hence those who, like the Wa-Kwafi, have exchanged the spear for the spade, show themselves excellent husbandmen, founding peaceful agricultural communities

in several districts, and developing many civic virtues, which speak well for the prospects of the land under an orderly government.¹

Scattered throughout the whole of Masailand, and as far down the Tana valley as the Hargazo Falls, are numerous groups of a wild hunting people collectively known as Ndorobo (Wa-Ndorobo), who in some respects recall the dwarfish tribes of the Congo and Semliki forest regions. They are of short stature and live entirely by the chase, slaying the elephant with a peculiar kind of poisoned spear, and pursuing the buffalo and antelope with bow and arrow. The social organisation has scarcely advanced beyond the family circle, and they stand in somewhat peculiar relations towards the Masai, whose language they speak, and whose protection they enjoy in return for various services. One group on the plateau east of Lake Naivasha has given up hunting and taken to trade, supplying the Masai with vegetable food, which they procure from their Wa-Kikuyu neighbours.

The Waganda ; the Kitwara Empire ; Historical Survey

Disorders, somewhat analogous to those of the Tana and Masai lands, but even more calamitous to the unhappy populations of the equatorial lake regions, have long prevailed in the kingdoms of Uganda and Unyoro.² In Uganda especially racial and social antipathies have

¹ Even some of the predatory tribes are becoming less lawless, and in the Annual Report of the Ibea Company for 1892 it is stated that they lately sent 400 of their people to make peace with the English and accept employment as postal runners between the coast and Uganda and as military police in the coast districts.

² Properly, *Buganda*, *Bunyoro*, like *Budu*, *Busoga*, etc., in the Luganda language ; but the Ki-Swahili forms, *Uganda*, *Unyoro*, are now too firmly established to be set aside.

been aggravated by religious wranglings, direct of all disturbing elements in politically organised lands. Originally the whole of the central plateau comprised between the Victoria and Albertine branches of the Upper Nile basin constituted an integral part of the vast empire of Kitwara (Kitara), of which the present states of Uganda, Unyoro, and Karagwe are mere fragments. According to the somewhat confused national traditions, Kitwara was founded by the pastoral Wa-Huma (Wa-Yima) conquerors from the north-east (Gallaland), who called themselves Wa-Witu, and who penetrated from the coastlands (Wituland ?) up the Tana river and across the Mau plateau to the lake districts over a hundred years ago. Here they established two centres of administration—one in Karagwe, the other in Unyoro, where they are still most numerously represented. Thus were sown the germs of a divided rule, which ended in the dismemberment of the empire probably about the beginning of the present century. The aborigines, over whom was imposed this foreign sway, were all agricultural Negro populations, sprung from one stock and speaking closely-related dialects of one Bantu language. Such were the Wichwezi of Unyoro, the Wa-Nyambo of Karagwe, the Wa-Kangara of Uzinja, and others in Uganda, Usoga, and elsewhere, all of whom gradually amalgamated in various proportions with the Galla intruders, and thus arose the present mixed Hamitico-Negroid populations of the equatorial lake region. But many of the conquerors, especially the upper classes and the dynastic families, kept aloof from the Negro peasantry, whom they despised and regarded as their slaves or serfs. In the Magungo district, at the north-east corner of the Albert Nyanza, there still survives a little group of pure Wa-Huma, the Wa-Hinda herdsmen, whose tradi-

tions bring them from the north-east, and who appear to represent the original stock, whence the Wa-Huma power was spread throughout all the surrounding lands. They claim to have even preceded the arrival of the Wa-Witu, with whom they jointly sent out conquering expeditions, by which the political ascendancy of the pastoral tribes was established on the shores of all the great lakes as far south as Tanganyika. But all these must be regarded as comparatively recent historic migrations, long subsequent to the prehistoric Hamitic movements, by which the indigenous Negro populations have been modified in various degrees throughout the southern half of the continent.

Of the dismembered Kitwara State, the largest share fell to Kamanya, Kabaka ("Emperor") of Uganda, who, as direct descendant of the "Divine Kintu," founder of the dynasty, arrogated to himself the title of overlord of Unyoro, Usoga, Usongora, Karagwe, Uzinja, and many other lands. But most of the outlying provinces were lost during the misrule of his son, Suma (Suna), a ferocious tyrant, who died towards the middle of the century while conducting one of those sanguinary slave-hunting and plundering raids by which the Waganda, like their Wanyoro neighbours, have made themselves dreaded and hated amongst all the vassal peoples. Thus it was that the sway of Uganda was practically confined to the region between the Victoria Nile and the Kagera at the succession of Suma's heir, the young Mutesa,¹ who had been enthroned a short time before the arrival (1862) of Speke and Grant, the first white men who had ever penetrated to the equatorial lake region. But the

¹ "Mutesa, not Mtesa, which the Waganda could not say any more than an ordinary Englishman, who generally calls the name 'teaser.'"—Rev. R. P. Ashe, *Two Kings of Uganda*, p. 47.

European explorers had been preceded by the Arab slavers or their agents, and when Stanley reached the Kabaka's court in 1875 he found it difficult to make head against the growing influence of Islam. Nevertheless Mutesa was induced to admit the English Protestant missionaries, Shergold, Smith, Mackay, Wilson, and others, who arrived in June 1877, and who were fol-



KING MUTESA'S DAUGHTER.

lowed, two years later, by the French Catholic preachers. Henceforth Uganda became the battleground of the rival Protestant, Catholic, and Moslem factions, although held in control during the lifetime of Mutesa, who remained to the last a pagan at heart,¹ and who maintained, in a slightly mitigated form, the traditions of

the cruel despotism introduced by his pagan ancestors. He lived up to the title of "Causer of Tears," assumed by himself, daily shedding blood like water, and organising slave-hunting razzias, which recalled the worst days of his

¹ At one time he had declared his intention of becoming a Mohammedan, and had even issued an edict commanding all his subjects to do likewise. But, suddenly changing his mind, he ordered a general massacre of all the neophytes. "This murderous maniac, called by good people in England 'the humane king of Uganda,' . . . one day ordered 200 youths to be burnt alive, merely because they had gone a little farther than himself in adopting the new creed, having been circumcised by the Arabs" (*Mackay of Uganda*, p. 183). More than once hecatombs of 2000 victims were butchered either in sheer wantonness or else as offerings to the manes of his father, Suma (*ib.* pp. 184, 185).

ruthless predecessor. "Daily went up the terrible cries of unhappy victims, as they were deliberately hacked to pieces with strips of reed sharp enough to be used as knives, condemned very often for nothing or merely for some breach of court etiquette. Frequently furnaces were smoking, in which the agonised bodies of persons, innocent of any crime, were writhing in slow torture till death ended their anguish."¹

But even worse was to come, and during the first period of his successor Mwanga's reign, religious persecutions of the most atrocious character were added to the chronic woes of the land. Amongst the victims, many of them mere children, and some not even Christians, was Bishop Hannington, of the newly-founded diocese of East Equatorial Africa, who was intercepted and murdered in Usoga *en route* by the Masailand road for Uganda (October 1885). Usoga was looked upon as the "back-door" of Uganda, and Hannington's approach in this direction was represented as a danger to the State by Mwanga's Arab advisers, who were now in the ascendant. Both Protestants and Catholics, despite their open antagonism,² were alike involved in the calamity, which revived the horrors of the persecutions during the

¹ Ashe, *op. cit.* p. 82. This writer also describes in vivid language the organised slave raids in which "lust is lord and wrong is right," in which deeds of horror are perpetrated, unrelieved by a single ray of human pity, and in which "vast herds of women and cattle are swept in, as well as thousands of children, to be from henceforth chattels," doomed to a life of appalling misery (pp. 91, 92).

² "Unfortunately, little cordiality prevailed between the French Roman Catholic and the English Protestant missions, their mutual visits serving merely to keep up an outward semblance of courtesy. No joint action was possible, even on the vital question of Mwanga's atrocious persecution, in which both parties were involved. In the interests of morality and civilisation, it seems to me that some international Church code ought to be devised forbidding the presence of two rival missions in the same district."—Junker, *Travels in Africa*, iii. p. 542.

Empire, and like them was marked by many acts of astounding heroism. The lives, however, of the missionaries on the spot were spared, mainly perhaps through the tact and courage of A. M. Mackay (*Mackay of Uganda*), a splendid personality, who takes a foremost rank amongst the pioneers of civilisation in Central Africa.¹

A momentary alliance of all the Christian and Moslem factions resulted in the expulsion of Mwanga in October 1888, when Mutesa's eldest son, Kiwewa, was raised to the throne, but soon after expelled by the Arabs because of his refusal to accept Islam. The same fate befell his younger brother and successor, Kalema, a sanguinary despot, who died in exile in 1890. Meanwhile Mwanga, having declared himself a Christian, was restored by the aid of the English traders and missionaries in 1889, and soon after placed himself under the protection of the Ibea Company,² whose officer, Captain Lugard, took over the general administration of Uganda in 1891. But this brought little intermission of the politico-religious dissensions and court intrigues, the vacillating Mwanga inclining now to one side, now to another. In 1891 the Protestant and Catholic parties³ came to open collision ;

¹ When Dr. Junker passed through Uganda in 1886 on his way from the Sudan to the east coast, he met Mackay, to whose noble character he pays a just tribute, dwelling especially on his "wonderful energy and versatility" (*Travels*, iii. p. 545). After passing scathless through the fiery ordeal of Uganda, Mackay died of African fever at Usambiro, on the south side of Lake Victoria, in February 1890.

² A general treaty with the king and chiefs, dated 26th December 1890, was supplemented by another of a more definite character signed by Mwanga on 11th April 1892.

³ It is not to be supposed that these so-called "English" and "French" factions consisted exclusively of Protestants and Catholics. The leaders, and perhaps a few of their followers, were fanatical partisans, the masses being merely the retainers of these chiefs, whether Christians or pagans.

but the latter, after a few sanguinary encounters, were routed, and Mwanga, who had been carried off by them, was "recovered" by the Company's officers, who had interfered to restore order. Peace, or at least a temporary truce, was established between the three hostile camps on the basis of a redistribution of territory, separate provinces being assigned to the Protestants, Catholics, and Mohammedans, where they may live in harmony together under the nominal authority of the Kabaka, supported by the English Commissioner appointed in 1894, when Uganda became a British protectorate.

Political and Social Institutions—Industries

The Waganda are a highly intelligent people who had already, long before the advent of the Whites or Arabs, developed a regular State organisation, based on an exceedingly complex feudal system of land tenure. At the head of affairs stood the hereditary Kabaka, in theory



UGANDA BOY.

an autocrat and *de facto*, uncontrolled in his relations to the peasantry, who, though slave-holders themselves, were in their turn practically at the mercy not only of the paramount lord but also of their several territorial chiefs. These chiefs, for the most part hereditary, enjoyed almost royal privileges, and were by custom protected from the arbitrary action of the Kabaka, whose power was further restricted by the Lukiko, a sort of Privy Council, composed of the Katikiro (Lord Chief Justice and Prime Minister rolled into one), and of other great dignitaries, such as the Head Executioner and Head Cook, all appointed by the Kabaka himself. Another important functionary was the Admiral of the Fleet, which till recently formed a powerful armament of large, well-built, and well-manned war canoes. Under all these were the Basolonzi, or tax-gatherers, who collected the revenue both in kind (brass and copper wire, bark cloth, and the like) and in cowrie shells, which are real currency in Uganda. There are altogether ten administrative provinces, each under a great chief responsible only to the king, and forming with the Mujasi and Kimbugwa the twelve great chiefs of the land. At present the Mujasi appears to be the leader of the common people, the Kimbugwa of the Catholic, and the Katikiro of the Protestant party, which last numbers about one-third of the entire population.

Before the advent of the English the trade of the country had been chiefly in the hands of the Arabs, who took slaves, ivory, cattle, tobacco, and other produce in exchange for firearms, textiles, glass ware, and other manufactured goods. The routes followed by the trading caravans have been southwards across the lake and through Tabora and Mpwapwa to Zanzibar,

and northwards to Mruli, the great market on the Somerset Nile. A third route has recently been opened from Mombasa through Masailand and Kavirondo to the capital, which since 1862 has shifted from Banda to Rubaga, Nabulagala, and Mengo, the present royal residence. Mengo is overawed by the fortified station of Kampala, recently founded by the Company in the immediate neighbourhood. As formerly in Japan, all the principal feudal lords have residences in the Mengo distinct from their *shambas* or "country seats." Here is also the *Baranza*, or "Audience Hall," the scene of so many tumultuous gatherings in recent times. In the vicinity are two Protestant churches (one large enough to hold 5000) and the ruins of two Catholic churches destroyed during the late disorders.

The Masai route will certainly be followed by the projected railway from the coast to the Victoria Nyanza, the ground for which has already been surveyed, thanks to a sum of £20,000 granted for the purpose by the Imperial Parliament in 1891. This railway is the one condition essential for the development of trade, the suppression of the Arab slavers, and the establishment of permanent orderly government in Uganda. A beginning has already been made with a short line running eight miles inland from Mombasa, the necessary starting-point on the coast. Although the first section only of this line (from Mombasa to the plateau escarpment) was sanctioned by the Imperial Government in 1894, there can be no doubt that it will be eventually continued across the plateau to Uganda.

That the natural resources of the country are ample to support a profitable export trade has been made evident by the recent reports of the Company's servants, as well as by the independent testimony of Mr. Mounteney

Jephson,¹ one of Stanley's officers in the Emin Relief Expedition. Coffee of an excellent quality grows wild in abundance, as it does throughout all the South Ethiopian uplands (Enarea, Kaffaland, etc.), the original home of the plant. Uganda, which is also suited for tea culture, has long been a great depôt for ivory, cattle, and hides. Other future sources of revenue are cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, indigo (wild), vegetable oils, rice, and other cereals, rubber and fibre yielding plants. Nor is there any lack of minerals both in the lake regions and on the Masai plateau, where plumbago, copper sulphate, and excellent iron ores occur in profusion. Captain Lugard even suggests the presence of gold, and speaks of crystalline quartz reefs similar to the gold-bearing reefs seen by him in other parts of East Africa. In return for such products there is an excellent market for British manufactures—cotton and woollen stuffs, crockery and hardware of all kinds—amongst the more civilised and well-clothed agricultural populations of Usoga, Uganda, and Unyoro.

Although the primitive tribal organisation has long been merged in the nation properly so called, traces of the old tribal divisions still survive in the clans (*Kyika*, plural *Ebyika*), each distinguished, as amongst the Bechuana tribes, by its special animal crest or totem, which is held to be sacred, and may not be eaten by any member of the group. But these clans appear to possess rather a social than a political significance, marriage between persons of the same *Kyika* being forbidden. The present class divisions are based on the feudal system of land tenure introduced by the Wa-Huma conquerors; and as there is neither a middle class

¹ Paper on "The Possible Expansion of British Trade in East Africa," read before the London Chamber of Commerce, March 1892.

in the strict sense of the word nor an urban as opposed to a rural population, the social groups are practically reduced to three: (1) The *Bataka*, or landed gentry, mostly chiefs and sub-chiefs, hereditary owners of the land, protected by a traditional code of rights from eviction or capital punishment by the king. (2) The *Bakopi*, or peasantry, said to be so named from the Kopi (Chopi), a conquering Negro people from the north, identified by Emin Pasha with the Shifalu of Unyoro. Although little better than serfs, the Bakopi have at least the right to change their *Mwami* ("Masters"), that is, may transfer their services from one to another territorial despot at pleasure, the services comprising both manual labour and military duty. They are *villains*, or feudal retainers, bound to follow the barons to the wars armed with spear and shield. (3) The slaves or serfs, *adscripti glebæ*, possessing no rights, owned both by the Bataka and Bakopi, and commonly known as *Badu*, that is, natives of Udu (Budu), from which province they were originally drawn. At present they are brought in from all quarters, fetching, according to "quality," from 10,000 to 20,000 cowries (£3 to £6) per head. In many African countries, and especially in Mohammedan lands, domestic slavery is not the worst of human destinies. But the condition of the slave in Uganda is inexpressibly sad, "the deepest degradation that strength can inflict on weakness, the utmost depth of shame to which an unhappy human soul can be dragged."¹

The Waganda have been called the "Japanese of Africa," in reference to their remarkable acquisitive faculty and skill in many industrial arts. "Those few who have had an opportunity of learning any trade have

¹ Ashe, *op. cit.* p. 97.

become most superior workmen. They will construct you a new stock to a rifle which you will hardly detect from that made by a London gun-maker. The Fundi Kisule, who learnt his art from Mackay, is an accomplished blacksmith and gunsmith, and will make a new spring or repair a damaged rifle with admirable workmanship. Their folding stools of rod iron and their beautifully turned out spears attest their ability as blacksmiths."¹ They excel in all the native industries, such as bark-cloth making and dyeing, house and boat building, pottery, brewing, iron, copper, and brass ware, wickerwork, leather dressing, gold and silver embroidery, ivory carving, even soap and candles. Despite the atrocious penal code (burning, semi-roasting, eye-gouging, hacking to pieces with reed splinters, hideous mutilations of all kinds), and although there is little distinction between civil and criminal procedure, the people are excessively litigious, and are constantly appealing to the courts about mere trifles, at the imminent risk of imperilling life or limb. They have, however, a keen sense of justice and fairplay, though "the grounds on which they base their decisions are frequently so utterly foreign to our conceptions that one never knows by what standard of discrimination any particular case is to be decided."²

The Wanyoro ; Kingdom of Unyoro

Since the advent of Europeans, Unyoro has been brought into less contact with the outer world than Uganda. Although Magunyo, Fauwera, Mruli, and some other points were temporarily occupied by the Egyptian Government before the Mahdist revolt, the country has practically maintained its political independence under

¹ Lugard, *loc. cit.* p. 828.

² *Ib.* p. 828.

the ferocious despot Chua, better known as Kaba Rega, who succeeded his father, Kamrasi, soon after Baker's visit (1864). "I am the eighteenth king of my family," said Kaba Rega to Casati,¹ and as such he claims the proud title of Makama ("Monarch") of Kitwara. His reign has been stained by a long series of atrocities, rivalling those of his hereditary foes the kings of Uganda, and by his periodical military expeditions and slave-hunting razzias he had till recently maintained a system of terrorism, especially over the outlying provinces in the Ruwenzori and Semliki regions and as far south as Ruanda, beyond Lake Albert Edward. It was his policy to lean for support on the Arab slave-dealers, who supplied him with firearms and ammunition in return for the captives swept in by his organised raids. Hence a signal service was rendered to the cause of humanity by Captain Lugard's expedition of 1891 against the Mohammedan faction, when he inflicted a crushing defeat both upon them and their Wanyoro allies, who had hastened to their assistance. This was followed by an expedition under Major Owen in December 1893 against Kaba Rega himself, who was again defeated with heavy loss. A line of forts was then established from the Albert Nyanza to Uganda, enclosing a considerable portion of Unyoro, which was formally annexed to the British protectorate in 1894. Thus was broken the power of Kaba Rega, and protection for once extended to the wretched populations hitherto harassed by his undisciplined hordes.

At the time of the discovery Kamrasi's capital was at Mruli, on the Victorian Nile. It has since been shifted successively to Masindi, on a tributary of Albert Nyanza, Nyamoga, and Juaya, which occupy central positions in

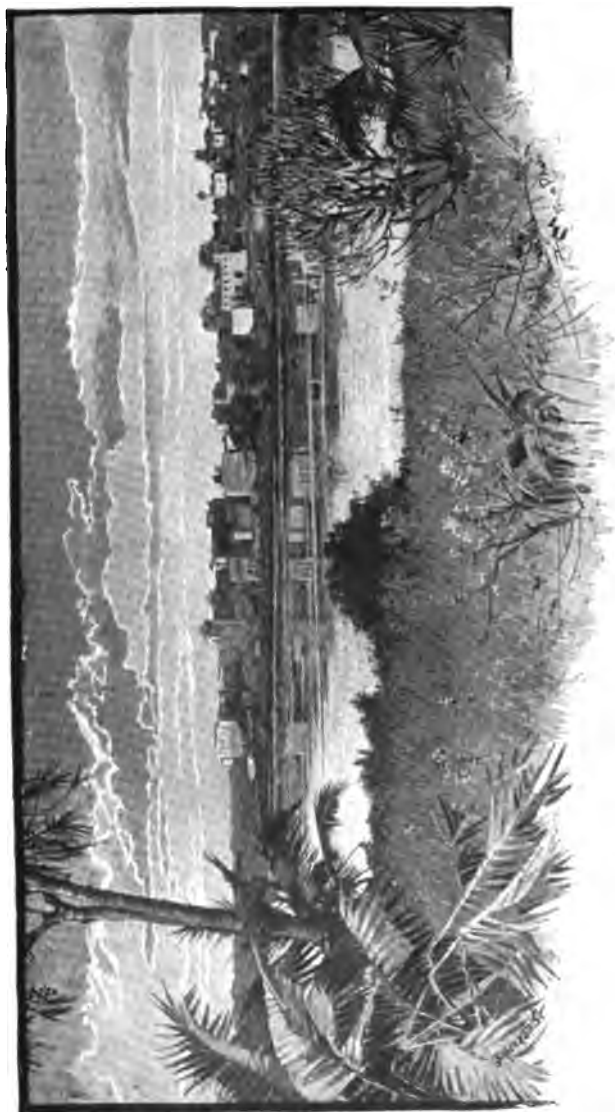
¹ *Ten Years in Equatoria*, ii. p. 46.

Unyoro proper; that is, the region enclosed between the lake and the great bend of the Victoria Nile below Mruli. M'Bakovia (Baker's Vacovia) and Kibiro, on Albert Nyanza, are the centres of a large salt industry, and much excellent salt is also produced at Lake Kihok-yamonyo, north side of Albert Edward, where Lugard founded Fort George to protect the trade. The other staple products of Unyoro are ivory, cattle, hides, gums, and, till the British occupation, slaves.

The Wanyoro are the northernmost of the Bantu-speaking peoples in the Nile basin, being conterminous in this direction with the Shuli, Lurs, and other Nilotic Negro tribes. Like their Waganda kindred, they go fully clothed; and, like them also, are skilled forgers, potters, and weavers of bark cloth. Islam has made great progress amongst them, and most of the Wa-Huma chiefs, as well as the majority of the people, are at least outward followers of the Prophet. Hence the withdrawal of the English from Uganda would inevitably have been followed by a Mohammedan irruption from Unyoro, reviving all the horrors of the slave trade and effacing the rival Christian factions in a deluge of blood.

Towns, Stations, Progress, and Prospects

On the coast the chief towns are *Mombasa* and *Melinda* (*Malindi*), which, long before the advent of the Portuguese, were famous trading places and capitals of petty Moorish (Zanj or Arab) states, maintaining widespread commercial relations with India, Arabia, and Sofala. Mombasa, which has been chosen by the Ibea Company as the centre of administration, was "very large and beautiful, and built of high and handsome houses of stone and whitewash, and with very good streets in the manner of



MOMBASA, FROM THE NORTH SHORE, WITH CUSTOM-HOUSE AND FORT.

those of Quiloa.”¹ But the king, “for his pride and unwillingness to obey the king of Portugal, lost his city, and the Portuguese took it from him by force, and the king fled, and they killed and made captives many of his people, and the country was ravaged, and much plunder was carried off from it of gold and silver, copper, ivory, rich stuffs of gold and silk, and much other valuable merchandise.”² Mombasa, which stands on a coral-line islet close to the coast under 4° S. lat., never recovered this blow; and, after the expulsion of the Portuguese (1698), it sank to the position of an obscure fishing village, with no trace of its former greatness except a few ruined mosques dominated by a crumbling Portuguese fort. But the British occupation has brought about a rapid revival; and, since the completion of the harbour works, the telegraph 120 miles long to and beyond Malindi, and the first link of the railway to the plateau, Mombasa has become a busy administrative and trading centre. The island, which is connected by a causeway with the mainland, forms two deep and well-sheltered harbours, ramifying like fiords a long way inland towards the Rabai hills, where is situated the oldest Protestant Mission on the east coast. Facing Mombasa, on the north side of the intervening channel, stands the settlement of *Frere Town*, founded for the reception of emancipated or rescued slaves, and named from the philanthropic statesman, Sir Bartle Frere.

Malindi, on an open roadstead at the mouth of the Sabakhi, is intimately associated with Vasco de Gama's expedition to the eastern seas. It was here that he obtained the pilots under whose guidance he reached India, as commemorated by the still standing *padrão* (pillar) on the neighbouring headland. In Barbosa's

¹ *Barbosa*, p. 84.

² *Ib.* p. 85.

time it was "a very handsome town," with lofty stone houses, fine streets and terraces, trading in "cloth, gold, ivory, copper, quicksilver, and much other merchandise, with both Moors and Gentiles of the kingdom of Cambay, who come to their port with ships laden with cloth, which they buy in exchange for gold, ivory, and wax" (*ib.* p. 86). Some Persian inscriptions, discovered on its grass-grown buildings, seem to confirm the tradition of its foundation by settlers from Shiraz during the flourishing days of the Zanj empire.

Beyond Malindi the only noteworthy places are *Kau* and *Witu*, north of the Tana delta; *Lamu* (Barbosa's *Lamon*), on the neighbouring island of that name; and *Kismayu*, twelve miles south of the mouth of the Juba, close to the equator. *Kismayu*, the approach to which is obstructed by a barrier reef, is the only natural harbour on the east coast of Somaliland. As the outlet of the extensive Juba basin it carries on a brisk trade with the surrounding coastlands; but, unlike Mombasa and Malindi, it is quite a recent place, dating only from the year 1869, when it was founded by some Somali settlers from Bardera.

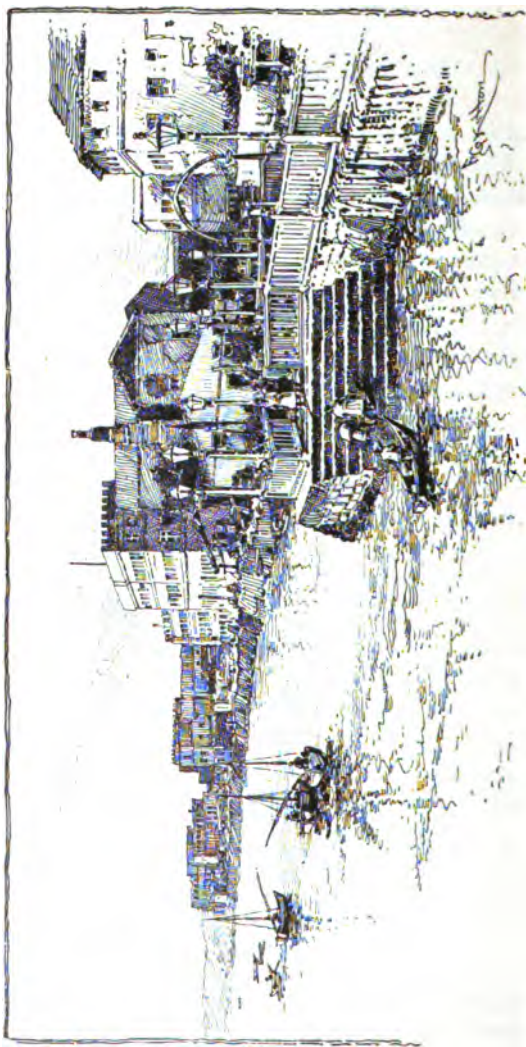
In the interior of Ibea there are no towns properly so called; nothing but native kraals and the fenced stations recently founded by the Company to keep open the caravan routes and protect the peaceful populations from their turbulent neighbours. Of these stations, possibly marking the sites of future trading centres, the most important are *Machako's* in Ukamba, 240 miles in a direct line and 400 by the regular route from Mombasa; *Munnia's* in the Nzoia valley, Kavirondo; *Wakoli* in Usoga; and *Kampala* in Uganda, close to the present capital, *Mengo*. The forts and stations in the Albertine Nile basin have already been referred to.

If the work already accomplished in this region under the most adverse conditions may be taken as a measure of its future progress, the prospects must be regarded as full of promise for the material and moral advancement of the native populations. "Regard the sum of these successes," says Stanley, "and you will find that they are unique. Freedom of thousands of slaves; the clean scour-out from Masai, Kavirondo, and Usoga of the slave-traders; the arrest of ruin in Uganda; the termination of religious rivalry; the pacification of the Mohammedan and heathen parties; the diminution of the Uganda Nero's conceit and his admission into the Protestant party; the building of some thirty military stations; the establishment of new missions, English and Scotch; the establishment and maintenance of a 'sufficient' jurisdiction in Uganda; the survey of the most important sections of the territory and of an easy graded railway route; the promotion of commerce on the Tana, Sabakhi, and Juba rivers; the negotiation of treaties with hundreds of chiefs; the diplomatic conduct of affairs during the late wave of unrest and jealousy along the coast; the erection of a telegraph line to connect the seaboard towns with the administrative capital; the providing of ocean steamers for the coastal commerce; the formation of a powerful armed police; the introduction of light railway plant; the numerous improvements and construction of offices, warehouses, piers at Mombasa; the supplying of the naval harbour with port steamers, tugs, barges; and the remarkable moulding and transformations which the Masai cattle-lifters and marauders and the varied tribes of the interior have undergone during intercourse with the Company's officers, so that we are assured by the latest comers from Africa that there are hopes of them at last being something better than fit for extermination."

The Zanzibar Protectorate

Since his acceptance of the English protectorate (p. 481), the Sultan has become little more than a British pensioner. His privy purse is limited to about £25,000, the remainder of the revenue being devoted to harbour improvements and public works. Even these are controlled by the British Agent and Consul-General; while most of the higher officials, including the Prime Minister, are Englishmen. Soon after the establishment of the protectorate the Sultan ceased to exercise any jurisdiction on the mainland. By the supplementary agreement of 1891, the late Ibea Company's tenure of fifty years was made perpetual, and afterwards extended to the ports of Lamu and Kismayu, as well as to all the islands along the coast. As heir to the Company's rights, the British Government has thus acquired possession of the whole of the seaboard between the German and Italian territories. Lastly in 1892 Zanzibar itself was declared a free port except for arms, ammunition, and liquors. All accounts are required to be kept in Arabic and English, the two official languages, and although domestic slavery still exists, the slave trade, of which Zanzibar was formerly an active centre, has been entirely suppressed. Since the cession of Mafia to the Germans, the protectorate is reduced to the two islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, with areas and populations as under:—

	Area in square miles.	Population (1894).
Zanzibar . . .	625	150,000
Pemba . . .	360	50,000
Total . . .	985	200,000



LANDING PLACE, ZANZIBAR.

Both islands, which are disposed parallel with, and at a short distance from, the mainland, are largely of coral-line formation, and the neighbouring waters are so obstructed by fringing reefs that the navigable channels, separating them from the opposite coast, are at some points reduced to a width of less than five miles. Zanzibar is traversed north-west and south-east by a range of sandstone hills, nowhere rising above 500 feet, and separating the rocky eastern and southern from the fertile western and northern districts. In the former are grown considerable quantities of chillies, while the latter are covered with plantations of cocoa-nut palms and cloves. Pemba also, which is clothed with a rich vegetation to the summit of all the hills, is mostly under cloves, which were introduced from the Eastern Archipelago in 1830. Although the crop is subject to many vicissitudes (most of the plants were uprooted by the terrific cyclone of 1892), the yield is at present about four-fifths of that of the whole world. But since the suppression of the slave trade and the fall in the price of cloves, the Arab planters find this industry yearly less profitable. Zanzibar, however, with its tropical climate, rich soil, and abundant rainfall ranging from 80 to 140 inches, is well adapted for the cultivation of many other economic plants, such as coffee, sago, vanilla, aloes, pine-apples, so that the prosperity of the island, as had been feared, is not dependent on its clove and palm groves alone.

The indigenous flora and fauna differs little from that of the opposite mainland, and a local variety of the beautiful colobus monkey (*C. Kirkii*) appears to be now extinct.¹ A few of the aboriginal Bantu inhabitants still survive in the eastern districts, and their language (Ki-Hadimu) forms the substratum of the Ki-Swahili, which

¹ H. H. Johnston, *The Kilimanjaro Expedition*, p. 88.

has become the *lingua franca* of a great part of South Africa. But the great bulk of the present population consists of Bantus originally introduced as slaves from every part of the mainland, and now intermingled with Arab, Persian, Indian, and other Asiatic elements. All are Sunni Mohammedans, and this, combined with a uniformity of speech, customs, and administration, has already imparted to them a certain homogeneous character. The special qualities of the Zanzibari porters and caravan leaders are well known to all African travellers.

The great bulk of the inhabitants are concentrated in the city of *Zanzibar*, which, with a population of at least 100,000, is the largest place on the African seaboard, Alexandria and Tunis alone excepted. Unguya ("The Station"), as it is called, lies at the headland of Ras Shangani, about the middle of the west or sheltered coast, where large vessels ride at anchor in six or seven fathoms of smooth water. It is equi-distant (about 2400 miles) from Cape Town, Suez, and the southern extremity of India, and is thus one of the natural centres of trade in the Indian Ocean. In 1893 the imports were valued at £1,148,000, and the exports at £1,002,000, and as a free port under British control, Zanzibar can scarcely fail to enter on a career of commercial prosperity comparable to that of Singapore, Hong-Kong, and the other great centres of British enterprise in the Indian Ocean.



CHAPTER XII

ISLANDS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

"Lemuria"; The Indo-African Continent—Madagascar—Historic Retrospect—Physical Features—Geology; Minerals; Volcanoes—Rivers; Climate—Flora and Fauna—Inhabitants—Hovas; Betsimisarakas; Sakalavas—Social Progress; Spread of Christianity—Administration—Topography—Antananarivo; Tamatave; Diego Suarez—Nossi-Bé and the Comoro Group—The Mascarenhas; Mauritius; Réunion; Rodrigues—The Seychelles—The Cargados and Amirantes.

"Lemuria"; The Indo-African Continent

BESIDES Zanzibar, Sokotra, and a few other islets which obviously form part of the mainland, and which have here been treated as such, the Indian Ocean is strewn with a number of archipelagoes, including the great island of Madagascar, which, on geological, political, or even purely conventional grounds, are regarded as dependencies of the African Continent. That these lands formed, in comparatively recent (tertiary) times, parts of a now submerged continent, postulated by Mr. Sclater to account for certain biological phenomena, is a view that later research has shown to be unnecessary. The anomalous range of the Lemurs, or "half-apes," seemed to suggest the former existence of such a region as their true home, while the general distribution of the oceanic flora and fauna, as well as the undoubted presence of a Malay element amongst the natives of Madagascar

appeared to point at continuous dry land extending from this island through Ceylon to Malaysia. But Mr. A. R. Wallace¹ has shown that in the eocene period the lemurs had a far wider range, extending even to Europe and America; and that these animals, with the insecti-



BROWN MOUSE LEMUR.

vora and civets now dominant in Madagascar, were also once numerous on the African mainland. It was thus made evident that Madagascar was once united with the southern part of Africa; but it was at the same time made equally evident that the separation took place before some of the larger fauna, such as the lion, elephant, and anthropoid apes, had extended their range so far south as the parallel of Madagascar. Hence Lemuria, as it was named from the characteristic half-apes, "may be discarded as one of those temporary hypotheses which are

¹ "The Comparative Antiquity of Continents as indicated by the Distribution of Living and Extinct Animals," in *R. Geo. Soc. Journ.* 1877.

useful for drawing attention to a group of anomalous facts, but which fuller knowledge shows to be unnecessary" (*ib.*)

But while "Lemuria" thus disappears, its place is partly taken by another and an older continent, which stands on firmer ground than mere hypothesis, and which in pre-tertiary times must have connected South Africa through Madagascar, not with Malaysia, but with the Indian peninsula. The former existence of this "Indo-African Continent" is one of the most remarkable results of the now nearly completed Indian Survey, as fully explained in the *Asia* of this series.¹ The hippopotamus, now confined to Africa, is found in a fossil state both in Madagascar and in the Siwalik Hills, South Himalayas; "the plants of the Indian and South African coal-measures are all absolutely identical, and the remarkable *Dicynodon* and other allied forms of fossil reptiles are equally characteristic of both regions" (*ib.*) From their relative position to both regions, it is obvious that all the other groups—Mascarenhas, Seychelles, Amirante, and Comoro—must have formed parts of the vanished Indo-African Continent, of which they now mark some of the loftiest summits. But compared with Madagascar, of which they may be regarded as mere satellites, their size is insignificant, as seen in the subjoined table of the several areas and populations:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Population (1891).
Madagascar . . .	228,500	3,500,000 (est.)
Nossi-Bé } . . .	820	72,000
Comoros } . . .		
Mayotte } . . .		
Mascarenhas . . .	1,540	546,000
Seychelles } . . .	180	16,000
Amirantes } . . .		
Cargados } . . .		
Total	231,040	4,134,000

¹ Vol. i. chap. viii. new issue.

Madagascar

This great island, exceeded in size by Australia, New Guinea, and Borneo alone, was unknown to the ancients, and is first mentioned by Masudi (11th century) under the name of *Jafuna*, possibly in reference to some Malay immigrants from *Java*. It is undoubtedly the *Shezbeza* of Edrisi (1153), and appears to be the *Malichu* (Malâyu, Malay?) of the Hereford map (1300). After its discovery by Diego Dias in 1500, it was long known as the Island of St. Lawrence (*São Lourenço*); but by a confusion in geographical nomenclature which has never been explained, it received its present designation from the *Madeigascar* of Marco Polo, which had really reference to the *Magdoshu* of Somaliland.

Historic Retrospect

No settlements were ever founded on the island by its Portuguese discoverers, and the first direct relations with Europe date from the year 1642, when letters patent were issued by Louis XIII. of France granting a concession of the island to the *Société de l'Orient*, without regard to any rights or claims of the dominant Hova nation, whose existence was at that time unknown. This step resulted in the occupation of Taolanara (Fort Dauphin) and a few other points on the coast, all of which, however, appear to have been abandoned by the year 1664, when the privileges of the bankrupt *Société* were transferred to the *Compagnie orientale*, and the island re-named first *Ile Dauphine*, and later *France orientale*, with capital Fort Dauphin. But the Company shared the fate of the Society; despite royal decrees proclaiming the sovereignty of France, and

the appointment of several "viceroys," the few Frenchmen remaining in the island were massacred in 1672 by the natives, exasperated by the over-zealous attempts of the missionaries to proselytise them, and of the settlers to organise slave-hunting expeditions.

Hitherto, no efforts had been made to penetrate inland or to explore the interior, and even after the cession of the island of St. Mary, north of Tamatave, by a native chief in 1750, nothing was done in this direction beyond surveying the neighbouring Antongil Bay and a few other points of the seaboard. Relations with the outer world were reduced to the occasional visits of pirates and traders from the Mascarenhas, who came to exchange their wares for slaves and cattle. In 1774 occurred the episode associated with the name of the Polish adventurer, Maurice Benyovski, who proclaimed himself "Emperor of Madagascar," founded the "imperial capital," Louisbourg, of which no trace remains, and opened a route from Antongil Bay toward Ngutsi. But he had to quit the island in 1776, and for 300 years after the discovery the whole of the interior continued to remain a *terra incognita*.

After the occupation of Mauritius during the Napoleonic wars (1811), the English turned their attention toward the great island which lay on the direct route from the Cape to India. Since then the history of the country has mainly been a history of the rivalries of France and England to secure the political supremacy, the former basing her claims on priority of possession and on the royal decrees proclaiming the sovereignty of France in the seventeenth century, the latter relying on alliances with the Hovas—the dominant people of the interior—on commercial and missionary enterprise. The result has been that mainly through English influence the

Hovas have acquired the predominance over all the other native tribes, while the French have by force of arms asserted their authority over the Hovas, and thus vindicated their shadowy "historic rights" over the whole island.

The first direct relations of the English were with the Hova chief, Radama, whom they recognised as "King of Madagascar and its dependencies," and through whose friendship they obtained access to the interior after his occupation of Tamatave on the east coast in 1820. Merchants and missionaries now flocked to the Hova capital, Antananarivo; and all went well till the death of Radama I. in 1828, when a violent reaction against foreign influences made a clean sweep of missionaries, traders, schools, churches, and factories. But the seed had fallen in good soil; a party of progress had been developed which was strong enough to survive the terrible persecutions of Radama's successor, Queen Ranavalona (1828-61), and the subsequent troubles under Radama II. (assassinated 1863) and his successor Queen Raso-hérina (1863-68). Following the precedent of Raso-hérina, her successor, Ranavalona II., married her Prime Minister, Rainilaiarivony, in 1869, when both were publicly baptized, and Protestantism declared the State religion. Henceforth the English missionaries—first the Methodists, then the Anglicans, were dominant till the death of the queen in 1883, when she was succeeded by the present sovereign, Ranavalona III.

Meanwhile the French party, failing to oust their rivals by court intrigue, had appealed to the home Government, which at various dates between 1840-60 had occupied Nossi-Bé and the neighbouring islets, and also claimed possession of the opposite north-west coast between Capes Baly and St. Augustin in virtue of treaty rights granted by the local Sakalava chiefs. But the

Hova authorities, refusing to recognise their right to cede territory, had invaded the districts said to have been placed under French protection, erecting forts at various points and everywhere hoisting the national flag. This led to reprisals and open hostilities (1882-84), during which the French successively occupied Mojanga on the west and Tamatave on the east coast, as well as several intervening stations, such as Passandava, Mahanoro, Vohémar, and the commodious harbour of Diego Suarez at the northern extremity of the great island. Owing to these successes, and fearing an invasion of the interior, the Hovas were induced to sue for peace, which was concluded by the Treaty of Tamatave (December 12, 1885), ceding to France the Diego Suarez district, and permitting a French "Resident-General," with a small escort, to reside at the capital. By the same treaty the foreign relations of the country are claimed to be regulated by France, and although this is repudiated by the Hova Government, the French "Protectorate" was nevertheless recognised by the Anglo-French Agreement of August 5, 1890. The French Government thus secured a free hand in the action taken in 1895, which resulted in the occupation of the capital on September 30, followed next day by the conclusion of peace, and being taken not merely to enforce the protectorate, but apparently to add Madagascar to the French possessions in the Indian Ocean.

Physical Features

Madagascar forms a long irregular ellipse, extending between Capes St. Mary and Amber for about 1000 miles in the direction from south-west to north-east somewhat parallel with the opposite mainland, from which it is separated by the Mozambique Channel, 225 miles

wide at its narrowest part. The island has an extreme width of 300 miles near the parallel of Tamatave, and a somewhat monotonous coast-line of rather over 3000 miles, which on the east side runs nearly in a straight line, interrupted only by St. Mary Island and Antongil Bay, but which on the west side develops a series of curves breaking towards the north into several fluvial estuaries or marine inlets, such as Baly, Makambitra, Betsiboka, Mazamba, Ravatoby, and Ambaro Bays, and in the extreme north the magnificent Diego Suarez haven.

The contrast between the two sides reveals to some extent the general configuration of the interior, which, like the neighbouring continent, consists mainly of a vast plateau at a mean elevation of about 4000 feet, approached by precipitous escarpments from the east, sloping more gradually westwards down to the Mozambique Channel. The plateau is skirted here and there by longitudinal mountain ranges rising 4000 or 5000 feet above the mean altitude, and is also broken by several transverse ridges into a number of secondary tablelands. Hence the surface is generally of a rugged character, the rolling steppe lands being restricted to a relatively narrow space in Imèrina and the other central provinces, while large alluvial or sandy plains are developed chiefly in the arid southern and south-western districts. Of the whole area about one-half may be described as distinctly mountainous, the rest being somewhat equally divided between upland and low-lying plains, nearly all confined to the central, southern, and western districts. The whole of the northern extremity is hilly, and on the east side the plateau is approached by a series of exceedingly precipitous escarpments, which begin close to the shores of the Indian Ocean, and which, while gradually ascending to the mean level of the central plateau, rise and fall in a

rapid succession of steep inclines disposed at angles of 30° , 40° , and even 45° . Thus before striking inland, the route from Tamatave to Antananarivo skirts the coast lagoons for over 50 miles south to Andevorante, and then turning towards the interior rapidly attains heights of 600 and 1000 feet. Then follow a series of steep and slippery V-shaped zigzags rising to over 3000 feet at Analamazaotra, then falling several hundred feet down to the wooded Ankai plain, that is, the trough traversed by the river Mangoro, beyond which follow more zigzags all the way to the level of the plateau at Ankéramadinika within a forced march of the capital. Such a route is of course impracticable for wheeled traffic, or even for pack animals, and can be traversed only by the hardy native porters, the European travellers being conveyed in the so-called *filanzanas*, open palanquins slung on their indurated shoulders. The track runs "in nearly a straight line over hill and dale, without the smallest attempt to humour the gradient. We occasionally passed up and down slopes which had been measured and found to be over 45° , and which from the slippery nature of the soil would be very difficult even if far less steep. . . . These watercourses are often from 15 to 25 feet deep, with almost precipitous sides; about 4 feet wide at the height of a man's shoulders, and only 3 feet at the bottom. . . . By rigidly following the bottoms of the valleys and watercourses the road passed alternately over tracts of level swamp and almost unclimbable slopes."¹

But on emerging from the wooded scarps, the traveller at once perceives the plateau formation of the central region. Here the character of the land undergoes a complete and sudden change. "Instead of dark forest, or at best open valleys bounded by ranges of hills, a

¹ Zélie Colville, *Round the Black Man's Garden*, 1893, p. 147.

rolling prairie lay before us, on the waves of which we could see our road stretching for miles ahead. On first leaving the forest withered tree-stems were to be seen standing in all directions, probably the remains left by some ancient fire. But after a few miles the country became perfectly treeless, and except for one or two about the capital, I do not think that we saw a tree until we reached the forest on the western coast" (*ib.* p. 149). On the west side, the route leading from Mojanga on the Mozambique Channel to the central tableland is described as even worse than that on the east side, at least as far as Mavetanana on the Ikopa (the river of Antananarivo) above its confluence with the Betsiboka. The incline is no doubt far less precipitous, but in this lower section a great part of the track lies across deep swamps and almost impenetrable primeval woodlands.

This general configuration of the land seems to prevail almost everywhere, as results from the itineraries of Grandidier, Mullens, Oliver Deans, Cowan, W. Johnson, Gautier, Neilson-Lund and many other explorers, which now intersect each other in nearly all directions. Thus Gautier, who surveyed the region between the capital and the west coast in 1894, found it disposed, like that on the east side, in zones running mainly north and south parallel with the coast, and consequently at right angles with the wretched tracks penetrating from the Mozambique Channel towards the central plateau. The primitive rocks prevailing in this central region are divided by a nearly straight line coinciding with the plateau escarpment, from the limestones, red sandstones, and other sedimentary rocks which constitute the several zones between the plateau and the seaboard. Besides these parallel ridges running north and south, others appear to

run east and west between the vast Onymainty depression on the south and another to the north not yet surveyed. Thus, while the forces of compression have given to the whole island and its main ranges a general meridional direction, movements of torsion have resulted in fractures and foldings running transversely east and west. The depression separating the plateau from the western escarpments may be traced from the coast at Nossi-Bé nearly in a straight line for about 600 miles southwards to the Bara plateau developed in the southern part of the island.

Gautier found that the forests of the western seaboard, fed by the moisture-bearing winds from the Mozambique Channel, give place farther inland first to park-like savannahs dotted over with clumps of trees, as in so many parts of Africa itself, and then to somewhat arid grassy or scrubby uplands forming in some places a sort of No-man's-land between the Hovas of Imèrina and the west coast Sakalavas.¹ Somewhat analogous conditions prevail on the east side, as may be inferred from the character of the above described Antananarivo-Tamatave route. To the monotony of the contour-line thus nearly everywhere corresponds a certain uniformity in the general relief of the interior. The culminating points appear to be grouped towards the centre of the island in the denuded Ankaratra volcanic mass, above which rise the Ambohinirandrana, Ankaratra, Tsiafakafo, and Tsiafajavona peaks, respectively 7715, 8303, 8335, and 8500 feet high.

Geology ; Minerals

Many of the higher summits, especially in the province of Imèrina, consist of granite or gneiss forming

¹ *Annales de Géographie*, 1894, p. 499 et seq.

rounded bosses or fantastically carved pinnacles, which from a distance resemble Titanic forts, castles, or cathedrals. Here a great part of the surface is covered with thick deposits of granite, sometimes white, but more generally dyed a deep red by ferric oxide. It is noteworthy that an exactly similar formation occurs also in the Seychelles, and evidently belongs to the same age as the red laterite which abounds in the Deccan. Another proof is thus afforded of the existence of an Indo-African Continent in secondary times. Of minerals the most abundant appear to be iron, graphite, galena, copper, and gold, all occurring in Imèrina and other central districts. Gold is somewhat widely diffused, and some of the streams flowing to the Ikopa in the Mave-tanana district are washed in a somewhat primitive fashion for the auriferous sands. Women standing in the water "scoop out the mud with shallow, flat-bottomed dishes, which they shake with a peculiar motion under water, until the lighter particles are washed away and only the gold and the heavy black sand remains. This is then dried in the sun, and the sand got rid of by the simple process of blowing with the mouth until nothing but the gold dust remains. Now and then they have the luck to find big nuggets, but the gold is mostly in the form of very fine dust. If enough gold is found here by this primitive process to make the mines pay well, there must be a wonderfully rich region near the river-head from which the gold is washed down, and which only requires modern machinery to develop it."¹ Coal occurs in the north, where the carboniferous districts occupy a space of about 2000 square miles.

¹ Colvile, p. 205.

Volcanoes

Like all its satellites, Madagascar was the theatre of extensive igneous disturbances at a somewhat remote geological epoch. All the peaks of the central Ankaratra mass appear to be long extinct craters, whence were formerly discharged lava streams in various directions, but especially towards the south, where one lava field can still be traced for a distance of 25 miles, its dark colour contrasting forcibly with the surrounding red ferruginous clays. Another great centre of igneous action is the lacustrine Itasy depression north-west of the Ankaratra mass and nearly due west of the capital. Here have been enumerated as many as forty cones, whose erupted matter blocked the watercourses and thus gave rise to the lake now flooding the deepest part of the depression. On the north side of the lake rises the Amboditaimamo volcano, whence descended a lava stream, which has since been eroded by a mountain torrent to a depth of nearly 100 feet. "Its surface is covered by some hundreds of mammiform hillocks, which must have been formed during the cooling of the liquid mass. The hillocks are mostly from 20 to 30 feet high, and apparently are heaped-up masses of lava, and not hollow blisters. The lava itself is black, heavy, and compact, being porphyritic, with somewhat large crystals of augite."¹ Although the craters have all long been quiescent, the underground agencies are not yet quite spent, as is evident from the earthquakes of somewhat frequent occurrence in several districts, and the hot springs bubbling up in many parts of the island.

¹ R. Baron, *Nature*, 4th March 1886.

Rivers and Lakes

Owing to the greater elevation of the eastern escarpments and their proximity to the seaboard, the main water-parting lies much nearer to the east than to the west coast. Hence the streams descending to the Indian Ocean have generally a shorter and more rapid course than those flowing to the Mozambique Channel. On the east slope the two chief rivers are the Mangoro, which traverses the narrow Ankai valley in a south-easterly direction to the coast at Mahanoro, and the Maningory, which issues from the north end of Lake Alaotra, and flows north-eastwards to its mouth near Fenoarivo, between Foule Point and St. Mary Island. Although the largest lake in the island, Alaotra is at present merely a shallow basin stretching about 25 miles north and south, and fed by the headstreams of the Maningory descending from Mount Ambohitroa. But it was formerly a great inland sea 200 miles long and 1140 feet higher than its present level, as clearly shown by the terraced beaches on the surrounding slopes. Lake Alaotra lies close to the main divide, where the Mazamba has its rise, flowing thence nearly due west to Mazamba Bay in the Mozambique Channel. But on this side of the island by far the largest water system is that of the Betsiboka, which reaches the bay of like name a few miles farther south. In its lower course the Betsiboka is joined on its left bank by its largest affluent, the Ikopa, these two rivers jointly draining nearly the whole of Imèrina on their westerly course to the Mozambique Channel. The main stream is navigable for small boats for a short distance above the confluence and for dhows in the lower reaches. The Betsiboka with its Ikopa

branch has a total length of at least 500 miles. Farther south the Tsijobonina, which receives the overflow of Lake Itasy, is followed by the Mangoka (St. Vincent), the largest watercourse in South Madagascar, with a drainage area of some 20,000 square miles.

Climate

Although Madagascar lies for the most part within the tropics (12° - 25° $40'$ S. lat.), the central plateaux, thanks to their great elevation, enjoy a somewhat temperate and healthy climate, while malarious fevers are endemic throughout most of the low-lying coastlands as well as on the neighbouring wooded slopes. Here, as in so many parts of Africa, altitude affords no immunity from ague, the noxious exhalations being wafted on the breeze to a considerable elevation on the surrounding heights. Thus the high ground in the Diego Suarez district, "swept by sea-breezes, certainly seemed as if it ought to be more healthy than the low-lying town of Antiserane; but it was these very breezes which, fever-laden from the mangrove-swamps in the plains, caused it to be unhealthy."¹ So also on the east coast at St. Mary Island, "we were told that this elevated spot was the most unhealthy part of the whole island, owing to its being exposed to the winds which sweep across the marshes" (*ib.* p. 104).

As in most regions exposed to the equalising action of the marine waters, the mean annual temperature varies little even between the uplands and the lowlands. Thus the extremes, which at Tamatave lie between 60° F. (July) and 93° (January), are confined even at Antananarivo to 42° and 83° . There are strictly speaking only two seasons,

¹ Colvile, *op. cit.* p. 102.

determined by the action of the trade-winds, which are generally dry in winter (April to September), and vapour-charged in summer (October to March). Summer, being thus both hot and moist, is the least salubrious period for Europeans. High winds also prevail during this season, although they seldom develop true cyclones, which are often so destructive in the Mascarenhas group. Except in the arid southern provinces, the annual rainfall is everywhere abundant, exceeding 60 inches even on the central uplands.

Flora ; Fauna

Thanks to this bounteous supply of moisture, the flora is extremely rich and varied on most of the coastlands and neighbouring escarpments. Hence nearly the whole island is girdled by an almost continuous zone of dense woodlands, while vast spaces in the interior present the aspect of treeless plains, yielding little beyond a coarse herbage except in the narrow alluvial bottom lands. But even here there is a remarkable absence of acacias and other thorny plants so characteristic of corresponding areas in Africa. Nevertheless, the extremely diversified indigenous flora, of which over 2500 species have already been studied, shows affinities with that of the neighbouring continent, as well as with those of South America, Southern Asia, and Malaysia. These affinities are shown in the teak, rosewood, ebony, violet ebony and several other fine cabinet-woods; in the mangrove forests of the lagoons and estuaries, the cocoa-nut palm fringing the coastlands, the superb baobab and tamarind of the western slopes, the bread-tree apparently introduced by the Malays, the pandanus of the more arid southern districts, the sago, hyphæna and

raphia, these last differing somewhat from their foreign congeners.

Conspicuous amongst the indigenous plants is the



THE TRAVELLER'S PALM.

traveller's tree (ravelana, *Urania speciosa*), with graceful banana-like foliage which unlike that of other palms grows, not all round the stem, but only "in two vertical rows on opposite sides of the trunk. The effect, when

facing it, is that of an outspread fan. The stems of the leaves, being hollowed at their junction with the trunk, form the troughs for the collection of rain-water, from which it earns its name.”¹ It is not, however, so useful as is commonly supposed, for it grows chiefly in well-irrigated districts where there is no lack of water. Another less known water-yielding plant is the *nepenthe* or pitcher-plant, whose pendent flowers usually contain a considerable supply. Indigo and the sugar-cane grow wild, while hemp, cotton, tobacco, coffee, and potatoes thrive well in suitable localities. But the chief cultivated plant is rice, of which there are as many as eleven varieties. As in all Malay lands, it forms the staple food of the natives.

From the general relations of soil to climate it is evident that Madagascar is not suitable for European settlement. It suffers from the same serious drawback as does the Portuguese colony of Angola. Where the land is productive, the climate is extremely unhealthy; where the climate is healthy, the land is unproductive. In many parts of the breezy upland tracts, where agricultural colonies could alone be founded, M. Grandidier describes the soil as so unfertile that “it merely serves as a pot for holding the prepared earth in which each plant grows.”² Hence, however great the resources of the country may be, they are mainly confined to the hot insalubrious districts, that is, the coastlands and the eastern and western escarpments of the central plateaux. Consequently they can be developed only by the plantation system and coolie labour. There is no room for the European peasant

¹ Colvile, p. 135.

² *Du sol et du climat de l'île de Madagascar au point de vue de l'agriculture*, 1894.

class; and as the minerals are also mainly confined to the malarious tracts, there is no room for European labour of any kind.

Madagascar is the true home of the lemurs, which are elsewhere represented only by a few isolated species in Malaysia and tropical Africa. Here they occur in great variety, including besides several makis (lemurs proper), the large *Indris*, the *Hapalemur* of arboreal and aquatic habits, and the highly characteristic Aye-aye (*Chiromys Madagascarensis*). The only predatory animal of any size is the *Cryptoprocta ferox*, whose place amongst the mammals has not yet been defined. Several insectivora, rodents and bats also present peculiar forms, while over half of the 240 species of birds occur nowhere else; their nearest congeners are met, not in the neighbouring continent, but in the far east. Of the 52 known species of the chameleon, as many as 24 are confined to Madagascar. Equally remarkable and original are the beetles and butterflies, many of which are indigenous, while others are more akin to those of Arabia, India, and Malaysia, than to the African forms. The running waters, which are everywhere infested by extraordinary numbers of crocodiles, are otherwise singularly poor in aquatic forms, not more than ten species of fishes being found in all the rivers and lakes of Madagascar. Noteworthy amongst the extinct fauna are a small species of hippopotamus (*H. Lemerlei*), and the *Æpyornis*, a huge bird of singularly massive build, somewhat intermediate between the ostrich, emu, and extinct *dinornis*. There are several species, one of which (*Æ. maximus*) appears to have survived until quite recent times; it stood twice as high as the ostrich, and had an egg nearly 13 inches long, so that there is some foundation for the belief that it may have been the prototype of Sinbad's fabulous monster.

Of domestic animals the most important is the hump-backed ox which thrives on the coarse herbage of the uplands, and which is largely exported to the Mascarenhas. Some of the dogs and cats introduced by man have run wild. Goats and a goat-like sheep abound, and poultry offer a never-failing supply of food. Countless bees yield a much esteemed honey of a greenish colour, and several species of silkworms are bred for the fibre used in the manufacture of the national *Camba*.

Inhabitants

Throughout the historic period Madagascar has been inhabited by a mixed Malayo-African people, who present various shades of transition between the two types, but who all alike speak a pure Malayo-Polynesian language. Malay, Javanese and the other chief dialects of the Eastern Archipelago contain a considerable percentage of Sanskrit words, due to the influence of the Hindu missionaries, who had penetrated to that region probably some centuries before the new era. But the Malagasy language is entirely free from any foreign elements, except a few Arabic terms of relatively recent introduction. It follows that the Malay immigrants must have arrived before the Hindus reached the Archipelago, that is to say, at least 2000, but most probably 3000 or even 4000 years ago. At all events they have had time, since their arrival, to amalgamate with the Negro or Negroid Vazimba aborigines, and to impose upon them their culture and language. Hence the remarkable spectacle presented by innumerable mixed Afro-Asiatic tribes and septs, all without exception speaking a single Malayo-Polynesian tongue with comparatively little dialectic diversity. It was seen (vol. i. p. 8) that through-



MADAGASCAR. OXEN.

out most of the southern half of the African Continent linguistic unity also prevails amid much ethnical variety. But there is this difference that the dominant speech is of Negro type (Bantu), and also presents very considerable dialectic changes, whereas in Madagascar there are no such changes, and the language is not of Negro but of Oceanic type. This is all the more surprising that for ages there appears to have been a steady inflow of Bantu slaves and perhaps other immigrants from the opposite coasts, who might be expected to have somewhere preserved their Bantu mother-tongue. But not a trace of it is anywhere to be found, while the topographical nomenclature is as exclusively Malay as is the speech of the eastern intruders. The settlement has in this respect been more thorough even than that of the Anglo-Saxon tribes in Roman Britain, where at least a percentage of the old geographical names survives.

According to the Rev. James Sibree there are three main divisions, represented by the dominant HOVAS¹ on the central plateau (province of Imèrina), the BETSIMISARAKAS on the east, and the SAKALAVAS on the west coast. Their lighter colour, generally long lank hair, and more regular features mark off the Hovas as of far less mixed Malay descent than any of the others. Their dialect also presents a few peculiarities, such as

¹ Although consecrated by usage, *Hova* (pronounced *Héva*) is rather a social than a tribal or national name, the Hovas being strictly speaking the middle classes, as opposed to the *Andriana*, "nobles," and the *Andevo*, "slaves." The general designation should rather be *Antaimèrina*, "People of Imèrina," their present home, where, according to the national traditions, they arrived about 300 years ago, apparently from the west coast. Formerly—that is, when they thought themselves the only people in the world—a common name for all the inhabitants of the island was *Ambanilanitra*, i. e. "Dwellers beneath the skies." *Malgash*, *Malagasy*, the general European name, is not current amongst the natives, despite its obvious reference to their Malay origin.

the retention of the final syllables, *na*, *ka*, *tra*, lost in the other dialects, so that there seems to be a greater similarity between all the coast dialects than between any one of them and Hova. Sakalava, now generally applied collectively to all the west coast peoples, is rather



BETSIMISARAKA WOMEN.

a political than a tribal name. The Sakalavas proper were a small tribe originally from the south-west, who acquired the ascendancy over all the western groups, just as the Hovas became dominant on the central plateau. Thus Sakalava now includes, going southwards, the Antankala, Tsimihets, Tiboina, Timilanja, Tsimafana, Antimena, Tifiheanana, Vezo, Mahafaly, and Tandroy,

besides the Mainty, or "Blacks," reduced by the Hovas and removed to North Imèrina.



A HOVA.

Of the Hova tribal groups less is known, probably because in recent years the political divisions have

acquired more importance. In other words, the tribe is here merging in the nation. There are six political divisions, to which correspond the tribal groups Voromahery, Tsimiamboholahy, Tsinahafoty, Mandiavato, Marovatana, and others.

South of the Hovas follow the Betsileos, who, although sometimes called "Southern Hovas," seem more akin to the east coast people. Their chief divisions are Isandra, Ilalangina, and Iarindrano. Beyond them, still to the south, stretches the territory of the Bara (Ibara), of whom there are a great many little-known tribal groups. At this point converge the east and west coast people, between whom the Bara appear to form a connecting link.

To the Sakalava of the west correspond the Betsimisaraka of the east coast, who, however, never acquired any political ascendancy over their neighbours, as the Sakalava did in the west. The Betsimisaraka were reduced by the Hovas in the early part of the nineteenth century, and the prominence given to their name is due to the fact that Tamatave and the other parts frequented by Europeans lie in their territory. On the east side the chief groups, going southwards, are the Sihanaka and Zana-Tsihanaka, the Tanhay (Beganozano), the large Tanala nation of the forests, the Tsimanompo, Taivonona, Taisonjo, Zafisoro, Ikongo, Betsimisaraka, Betanimena, Taimoro, Taifasy, Tatsimaha, Tanisy, and others.

In general the Sakalava, although the rudest, are next to the Hovas the least Negroid, the east coast people the darkest and most Negroid of all the Malagasy tribes. The Hovas and Sakalavas greatly outnumber all the rest, being estimated (1894) at about 1,000,000 each; Betsileos, 600,000; Betsimisaraka and other east coast tribes, 400,000; Baras, 200,000; other southern groups, 200,000.

Social Progress ; Spread of Christianity

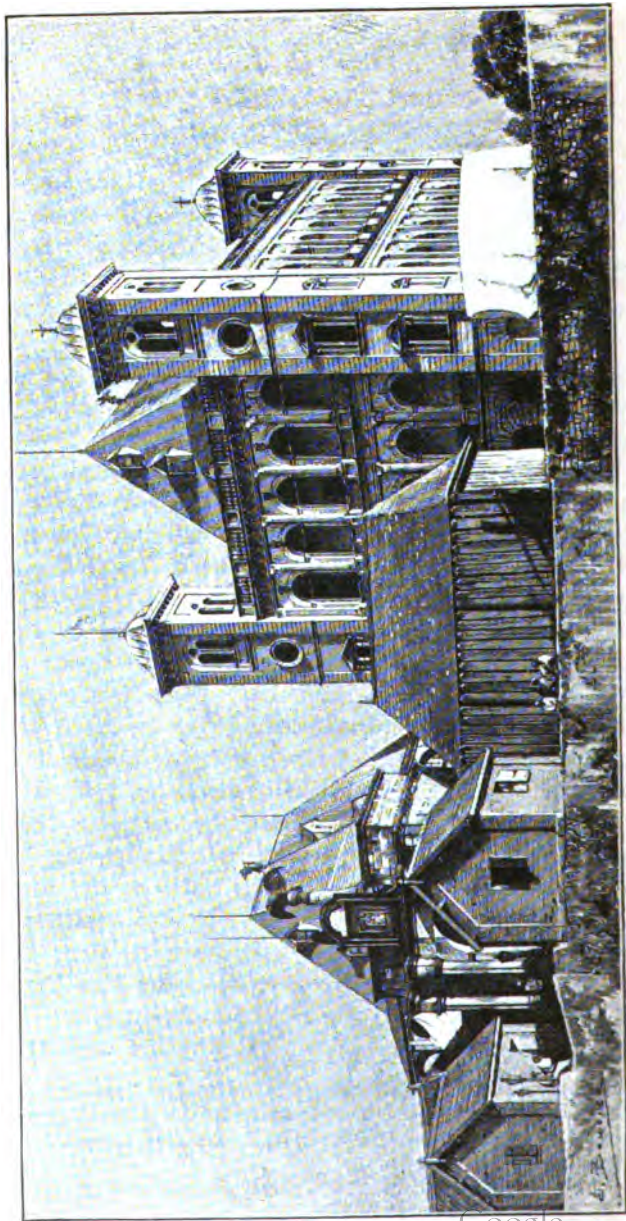
Since the accession of Queen Ranavalona II. (p. 602) Christianity has made great progress especially amongst the Hovas, and in 1894 there were reckoned altogether about 450,000 Protestants and 50,000 Catholics. All the rest of the natives are pagans, their practices showing no trace of Buddhism or Brahmanism, which religions were introduced into Malasia subsequently to the migrations westwards to Madagascar. Antananarivo is the seat both of an Anglican and of a Catholic bishop, and the last religious statistics return as many as 750 native pastors and 100 evangelists or native missionaries controlled by the London Missionary Society alone. To this Society are attached the great majority of the Protestants, whose profession has been described as a combination of Independent, Presbyterian, and Episcopal principles.

Education is compulsory within the jurisdiction of the central government; but it is practically in the hands of the missionaries, who have founded free schools and colleges for both sexes throughout the Christian districts. There are altogether about 1800 schools attended by 170,000 children. The missionaries have also set up printing presses, which have issued as many as 400 educational and religious works, besides numerous tracts, pamphlets, magazines (including the *Antananarivo Annual*), both in Malagasy and English, all printed by native craftsmen. An official *Gazette* appears at intervals, and during the decade ending 1880, the yearly issues of the L.M.S. averaged 150,000 copies of various publications.

Administration ; Topography

Owing to the recent establishment of the present Hova dynasty, the true founder of which was Radama I. (p. 602),¹ many tribal usages and traditions still survive, which, as amongst all peoples at a low grade of culture, have the force of laws. Hence the absolute character of the monarchy is tempered by this unwritten code. In recent years it has been further limited by the growing power of the Prime Minister, a sort of "Mayor of the Palace," who by precedent is always the Queen's husband, and in whom is now virtually centred the supreme power. He is no doubt assisted by a number of Ministers for the departments of Foreign Affairs, the Interior, Education, and Justice; but these are mere tools in his hand, and can originate nothing without his sanction. Even the local governors, resident in all the large seaports and inland towns, are all responsible, not to the Queen, but directly to the Prime Minister. Beyond the Hova territory, the natives are still mainly in the tribal state; hence throughout most of the country local affairs are controlled by hereditary tribal chiefs, some of whom are practically independent of the central government. Many of the Tanala and Bara chiefs have never been reduced, while the Sakalavas are in constant revolt. Hence brigandage and lawlessness are still rampant in most of the western districts, and these relations have been aggravated by the divided allegiance due by the fierce Sakalava chiefs to the Hova authority, and to the French permanently stationed at Mojanga and Diego

¹ His father, Andrianampoinimèrina (1787-1810), had, however, reduced the twelve original Hova chiefs, besides most of the Betsileos, thus preparing the way for the spread of the Hova rule over all the surrounding populations.



THE PALACE OF THE QUEEN OF MADAGASCAR.

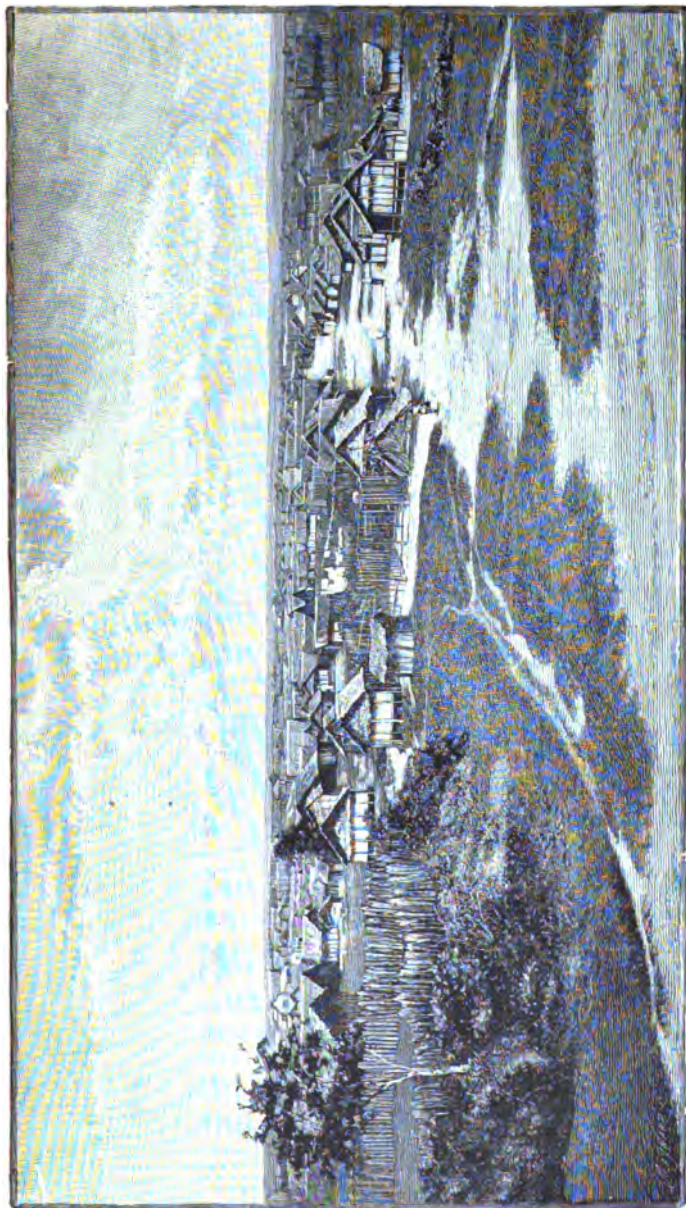
Suarez. In a word the Hova power is not yet consolidated throughout the land, and although strong enough to hold its own against any combination of native tribes, may easily collapse under pressure from without.

Antananarivo, seat of government and residence of the court, is by far the largest place in Madagascar, with a population estimated (1894) at over 100,000. It occupies a somewhat central position in Imèrina, 225 miles by the main route from Tamatave on the east, and 230 in a straight line from Mojanga on the west coast. The city is picturesquely situated at an altitude of 4270 feet, on the slopes skirting the right bank of the Upper Ikopa just below the confluence of the Varahina, and several other headstreams descending from the west side of the main divide. The view presented to travellers suddenly emerging from the wooded eastern escarpments on the open plains is in the nature of a startling surprise. "The appearance of Antananarivo would be remarkable in any part of the world, closely built as it is on a long, steep-sided ridge, rising abruptly from a treeless undulating tableland. Its church spires, palaces, and red-pointed gables are conspicuous for miles round, and from their prosperous appearance, and in some cases pretentious style of architecture, would convey the impression of an important and well-built city even in Europe. But after a 225 mile journey through dense tropical forest, roadless, almost trackless, and inhabited only by a handful of half-naked savages, the sudden appearance of this towering evidence of civilisation almost takes away one's breath."¹ But "the architecture is of too toy-house and Cockney an order, and its whole aspect violates the first principle of art, that of putting the right thing in the right place. At Sydenham, Charlottenburg or Saint

¹ Colville, p. 152.

Cloud it would have been a picturesque object; in the midst of the great African island its effect was almost ridiculous" (*ib.* p. 154). Antananarivo is naturally the centre of political and social life, and of European culture, whence radiate in all directions the civilising influences which are slowly leavening the masses of heathendom throughout the land. It was captured and permanently occupied by a French garrison on 30th September 1895.

When Antananarivo is mentioned, the list of Madagascar cities is exhausted. In the interior there are forts or military stations plentifully distributed over the unsettled territory, a few straggling villages at the fords, confluences, passes, and mineral districts, some ancestral shrines and places of pilgrimage much revered by the descendants of venerated chiefs, but scarcely any groups that can be called towns, much less "cities." On the seaboard there are a few places deserving of mention either for their historic interest, or because of their present strategic and commercial importance, or future prospects under a strongly organised government. Such are the long-abandoned and almost forgotten *Fort Dauphin* in the extreme south-east, headquarters of French slave-hunting expeditions and missionary zeal in the seventeenth century, scene also of repeated failures to secure a permanent footing in the island, of which it was at one time proclaimed the capital; *Andovoranto*, a wretched fishing village at a point on the extensive system of east coast lagoons where the main route strikes inland and begins to climb the escarpments in the direction of Antananarivo; *Tamatave*, over 50 miles farther north, chief trading-place in the island. The position of Tamatave somewhat resembles that of Scarborough; a projecting headland forming the north and south sands, which, however, are here protected from the simoon by



GENERAL VIEW OF TAMATAVE.

a natural breakwater of fringing coral reefs, a wide opening in the barrier giving easy access to the largest vessels, which find ample accommodation in the deep waters of the northern bay. Tamatave is the present outlet for nearly all the produce of the country—cattle, rubber, hemp, wax, sugar, forwarded mainly to the Mascarenhas, Great Britain, France, and the United States in exchange for manufactured wares. The annual exchanges exceed £200,000, and the trade with Great Britain is rapidly increasing, the exports having risen from £15,000 in 1884 to £121,000 in 1892, and the imports from £1400 to £87,000 in the same period.

Some trade is also carried on at the French ports of *St. Mary Island*, between Tamatave and Antongil Bay, and *Diego Suarez* at the northern extremity of Madagascar. The latter place, however, is chiefly important for its splendid natural harbour, which the French hope to convert into a great naval station, the "Toulon of the Indian Ocean," so as thus to command both the overland and the Cape routes to India. This fine landlocked harbour, the *Antomboka* of the natives, lies a short distance south by east of Cape Amber, and is divided by several projecting headlands into secondary basins, which ramify for miles in all directions inland. It is approached by a channel over 120 feet deep, and there can be no doubt that for a relatively small outlay Diego Suarez might be made a formidable maritime stronghold. The chief drawback is the malarious climate. The lately acquired port of *Mojanga* on the west coast also possesses considerable strategic importance, thanks to its position at the mouth of the Betsiboka. Although farther removed from the capital than is Tamatave on the opposite side, it gives more easy access to the interior, owing to the gentler incline of the western escarpments and to the

advantages presented by the navigable waters of the Betsiboka and its Ikopa affluent.

Nossi-Bé and the Comoros

Close to the north-west coast of Madagascar lies the little group of Nossi-Bé and a few other islets which have been in the possession of the French since 1841. Despite its name, meaning "Great Island," Nossi-Bé has an area of not more than 113 square miles, with a mixed Malagasy and Negro population (1893) of 7800. But it is the centre of a considerable export trade in coffee, rice, and sugar; total exchanges (1890), £157,000; capital *Hellville*, on the south side, with a spacious roadstead sheltered by the neighbouring islet of *Nossi-Komba*. The Nossi-Bé group, which includes the islet of *St. Mary*, a little farther north, depends administratively on Diego Suarez.

About midway between this group and the African mainland the northern entrance of Mozambique Channel is occupied by the much larger Komoro Archipelago, which comprises the four islands of *Great Comoro*, *Anjuan* (*Johanna*), *Moheli* (*Moali*), and *Mayotte* (*Mauté*). They are disposed in the direction from south-east to north-west, forming a volcanic chain which extends about 150 miles across the channel, culminating in Great Comoro at the north-west extremity with an imposing and still active cone 8500 feet high. The highest peak in Anjuan is scarcely half that height, while Mayotte falls to about 2000 feet. All are extremely fertile, yielding considerable quantities of coffee, cotton, sugar, and vanilla, besides cocoa-nuts and (in Moheli) cloves. The total area scarcely exceeds 820 miles, with a mixed Malagasy, Arab, and Negro population (1893) of 60,000, mostly Moham-

medans. Mayotte has been occupied by the French since 1841, and the French protectorate was extended in 1886 to the rest of the group, the "sultans" of Anjuan and Great Comoro still retaining a semblance of authority over their motley subjects.

North of Mayotte, and dependent on it, are the uninhabited *Glorieuse* islets, and some 120 miles still farther north the coralline *Cosmoledos* group, claimed by the English as a dependency of Mauritius. About 70 miles farther west is the *Aldabra* atoll, also claimed by the English, and noted for its gigantic turtles. Here was established a Norwegian fishing station in 1879.

The Mascarenhas, Seychelles, and Dependencies

At a mean distance of 650 miles from the east coast of Madagascar lies the volcanic chain of the Mascarenhas, so named from their Portuguese discoverer, Pedro de Mascarenhas, who sighted the westernmost member of the group in 1513. All are of igneous origin, having been upheaved from the marine depths probably in secondary times. The three chief links in the chain, going eastwards, are Réunion (formerly Bourbon), Mauritius (formerly Cerné), and Rodrigues, which have a collective area of over 1540 square miles, and a population (1891) of 716,100, as under:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Population.
Mauritius	708	372,000
Rodrigues	45	2,000
Réunion	790	172,000
	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> 1,543	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> 546,000

Like the Comoros, the Mascarenhas increase in altitude in the direction from east to west. Thus Mount

Limon, culminating point of Rodrigues, scarcely exceeds 1320 feet, while Mauritius attains in the Black River Peak 2730, and in P'ieter Both 2700, and Réunion about 10,000 in the Piton des Neiges (" Snowy Peak "). This island is altogether of an extremely mountainous and rugged character, with a central plateau over 5000 feet, studded with remarkably regular water-worn cirques, and flanked on the east side by the Grand Brûlé (8000 feet), the only still active crater in the archipelago. During the eighteenth century it was in a constant state of disturbance, and since 1800 there have been recorded as many as twenty eruptions. The crater is encircled by the Grand Enclos (" Great Enclosure "), which, with its two outer ramparts, presents perhaps the most symmetrical formation of this kind in the whole world.

Before the development of the plantation system, by which they have been largely disafforested, these islands were renowned for their sylvan beauty, and the magnificent avenues, six miles north-east of Port Louis, in Mauritius still recall the scene of Bernardin de Saint Pierre's *Paul and Virginia*. This primeval vegetation was also remarkable for its independent character, represented by as many as twenty species of pandanus, besides numerous ferns, orchids, and other peculiar indigenous forms. Such a flora implies a copious rainfall, which is here due to the moist south-east trade winds, and which on the more exposed slopes rises to a mean annual discharge of 150 and even 160 inches. Unfortunately these winds often assume the character of fierce gales and cyclones, which are liable to occur at any time, but are frequent especially in the summer season, from December to April. In recent years Mauritius has suffered much from these terrific storms, which have wasted the plantations far and wide, and strewn the surrounding waters



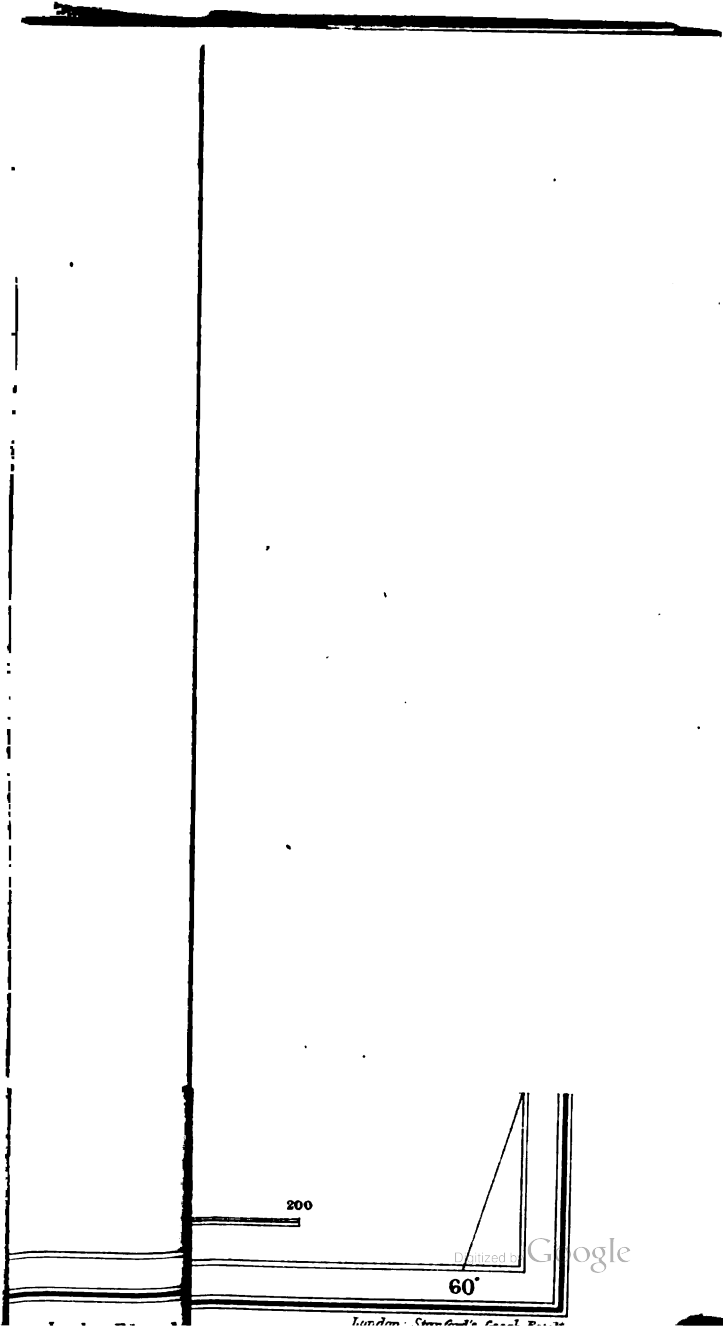
CHANAREL FALLS, MAURITIUS.

with wreckage. The insular fauna, now mostly extinct, was perhaps even more original than the flora. It was represented especially by large wingless birds, such as the dodo and the aphanapterix, besides some pigeons and a lori, whose nearest congeners are to be found rather in Malaysia and Australasia than in Madagascar.

On the other hand, the archipelago, when first discovered, was found to be uninhabited by man. Since then the islands have been settled mainly by French immigrants, and all belonged politically to France till 1811, when they were seized by the English. After the Napoleonic wars Bourbon was restored to France, and then renamed Réunion to mark this event. All the rest were retained, and Mauritius constituted a Crown Colony, to which, however, a measure of representation was granted in 1885. Eight members are now elected for as many rural districts, and two for the capital, Port Louis, which has the advantage of a spacious harbour sheltered by reefs, and of connection with all the important points by a railway system ramifying over the whole island. Hence most of the trade of the archipelago is centred in this seaport, whose exchanges exceeded £3,300,000 in 1892. In that year the exports to Great Britain were valued at £230,000, and the imports at £270,000. The chief exports are such colonial produce as sugar, rum, coconut oil, vanilla, and fibre. Besides these articles, Réunion forwards coffee, cacao, and spices. The capital of this island is Saint-Denis, with an exposed roadstead on the north coast; its exchanges exceeded £1,500,000 in 1892. Although larger, Réunion is less productive than Mauritius, and has also the disadvantage of a rock-bound coast destitute of good havens. Coolie labour, chiefly Indians, is largely employed on the plantations in both islands. There is also a considerable African element,

freedmen and captives rescued by the British cruisers from the Arab dhows. Hence the population is at present of a very mixed character, the prevailing medium of intercourse being a Franco-Negro patois, current also in the Seychelles.

This group, which takes its name from Moreau de Sechelles (not Seychelles), was also first settled by the French (in 1743), all the larger islets being named from French celebrities of the eighteenth century. It lies over 1000 miles north of Mauritius, of which it is an administrative dependency, and it comprises altogether about 30 islets, besides reefs, of which very few are inhabited. *Mahé*, by far the largest, has an area of 50 square miles, or nearly one half of the whole group. The Seychelles stand on a marine bed in a line with the main axis of Madagascar, with which they undoubtedly at one time formed continuous land, as is evident from the granite peaks and red laterite of identical formation occurring in both regions. Like all the other fragments of the vanished Indo-African Continent, they have a peculiar flora represented by as many as sixty species, amongst which is the remarkable "sea cocoa-nut" (*Lodoicea Seychellarum*), which grows two nuts in a single outer husk, but flourishes only on two of the islets. The reptiles mostly resemble those of the Mascarenhas and Madagascar; but amongst the insects is the curious "walking leaf" (*Phyllium siccifolium*), which even experts find a difficulty in detecting amid the surrounding foliage. Although within 300 miles of the equator, the group is healthy, thanks to the alternating trade winds, which here rarely assume a cyclonic character. The capital, *Port Victoria*, formerly *Mahé*, exports vanilla, copra, and cloves; other produce, raised for the local consumption, includes tobacco, cacao, coffee, sugar, and rice. Total exchanges (1892), £1,400,000.



200

60'

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Some 430 miles south of the Seychelles lies the little *Galgas* group, and, much nearer to the Mascarenhas, the *Cargados* (*Garayos*, *St. Brendan*). These groups, which are not permanently occupied, yield nothing but copra¹ and cocoa-nut oil, hence are commonly known as the "oil islands." Both are attached to Mauritius.

The cocoa-nut palm is also the almost exclusive growth of the *Amirantes*, discovered in 1502, and named from the great "Admiral," Vasco de Gama. They lie to the south-west of the Seychelles, and comprise about 150 islets rising a few yards above sea-level; all uninhabited except about six. Between the *Amirantes* and Madagascar the waste of waters is broken only by the Providence and Farquhar rocks, also uninhabited.

¹ Copra, the dried fruit of the cocoa-nut after the oil has been expressed, is much used in India as an ingredient in the preparation of curry powder.

CHAPTER XIII

THE WEST AFRICAN ARCHIPELAGOES

IN the North Atlantic¹ there are four insular groups—Madeira, the Canaries, Cape Verd, and Azores—which are usually assigned to Africa, although the Canaries and Cape Verd alone belong geographically to that Continent. The Azores are lost, so to say, in mid-Atlantic, while Madeira, if a little nearer to the African mainland, forms in all other respects a dependency of Europe. Thanks either to their delightful climate, historic associations, or position on the highway between the two hemispheres, all possess an importance disproportionate to their size and population, which, as seen in the subjoined table, are collectively less than those of the largest English shire:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Population (1885-94).	Yorkshire.
Madeira . . .	370	132,000	} Area—6068 sq. miles. Pop. (1891), 3,108,828.
Canaries . . .	2850	301,000	
Cape Verd . . .	1650	111,000	
Azores . . .	1005	270,000	
Total	5875	814,000	

The Canaries belong politically to Spain, of which for administrative purposes they are regarded as an integral part. All the rest are Portuguese possessions, Madeira

¹ For the islets in the South Atlantic, see Chap. I.

and the Azores forming electoral districts of the kingdom, while the Cape Verd group alone is administered as a colony.

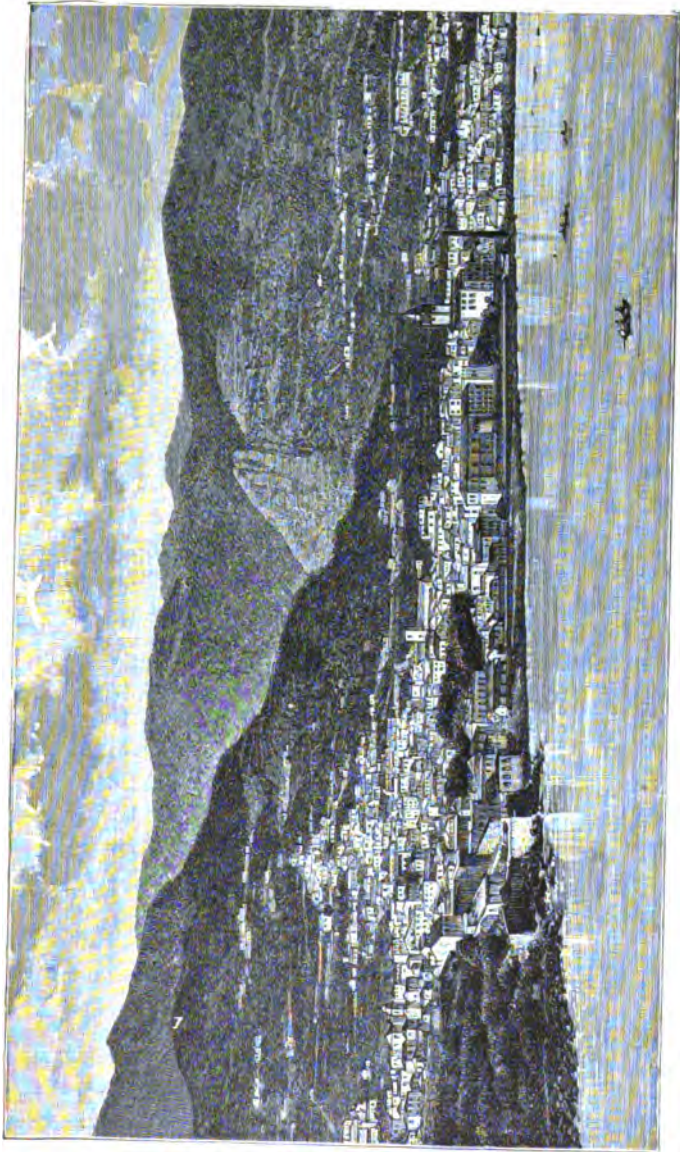
Madeira

The Madeira group, comprising the large island of Madeira (the "Wooded"), the islet of Porto Santo to the north-east, and to the south-east three rocky "desertas," uninhabited and destitute of vegetation, lies 560 miles from Portugal and 430 from Cape Cantin, the nearest point on the Marocco coast, in lat. $32^{\circ} 40'$, long. $17^{\circ} W$. Although surrounded by deep water (over 2000 fathoms), its geological connection with Europe seems to be indicated by the Gettysburg and other marine banks, which extend to within 150 miles of the Portuguese coast, and which are covered by scarcely more than 40 or 50 fathoms. The first mention of the group under its present name¹ occurs in a Florentine document dated 1351, in which the neighbouring rocks are also indicated by name. But it appears to have been again forgotten until rediscovered by the Portuguese about 1420, although there was a vague tradition of two English lovers having fled from Bristol and taken refuge in Madeira during the reign of Edward III. Before the settlement the group had never been occupied by man, so that the great majority of the present inhabitants are of Portuguese descent, differing little from those of the home country. The large island, which stretches 35 miles east and west, with a mean breadth of about 12 miles, is traversed in its entire length by a mountain range at a mean elevation of 4000 feet, culminating in the Pico Ruivo (6100 feet) towards the centre. On both sides the slopes are scored

¹ The Italian word is *Legname*, which answers to the Portuguese *Madeira*, meaning "wood."

by profound gorges descending down to the coast, so that the surface is generally rugged and in many places extremely wild and picturesque. So difficult are the communications, that the interior is almost uninhabited, nearly the whole of the population being concentrated in the capital, *Funchal*, on the south coast, and in a few other small towns or villages situated at the mouth of the gorges or on the lower slopes of the hills. On the south side some patches still survive of the primeval forest which at one time covered the whole island. The presence of marine shells at an altitude of about 1000 feet, shows that a great upheaval has taken place since miocene times, when the prevailing erupted rocks appear to have been discharged from the long quiescent and now obliterated craters. Running waters are rare, and mostly absorbed on the irrigation works. Water is still more scarce on the hilly and treeless Porto Santo, which attains in the Pico do Facho a height of 1615 feet. This islet, which is 8 miles long by 3 wide, yields little but a scanty crop of barley, so that its 1800 inhabitants, mainly centred in *la Vilha*, have to draw most of their supplies from Funchal.

Madeira is renowned for its remarkably mild and equable climate, by which many invalids are attracted to the island, especially from Great Britain. The observations taken at the observatory of Funchal show a mean annual temperature of about 65° F., rising to 72° in summer, and falling to about 60° in winter. There are scarcely more than 80 rainy days in the year, with a mean discharge of from 30 to 32 inches, the wettest months being November, December, January and March. Funchal and the whole of the south side are well sheltered from the prevailing north winds by the lofty central range, on which snow rarely descends below about 2000 feet



FUNCHAL.

above sea-level. The balmy atmosphere of the lower southern slopes now dotted over with numerous villas, is especially favourable to some forms of consumption.¹

There are no indigenous mammals, and of the thirty species of birds one only (*Regulus madeirensis*) is peculiar to the group. Five others, including the yellow canary (*Fringilla butyracea*), occur also in the Canary Islands. The reptiles are represented only by a single lizard (*Lacerta dugesii*); but marine and fresh-water molluscs and insects abound, the latter mostly wingless, because, as pointed out by Darwin, those capable of flight are liable to be blown seawards by the winds.

Although the primeval forests have mostly disappeared, the lower slopes are still clothed with a rich vegetation of smaller growths, including the myrtle, laurel, cypress and vine of Southern Europe, and the magnolia, mango, banana, coffee and sugar-cane of more tropical lands. Higher up, the rich pastures support numerous herds of cattle and ponies. Till lately the chief resources of the people were the vine and sugar-cane, although the former has suffered terribly from the ravages both of oidium and phylloxera since the middle of the nineteenth century. The wine known as "Madeira" is made from a red and a white variety of grapes, which separately yield the so-called *Tinta* (red) and *Verdelho* (white) wines. But the quantity has fallen from over 2,000,000 to a few thousand gallons in recent years. The sugar crop has also greatly fallen off owing to the competition of the beet-root sugar in Europe. Oranges, lemons, pulse, potatoes, and other fruits and vegetables thrive well, and bananas and pine-

¹ Not all, as is generally supposed: "For the majority of consumptives this sort of climate [that of Madeira] does more harm than good; but for the catarrhal form of phthisis it is, as my statistics show, a distinct success" (Dr. Ch. Th. Williams, *Aero-Therapeutics*, etc., 1895).

apples are now exported to London. The exchanges, averaging about £250,000, are mainly with England and Portugal, regular communications being maintained by the steamers of various Atlantic lines calling at Funchal.

The Canaries

Unlike Madeira, this group was known to the ancients probably from remote times. It is usually identified with the "Fortunate Islands," with which so many legends were associated. But in any case, Pliny mentions one by its present name, *Canaria*, or "Great Canary," and another as *Nivaria*, the "Snowy," obviously Teneriffe. The archipelago, which lies opposite the Draa estuary within 65 miles of Cape Juby, was first occupied towards the end of the thirteenth century by the Genoese under Lanzaroto Marocillo, from whom Lanzarote, easternmost member of the group, takes its name. They were succeeded by the Norman adventurer Jean de Béthencourt, who reached the same island in 1402, and by the aid of the King of Castile, to whom he had presented the group, successively reduced Fuerteventura and Ferro (Hierro), at the eastern and western extremities of the chain. But the central islands long held out against all attacks, and the whole group was not completely conquered till the close of the fifteenth century (1497), by which time nearly all the natives had been exterminated. The islands have since been re-peopled by Spanish immigrants, with whom the few surviving aborigines have been merged.

The Canaries—which develop an irregular curve from east to west, between 13°-18° W. long., 27° 40'-29° 40' N. lat.—comprise, besides a few islets and rocks, seven relatively large islands, all mainly of igneous origin, and

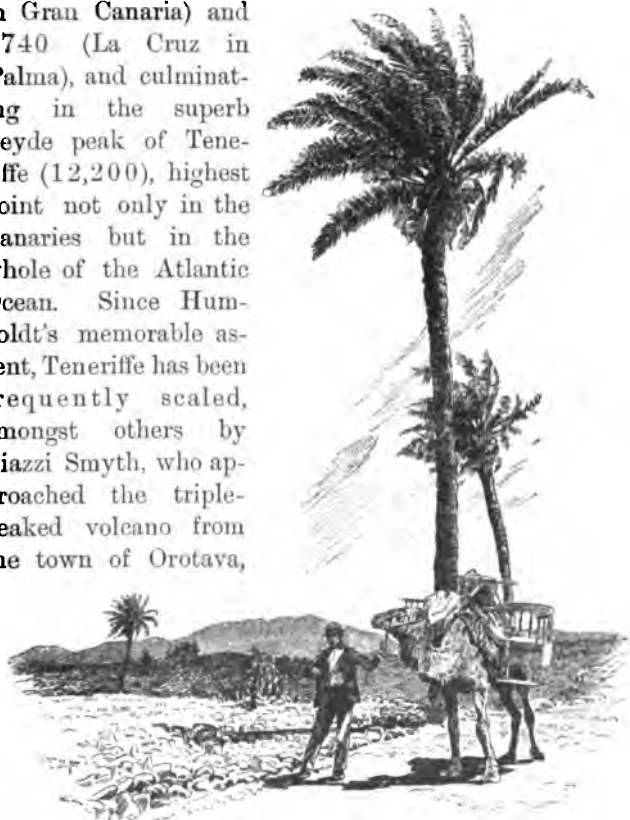
mostly rising in depths of over 1000 fathoms. In the subjoined table of areas and populations, these are disposed in their order from east to west:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Pop. 1898 (est.)	Chief Towns.	Pop.
Lanzarote . . .	296	18,600	Arrecife . . .	3,000
Fuerteventura . .	690	12,500	Puerto de Cabras . .	550
Gran Canaria . . .	550	100,000	Las Palmas . . .	19,000
Teneriffe . . .	763	111,000	Santa Cruz . . .	17,000
Gomera . . .	151	12,000	S. Sebastian . . .	2,000
Palma . . .	290	41,000	Santa Cruz . . .	6,900
Hierro . . .	110	5,900	Valverde . . .	5,200
Total . . .	2850	301,000		

In most of the islands erupted rocks of great age—trachytes, basalts, obsidian—greatly prevail over later volcanic and sedimentary formations. Here the underground forces have long been quiescent or extinct, the craters obliterated, and the surface greatly denuded, while the slopes are deeply furrowed by the erosive action of running waters. But in Lanzarote, Palma, and Teneriffe, where alone disturbances have occurred since the Spanish occupation, lavas of more recent date cover extensive tracts. Lanzarote especially was the scene of continuous eruptions during the years 1730-36 and again in 1824-25, the effects of which are still plainly visible. These disturbances were accompanied by violent earthquakes, flames mingled with vapours were ejected even from the neighbouring waters, and new headlands were formed round the coast by cones of scorix rising above the surface.

Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, which seem to form a separate group resting on a common marine bed, are relatively low, with summits nowhere exceeding 2770 feet (Oreja del Asno in Fuerteventura). But all the

other islands are mountainous, with heights ranging from 4400 feet (Garojona in Gomera) and 4490 (Hiero) to 6400 (Los Pechos in Gran Canaria) and 7740 (La Cruz in Palma), and culminating in the superb Teyde peak of Teneriffe (12,200), highest point not only in the Canaries but in the whole of the Atlantic Ocean. Since Humboldt's memorable ascent, Teneriffe has been frequently scaled, amongst others by Piazzini Smyth, who approached the triple-peaked volcano from the town of Orotava,



THE BURNING MOUNTAIN, FROM YAIZA, LANZAROTE.

on the north coast.¹ Up to nearly 2000 feet the track winds through cultivated slopes intersected by

¹ *Teneriffe: An Astronomer's Experiment*, 1858.

an intricate system of retaining walls to protect the soil from the raging winter torrents. At 1500 feet the peach, fig, lemon, and orange groves are replaced chiefly by pear trees, and then at 2000 feet by lovely wild plants with delicate pink leaves and rich yellow flowers, followed up to 2800 feet by patches of heather and grasses. "We turn at 2900 feet, and behold! we are even with the clouds, which, but scanty this morning, disperse in our immediate neighbourhood when we seem just about to enter them. At 3900 feet billowy white clouds conceal all the lower landscape from view, and at 4700 feet a first specimen is seen of the *codeso*, a leguminous plant with closely packed composite light green leaves, yellow flowers and branches like those of a miniature cedar tree. At 5280 feet a solitary pine still lingered, a last survivor at this spot of the primeval forests which once girdled the mountain. Higher up was met the *retama*, a unique mountain broom, and at 6560 the path entered the circle of Cañadas, valley-like spaces silted up with fine pumice between the lava streams from the crater." "The full appearance of the peak left no doubt that the ascent of the northern slope was finished, and that we were travelling over the basin of the ancient crater, a crater whose vast dimensions (eight miles in diameter) can hardly be paralleled save in the moon itself. Here the surface of the pumice-stone soil widened out; the rocks, red and jagged, became fewer, the *codeso* disappeared; presently, as we entered quite an African-looking desert of white sand and yellow stones, a fine range of blue mountains was seen to the south-east and south. They were merely the opposite sides of this gigantic crater! We have now transcended all the strata of clouds and have entered a most moon-like region; the flaming sun, set in the middle of the



PEAK OF TENERIFFE.

sky above our heads, showers down his merciless rays; light and heat revel everywhere." Then followed a fine parasitic crater, the tops of others visible in the distance, while behind and above all rose the grand peak, seamed with blue-black torrents, and showing clearly the dimensions of the once active Rambleta crater at a height of 11,700 feet. Beyond Alta Vista (10,700 feet), where pack-animals are arrested, there follows the wilderness of the *Malpays* ("Bad Lands"), torrents of black lava rocks and stones, where not a plant, a bird, or even an insect is to be seen. At 11,600 feet occurs a jet of steam at a temperature of from 100° to 122° F., which condensing on the rocky ground nourishes a few patches of moss. "Suddenly at the elevation of 11,745 feet, we emerged from the Malpays. Instantly there rose before us, high above our heads, the Piton, or Sugar-loaf cone, forming the summit of Teneriffe, resplendent with bright red and yellow, like some huge tower gleaming in the brightness of the morning sun." The track still ascending about 470 feet, at an angle of 33°, leads to the brim of the culminating crater amid jets of steam and sulphurous acid vapours. The crater, some 300 feet in diameter and 70 feet deep, is often white as snow, where it is not covered with sulphur.

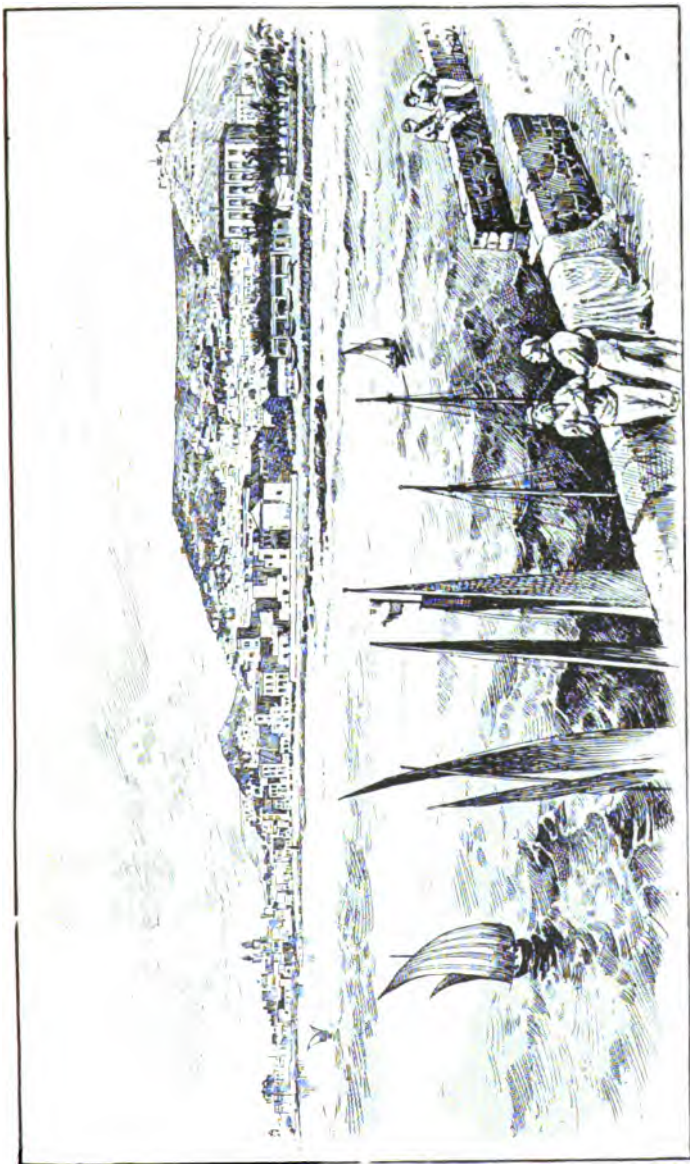
Owing to their greater elevation and more southerly position, the climate of the Canaries is both warmer and less equable than that of Madeira, the mean annual temperature being about 70° F. at Santa Cruz, with a range of 14° between winter and summer, and of course much greater between the uplands and the seaboard. The chief drawback are the hot winds from the Sahara, laden with impalpable dust, and at times also with locusts, which on one occasion were wafted all the way

to Teneriffe. The vegetation suffers also from a limited rainfall; but the climate is in general salubrious, and as almost any desired temperature can be had by removing to higher or lower elevations, the archipelago is yearly attracting an increasing number of invalids. Despite its position, the flora is on the whole more European than African, as shown by the prevalence of the laurel, oak, chestnut, pine, and cedar. Of African species the most characteristic are the euphorbias and the dragon-tree (*Dracænus draco*), noted for its red sap and peculiar form.

The fauna is perhaps more original than the flora, the molluscs forming quite an independent group, while amongst higher organisms are some distinct varieties of lizards, but no snakes, the red partridge and the canary, now acclimatised in Europe with improved song and plumage changed from green to yellow. Some of the mammals, if not indigenous, have been considerably modified since their introduction. Such are the camel of Fuerteventura, two varieties of the dog (one resembling a collie, the other a Newfoundland), and especially the goat, the chief domestic animal, which is larger and more active than the European, and which yields an abundance of excellent milk.

There can be no reasonable doubt that the Guanches, as the aborigines were called, reached the archipelago from the neighbouring African mainland, and were of Berber stock and speech. At the time of the discovery they had made considerable progress in general culture, as shown by the numerous specimens of the local industries—pottery, carvings, textiles—recovered from the sepulchral chambers abounding in the cavernous recesses of the rocks. Even rock inscriptions have been discovered at several points; but although written in a

script resembling that of the Berbers, they have not yet been deciphered. The skulls of the mummies from the caves of Teneriffe are all dolichocephalous, and in other respects exactly like those of the Berbers, Egyptians, and other Hamitic peoples of North Africa. The present inhabitants are mainly of Spanish stock, mixed here and there with Norman, Berber, Guanche, and Flemish elements. They are chiefly engaged in agriculture, stock-breeding, vine culture, the cochineal industry, navigation, and fishing. Since the ravages of oidium little wine is produced, and the vineyards have been largely replaced by the nopal plant, which thrives well, and which nourishes immense quantities of the cochineal insect. In some years more cochineal has been produced than in all the rest of the world; in 1871 the export amounted to five million pounds, valued at £1,300,000. Tobacco of an excellent quality is also now raised; but the alimentary crops (cereals, onions, potatoes, etc.) scarcely suffice for the local consumption. The trade of the archipelago, which averages nearly £4,000,000 yearly, is centred chiefly in *Las Palmas*, on the north-east coast of Gran Canaria. The port, which is regularly visited by numerous ocean steamers plying between Europe and Africa, is sheltered from the north winds by the headland of *Isleta*, and from the east by a breakwater projecting nearly 5000 feet from this headland southwards, and thus enclosing a deep harbour a little north of the city. *Santa Cruz*, on the north-east side of Teneriffe, is memorable as the place where Nelson lost his right arm in an unsuccessful attempt to capture the town in 1797. *Hierro*, smallest member of the group, is noteworthy as the point taken for their first meridian by France, Spain, and many other countries in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It was supposed to be exactly 20 degrees



LAS PALMAS.

west of Paris, but later surveys showed that it lay 12 miles more to the east, so that the longitudes of all the old maps calculated from Hierro have to be rectified by as much as 12 miles.

The Cape Verd Islands

This group, comprising nine islands varying greatly in size, besides a few islets and reefs, develops an irregular curve of some 300 miles, with its convex side facing Cape Verd, westernmost point of the African mainland, from which it takes its name and from which the nearest islands are distant about 300 miles. In the subjoined table of areas and populations, the nine larger islands follow in their order from north round to east and south:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Pop.	Chief Towns.	Pop.
Santo Antão . . .	285	21,650	Ribeira-Grande . .	5000
St. Vincent . . .	100	5,900	Mindello . . .	4500
S. Nicolau . . .	170	8,700	Ribeira-Brava . .	4200
Sal (Salt) . . .	120	1,000
Bãa-Vista . . .	175	3,600	Salrey . . .	500
Maio . . .	100	1,600
S. Thiago . . .	450	46,150	La Praia . . .	4600
Fogo . . .	210	13,200	S. Filippe . . .	700
Brava . . .	40	8,200	S. Jão Battista . .	400
Total . . .	1650	110,000		

Before their discovery by Cadamosto and Usudimare in 1456, all the islands were uninhabited, and since then they have been slowly settled by immigrants from Portugal, and by Negro slaves introduced from the African mainland. Geographically they belong to Africa only in virtue of their position, for the whole archipelago, lying in depths of over 2000 fathoms, is entirely of marine origin, upheaved at a very remote epoch, antecedent to

the appearance of the Canaries and the Azores. Thus very old granites and other crystalline rocks crop out in many places, and although long extinct craters may still be traced in most members of the group, others, such as Maio, consist so largely of sedimentary formations that the archipelago has by many geologists been regarded rather as a remnant of some vanished "Atlantis" than as the result of independent igneous action. No eruptions or earthquakes have occurred in the memory of man, except in the south-western islands of Fogo and Brava. Immense quantities of ferruginous black sands with a high percentage of iron cover the beaches, especially in the southern group (Maio, S. Thiago, Fogo, Brava), which is known to seafarers as the "Leeward," in contradistinction to the northern or "Windward" Islands. All are rugged and mountainous, with several peaks over 4000 feet high, culminating in the Sugar-loaf of S. Antão (S. Anthony), 8200 feet, and the still active volcano of Fogo, 8860 feet, which was the scene of a violent eruption in 1847. The climate, although more temperate than that of the adjacent continent, is on the whole unfavourable, sultry in the relatively dry season from December to July, oppressive during the rains, which last from August to November, and which are often accompanied by fierce westerly and south-westerly gales. These are at times replaced by the so-called *leste*, that is, the Saharan *harmattan*, bringing dense clouds of impalpable dust. Long droughts also occur in some years, causing widespread famine, while at other times fevers are very prevalent, especially after the rains.

The soil is far from fertile, and as there is a general scarcity of water, the archipelago presents on the whole a somewhat arid aspect, except on the slopes exposed to the moist trade-winds. There are no forests or con-

tinuous stretches of woodlands, and the arboreal vegetation is represented chiefly by a few isolated clumps of cocoa-nuts and other palms. Cotton and indigo grow wild, and some patches of rice, maize, millet, and tobacco are raised in the moist bottomlands, to which tillage is mainly confined. The indigenous fauna is very poor, comprising no mammals, and only a few birds, such as the guinea-fowl, partridge, and quail. Cattle of a poor stock are plentiful, and might be improved by crossing.

Although destitute of vegetation and even of water, the arid rock of St. Vincent in the north-west is the centre of all the life and trade of the archipelago. It owes this pre-eminence to its excellent harbour, a deep basin on the north side formed by a breached crater, and sheltered from all winds. St. Vincent, which forms an intermediate station for the submarine cable between Lisbon and Pernambuco, is regularly visited by numerous ocean steamers since it has become one of the great coaling depôts in the Atlantic Ocean. Hence the shipping of this international port approaches two million tons, although the yearly exchanges average no more than £250,000 for the whole archipelago. The coal depôt was established towards the middle of the nineteenth century by an enterprising Englishman, and English is the current medium of intercourse in this busy seaport.

The Azores

It is difficult to understand why the Azores ("Hawk Island") are assigned to Africa. They lie about the 38th parallel, that is, the latitude of Lisbon, and are 100 miles nearer to the Portuguese coast at Cape Roca than to that of Marocco at Cape Cantin, respectively the nearest

headlands of Europe and Africa, 850 miles from the former, 950 from the latter. Geologically they belong to neither continent, the whole group being of volcanic formation and of oceanic origin. In all other respects—historical, ethnical, and political—they form almost an integral part of Portugal, by which they were settled soon after their rediscovery by the Portuguese navigator Gonçalo Velho Cabral in 1431-32, that is, fully eighty years after they had been surveyed and mapped by some now forgotten Genoese mariner.¹ The archipelago comprises altogether nine inhabited islands disposed in the direction from north-west to south-east, with areas and populations as under:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Pop. 1898 (est.)	Chief Towns.	Pop.
Corvo	10	1,500	Rosario	1,000
Flores	65	9,000	Morro Grande	3,000
Fayal	70	24,000	Horta	7,570
Pico	186	28,920	Lagens	12,000
San Jorge	49	16,630	Vellas	10,000
Graciosa	25	13,300	Santa Cruz	9,000
Terceira	235	44,340	Angra	11,000
San Miguel	315	125,680	Ponta Delgada	17,000
Santa Maria	50	6,050	Villa do Porto	3,000
Total	1005	269,420		

Except some limestones of miocene date in Santa Maria, all the islands are of exclusively igneous origin, the older lavas, scorïæ, and other erupted matter dating also apparently from miocene times. Those at the two extremities of the chain have been quiescent throughout the historic period, but the central members of the group, and especially San Miguel, Pico, Terceira, and San Jorge,

¹ This fact is placed beyond doubt by the Florentine portolan of 1351, on which the whole group is correctly figured, except that the chain is disposed from north to south instead of from north-west to south-east.

have been the scene of terrific explosions and earthquakes on several occasions since the discovery. So recently as 1872 a marine eruption occurred close to Terceira, and an earthquake wave passed over San Miguel in 1852. Some of the craters are low, one at sea-level being flooded by a lake, to which boats have access through an opening in the rim. But all the islands are high, with cones ranging from 1350 feet in Graciosa, 1870 in Santa Maria, and 2250 in Corvo, to 3000 in Flores and San Jorge, and 3350 to 3500 in Fayal, San Miguel, and Terceira, the whole system culminating in the superb Pico (7320), from which the island of Pico takes its name. The last recorded eruptions of Pico occurred in 1718 and 1720, none having previously been witnessed since the year 1572, hence the underground forces would appear to be on the wane in this part of the archipelago.

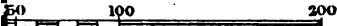
Although exposed at times to fierce Atlantic gales, the islands enjoy on the whole an equable and healthy climate, with a range of temperature scarcely anywhere exceeding 20° F. Thus at Ponta-Delgada, capital of San Miguel and the chief centre of trade, the glass stands for most of the year at about 64°, rising during the hottest summer days to 69° or 70°, and in winter seldom falling below 54° or 55°. The north winds are usually cool and dry, those from the south warm and moist, although rain may fall at any time. For the whole year the rainfall rather exceeds 60 inches, which suffices to nourish the rich sub-tropical vegetation which clothes all the slopes facing southwards. The indigenous flora, however, is poor, comprising less than 400 flowering and seventy-five cryptogamous plants, of which not more than fifty are peculiar to the archipelago. Of the others the great majority belong to the European,

16°

ST AFRICAN HIPELAGOS

On the same scale

7,382, 94% ENGLISH MILES TO 1 INCH.



Port. - Portuguese GREEN
 Sp. - Spanish PURPLE

Submarine Telegraph (2)
 Cables to Lisbon

IRIA
 Falcon Rock
 Pico do Facho
 Porto Santo
 P. Moniz
 Targo P.
 Madeira
 P. do Sol
 Funchal
 S. Jorge
 Lourenzo P.
 Cham. Desertas
 Bugio

O C E A N

Piton. Rocks
 Salvages

Cable to Cadix

LANDS

Lanzarote
 Clara
 Graciosa
 Penedo P.
 East Rock
 Mujeres P.
 Puzos P.
 Arecife
 C. Jinez
 P. Avile
 Lobos
 M. Rosa
 Port. Cabras
 Balena P.
 Pazo Negro
 Jatomar P.
 Boca Grande
 R. Draa
 Cape Nun
 Zurath
 S. Cruz
 S. Maria
 de Belencaria
 Forco
 Nueva
 Palmas Jandia
 N. Jucha 2,770
 Gran Canaria
 Romeral
 Maspulomas P.
 C. Stafford P.
 Barbican
 English Factory
 Plain of Dourah
 M. Fermatah
 MAROCCO

16°

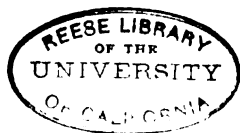
Longitude West of Greenwich

12°

Google

the rest partly to the African, partly to the American botanical zones. Little now remains of the woodlands which covered most of the surface before they were cleared by the settlers. The native growths, including the magnificent faya or "laurel of the Canaries," and a species of juniper, have been largely replaced by such exotics as the poplar, oak, beech, lime, tulip tree, araucaria, acacia, eucalyptus, the vine, and the orange, besides wheat, pulse, and other alimentary plants. But the vineyards, as in the other Atlantic archipelagoes, have in late years been wasted by disease, and are now largely replaced by orange groves, especially in San Miguel, whence have been exported to England as many as 50,000,000 of the so-called "St. Michael oranges," valued at £120,000, in a single year. Lately, however, this plant has also been attacked by blight, and at present the chief crop is maize, of which a considerable quantity is left for exportation after supplying the large local demand. But the foreign trade, mainly with Great Britain and Portugal, is inconsiderable, the yearly exchanges scarcely exceeding £150,000.

The inhabitants, who have preserved some quaint mediæval usages that have died out in Portugal, are noted for their vigorous constitution and enterprising spirit. They increase so rapidly that the islands have long been over-peopled, so that considerable numbers yearly emigrate, especially to Brazil, the United States, and Hawaii. Ponta-Delgada, seat of government and chief seaport, lies on the south-east side of San Miguel, where a completely sheltered artificial harbour has been formed by a pier over half a mile long. Ponta-Delgada elects four of the eight deputies by whom the Azores are represented in the Portuguese chambers.



INDEX

- A-BABUA, 106
Abdallah, 74, 89
Abercorn, Fort, 404
Aberdare mountains, 539, 545
A-Bongos, 60
A-Bundas, 147
Achewas, 466
Adamawa, 1
Aguilhas, Cape, 226
 Current, 226
Ajawas, 469
Akenyara lake, 495, 499
Akkas, 60
Alantica, Mount, 1
Alaotra lake, 610
Albert Edward lake, 495, 538, 556
Albertine Nile, 76, 89, 538, 555
Albert Nyanza lake, 89, 495, 538,
 556, 560
Albertville, 108
Aldabra Island, 630
Alexandra lake, 495, 499
Algoa Bay, 195
Alice, 261
Alicedale, 260
Alima river, 37, 77
Aliwal North, 261
 South, 260
Alta Vista, 646
Ama-Mpondos, 208, 243
Amaramba lake, 461
Ama-Tongas, 330
Ama-Xosas, 208, 243
Ama-Zizi, 401
Amazoe river, 392
Ambaca, 148, 154
Ambakistas, 148
Ambaro Bay, 604
Ambas Bay, 604
Amber, Cape, 603
Ambohinirandrana, 607
Ambohitroa, Mount, 610
Ambrissette, 152
Ambriz, 129, 131, 152
Amirante Islands, 599, 635
Analamazaotra, 605
Andara, 165
Andovoranto, 626
Andrade-Carvo mountains, 138
Angola, 131, 135
Angosha, 477
Angra do Negro, 158
Angra Pequena, 169, 189
Angra river, 39
 Island, 653
Angwa river, 392, 413
Anjuan, 629
Ankai, 605
Ankaratra, 607, 609
Ankéraramadinika, 605
Ankole, 554
Ankori, 495, 530
Antananarivo, 625
Antongil Bay, 601
A-Nyanjas, 429
Apies river, 321
Aruwimi river, 75, 87, 558
Ascension Island, 2, 26
Ashakababo lake, 531
Ashangos, 51

- Ashango hills, 44
 Ashankalo hills, 44
 Athi river, 534
 Attaques mountains, 214
 Awamba, 556
 Awamwambas, 441
 Awawandias, 441
 Azores Islands, 636, 652
- BA-ATTI, 106**
 Ba-Busero, 147
 Bedinga, 127
 Bafyots, 54, 145
 Bagamoyo, 522
 Bahia dos Tigres, 159
 Bahia Pinda, 160
 Ba-Hlengwe, 465
 Bakalai, 51, 56
 Baken Veld, 292
 Ba-Kete, 118
 Ba-Kuba, 119
 Ba-Kubale, 150
 Bakundi, 4
 Bakundu-ba-Nambebe, 19
 Bakundus, 16
 Ba-Kwena, 355
 Bakwiri, 17
 Ba-Kwisse, 150
 Ba-Lolo, 114
 Ba-Luba, 117
 Balumbo, 54
 Ba-Lunda, 435
 Baly Bay, 604
 Cape, 602
 Ba-Mangwato, 355
 Bambiré Island, 501
 Banana, 126
 Point, 82
 Ba-Nano, 147
 Bandawe, 402, 418
 Ba-Ngala, 106, 114, 121
 Bangodi, 127
 Bangwe, 54
 Bangweolo lake, 76, 91
 Bania, 4
 Bantu, 12, 15, 52, 106, 124, 175, 240
 Banyai, 399
 Banyans, 466
 Ba-Nyungwi, 465
 Baraka, 62
 Bararetas, 570
- Barberton, 302, 321
 Bardera, 533
 Baringo lake, 495, 536, 542
 Barkly, 263
 Barotse, 355, 435
 Barotseland, 369, 385
 Ba-Rue, 465
 Ba-Sange, 117
 Ba-Senga, 466
 Bashukulumbwe, 386, 437
 Basileh, 24
 Ba-Simba, 150
 Basoko, 127
 Ba-Songe, 117
 Basso-Ebor lake, 543
 Basso-Nasok lake, 543
 Ba-Sutos, 241
 Ba-Teke, 54
 Ba-Tevi, 466
 Ba-Tlapi, 355
 Ba-Tongas, 438
 Batta, Mount, 38
 Batwa, 60
 Bavili, 54
 Ba-Wanketsi, 355
 Bayaka, 54
 Ba-Yansi, 114
 Beatrice Gulf, 555
 Beaufort West, 257
 Bechuanaland North, 336, 338
 South, 336, 338
 Bedford, 260
 Beira, 275
 Belmonte, 155
 Belmore, 477
 Bemba lake, 91
 Bembé, 152
 Benabendi, 127
 Benguela, 135
 town, 157
 Benningwa Hills, 376, 391
 Benue river, 3
 Berea, 241
 Berlin, 261
 Bethany, 169, 190
 Bethel, 241
 Bethulie, 327
 Betsiboka Bay, 604
 river, 606, 610
 Betsileoa, 621
 Betsimisarakas, 618

- Biafra, Bight of, 3
 Bibundi, 19
 Bihé, 110, 136, 139, 155
 Bila-Kulus, 465
 Bimbia, 19
 Blantyre, 402
 Bloemfontein, 260, 327
 Blu-Blu cascade, 25
 Blue Cliff, 260
 Blythswood, 250
 Bôa Vista Island, 650
 Boers, 148, 159, 177, 200, 313
 Bogwé river, 40
 Bokkeveld mountains, 216
 Bolobo, 126
 Boloko river, 85
 Bolombo, 114, 126
 Boma, 126, 128
 Bomakandi river, 87
 Boran, 534
 Bosch Veld, 292
 Bosi river, 410, 458
 Bourbon Island, 630
 Bowen, Cape, 529
 Braunschweig, 261
 Brava Island, 650
 Brazzaville, 62, 128
 Breede river, 220
 British Central Africa, 369
 East Africa, 528
 South Central Africa, 332
 Zambesia, 369-70
 Bua river, 419
 Bubi tribe, 23
 Buby river, 294
 Budu, 554
 Buffalo river, 296
 Buganda, 538
 Buluwayo, 383, 396
 Bundu, 148
 Buntale, 425
 Bunyoro, 538
 Bushmen, 150, 183, 250, 358

 CABEÇA DE COBRA, 152
 Cabinda, 66, 67, 135
 Cabindas, 54, 67
 Cacullo, 155
 Caculovar river, 140
 Caledon river, 222
 Calvinia, 256

 Cambambe Falls, 139
 Cameroon, Mount, 5
 river, 7
 Cameroons, 1, 2
 town, 20
 Canaria Island, 641
 Canary Islands, 636, 641
 Caparanga Falls, 86
 Cape Agulhas, 195
 Castle, 195
 Colony, 194
 of Good Hope, 195, 197
 Point, 216
 Recife, 195
 St. Martin, 216
 St. Francis, 195
 Town, 252
 Verd Islands, 636, 650
 Capororo river, 157
 Cargados Islands, 599, 635
 Carmel, 241
 Carnarvon, 256
 Cathcart, 261
 Cathkin mountains, 291
 Cattle Damaras, 179
 Cedar mountains, 216
 Chad Lake, 4
 Chambezi river, 91, 407
 Champagne Castle, Mount, 222, 291
 Chaoni, Mount, 429
 Charter, Fort, 381
 Chazi river, 91
 Chella mountains, 136, 138
 Chelomoni mountains, 422, 423
 Cheza, Mount, 406
 Chibcharagnani Peak, 536, 539, 545
 Chikala, Mount, 423
 Chikarango Falls, 412
 Chiloango river, 45
 Chinde river, 412
 Chinta lagoon, 422
 Chippendall, Mount, 86
 Chirenje, 432
 Chisumulu Island, 426
 Chobe river, 352
 town, 521
 Chombe Peak, 406
 Cidade, 25
 Cimbébas, 150
 Clanwilliam, 256
 Claremont, 254

- Clarence Bay, 26
 Peak, 1, 21
 Town, 24
 Coanza river, 137, 139
 Cockscornb, Mount, 215
 Colesberg, 260
 Comoro Islands, 599, 629
 Compass Berg, 221
 Conducia, 456
 Congo basin, 77
 estuary, 81
 Free State, 69
 kingdom, 135, 145
 river, 77
 Constantia, 230, 255
 Coolies of Natal, 307
 Corisco Bay, 39
 Islands, 65
 Corvo Island, 653
 Cosmoledos Islands, 630
 Cradock, 260
 Cross river, 4
 Crystal mountains, 38
 Cunene river, 131, 140
- DAMARA HILLS, 167**
 Damaraland, 166
 Damaras, 179
 Dando, 154
 Danger Point, 195
 Dar-es-Salaam, 521
 Dar-Fertit, 86
 Dasas, 12
 De Aar, 257
 Delagoa Bay, 297, 330, 473
 Delgado Bay, 451
 Diana's Peak, 29
 Diego-Suarez, 603, 604, 628
 Dilolo lake, 79, 85, 410
 Doé, Mount, 456
 Dogilani, 545
 Dombe, 157
 Donga river, 7
 Donyo Kisali, Mount, 540
 Donyo Longonok, Mount, 539, 540
 Donyo la-Nyuki, 540
 Dove Island, 24
 Drakenberg, 222, 290
 Drakensteinberg mountains, 216
 Dualas, 17
 Dumé rapids, 42
- Durban, 323
 Dutch, the, in South Africa, 199
- EAST LONDON, 261**
 Edea river, 8
 Eiaszi lake, 497
 Elephant Lake, 7
 Marsh, 405, 420
 Plain, 537
 Elgeyo, 536, 545
 Elgon, Mount, 536, 537, 545
 Elmeteita lake, 495, 536, 542
 Elobey Islands, 39, 65
 Elongo Peak, 138
 Embekelweni, 330
 Encogé, 152
 English, the, South Africa, 204; Natal, 311
 Equatorville, 72, 126
 Ersteling, 323
 Eshi-Kongo, 145
 Etembué river, 3, 39
 Etosha lake, 141, 173
 Eyo river, 39
- FALSE BAY, 169**
 Fans, 51, 56
 Fauwera, 586
 Fayal Island, 653
 Fazokl, 530
 Fenoarivo, 610
 Fernando Po, 1, 21
 Fernão Vaz, 44
 Vellozo, 456, 477
 Fiari river, 3
 Fife, Fort, 402
 Fingus, 243
 Flores Island, 653
 Fogo Island, 650
 Formosa, 21
 Fort Dauphin, 600, 626
 Piddie, 261
 Foule Point, 610
 Franceville, 63
 Frankfurt, 261
 Fraserburg, 256
 French Point, 82
 Equatorial Africa, 35
 Frere Town, 588
 Frio, Cape, 131, 139
 Fuerteventura Island, 642

- 'ulahs, 12
 'unchal, 688
 'wambo gorge, 407
- I**
IABOON, 8, 36
 river, 39
Ialegas Islands, 635
Iallas, 14, 570
Iambaragara, 518
Iamtoos river, 221
Iamualla, Mount, 492
Ianguellas, 149
Iarib river, 221
Iasbeka, 4
Iat Rand, 292
Iatberg, 250
Iauritz river, 220
Iavaresi river, 418
Iazaland, 388, 444
Ienyi, 110
Ieorge, 260
Ieorge Town, 26
Ierman East Africa, 480
Ierman South-West Africa, 163
Ihansi, 366
Ilorieuse Islands, 630
Iomera Island, 642
Ioosha, 534
Iorongozo, 455, 456
Ioshen, 336
Iough Island, 32
Iraaf Reynet, 202, 260
Iraciosa Island, 653
Iraham's Town, 258
Iran Canaria Island, 642
Ireat Batanga river, 8
Ireat Bushmanland, 216
Ireat Fish Bay, 159, 161
Ireat Fish river, 194, 221
Ireat Hartebeeste river, 222
Ireat Karroo, 227
Ireat Kei river, 221
Ireat Mataman, 179
Ireen Hills, 26
Iriqualand West, 195, 262
 East, 262
Iroot Fontein, 177, 257
Iroot Swarte mountains, 215
Iroot Winterberg mountains, 215
Iroot Winterhoek mountains, 215
Iuanches, 647
- Guay river**, 368, 400, 413
Guinea, Gulf of, 1
Gundi-Inyanga, Mount, 456
Gwambas, 465
- HALIFAX ISLAND**, 189
Halley, Mount, 31
Hambi Peak, 138
Hameye, 532
Hamilton, Mount, 291
Hanglip, Mount, 292
Hanover, 260
Hanyani river, 371, 413
Hargazo Falls, 532
Harrismith, 327
Hart river, 222
Hartley Hill, 390, 393
Hartzogs Rand, 219
Haussas, 12
Hellville, 629
Hierro Island, 626
Hikwa lake, 78
Hoffmann Falls, 532
Hollam's Bend Island, 163
Holnek, Mount, 292
Hooge Veld, 292
Hopetown, 195, 256
Horta Island, 653
Hottentots, 175, 182, 201, 238
Hovas, 618
Huguenots, Cape Colony, 200
Huilla, 158
Humpata, 159
Hundred Falls, 223
Hygap river, 222, 353
- IBEA**, 528
Ibeas, 18
Ibi, 4
Ibo, 478
Ibrahim lake, 551
Ichaboe Island, 189
Idia Falls, 7
Igumbi Ndele Peak, 38
Ihuru river, 89
Ikopa river, 606, 607, 610
Imérina, 607
Inhabitants of the Cameroons, 11
 French Equatorial Africa, 51
 Congo basin, 105
 Angola, 145

Inhabitants of Damaraland, 175

- Cape Colony, 236
- South-East Africa, 306
- Bechuanaland, 353
- South Zambesia, 399
- North Zambesia, 428
- Gazaland, 464
- German East Africa, 511
- British East Africa, 565
- Madagascar, 616
- Inhambane, 474
- Inyagwe river, 413
- Inyamkarara, Mount, 456
- Iramba, 386, 410
- Isabel Peak, 21
- Isango river, 556
- Isangula, 126
- Isipingo, 325
- Issangi, 108
- Itasy lake, 609, 611
- Itiri river, 556
- Ivindo river, 42
- JAGERSFONTEIN, 327**
- Jamba mountains, 138, 140
- Jansenville, 260
- Jipé lake, 492, 509
- Johanna Island, 629
- Johannesburg, 321
- Johnston, Fort, 404
- Juba river, 529, 532
- Junker, Mount, 86
- KAAP, MOUNT, 292**
- Kabompo river, 132, 368, 414
- Kaffraria, 196
- Kaifrland, 196
- Kafra, 206, 243
- Kafue river, 369, 413
- Kafukwe river, 386, 413
- Kafur river, 550
- Kafuro, 517
- Kagera river, 496, 498, 499
- Kaiser Wilhelm's Bad, 20
- Kalabi Mine, 109
- Kalahari desert, 167, 344
- Kalangi river, 111
- Kulk Bay, 254
- Kalosa Cave, 109
- Kamies, Mount, 216
- Kamorondo river, 92

- Kampala, 583, 591
- Kanjamba, 129
- Kansalo rapids, 412
- Kanuri, 12
- Kanya, 364
- Kaoko Hills, 167
- Kaomba, Mount, 78
- Kapté, 540
- Karadouw mountains, 214
- Karagwe, 495, 517
- Karonga, 402, 406
- Karroos, 214, 218
- Karuma Falls, 553
- Kasagama, 559
- Kasali mountains, 557
- Kashera lake, 554
- Kasitu river, 419
- Kassai river, 71, 85
- Kassali lake, 91, 93
- Kassongo, 107
- Kasuku river, 97
- Katanga, 78, 107
- Katima rapids, 132
- Katonga river, 503
- Katunga, 412
- Kau, 529, 591
- Kavalli's, 554, 558
- Kavele, 527
- Kavirondo, 537, 546
- Kawkwa river, 7
- Kebrabasa Falls, 406, 412, 479
- Kei river, 194
- Kenge, 128
- Kengo river, 86
- Kenia, Mount, 535, 544
- Kerewe Island, 487
- Kheis, 346
- Khosib river, 170
- Kiaya, 557
- Kibali Falls, 87
- Kibbi river, 86
- Kibiro, 588
- Kibo Peak, 493
- Kifumaji Flat, 79, 85
- Kikassa, 73
- Kikuyu, 534, 537
- Kilemba, 113
- Kilimanjaro, 489, 493
- Kiloa, 520
- Kimberley, 267, 342
- King Akwa's Town, 19

- King Bill's Town, 19**
King William's Town, 261
Kingani river, 496
Kingunji rapids, 86
Kiokos, 120
Kipembwe river, 97
Kipini, 529
Kirk range, 406
Kisigali, Mount, 557
Kisimeme, 111
Kismayu, 529, 591
Kitagwenda, 554, 555
Kitangula river, 498
Kitwara, 517, 575
Klipdrift, 263
Klipstad, Mount, 292
Koboleng, 341, 365
Koki, 553
Koko, 530
Kola, 522
Komo river, 36, 40
Koranas, 238
Kosi inlet, 296, 330
Kowambe lake, 91
Kowie river, 258
Krej, 86
Kubango river, 140, 352, 417
Kuilu river, 36, 45
Kuisip river, 170, 173
Ku-Ito river, 417
Ku-Ndo river, 417
Kuruman, 365
Kwa river, 71
Kwa-Kwa river, 412
Kwamouth, 71, 84, 126
Kwango river, 86, 132, 146
- LADDER HILL, 31**
Ladybrand, 327
Ladysmith, 325
Lagens Island, 653
Laing's Nek, 300
Lambaréné, 63
Lamu, 591
Landana, 66
Landins, 468
Lange Berge mountains, 214
Lange Kloof mountains, 214
Lanji lake, 95
Lanzarote Island, 642
La Praia Island, 650
- Las Palmas, 648**
Latuka, 366
Lebangwe river, 394
Leikipia, 544
Lemuria, 597
Leopold lake, 503
Leopold II. lake, 71, 85
Leopold river, 97
Leopoldville, 126
Lepelolo, 364
Liba lake, 18
river, 414
Libonta, 414
Libreville, 62
Lidgettown, 325
Ligonya river, 458, 462
Ligonyi mountains, 536
Likilakwa, Mount, 457
Likkiti river, 90
Limon, Mount, 631
Limpopo river, 294, 368, 389
Limvuba river, 294
Lindi, 521
Lion, Mount, 218
Lipalule, Mount, 291
Litako, 341
Liteyani, 366
Little Karroo, 215
Livingstone Falls, 79, 139
mountains, 371, 406, 489
Livingstonia, 371, 402
Liwumba river, 497
Loanda, 129, 152
Loango, 63
Loangwa river, 407, 408, 413
Loangwe river, 410
Lobé river, 8, 18
Lobombo mountains, 290
Lo-Hamba lake, 93
Lohudatu, 366
Loika river, 77, 89
Lokinga mountains, 91, 409
Lomami river, 73, 85, 89
Longwood, 31
Lopez, Cape, 36, 38
Lourenço Marques, 473
Lovedale, 250
Lovili, Mount, 138
Lualaba river, 73, 92
Luama river, 97
Luapula river, 76, 92

- Lubi Falls, 88
 river, 78
 Lubilash river, 78
 Luburi river, 93
 Lucalla river, 139
 Luebo, 118, 127
 Lufra river, 410
 Lufu river, 188
 Lufubu river, 97
 Lufupa river, 93
 Luiza river, 111
 Lujenda river, 422, 458
 Lukango, 151
 Lukuga river, 94
 Lukugu river, 458, 461
 Lukungu river, 126
 Lukusasi river, 413
 Lukwa lake, 503
 Lulua river, 73, 93, 127
 Luluaburg, 73
 Lulu-Lowwa river, 97
 Lumbwa, 537
 Lunda, 110, 150
 river, 460
 Lunde river, 376
 Lunga river, 369
 Lungasi river, 7
 Lunji, Mount, 456
 Lupata gorge, 322, 413
 Lurio river, 455, 458
 Lusenfwa river, 413
 Luvale, 150
 Luwambé river, 497
 Lydenburg, 302, 323
 Lykipia, 544
- MABABA LAGOON, 352, 417**
 Mabas, 12
 Mabode, 106
 Mabunda, 386
 Machako, 537, 591
 Maclear, Cape, 425
 Macloutsie river, 294
 Ma-Cuancalas, 177
 Madagascar, 599, 600
 Madeira, 636, 637
 Mafeking, 365
 Mafiad, 496
 Mafungobuzi hills, 400
 Maga river, 40
 Magalies hills, 321
- Magaliesberg, Mount, 292
 Maguire, Fort, 404
 Magungo, 561
 Magwangwaraa, 468, 513
 Mahé, 634
 Majova river, 372
 Majuba Hill, 327
 Makalaka, 399
 Makambira Bay, 604
 Makaraki Salt-pan, 392
 Makarikari Vley, 345, 350
 Makololo, 385, 387, 438
 Ma-Kondé, 513
 Makua river, 86
 Makua, 468
 Malagarazi river, 490, 495
 Malagasy, 621
 Malange, 137, 155
 Malema valley, 458
 Maletsunyana river, 222
 Malindi, 534
 Malisani, Mount, 457
 Malosa, Mount, 423
 Maluti mountains, 291
 Mambirana Falls, 92
 Mambunda, 435
 Manda Island, 529
 Mangoka river, 611
 Mangoro river, 605, 610
 Manica, 368, 372, 391
 tribe, 386
 Ma-Nindi, 469
 Maningory river, 610
 Manitze river, 294
 Manjanga, 35
 Manyango, 126
 Manyara lake, 495, 497
 Manyemas, 107
 Maputa river, 296
 Maquassieberg, Mount, 292
 Marabastad, 323
 Marenga-Mkhali, 505
 Maringa, 127
 Masa, 532
 Masai, 572
 Masailand, 535, 540
 Masasima, 477
 Mascarenhas Islands, 599, 630
 Mashonaland, 342, 367, 395
 Mashonas, 399
 Mashukulumbwe, 337

- Massi-Kessi, 368, 376
 Masupias, 386
 Matabili, 381-3, 400
 Matabilliland, 342, 367, 381, 394
 Matadi, 126
 Ma-Tamas, 179
 Matoppo hills, 294, 342, 381, 389
 Matunda mountains, 422
 Mau plateau, 536
 Mauchberg, Mount, 291
 Mauritius Island, 630
 Ma-Vambas, 67
 Mavetanana, 606
 Ma-Viti, 388
 Mawenzi Peak, 493
 Mayo Island, 650
 Mayo-Kebi river, 4
 Mayotte Island, 599, 629
 Mazamba Bay, 604
 river, 610
 Mazoe river, 413
 M'Bacovia, 588
 Mbam river, 4, 7
 Mbanza, 145
 Mbengas, 52
 Mbili river, 74
 Mbinga, 19
 Mbomu river, 74, 86
 Mbrish river, 139
 Mbu lake, 4
 Mchinga mountains, 409
 Melinda, 588
 Melville, 260
 Memba, 456, 477
 Meme river, 7
 Mengo, 583, 591
 Mercury Island, 163
 Meru mountains, 494
 Mfini river, 71, 85
 Mfumbiro, Mount, 333, 495, 557
 Mgundo-Mkhali, 490
 Middelburg, 260
 Mikindani, 521
 Milanji, Mount, 406
 Mindello Island, 650
 Minungos, 120
 Miranga, Mount, 455, 456
 Missala, 408
 Mkubure river, 462
 Mluli river, 458
 Mnioro, Mount, 537
 Moanya river, 8
 Mobangi river, 74
 Modder river, 222
 Moero lake, 92
 Moheli Island, 629
 Mojanga, 625, 628
 Mokambo, 456
 Molongo's, 127
 Molteno, 261
 Mombasa, 588
 Mombottuta Falls, 92
 Monbuttu, 106
 Monfia Island, 496
 Mongalla river, 88
 Monomotapa, 449
 Mont aux Sources, 291
 Mooi river, 322
 Morambala, Mount, 412
 Marsh, 422
 Morro Grande Island, 653
 Mosgu, 12
 Mossamedes, 134, 158
 Mossel Bay, 195
 Mount Hampden, 275, 371, 389
 Stewart, 260
 Mozambique, 444, 476, 455
 Mpanda, 460
 Mpango river, 556
 Mpiri lagoon, 422
 Mpongwes, 51
 Mporori, 530
 Mposo river, 138
 Mpwapwa, 524
 Mresi, Mount, 457
 Mruli, Mount, 457
 town, 550, 583
 Msalu river, 462
 Mtepvesi river, 455, 458, 461
 Mtonia, Mount, 406
 Mtsora, 564
 Muchinga mountains, 409
 Mudzi river, 413
 Mugwardie Falls, 88
 Mukuru, 108
 Mulondo-Zambi, Mount, 138
 Mumbimba, 127
 Mungo river, 7
 Muni river, 39
 Munnia's, 591
 Mupanda's, 460
 Murchison Falls, 553

- Murchison mountains, 292
 rapids, 405
 Mushi-Kongo, 145
 Mushinga mountains, 91
 Mussamba, 111
 Mussera, 152
 Musombo lake, 139
 Mutu river, 459
 Mwambi, 456, 478
 Mwanja river, 550
 Mwaru river, 497
 Mwerango river, 550
 Mworongo river, 498
- NABULAGALA, 583**
 Naivasha lake, 495, 535, 541
 Nakuro lake, 535, 542
 Namaramba lagoon, 422
 Namas, 180, 182
 Namieb desert, 170
 Namuli mountains, 455, 457
 Namvira Falls, 420
 Nata river, 392
 Natal, 279
 Natron lake, 498
 Nazareth Bay, 44
 Ndobe river, 7
 Ndoroboland, 547
 Negroes, 11, 12, 124
 Nepoko river, 75, 89
 cascades, 90
 New Barmen, 190
 Newcastle, 325
 Ngala river, 88
 Ngami lake, 141, 172, 345, 352
 Ngoko river, 4
 Ngorongoro lake, 498
 Ngunie river, 42
 Niadi river, 44
 Niam-Niam, 106
 Nieuweveld, 218
 Niger Delta, 3
 Nightingale Island, 33
 Nisbet's Bath, 190
 Njole, 63
 Nkala, 477
 Nkanda river, 419
 Nkomi lagoon, 44
 N'Konde plain, 406
 Noki, 182, 151
 Nomansland, 237
- Nossi-Bé, 599, 629
 Nyando river, 547
 Nyanga river, 39
 Nyangwe, 97, 107
 Nyangy Falls, 97
 Nyansa lake, 78, 405, 418
 Nyassaland, 369
 Nylstroom river, 294
 town, 323
 Nzoia river, 535
- OATLANDS, 200**
 Obanga river, 44
 Ogden, 189
 Ogway river, 37, 40
 Okahanja, 190
 Okavango river, 173, 418
 Olifant, 260
 Olifants mountains, 216
 river, 220, 294
 Oliphant, 256
 Omaheke district, 174
 Omaruru river, 173
 town, 189
 Omatako, Mount, 167
 Ombuengo river, 173
 Omo river, 544
 Ondonga, 177
 Ongar river, 223
 Onyamainty, 607
 Ookiep, 256
 Ophir, Fort, 449
 Oranda tribe, 176
 Orange Free State, 279, 312
 Orange river, 139, 167, 221
 Orange River town, 257
 Orlams, 182
 Otyikango, 190
 Otyimbingua, 190
 Oudtshorn, 260
 Outeniqua mountains, 214
 Ova-Herero, 148, 179
 Ovampoland, 141
 Oya-Mpo race, 176
 Ovimbundu, 137, 149
 Ozi river, 531
- PAARL, 257**
 Pafurie river, 368
 Palapye, 336
 Palma Island, 642

- Palmeirinhas, Cape, 154
 Pamba, 155
 Pampaze rapids, 405, 420
 Panga, Mount, 456
 Pangani Falls, 496
 river, 496, 497
 town, 524
 Paré hills, 489, 491
 Patta Island, 529
 Pemba Island, 522, 593
 Penguin Island, 163
 Philippolis, 327
 Pico do Facho, 638
 Pico do Fogo, 1
 Pico Island, 658
 Pico Ruivo, 638
 Pietermaritzburg, 323
 Pilani, Mount, 457, 461
 river, 461
 Pinetown, 325
 Piquetberg, 256
 Plettenbergs Bay, 195
 Plumpudding Island, 163
 Pniel Kopje, 263
 Pomona Island, 163
 Pongola river, 294
 Ponta Delgada Island, 653
 town, 655
 Port Alexander, 159, 161
 Port Alfred, 258
 Port Beaufort, 220
 Port Elizabeth, 258
 Port Louis, 631
 Port Nolloth, 256
 Porto Santo, 638
 Portuguese West Africa, 181
 East Africa, 443
 Port Victoria, 634
 Potchefstroom, 321
 Potgieter's Rush, 302
 Potong mountains, 291
 Potsdam, 261
 Pretoria, 321
 Prince's Island, 1, 24
 Pungo Ndongo, 155
 Pungwe river, 368, 410, 460
 Pygmies, 60
- QUA-QUA RIVER, 459**
 Quathlamba mountains, 290
 Queen's Town, 261
- Quillmane river, 412
 town, 446, 476
 Quiloa, 451, 477
 Quiteve, 140
- RABAI, 540**
 Ramah Spring, 222
 Ramboé river, 36, 40
 Randberg mountains, 290
 Reboboth, 190
 Rembo, 127
 Réunion Island, 630
 Rhodesia, 368
 Riba-Riba, 107
 Ribeira-Brava Island, 650
 Ribeira-Grande Island, 650
 Riketti river, 90
 Rio del Campo, 3, 8, 35, 39
 Rio del Rey, 3, 8
 Ripa, 532
 Ripon Falls, 537, 551
 Riversdale, 260
 Roast Beef Island, 163
 Robben Island, 196, 232
 Rodrigues Island, 630
 Rolas Island, 24
 Rondesbosch, 254
 Rorixville, 327
 Rosario Island, 653
 Rosebery, Fort, 404
 Rovuma river, 422, 455, 461
 Ruaha river, 496
 Ruanda, 534
 Rubaga, 533
 Rubi Falls, 88
 Rudolf lake, 494, 536, 543
 Ruenya river, 368, 413
 Rufiji river, 496
 Rufu river, 496
 Ruia river, 372
 Ruika river, 77
 Rukwa lake, 402, 407, 503
 Rumbi river, 8
 Ruo river, 420, 444
 Rupert Hill, 31
 Rusango lake, 555
 Ruvuvu river, 498
 Ruwana river, 553
 Ruwenzori mountains, 538, 558, 560,
 562

- SAADANI, 524**
Sabakhi river, 534
Sabi river, 389, 392, 410, 458, 460
Saisi river, 407
Sakalavas, 618
Sal Island, 650
Saldanha Bay, 195, 255
Salisbury, 381
Salrey Island, 650
Samba Falls, 44
Samburu lakes, 494, 536
Samokwe river, 390
San Antonio da Praia, 26
San Benito river, 39, 50
San Felipe, Fort, 157
Island, 650
San Januario, 159
San Jão Battista Island, 650
San Jorge Island, 653
San Miguel Island, 653
San Nicolau Island, 650
San Salvador, 133
San Thiago Island, 650
Sand Hout river, 294
Sandwich Haven, 189
Saudy Bay, 29
Sanga river, 436
Sankuru river, 73, 85
Sannaga river, 4, 7
Santa Cruz, 648
Santa Isabel, 24
Santa Maria Island, 653
Santo Antão Island, 650
Santo Antonio, 24
Sanyati-Umfulu river, 412
Schweinfurth, Mount, 86, 87
Semena river, 222
Semliki river, 76, 556, 559
Sena, 479
Senkuyane river, 222
Serra da Neve, 138
Serra do Cristal, 38
Sesse Island, 501
Sette Camma river, 39, 44, 128
Seychelles Islands, 599, 634
Seymour, 260
Shankuru, Mount, 391
Shari river, 4, 74, 87
Shark Point, 8
Sharpe, Fort, 404
Shashani river, 390
Shaahi river, 294, 368
Shimiyu river, 496, 497
Shiré river, 402, 470
Shirwa lake, 402, 422
Shoahong, 364
Siete Sierras, Mount, 38
Sikoma, 402
Silindi, Mount, 455, 456
Simon's Bay, 230
Simon's Town, 254
Singo, 549
Sio river, 548
Sipungambili, Mount, 455, 456
Sita Tonga mountains, 456
Sneeuw Kop, Mount, 216
Sofala, 474-5
Sokoto, 2
Sombwe, Mount, 109
Somerset Nile, 537, 550
Somerville, 250
Songwe river, 407, 432
Sotik, 537
Spanish Equatorial Africa, 65
Speke Gulf, 497
Mount, 86
Spitskop, Mount, 292
St. Antonio, Cape, 82
St. Augustin, Cape, 602
St. Denis, 633
St. Helena Bay, 195
St. Helena Island, 2, 28
St. John river, 221
St. Lucia lake, 296, 330
St. Mary Island, 601, 628
St. Thomas Island, 1, 24
St. Vincent Island, 650
Stanley Falls, 72, 82, 91, 127
Stanley Pool, 79
Stellaland, 336
Stellenbosch, 257
Stephanie lake, 536, 543
Stevenson's Road, 91, 370, 406, 442
Stolzenfels, 190, 257
Stormberg mountains, 215, 290
Sutherland, 256
Swakop river, 173
Swaziland, 297, 329
Swellaba Point, 20
Swellendam, 260

- TAB INGOKO, MOUNT, 390**
 Table Bay, 195, 216, 252
 Table mountain, 216, 228
 Table of the Cameroon tribes, 16
 Gaboon and Ogoway tribes, 52
 Congo tribes, 121
 German East African tribes, 519
 Angolan tribes, 151
 South-West African tribes, 186
 Cape Colony tribes, 251
 Transvaal tribes, 319
 Bechuana tribes, 354
 North Zambesia tribes, 483
 Portuguese East Africa, 472
 British East Africa, 566
 Taborah, 490, 524
 Tamatave, 626
 Tana river, 531
 Tandora Sungue lake, 459
 Tandtjies mountains, 215
 Tanganyika lake, 73, 91, 94,
 336
 Tarabba, 4
 Tati Hills, 389
 Tati river, 368
 Taunga, 342, 365
 Tembus, 247
 Tenerife Island, 642
 Tengure river, 499
 Terceira Island, 653
 Tete, 479
 Teyde Peak, 648
 Thaaba-Bossigo, 241
 Thaba-Nehu, 327
 Tibati, 4
 Tolo Azime Falls, 294
 Tongaland, 329, 330
 Tongas, 465
 Tonké river, 352
 Topnaar tribe, 193
 Toru, 518
 Transkeian Territories, 196
 Transvaal, 279, 315
 Tristan da Cunha, 21, 31
 Tsiafajavona, 607
 Tsiafakafo, 607
 Tsijobonina river, 611
 Tsoakhub river, 173
 Tugela river, 295
 Tuli, Fort, 381
 Tuli river, 294
 Tunghi Bay, 478
 Tu-Shilange, 117
UBANGI RIVER, 36, 74, 86, 87
 Ubiri district, 455
 Mount, 456
 Uganda, 531, 549
 Ugingo Island, 501
 Ugogo, 489
 Ugowe Bay, 547
 Ugweno, 491
 Uitenhage, 260
 Ujiji, 489, 524-6
 Ukamba Hills, 537
 Ukara Island, 501
 Ukeredi river, 521
 Ukerewe Island, 487, 501
 Ulenge lake, 95
 Ulunda, 110
 Ulundi, 289
 Umba river, 484, 496, 497
 Umbajia, 390
 Umbundu, 148
 Unga river, 221
 Um-gezi river, 295
 Um-Komah river, 323
 Um-Komanzi river, 295
 Um-hlatuzi river, 296
 Um-lazi river, 295
 Um-Tafuna river, 295
 Um-Tata river, 194
 Um-Volosi river, 289, 296
 Um-Vosi river, 295
 Um-Zimkulu river, 195, 221, 295
 Um-Zinzwane river, 294
 Uniondale, 260
 Unkeya, 108
 Unyamwezi, 490
 Unyanyembé, 490
 Unyoro, 538, 553, 586
 Uppington, 195
 Upingtonia, 160, 177
 Upoto, 127
 Uranga river, 496
 Uriji lake, 499
 Uriudi river, 97
 Urondogani, 551
 Urua, 110, 113
 Usagara, 484
 mountains, 489
 Usambara, 491

Usoga, 531, 548
 Usongora, 548
 Usuguri Island, 501
 U-Sutu river, 296
 Utrecht, 302
 Uzinja, 548

VAAL RIVER, 222, 263
 Vaalpens, 357
 Va-Chibokwe, 120
 Vacovia, 588
 Va-Luvale, 156
 Vazimbasa, 616
 Vellas Island, 653
 Verulam, 325
 Vet river, 263
 Viagongo, Mount, 557
 Victoria (Cameroons), 3, 19
 Victoria, Fort, 381
 Victoria Falls, 412, 414
 Victoria Nyanza, 495, 501
 Victoria Peak, 6
 Victoria West, 256
 Villa do Porto Island, 653
 Vipscha plateau, 406
 Virunyo, Mount, 557
 Vitu, 529
 Vivi, 128
 Vogel-Klip, 256
 Volo valley, 458
 Vryburg, 364

WA-BONI, 569
 Wa-Chaga, 517
 Wa-Doe, 512
 Waganda, 575
 Wa-Gogo, 512
 Wa-Gweno, 516
 Wa-Hehe, 512
 Wa-Huma, 13, 518
 Wa-Kangara, 576
 Wakkerstroom, 302
 Wakoli, 591
 Wa-Kwafi, 569
 Walker Peak, 406
 Wa-Lunda, 149
 Walvisch Bay, 163, 190
 Wa-Mbugu, 516
 Wambutti, 60
 Wami river, 496, 497, 556

Wa-Mwera, 514
 Wa-Ndorobo, 575
 Wanga, 524
 Wa-Ngindo, 514
 Wango river, 44, 497
 Wa-Nyamwezi, 512
 Wanyoro, 586
 Wa-Pokomo, 571
 Warambas, 437
 Warmbad, 190
 Wa-Rua, 113
 Wa-Sagara, 512
 Wa-Swahili, 511, 514
 Wa-Taveita, 515
 Waterberg, Mount, 292
 Wathaka, 582
 Wa-Witu, 576
 Wa-Yao, 469
 Wa-Zarambo, 511
 Wa-Zeguha, 512
 Weenen, 285
 Welle river, 86
 Welle-Makua river, 74
 Wembere river, 497
 Werre river, 86
 Wijnberg, 254
 Willowmore, 260
 Windermere lake, 499
 Witte mountains, 215
 Witte-Zwarte mountains, 220
 Witu, 529, 591
 Witwater Rand, 292
 Worcester, 230, 257
 Wuri river, 7

YACOAS, 145
 Yambuya, 90, 127
 Yao tribe, 429
 Yellala Falls, 80, 146
 Yola, 3
 Yzerberg, Mount, 302

ZAIRE RIVER, 77
 province, 160, 161
 Zambesi river, 85, 132, 410
 Zambesia, 275, 337, 338, 367
 Zangue river, 459
 Zangwe, Mount, 455

- Zanzibar, 481, 593
Zimbabwe, 371, 373
Zipsha plateau, 406
Ziwe-Ziwe river, 422, 479
Zoa Falls, 420
Zomba, Mount, 423
Zonenghway lake, 42
Zongo rapids, 87
- Zouderand Swellendam mountains,
214
Zoutpansberg, Mount, 292
Zuku river, 222
Zulu-Kafirs, 236
Zululand, 282
Zulus, 308
Zumbo, 371, 409, 444, 478



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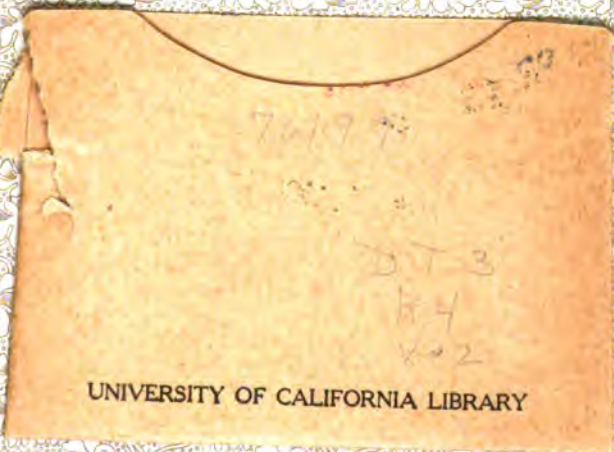
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