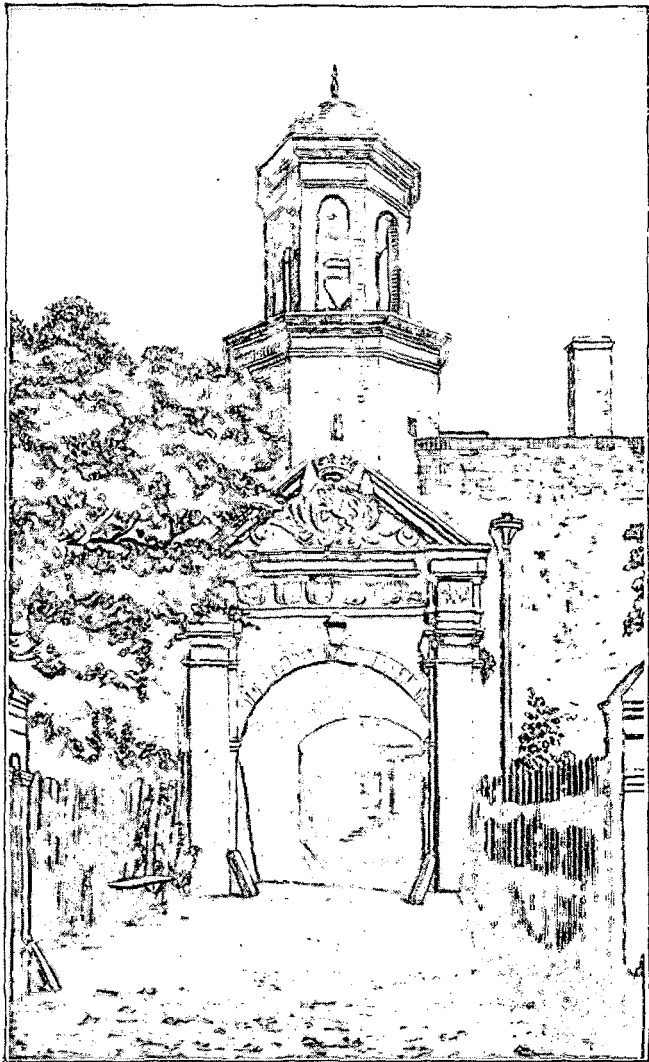


SOUTH AFRICA

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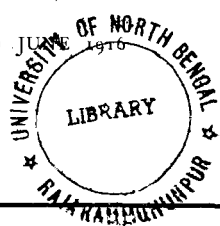
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SOUTH AFRICA
(THE UNION OF SOUTH
AFRICA, RHODESIA, AND
ALL OTHER TERRITORIES
SOUTH OF THE ZAMBESI)

By GEORGE M'CALL THEAL,
LITR.D., LL.D.

FIFTH EDITION
(ELEVENTH IMPRESSION)

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PREFACE TO EIGHTH EDITION

THE first edition of this book was published in 1894, and with each succeeding issue either the concluding chapters were enlarged or a supplementary chapter was added. To continue this method of keeping the volume up to the date of issue is not advisable, because it breaks the line of continuity too frequently, and I have therefore recast a number of chapters so that they appear now as if written for the first time. I have also rearranged these chapters in order to bring those relating to the same province of the present Union in consecutive order, which I think will be found an improvement.

It has been my aim to give as faithful an account of the past of South Africa as diligent research during half a century and constant effort to avoid bias of any kind could make it. The narrative of events preceding 1873 has been condensed from my detailed "History of South Africa," in eight large volumes, and of those since 1872 is derived from personal observation.

GEO. M'CALL THEAL.

WYNBERG, CAPE PROVINCE,

June 1916.

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EXPLANATION OF TERMS

EXPLANATION of words in common use in South Africa, but that may not be understood elsewhere, at least in the same sense:—

Assagai, a javelin or dart used by the Hottentots and Bantu in war and the chase. The word is a corruption of the Portuguese “*azagaya*,” which was derived from the Latin “*hasta*.”

Boer, Dutch for a tiller of the ground. The word is applied in this country to cattle breeders as well as to agriculturists, and is frequently used in the plural form to signify the whole rural population of European blood speaking the Dutch language.

Burgher, a European male, no matter where resident, who is in possession of the franchise and liable to all public duties. It corresponds to the *civis Romanus* of old.

Calabash, the hard rind of a gourd, used by the Bantu for various purposes, such as water-pots, jars, dishes, basins, snuff-boxes, etc.

Commando, a body of burghers called out for military purposes.

Heemraden, burghers appointed by the government to act as assessors in the district courts of justice. A Dutch word.

Induna, an officer of high rank under a Bantu chief. The word is Zulu.

Kraal, a cattle-fold. The word is a corruption of the Portuguese “*curreal*.” It is also used to signify a collection of either Hottentot or Bantu huts, as these are usually built in a circle, within which the cattle are kept at night.

Lager, a Dutch word meaning an enclosure for protective purposes, such as a circular wall of stone, or a number of waggons lashed together.

Landdrost, a stipendiary magistrate, who administers justice and receives the revenue of a district. The word is Dutch.

Tsetse, a fly whose sting destroys domestic cattle, but has no effect upon wild animals. The word comes from one of the Bantu dialects. The *tsetse* disappears from a district when the game is exterminated or driven away.

Volksraad, a Dutch word meaning the people's council, an elected legislative body.

THE STORY OF SOUTH AFRICA

I.

ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF SOUTH AFRICA.

THE aborigines of South Africa were savages of a very low type. They were pigmies in size, yellowish-brown in colour, hollow-backed, and with skins so loose that in times of famine their bodies were covered with wrinkles and flaps. On their heads were rows of little tufts of wiry hair hardly larger than peppercorns, and leaving the greater portion of the surface bald. Their faces were broad in a line with the eyes, their cheeks were hollow, and they had flat noses, thick lips, and receding chins. They anointed their bodies with grease when any was obtainable, and then painted themselves with soot or coloured clay. The clothing of the males was the skin of an animal hung loosely over the shoulders, and often cast aside; that of the females was little more than a small leathern apron. To the eye of a European no people in any part of the world were more unattractive.

These savages were thinly scattered over every part of the country from a very remote period, for implements—such as stone arrow-heads and knives, similar to those which they had in use when white men first met them—have been found in positions where the overlying materials must have been undisturbed for an incalculable time. The Bushmen—as the pigmies are termed by Europeans—had no domestic animal but the dog, and they made no effort to cultivate the soil. They lived by the chase and upon wild plants, honey, locusts, the larvæ of ants, and carrion.

They were without other government than parental, and even that was not respected after they were able to provide for themselves. So weak in frame as to be incapable of toil, they possessed great keenness of vision for detecting objects at a distance, and marvellous fleetness of foot and power of endurance in the chase. Their weapon of offence was a feeble bow, but the arrow-head was coated with poison so deadly that the slightest wound was mortal.

In addition to the Bushmen there lived on South African soil, for a century or two before its discovery by Europeans, a body of people much more advanced towards civilisation, the people now known as Hottentots. They had migrated from the region of the great lakes, and with herds of horned cattle and flocks of sheep had moved slowly to the shore of the Atlantic and then down the coast, keeping always close to the sea, because the pasture there was better and water more plentiful than farther inland. Most probably these people had their origin in a mixture

of men of light-coloured hamitic blood with women of Bushman stock. They must have been many centuries on the journey to the southern coast, as they would remain in favourable positions while several generations grew up and passed away.

The Hottentots frequently captured and detained Bushman girls, so that there were many points of resemblance between the two peoples, as well as great differences. Their languages varied widely in construction, though both abounded in clicks. Most of the Bushmen were monogamists, the Hottentot customs admitted of polygamy. Then their skull measurements do not correspond. The head of the Hottentot is longer and narrower than that of the Bushman, and his face is more prognathous. The lower jaw of the Bushman is only surpassed in feebleness by that of the Australian black, while that of the Hottentot, though far from massive, is much better developed. The Bushman ear is without a lobe, which the Hottentot ear possesses, and the cranial capacity of the Hottentot is higher.

On the other hand, against these differences several points of resemblance can be placed. The colour of the skin is the same, and the little balls of wiry hair with open spaces between them are in general common to both, though sometimes the head of a Hottentot is more thickly covered. The one has small hands and feet, and so has the other. Their power of imagination is similar, and differs greatly from that of other Africans.

The Hottentots were never very numerous, and they occupied only the strip of land along the coast.

There was a constant and deadly feud between them and the Bushmen. They took possession of pastures and fountains wherever they pleased, and killed all the game that they could. The Bushmen resented this, and plundered their oxen and sheep, besides murdering every one who strayed from the kraals, so that the feeling of animosity on both sides was intense.

They lived in communities under the government of chiefs, who, however, possessed very limited authority, for public opinion was freely expressed, and was the supreme law. They depended mainly upon the milk of cows and ewes for their subsistence, and did not practise agriculture in any form. Their horned cattle were gaunt and bony, and their sheep were covered with hair—not wool—and had fatty tails of great weight. Their only other domestic animal was the dog. The men lived in almost perfect indolence, moving with their herds and flocks from one place to another as pasture failed; and when the supply of milk was insufficient it fell to the lot of the women to gather bulbs and roots with which to eke out an existence. The huts in which they slept were slender frames of wood covered with mats, and could be taken down and set up again almost as quickly as tents.

These nearly naked people, living in idleness and filthiness indescribable, were yet capable of improvement. During the last century a vast amount of missionary labour has been concentrated upon the natives of South Africa, and though to the present day there is not a single instance of a Bushman of

pure blood having permanently adopted European habits, the Hottentots have done so to a considerable extent. They have not indeed shown a capacity to rise to the highest level of civilised life, but they have reached a stage much above that of barbarism.

Before the arrival of Europeans yet another branch of the human family was beginning to press into South Africa. Tribes of stalwart people practising agriculture and metallurgy, under strict government and with an elaborate system of law, were moving down from the north, and by the middle of the seventeenth century had reached the Limpopo river and the mouth of the Umtata.

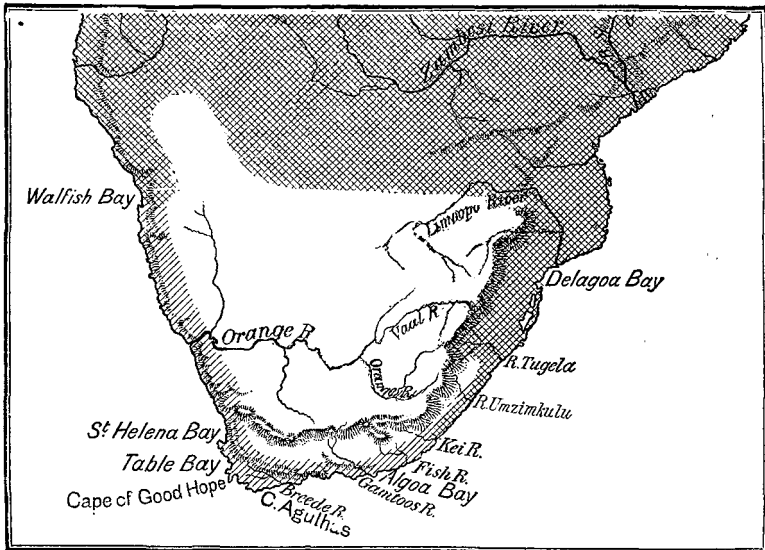
These people formed part of the great Bantu family, which occupies the whole of Central Africa from the Atlantic to the Indian ocean. They were certainly of mixed blood, and one branch of their ancestors must have been of a very much higher type than the other. This is shown in various ways. Among them at the present day are individuals with perfect Asiatic features, born of parents with the negro cast of countenance. In almost any little community may be found men only moderately brown in colour, while their nearest relatives are deep black. Here and there one may be seen with a thick full beard, though the great majority have almost hairless cheeks and chins. And a still stronger proof of a mixed ancestry of very unequal capability is afforded by the fact that most of these people seem unable to rise to the European level of civilisation, though not a few individuals have shown themselves possessed of mental power equal to that of white men.

These Bantu were of a healthy and vigorous stock, and were probably the most prolific people on the face of the earth. The tribes were seldom at peace with each other, and great numbers of individuals perished yearly through charges of dealing in sorcery, but the losses thus sustained were made good by a custom which provided that every adult female should be married. There was no limit to the number of wives a man could have, and thus in a state of society where the females outnumbered the males, all were provided for.



The three classes of people referred to in this chapter enjoyed the lives they were leading quite as much as Europeans do, though their pleasures were of a lower kind. Given freedom from disease and a slain antelope, and there could be no merrier creature than a Bushman. He was absolutely devoid of harassing cares. A Hottentot kraal in the clear moonlight of Africa, with men, women, and children dancing to the music of reeds, was a scene of the highest hilarity. The Bantu woman, tending her garden by day, and preparing food in the evening which she may not partake of herself until her husband and his friends have eaten, is regarded as an unhappy drudge by her European sister. In her own opinion her lot is far more enviable than that of the white woman, whom she regards as being always in a state of anxiety.

The chief element of disturbance in their lives was war. The hand of the Bushman was always against every man, and every man's hand was against him. The Hottentot tribes were continually robbing each

other of cattle and women, and on their eastern border were struggling in vain against the advancing Bantu. Every Bantu clan was usually at feud with its nearest neighbours, whoever these might be. But life without excitement is insipid to the savage as



SOUTH AFRICA AS OCCUPIED BY BUSHMEN, HOTTENTOTS, AND BANTU IN 1650.

[Bushmen were the only inhabitants of the parts unmarked, and they lived also in all the rugged and mountainous sections of the parts occupied by Hottentots and Bantu. The territory in which the Hottentots roamed with their cattle is marked  and the territory occupied by the Bantu .

well as to the civilised man, and these wars and animosities, though sometimes causing great suffering and loss of life, in general provided just that excitement which was needed to prevent the minds of the people from sinking into complete stagnation.

II.

DISCOVERY OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN COAST BY THE PORTUGUESE.

IN 1486 two little vessels, under command of an officer named Bartholomeu Dias, sailed from Portugal in search of an ocean road to India. Pushing his way down the western coast, Dias passed the farthest point previously known, and sailing onward with the land always in sight came to an inlet of no great depth with a group of islets at its entrance. There he cast anchor, and for the first time Christian men trod the soil of Africa south of the tropic.

The inlet is now known as Angra Pequena and Luderitzbucht, but Dias named it Angra dos Ilheos. The surrounding country was a desolate waste of sand, and no signs of human life were seen, nor was other refreshment than seabirds' eggs obtainable. Having set up a cross as a mark of possession for his king, the Portuguese commander proceeded on his voyage. He tried to keep the land in sight, but when he was somewhere near the mouth of the Orange river a gale from the north sprang up, and for thirteen days he was driven helplessly before it.

As soon as it abated the prows of the vessels were turned to the east, with a view of getting near the shore again, but after sailing a long time without reaching land Dias began to think that he must either have passed the end of the continent or have entered a great gulf like that of Guinea.

He therefore changed the course to north, and after a while came in sight of the coast, which he found trending away to the east. The exact spot where he made the land cannot be stated, but it was



CROSS ERECTED BY DIAS ON PEDESTAL POINT.

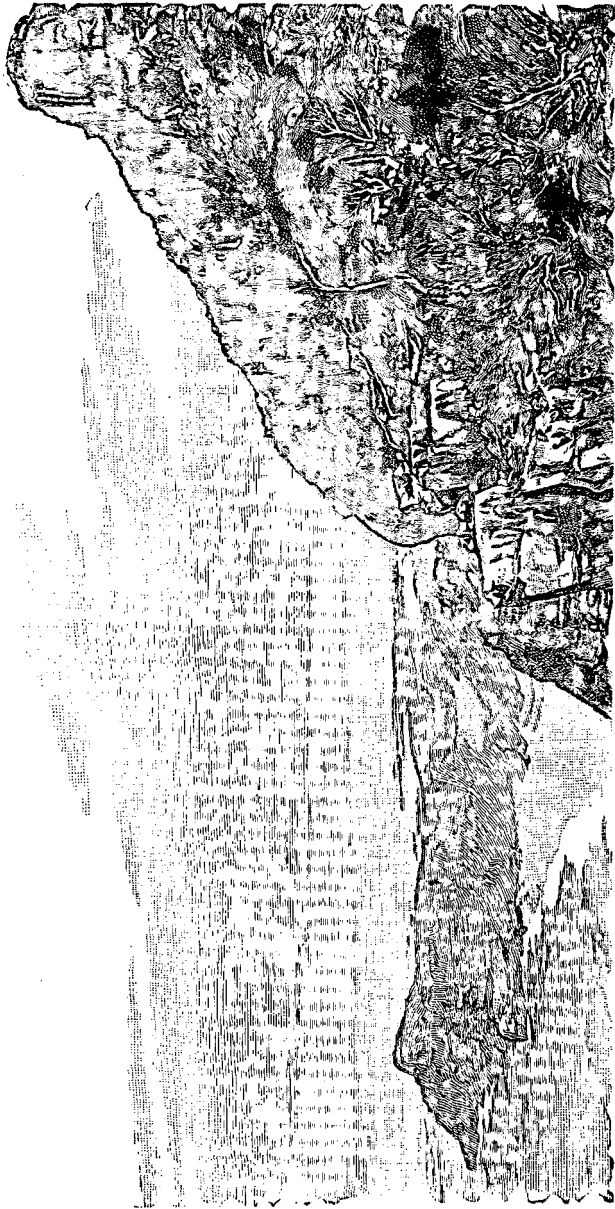
(From a Sketch by H. M. Piers.)

one of the curves in the seaboard between Cape Agulhas and the Knysna. Large herds of cattle were seen, which the natives drove inland with haste, as they seemed in terror of the ships. It was not found possible to open intercourse with the wild people.

Sailing again eastward, Dias reached an islet where he landed and set up another cross. It was the islet in Algoa Bay which is still called

on that account Santa Cruz, or, as it is usually written in the French form, St. Croix. Here the sailors objected to proceed farther, and it was with difficulty that they were induced to press on a couple of days longer. At the mouth of a river—either the Kowie or the Fish—the expedition turned homeward, and on its way back discovered a bold headland which Dias named the Cape of Storms, but which was renamed by King John the Second the Cape of Good Hope. As seen from the sea this Cape is much more conspicuous than Agulhas, the true southern extremity of the continent.

Ten years passed away after the return of Dias to Portugal before an expedition was fitted out to follow up the discovery he had made. Four small vessels were then made ready, and were placed under command of Vasco da Gama, a man of proved ability. It was not quite five years after Columbus sailed from Palos to discover a new continent in the west, when Da Gama's little fleet put to sea from the Tagus. Five months and a half later he reached a curve in the African coast about one hundred and twenty miles north of the Cape of Good Hope, to which he gave the name St. Helena Bay. Here he landed and by a little strategy managed to obtain an interview with a party of natives, whose friendship he tried to secure by making them presents of trinkets. All went well for a time, but at length a misunderstanding arose, which resulted in the Portuguese attacking the natives, and in a skirmish Da Gama himself and three others were wounded with assagais.



THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Such was the first intercourse between white men and Hottentots.

On the 17th of November 1497 Da Gama set sail from St. Helena Bay, and three days later doubled the Cape of Good Hope in fine weather. Turning eastward, he anchored next within a bend of the coast, which he named Agoada de S. Braz, the present Mossel Bay. There he found a number of natives similar in appearance to those he had first seen, but who showed so little symptom of alarm that they crowded on the beach and scrambled for anything that was thrown to them. From these people some sheep were obtained in barter, but they would not sell any horned cattle.

Keeping within sight of the shore, on the 25th of December Da Gama passed by a beautiful land, to which he gave the name Natal, in memory of the day when Christian men first saw it.

On the 6th of January 1498 the fleet reached the mouth of a river which enters the sea on the northern side of Delagoa Bay. Here the Portuguese landed, and found a friendly people, black in colour, who brought copper, ivory, and provisions for sale. During the five days that the fleet remained at this place nothing occurred to disturb the friendly intercourse between the Portuguese and the Bantu residents. Sailing again, Da Gama next touched at Quilimane, where he found people who had dealings with Arabs, and thence he continued his voyage until he reached India.

The highway to the East being now open, every year fleets sailed to and from Portugal. In a short

time the Indian seas fell entirely under Portuguese dominion, and an immense trade was opened up.

In 1503 a ship, under command of an officer named Antonio de Saldanha, put into a bay on the African coast that had never been entered before. On one side rose a great mass of rock, over three thousand feet in height, with its top making a level line more than a mile in length on the sky. This grand mountain was flanked at either end with peaks less lofty, supported by buttresses projecting towards the shore. The recess was a capacious valley, down the centre of which flowed a stream of clear sweet water. The valley seemed to be without people, but after a while some Hottentots made their appearance, from whom a cow and two sheep were purchased.

Saldanha himself climbed to the top of the great flat rock, to which he gave the name Table Mountain. The bay in which he anchored was thereafter called after him the watering place of Saldanha, until nearly a century later it received from the Dutch sea-captain Joris van Spilbergen its present name of Table Bay.

No effort was made to explore the interior of the country, and, indeed, setting aside danger from the natives, it would have been beyond the power of any man to have gone far from the coast at this period. The land rises in a series of steps from the seashore to a great interior plain, and until that plain was reached the traveller would have had everywhere a rugged and seemingly impassable range of mountains before him. If by great exertion he had made his way to the summit of one, he would have found him-

self on the edge of a broken plateau, with another range—the front of another terrace—shutting in his view. It follows from this conformation of the country that there are no navigable rivers. The streams—even the very largest—are all of the nature of mountain torrents, obstructed with rapids and falls, and varying in volume with rain and drought. There is an utter absence of secure natural harbours on the coast, except in positions where they could be of little service in the early days of exploration. And, in addition to all this, a very large portion of the land along the western seaboard, as well as of the interior plains, is so arid that it could only be traversed by degrees, as its slender resources became known.

In returning with the fleet which left India at the close of 1509, Francisco d'Almeida, first Portuguese viceroy of the eastern seas, put into Table Bay for the purpose of obtaining water and refreshing his people. Some Hottentots appeared on the beach, and a party of ships' people went ashore to barter cattle from them. Traffic was carried on for a time in a friendly manner, but at length a quarrel arose, and two white men were badly beaten. This caused an outcry for vengeance, to which D'Almeida unfortunately lent a willing ear.

Next morning, 1st of March 1510, the viceroy landed with one hundred and fifty men armed with swords and lances. They marched to a kraal and seized some cattle, which they were driving away when the Hottentots, supposed to be about one hundred and seventy in number, attacked them. The weapons of the Portuguese were useless against

the fleet-footed natives, who poured upon the invaders a shower of missiles. A panic followed. Most fled towards the boats as the only means of safety ; a few, who were too proud to retreat before savages, attempted in vain to defend themselves. The viceroy was struck down with knobbed sticks and stabbed in the throat with an assagai. Sixty-five of the best men in the fleet perished on that disastrous day, and hardly any of those who reached the boats escaped without wounds.

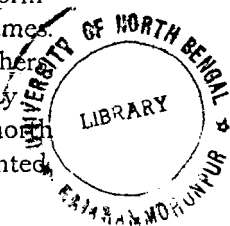
After this event the Portuguese avoided the southern coast as much as possible. With them the country had the reputation of being inhabited by the most ferocious of savages, and of furnishing nothing valuable for trade. Their fleets doubled the continent year after year, but seldom touched at any port south of Sofala. They made a practice of calling for refreshment at the island of St. Helena, which had been discovered in 1502, and then pressing on to Mozambique without a break, whenever it was possible to do so. They never attempted to form a station below Delagoa Bay.

Now and again, however, their ships were driven by stress of weather to seek a port, and occasionally a wreck took place. Curiosity also prompted some of them, and orders from the king required others, to inspect the coast and make tracings of it. The principal bights and headlands thus acquired names. Nearly all of these have been replaced by other Dutch or English, but a few remain to our day.

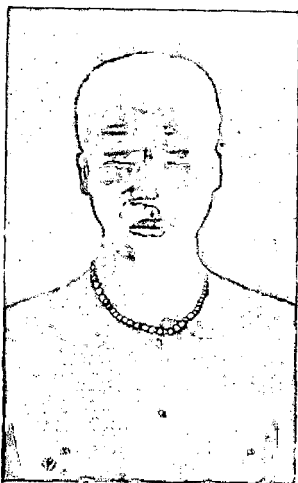
With the belt of land bordering on the sea north of Zululand the Portuguese were well acquainted.

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and they had an intimate knowledge of the territory along the lower course of the Zambesi. But of the interior of the country south of the tropic they knew absolutely nothing, and what they imagined and laid down on their maps was so very incorrect that after the territory was explored the whole of their delineations of Africa were regarded as valueless.



PORTRAIT OF A BUSHMAN.

III.

EVENTS THAT LED TO THE OCCUPATION OF TABLE VALLEY BY THE DUTCH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

AFTER a long interval English, Dutch, and French ships followed the Portuguese to India. Drake and Cavendish passed in sight of the Cape of Good Hope when homeward bound on their celebrated voyages round the world, but did not land on the African coast. In July 1591 the English flag was seen there for the first time. Three ships—the pioneers of the vast fleets that have since followed the same course—then put into Table Bay on their way to India. Their crews, who were suffering from scurvy, obtained good refreshment, as in addition to wild fowl, shellfish, and plants of various kinds, they bartered some oxen and sheep from Hottentots. One of the ships, commanded by Captain James Lancaster, reached India in safety, another returned to England shorthanded from Table Bay, and the third went down in a gale at sea somewhere off the southern coast.

In 1601 the first fleet fitted out by the English East India Company, under command of the same Captain James Lancaster mentioned above, put into

Table Bay on its outward passage. Thereafter for several years the fleets of this Company made Table Bay a port of call and refreshment, and their crews usually procured in barter from the natives as many cattle as they needed.

During the closing years of the sixteenth century the people who were destined to form the first European settlement in South Africa were engaged in a gallant struggle for freedom against the powerful Spanish monarchy. The northern Netherland provinces had entered the sisterhood of nations as a free republic which was rapidly becoming the foremost commercial power of the age. While the struggle was being carried on, Portugal came under the dominion of the king of Spain, and the Dutch were then excluded from Lisbon, where they had previously obtained such eastern products as they needed. Some of their adventurous merchants then thought of direct trade with India, but it was not until 1595 that a fleet under the republican flag passed the Cape of Good Hope. It consisted of four vessels, and was under an officer named Cornelis Houtman. This fleet touched at Mossel Bay, where refreshment was procured, the intercourse between the strangers and the natives being friendly.

After Houtman's return to Europe, several companies were formed in different towns of the Netherlands for the purpose of trading with the Indies. No fresh discoveries on the African coast were made by any of the fleets which they sent out, but to some of the bays new names were given. Thus Paul van Caerden, an officer in the service of the New Brabant

Company, when returning to Europe in 1601, gave their present names to Mossel, Flesh, and Fish bays, all of which he entered.

The fleets sent out by the different small companies gained surprising successes over the Portuguese in India, but as they did not act in concert no permanent conquests could be made. For this reason, as well as to prevent rivalry and to conduct the trade in a manner the most advantageous to the people of the whole republic, the states-general resolved to unite all the weak associations in one great company with many privileges and large powers. The charter was issued at the Hague on the 20th of March 1602, and gave the Company power to make treaties with Indian governments, to build fortresses, appoint civil and military officers, and enlist troops. The Company was subject to have its transactions reviewed by the states-general, otherwise it had almost sovereign power. The subscribed capital was rather over half a million pounds sterling. Offices for the transaction of business, or chambers as they were termed, were established at Amsterdam, Middelburg, Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn, and Enkhuizen.

The general control was confided to an assembly of seventeen directors, whose sessions were held at Amsterdam for six successive years, then at Middelburg for two years, then at Amsterdam again for six years, and so on.

The profits made by the Company during the early years of its existence were enormous. The Portuguese ships, factories, and possessions of all kinds in India were fair prize of war, and the most valuable were

shortly in the hands of the Dutch. Every year fleets of richly laden ships under the flag of the Netherlands passed the Cape of Good Hope outward and homeward bound.

In 1619 the directors of the English East India Company proposed to the assembly of seventeen that they should jointly build a fort and establish a place of refreshment somewhere on the South African coast. This proposal did not find favour in Holland, and each company then resolved to form a station of its own. Instructions were issued to the commanders of the next outward-bound fleets of both nations to examine the seaboard and report upon the most suitable places for the purpose. Thus it happened that in 1620 two English captains, by name Fitzherbert and Shillinge, inspected Table Bay, and believing that no better place could be found, they proclaimed the adjoining country under the sovereignty of King James. They did not leave any force to keep possession, however, and the directors in London having changed their views with regard to a station in South Africa, the proclamation of Fitzherbert and Shillinge was never ratified. English ships still continued occasionally to call for the purpose of taking in fresh water, but from this time onward the island of St. Helena became their usual place of refreshment.

The assembly of seventeen also allowed its resolution concerning the establishment of a station in South Africa to fall through at this time. Some of the advantages of such a station were already in its possession, and the expense of building a fort and maintaining a garrison might be too high a price to

pay for anything additional that could be had. Its fleets usually put into Table Bay for the purpose of taking in fresh water, giving the crews a run on land, catching fish, and getting the latest intelligence from the places they were bound to. Letters were buried on shore, and notices of the places where they were deposited were marked on conspicuous stones.

Table Valley was also sometimes occupied for months together by parties of Dutch seal hunters and whale fishers. Among others, in 1611 Isaac le Maire, after whom the straits of Le Maire are named, left his son with some seamen here for this purpose.

Early in 1647 the *Haarlem*, a ship belonging to the East India Company, put into Table Bay for refreshment, and in a gale was driven on the Blueberg beach. The crew got safely to land, and succeeded in saving their own effects and the cargo. When everything was secured against stormy weather they removed to Table Valley as a better place for an encampment, leaving only a guard with the stores. Beside a stream of fresh water, somewhere near the centre of the present city of Capetown, they made themselves huts, and threw up an earthen bank for shelter around them. The rainy season was setting in, and as they happened to have various seeds with them they made a garden and soon had abundance of vegetables. They were fortunate also in being able to procure in barter from the natives more meat than they needed, so that their experience of South Africa led them to believe that it was a fruitful and pleasant land. After they had been here twelve months a

fleet returning home put in, and took them on to Europe.

Upon their arrival in the Netherlands, Leendert Janssen and Nicholas Proot, two of the *Haarlem's* officers, drew up and presented to the chamber of Amsterdam a document in which they set forth the advantages that they believed the Company might derive from a station in Table Valley. This document was referred by the chamber of Amsterdam to the directors, who, after calling for the opinions of the other chambers and finding them favourable, in August 1650 resolved to form such a station as was proposed. A committee was instructed to draw up a plan, and when this was discussed and approved of three vessels were made ready to bring the men and the materials to South Africa.

The post of commander of the station about to be formed was offered to Nicholas Proot, and upon his declining it, a ship's surgeon named Jan van Riebeeck, who had been for some time in the Company's service and had visited many countries, was selected for the office. A better selection could hardly have been made. Mr. Van Riebeeck was not a man of high education or of refined manners, but he was industrious and possessed of good natural ability. He had been in Table Bay with the fleet in which the *Haarlem's* crew returned home, and upon the document drawn up by Janssen and Proot being submitted to him for an opinion, he endorsed all that was in it concerning the capabilities of the country.

Things were not done in such haste in those days as they are now, and the year 1651 had nearly come

to an end before the three vessels set sail from Texel. It must not be supposed that they were bringing people to South Africa with the intention of founding a colony, for nothing was then further from the thoughts of the directors of the East India Company. Their object was merely to form a refreshment station for the fleets passing to and from the eastern seas.

Six months was considered a quick passage between the ports of the Netherlands and the roads of Batavia, where their ultimate destination was made known to the skippers by the governor-general and council of India; and it was no uncommon circumstance for one-third of the crews to have perished and another third to be helpless with scurvy when the ships arrived there. The loss of life was appalling, as the Indiamen were fighting as well as trading vessels, and usually left Europe with two or three hundred men. The crews were very largely composed of recruits from Germany and the maritime states of Europe, or the population of the Netherlands could not have borne such a tremendous drain of men for any length of time.

Table Bay was regarded as two-thirds of the distance from Amsterdam to Batavia, and the directors thought that by establishing a refreshment station on its shores many lives could be saved and much suffering be avoided. The design was first to make a large garden and raise in it vegetables for the supply of the fleets, secondly to barter oxen and sheep from the Hottentots for the same purpose, and thirdly to build a great hospital in which sick men could be left to recover their health.

Every man at the station was to be a servant of the East India Company. Mr. Van Riebeeck, who had the title of commander, was to hold a position similar to that of a sergeant in charge of a small military outpost at some distance from the headquarters of a regiment. Every admiral of a fleet that called was to supersede him for the time being, and he had hardly any discretionary power even when no superior officer was present.

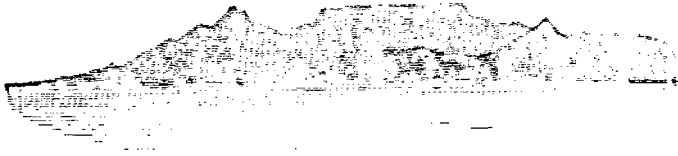


TABLE MOUNTAIN AS SEEN FROM ROBBEN ISLAND.

IV.

FORMATION OF A REFRESHMENT STATION IN TABLE VALLEY BY THE DUTCH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

IN April 1652 Mr. Van Riebeeck and his people arrived, and at once set about the construction of a fort by raising banks of earth round a hollow square, within which they erected some wooden sheds brought from Holland. The rainy season at and near the Cape of Good Hope usually commences in the month of April, but this year the summer drought lasted until towards the close of May, and consequently there was a good deal of suffering among the people. Scurvy was showing itself and no sorrel or wild plants of any kind could be found, nor could a garden be made.

The only permanent inhabitants of the Cape peninsula when the Dutch landed were some sixty Hottentots, who were without cattle, and who lived chiefly upon shellfish. Where as many thousands now exist in comfort, these wretched beachrangers—as Mr. Van Riebeeck styled them—were barely able to exist at all. The chief man among them was named Harry by the white people. He had once

been taken to Bantam in an English ship, and he spoke a little broken English, so Mr. Van Riebeeck employed him as an interpreter. The others made themselves useful by carrying water and gathering firewood, in return for which they were provided with ships' provisions.

Two large clans of Hottentots, consisting together of about five thousand souls, roamed over the country within a radius of fifty miles from Table Bay, but they were then far from the peninsula, and very little could be ascertained concerning them.

When the winter rains at last set in, much discomfort was the immediate result. The tents and wooden buildings were all found to be leaky. With the change of weather came dysentery, which the people were too weak to resist, and now almost every day there was a death from that disease or from scurvy. By the beginning of June the party was reduced to one hundred and sixteen men and five women, of whom only sixty men were able to perform any labour. Fresh meat and vegetables and proper shelter would have saved them, but these things were not to be had. They were almost as solitary as if they had been frozen up in the Arctic sea. The two largest of the vessels had gone on to Batavia, leaving the other—a mere decked boat—at Mr. Van Riebeeck's disposal, and for many weeks no natives were seen except Harry's miserable followers, from whom no assistance of any kind was to be obtained.

But the rain, which had brought on the dysentery, in a very short time brought also relief. Grass sprang

into existence, and with it appeared various edible plants. They were all correctives of scurvy, and that was mainly what was needed. The strong and the feeble went about gathering wild herbs and roots and declaring there was nothing in the world half so palatable. As soon as the first showers fell, a plot of ground was dug over, in which seeds were planted; and soon the sick were enjoying such delicacies as radishes, lettuce, and cress. Then they found good reeds for thatch, and when the buildings were covered with these instead of boards and torn sails, they could almost bid defiance to the rains.

The pleasant weather which in South Africa is termed the winter passed away, and in October a large Hottentot clan—called by the Dutch the Kaapmans—made its appearance in the Cape peninsula with great herds of horned cattle and flocks of sheep, which were brought there for change of pasture. These people and the Europeans met openly on the most friendly terms, though each party was so suspicious of the other that a constant watch was kept. A supply of copper bars, brass wire, and tobacco had been brought from the Netherlands, and a trade in cattle was now opened. On the European side the commander conducted it in person, assisted only by a clerk and the interpreter Harry. All intercourse between other white men and these Hottentots was forbidden under very severe penalties, with the twofold object of preventing any interference with the trade and any act that might lightly provoke a quarrel.

Parties of the Kaapmans remained in the Cape peninsula nearly three months, during which time Mr. Van Riebeeck procured in barter over two hundred head of horned cattle and nearly six hundred sheep. Before they left, they proposed that the commander should help them against a tribe with whom they were at war, and offered him the whole of the spoil, whatever it might be. Mr. Van Riebeeck replied that he had come to trade in friendship with all, and he declined to take any part in their quarrels.

By the end of the first year's residence of the Europeans in Table Valley the station had made very satisfactory progress. A large garden had been planted, and the stream that ran down from the mountain had been dammed up in several places, so that the whole of the cultivated ground—several acres in extent—could be irrigated. A plain hospital had been built of earthen walls and a thatch roof, large enough to accommodate two or three hundred men. And another clan had visited the peninsula, with whom a cattle trade had been opened, so that there was plenty of fresh meat for the crews of all the ships that put into the bay.

The second winter was uneventful. Some building was carried on, oxen were trained to draw timber from the forests behind the Devil's peak, and much new ground was broken up. Wild animals gave more trouble than anything else. The lions were so bold that they invaded the cattle pens by night, though armed men were always watching them, and leopards came down from the mountain in broad daylight and

carried away sheep under the very eyes of the herdsmen. One morning before daybreak there was a great noise in the poultry pens, and when the guards went to see what was the matter, they found that all the ducks and geese had been killed by wild cats. The country appeared to be swarming with ravenous beasts of different kinds.

A good look-out was kept over the sea, for the Netherlands and the Commonwealth of England were at war, and it was necessary to guard against being surprised by an English ship.

The Europeans had been living in Table Valley about eighteen months when the first difficulty with the natives occurred. One Sunday while they were listening to a sermon Harry and his people murdered a white boy who was tending the cattle, and ran away with nearly the whole herd. As soon as the event became known pursuing parties were sent out, but though the robbers were followed to the head of False Bay, only one cow that lagged behind was recovered. This occurrence naturally produced an ill-feeling towards the Hottentots on the part of the European soldiers and workmen. One of their companions had been murdered, and his blood was unavenged. The loss of their working oxen imposed heavy toil upon them. The fort was being strengthened with palisades cut in the forests behind the Devil's peak, and these had now to be carried on the shoulders of men. Then for some time after the robbery the pastoral clans kept at a distance, so that no cattle were to be had in barter; and the want of fresh meat caused much grumbling.

The directors had given the most emphatic orders that the natives were to be treated with all possible kindness, and so, after a few months, when the run-aways began to return to Table Valley, each one protesting his own innocence, no punishment was inflicted upon them for their bad conduct, but they were allowed to resume their former manner of living by collecting firewood and doing any little service of that nature.

As everything was now in good working order at the station, Mr. Van Riebeeck began to send out small exploring parties, not so much to learn the physical condition of the country, however, as to make the acquaintance of Hottentot clans who could be induced to bring cattle to the fort for barter. This object was attained without crossing the nearest range of mountains, and therefore no one tried to go beyond that formidable barrier. During the next few years names were given to the various hills scattered over the western coast belt as far north as the mouth of the Elephant river, the Berg river was inspected from its source to its mouth, and acquaintance was made with several Hottentot tribes; but there was little or no advance in the knowledge of South African geography.

By this time nearly every garden plant of Europe and India was cultivated at the Cape, though potatoes and maize were not yet introduced. Oaks and firs, fruit trees of many kinds, several varieties of vines from Southern Germany and from France, and strawberries and blackberries were thriving. The foreign animals that had been introduced were horses from Java, and pigs, sheep, dogs, rabbits, and poultry from Europe.

Every season wheat and barley had been sown, but the crop had always failed. Just as it was getting ripe the south-east wind came sweeping through Table Valley, and destroyed it. But it was noticed that even when it was blowing a perfect gale at the fort, nothing more than a pleasant breeze was felt back of the Devil's peak. The commander therefore tried if grain could not be raised in that locality. At a place where a round grove of thorn trees was standing, from which it received the name Rondebosch, a plot of ground was laid under the plough, and some wheat, oats, and barley were sown. The experiment was successful, for the grain throve wonderfully well, and yielded a large return.

The Cape establishment was thus answering its purpose admirably, but the expense attending it was found to be greater than the directors of the East India Company had anticipated, so they cast about for some means of reducing its cost. After much discussion they resolved to locate a few burgher families on plots of ground in the neighbourhood of the fort, and instructed Mr. Van Riebeeck to carry this design into execution. They were of opinion that the men, though not in their service, would assist in the defence of the station, so that the garrison could be reduced, and that from such persons vegetables, grain, fruit, pigs, poultry, etc., could be purchased as cheaply as the Company could produce them with hired servants. The plan was to select a few respectable married men from the workpeople, to send their wives and children out to them, and to give them a start as market gardeners or small farmers.

V.

FOUNDATION OF THE CAPE COLONY.

IN February 1657 nine of the Company's servants took their discharge, and had small plots of ground allotted to them along the Liesbeek river at Rondebosch. They were the first South African colonists in the true sense of the word. They were provided on credit with everything that was necessary to give them a fair start as agriculturists, and in return they bound themselves to deliver the produce of their ground at the fort at reasonable prices until the debt was cleared off.

Within a few months thirty-eight others took their discharge on the same conditions. But it soon appeared that many of these men were not adapted for the life of independent gardeners, and it became necessary to take them back into the Company's service, when the ground that they had occupied was given to others on trial. In this manner a selection was constantly being made, in which only the steady and industrious remained as permanent colonists. There was a rule that only married men of Dutch or German birth should have land assigned to them,

but it was not strictly observed, and single men who were mechanics or who would take service with gardeners were frequently discharged by the Company. As soon as a man proved himself able to make a competent living, he had only to apply for his wife and children to be sent out from Europe, and with the next fleet they were forwarded to him. The descendants of many of those who at this time became colonists are now scattered over South Africa from the Cape of Good Hope to the Zambesi and Benguela.

In this manner the colonisation of South Africa was commenced, but as yet there was no intention of forming a European settlement of any great extent. A few gardeners, fruit growers, and poultry breeders within four or five miles of the fort comprised the whole scheme which the East India Company had in view. These people were to pay tithes of any grain they might produce after twelve years' occupation, but were otherwise to be left untaxed. It was still supposed that as many cattle as were needed could be obtained from the Hottentots.

In 1658 the great mistake of introducing negro slaves was made, a mistake from which the country has suffered much in the past and must suffer for all time to come. There was no necessity for the introduction of these people. The climate for nine months in the year is to Europeans the pleasantest in the world, and even during the other three—excepting from twenty to thirty excessively hot days—white men can labour in the open air without discomfort. The settlement could have been purely European.

But in the seventeenth century it was the custom of all colonising nations to make of the negro a hewer of wood and drawer of water, and the Dutch merely acted in the spirit of the age.

From a Portuguese slave ship captured at sea the first negroes brought to the Cape settlement were taken, and shortly afterwards a number arrived from the coast of Guinea in one of the Company's vessels. Some of them were sold on credit to the burghers, but the greater number were kept by the government to do whatever rough labour was needed. This fixed the character of the colony, for the system once entered upon could only with great difficulty be altered. The white man and the black cannot work side by side on equal terms, hence manual unskilled labour came to be regarded by the Europeans as degrading, a sentiment that has not died out at the present day.

The Dutch laws at that time made manumission extremely easy, and freed negroes had all the rights of colonists, though they were without the hereditary training necessary to enable them to make proper use of their privileges. As soon, however, as it was ascertained by experience that they were too indolent and thriftless to put by anything for sickness or old age, when they became a burden upon the community, a law was made that any one emancipating a slave under ordinary circumstances must not only give security that he or she would not become a dependent upon the poor funds within a certain number of years, but also pay a sum of money into the poor funds as a premium on the risk of his or her requiring aid after that period. This checked manu-

mission considerably, still, as many slaves were emancipated by the testaments of their owners, and others obtained their liberty under special circumstances, the free negroes would have become a large body in course of time if they had not been swept away by imported diseases, to which their habits of living made them an easy prey.

Besides negroes, the East India Company at this time began to introduce Asiatics—chiefly natives of Malacca, Java, and the Spice islands—into the settlement. These persons were criminals sentenced by the high court of justice at Batavia to slavery either for life or for a term of years, and then sent to South Africa to undergo their punishment. In intelligence they were far above the natives of Guinea or Mozambique, many of them being able to work as masons, harness makers, coopers, and tailors. They all professed the Moslem religion. Being without women of their own nationality, they formed connections with African slave girls; and thus arose one of the many classes of mixed breeds in the country.

At a little later date the Company made of South Africa a place of banishment for Indian political prisoners of high rank, who were often accompanied by their families and numerous attendants, male and female. These people had fixed allowances from the government for their support. Sometimes families of their dependents became attached to the country, and preferred to remain here when the time came for their return to Java if they had chosen to go back. A race of pure Asiatics thus arose, never very numerous, though for more than a century political

offenders continued to be sent from Batavia to Capetown. The last were some natives of high rank in the islands of Tidor and Ternate, who made their escape from this country in 1781.

One of these exiles was the Sheikh Joseph, who took a leading part in the Bantamese civil war of 1682, and who was a determined opponent of the Dutch. He was a man of great repute for sanctity, and was believed by his Moslem followers to have performed some extraordinary miracles. He died near the head of False Bay, and his tomb there is still a place of pilgrimage for Mohamedans in South Africa.

Thus early in the history of the Cape Colony three varieties of human beings were introduced: Europeans, negroes, and Javanese or Malays. The Hottentots formed a fourth variety. As years passed away mixed breeds of every colour between these four extremes were to be seen, side by side with the pure races, so that nowhere else could such a diversity of hue and of features be found as in the Cape peninsula. The crosses between Europeans and the lower races did not increase in number as rapidly as pure breeds, however, owing to a lack of high fertility among themselves, and unless connected again with one of their ancestral stocks, they often died out altogether in the third generation. The same may be said of the half-breed Asiatics and negroes, but the cross between the others was more fertile.

The pastoral Hottentot clans looked upon the European settlement along the Liesbeek with a

good deal of jealousy. It was not alone the ground under cultivation that was lost to them, for the government had given the burghers a free right of pasture, and thus the former owners were excluded from the best patches of grass along the base of the mountain. Early in 1659 the two clans that had always been accustomed to visit the Cape peninsula in the summer season with their flocks and herds appeared there as usual, and were informed that they must keep away from the grass that the Company and the burghers needed. This announcement was not at all to their liking. They had ample pasture left in the peninsula for ten times the number of cattle in their possession, and all the country stretching away beyond the isthmus as far as could be seen was theirs to roam over; but they were like other people, they did not relish being deprived by force of anything that they regarded as their own.

So they commenced to drive off the burghers' cows, and murdered a white herdsman. The beachrangers in Table Valley, though they were certainly gainers by the presence of the Europeans, and though they had a long-standing feud with the pastoral clans, now joined their countrymen. In this manner what the colonists termed the first Hottentot war began.

In fact, however, it could hardly be termed a war, for the natives were careful to avoid a pitched battle, and the Europeans were unable to surprise any large body of them. On two occasions only were small parties met, when six or seven were killed and a few more were wounded. The pastoral clans then abandoned the peninsula, and the beachrangers,

upon begging for peace, were allowed to return to Table Valley.

A strong fence, through which cattle could not be driven, was now made along the outer boundary of the settlement, three watchhouses were built to defend it, and in these were stationed companies of horse-men, whose duty it was to patrol the border. Some powerful dogs were imported from Java, and the Europeans then considered themselves secure.

The Hottentots were the first to make overtures for a restoration of friendship. About a twelvemonth after the first breach of the peace they sent messengers to the fort to propose a reconciliation, and as these were well received the chiefs followed, when terms were agreed to. These were that neither party was thereafter to molest the other, that the lately hostile clans were to endeavour to induce those living farther inland to bring cattle to the fort for sale, that the Europeans were to retain possession of the land occupied by them, that roads were to be pointed out along which the Hottentots could come to the fort, and that any European who molested a Hottentot should be severely punished.

After the conclusion of peace the cattle trade went on briskly. Bartering parties were sometimes sent out, but Hottentots often came from a distance of eighty or a hundred miles with troops of oxen and flocks of sheep for sale. They were very eager to obtain bright coloured beads and other trifles. The quantity of beads given for an ox cost only from eight to ten pence, but there were other and larger expenses connected with the trade. Presents, consisting of flat

pieces of copper, wire, iron rods, axes, tobacco, pipes, and other articles, were frequently made to the chiefs to secure their friendship, and all who came to the fort were liberally entertained. The burghers were strictly prohibited from holding intercourse of any kind with other Hottentots than the beachrangers, but in defiance of the law some of them found means to carry on a petty cattle trade.

After ten years' service in South Africa Mr. Van Riebeeck was sent on to India, where he received promotion, and Mr. Zacharias Wagenaar took his place at the Cape. During this commander's term of office—which extended over four years—a few events occurred that are worthy of notice.

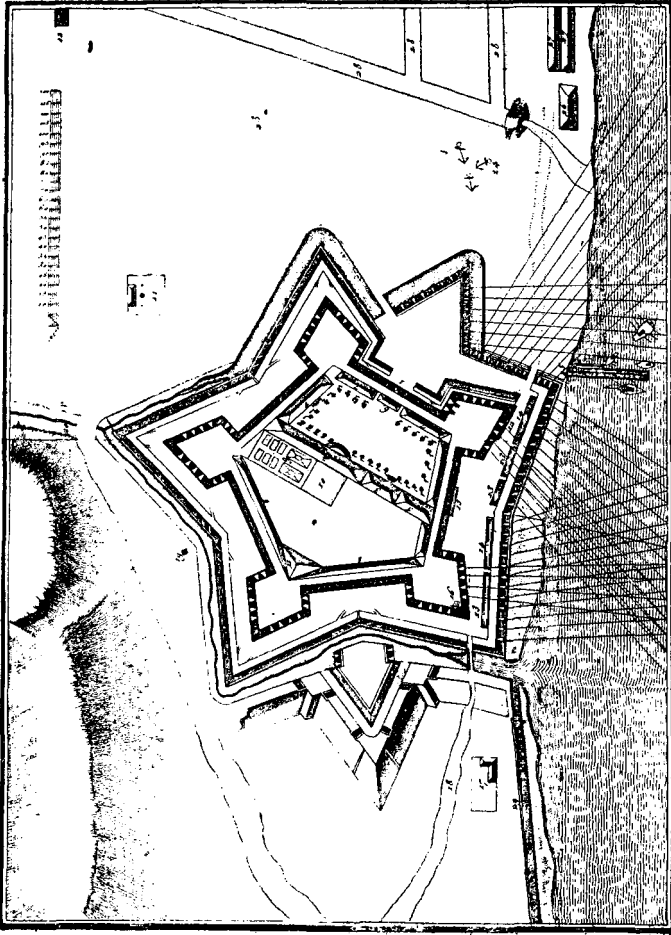
In earlier years a catechist, who was also a school-master, held services on Sundays, and the chaplains of ships that called administered the sacraments. But now the settlement was provided with a resident clergyman. From this time onward there was a fully organised church, subject to the spiritual control of the classis or presbytery of Amsterdam.

In 1664 the island of Mauritius was taken into possession by the Dutch East India Company to keep it from falling into other hands, and it was made a dependency of the Cape station. A few men were sent there to cut ebony logs, and once a year a packet took supplies to them from Table Bay and brought back a cargo of timber.

Owing to the threatening attitude of England, the directors resolved to build a strong fortress in Table Valley, as the walls of earth, which were considered ample protection against Hottentots,

would be a poor defence if a British force should land. The castle of Good Hope, which is still standing, was commenced in 1666, and was completed in 1674. It is now useless for military purposes, but for some time after its construction it was considered almost impregnable. The directors, who were beginning to realise that the French and the English might prove formidable rivals in the eastern seas, had come to regard their station in the Cape peninsula as a strategic point of great importance. "The castle of Good Hope," they wrote, "is the frontier fortress of India," and as such they provided it with a strong garrison.

Commander Wagenaar's successors for some time were men of very little note, and nothing of much consequence occurred to disturb the quiet course of life in the settlement. All was bustle and activity when the outward or homeward bound Indian fleets were in the bay, but after their anchors were raised there was nothing to create excitement. The workmen engaged in building the castle and the garrison when it was completed increased the demand for food, so that more servants of the Company took their discharge and set up for themselves as market gardeners. Soon the best plots of land within the boundary fence were all taken up, and then the fence was disregarded and the settlement spread out to the present village of Wynberg. The proportion of men who took their discharge and succeeded in making a living on their own account was, however, always very small. It was probably not ten per cent of the whole. The others after a trial had to be taken back into the



PLAN OF THE CASTLE OF GOOD HOPE.

Company's service as soldiers or sailors, most of them with debts that they could never wholly clear off. The system was thus a very unsatisfactory one.

The directors thought of improving upon it by sending out families accustomed to agriculture in the Netherlands, who would serve as models for the others; but though they offered free passages, grants of land without payment, exemption from the tithe for twelve years, and supplies of necessaries on easy credit, very few people of the class required could be induced to migrate to South Africa. The Cape was too far away and too little was known of it to tempt men and women to leave a country where there was no difficulty in making a comfortable living. In 1671, however, five or six families arrived, and thereafter during several years one or two came out occasionally.

Twenty years after Mr. Van Riebeeck landed and took possession of as much ground as he needed, without thinking of asking the consent of any one, a member of the high court of justice at Batavia on his way back to Europe called at the Cape, and being superior in rank to any one here, took command during his stay. This officer—Arnout van Overbeke by name—considered it advisable to make a formal purchase of territory from the nearest Hottentot chiefs, and these petty potentates, on being applied to, very readily gave their consent. If they reasoned at all about the matter, they probably thought that the price offered was clear gain, for the white people would certainly take as much ground as they needed, whether sold to them or not.

At any rate the principal chief of one tribe and the regents of another affixed their marks to documents that are still in existence, in which they ceded to the East India Company the whole territory from Saldanha Bay to False Bay, reserving to themselves and their people, however, the right to move freely about and make use of any part of it not occupied by Europeans. They received nominally in return goods to the value of £1,600, actually—according to the accounts furnished to the directors—the articles transferred cost £9 12s. 9d.

A few months after this transaction an outpost was formed at Hottentots-Holland, near the head of False Bay, on the eastern side of the isthmus. One of the objects in view was to raise a large quantity of wheat, for which purpose the ground at that place appeared specially suitable, but the chief design was to provide a retreat for the garrison in case it should be needed. The Free Netherlands were then engaged in the most unequal struggle that modern Europe has witnessed, for Louis XIV of France, Charles II of England, and the ecclesiastical princes of Cologne and Munster were united against them. On two occasions shortly before the war broke out the admirals of French fleets had taken possession of Saldanha Bay, though without leaving any men there to guard it, and it was believed that the French king might make an effort to seize the Cape peninsula. An attack by the English was equally probable. As events turned out, the Dutch got the better of their opponents in Europe, and the Cape settlement was not molested, so that the outpost at Hottentots-

Holland became simply a farming establishment where the wheat and other grain needed by the Company was grown.

By this time the belt of land along the sea coast as far eastward as Mossel Bay had been thoroughly explored by parties sent out to obtain cattle. In 1658 some members of a trading expedition climbed to the top of the mountain barrier near the ravine through which the Little Berg river flows; but the land as far as they could see appeared to be uninhabited, so there was nothing to induce further search in that direction. Nine years later another way over the barrier was found at the place now known as Sir Lowry's pass, sixty miles south of the ravine of the Little Berg river. The Hottentot tribes termed the Hessequa, Gauriqua, Attaqua, and Outeniqua were then successively reached and traded with. Those previously known along the western coast were the Chainouqua, the Goringhaiqua (or Kaapmans), the Cochoqua, the Grigriqua, and the Namaqua.

Bushmen had been met on several occasions, and their manner of living was pretty well known. Some of these wild people had once attempted to seize the merchandise belonging to a European trading party, when a number of them were shot down, greatly to the satisfaction of the Hessequa and other Hottentots who lived in the neighbourhood of the place where the event occurred.

VI.

THE SECOND HOTTENTOT WAR AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.

ONE of the most powerful of the Hottentot tribes near the Cape peninsula was called the Cochoqua, or by some name which the Europeans wrote in that form, for probably it had clicks in it. This tribe was composed of two great clans, the larger of which was under a chief named Gonnema. Gonnema had an evil reputation among all the other Hottentots with whom the Dutch were acquainted, for he was in the habit of swooping down upon them unawares and helping himself to their daughters and their cattle, and they were too weak to resist him. He had sold a good many oxen to the white people, but they did not like him either, for his bearing was never very friendly. They usually termed him the black captain, on account of his habit of using soot instead of clay to paint himself with.

In 1673 a war broke out between Gonnema and the Europeans, the only war that has ever taken place between white people and natives in South Africa of which we have not the versions of both parties to

form a judgment from. The Cochoqua clan has left no story, nor is there a plea on its behalf on record. But the Dutch accounts are full of details, and it is easy from them to ascertain how Gonnema came to feel himself aggrieved.

The country was teeming with game, antelopes of many kinds, elephants, rhinoceroses, and hippopotami. Hunters were sent out from the fort, and brought back waggons laden with dried meat, which was supplied to the garrison instead of beef. The hippopotamus, or sea-cow as it was called, was specially sought after, for its flesh was regarded as equal to pork, and whips made of its hide commanded a very *high price everywhere*. *Parties of burghers were in the habit of getting leave from the government and going out hunting elands and sea-cows, sometimes being away from home three or four weeks together.* It never seems to have occurred to the white people that the Hottentots might object to the destruction of so much game, but very likely that was the cause of Gonnema's hostility.

In 1672 he came upon some hunters at Riebeeck's Kasteel, and took their waggons and other property, but allowed them to escape with their lives. In the following year he made prisoners of eight burghers and a slave who were hunting near the same place, and after detaining them some days murdered them all. At the same time one of his sub-captains surprised a little trading outpost of the Company at Saldanha Bay, plundered it, and murdered four Europeans.

A mixed force of soldiers and burghers was then sent against the Cochoqua clan, and as it was partly

composed of horsemen it had the good fortune to cut off Gonnema's people from a strong position to which they tried to retreat and to seize eight hundred of their horned cattle and nine hundred sheep. The Hottentots followed the expedition when returning to the fort, but did not succeed in recovering their stock. Ten or twelve of them were shot, and on the other side one burgher was wounded.

Various clans now offered their aid against Gonnema, and were accepted as allies by the Europeans. For several months the Cochoqua kept out of the way, but at length they were so nearly surrounded that they barely managed to escape, leaving all their cattle behind. The spoil was much greater than on the first occasion, and was divided between the Europeans and the Hottentot allies.

Gonnema after this loss kept to the mountains for nearly two years, avoiding his enemies, but preventing all intercourse between them and the tribes beyond. Then he pounced suddenly upon some of the Hottentot allies of the Europeans, and with the loss of only fifteen of his own men killed a good many of them and swept off the greater part of their herds. He was pursued by all the soldiers and burghers that could be mustered, but he got safely away to his mountain fastnesses. No expedition sent against him after that time managed to surprise him, for his scouts were always on the alert. The Europeans found that they were wearying themselves to no purpose in trying to find him, so they desisted from the fruitless task.

For four years the settlement was kept practically in a condition of blockade on the land side, when Gonnema sent to ask for peace, as he was tired of living like a Bushman in the mountains. His messengers were well received, and were followed by three of his chief men, who agreed in his name to the terms proposed. They were that there should be peace and friendship between all the parties engaged in the war, and that Gonnema should pay to the Company a yearly tribute of thirty head of cattle. Presents were then exchanged, and the land was once more at rest.

Perhaps it was never intended that tribute should really be paid, at any rate it was considered prudent not to refer to the subject again, and the Cochoqua clan was left untroubled about it.

This was the last war with Hottentots during the rule of the Dutch East India Company in South Africa. It was a trifling affair if considered by the number of combatants or the quantity of spoil, and not a single hand-to-hand engagement had taken place; but it had very important consequences. During four years Gonnema had cut off the cattle trade, so there was no fresh beef or mutton for the crews of the fleets that called, and even the hospital could not be supplied, as the oxen and sheep that were captured and that the clans in alliance with the Europeans were able to furnish were soon exhausted. The Company was not disposed to run the risk of a second experience of this kind. The expense of the station had grown very far beyond original expectations, there was now a huge fortress to be kept

up and a large garrison to be maintained in addition to victualling charges properly so called ; and such an outlay could only be justified by the perfect efficiency of the establishment. If a supply of fresh meat could not be depended upon, one of the main objects of its existence was a failure. And as trade with the Hottentots beyond the nearest mountains might at any time be cut off again, European cattle breeders must be introduced.

The great difficulty in the way was the scarcity of Europeans with the habits needed. They would be obliged to live far apart, and would be exposed to plunder by the natives and losses from the ravages of wild animals. The country was swarming with lions, leopards, hyenas, and jackals ; and with the clumsy firelocks of those days it was a risky matter to go out alone into the wilds. As a commencement the Company established several cattle posts on its own account on the eastern side of the isthmus, to which cows and ewes were sent as they could be procured in barter, and at each a corporal was stationed with a few soldiers to guard the stock.

Then offers were made to the gardeners at Rondebosch and Wynberg to improve their prospects by turning cattle breeders. They could select land near the Company's posts, so that they would not be altogether without companionship, no taxes of any kind would be demanded from them till they were in a good position, and breeding cattle would be lent to them to take care of, half the increase of which would be their own. The view of the government was that if gardeners and small farmers could not be

procured as emigrants from Europe, they must be trained in the old way of selection to take the place of those who should become stock breeders.

The prospect, however, did not appear very attractive, for before the close of 1679 only eight burghers accepted the Company's offer and took up their residence beyond the isthmus.

At this time a very energetic man, named Simon van der Stel, arrived from Amsterdam as commander. No one could have been better qualified to carry out the new project, and he threw himself heart and soul into it. He had, however, a particular desire that only Netherlanders should settle in the country, for he believed that whatever was Dutch was good, and whatever was not Dutch was not worth bothering about. But the directors in Holland were not of this opinion. They were very glad to obtain the services of competent men of all nationalities, and provided the majority of the settlers were Dutch they were quite willing to give equal privileges to others.

Except in this respect Simon van der Stel was allowed to carry out the plan in his own way. He began by inducing a party of eight families to remove from Rondebosch to a fertile and beautiful valley beyond the isthmus, where he gave them large plots of ground in freehold, with extensive grazing rights beyond. This settlement, which was named Stellenbosch, he intended to be the centre of a district in which all kinds of farming pursuits should be carried on, where vineyards should be planted and wine be made, where wheat should be grown

and cattle be reared. When the fleets from India put into Table Bay on their way home, the commander's agents ingratiated themselves with the people on board, and whenever a man likely to make a good colonist was discovered, inducements were held out to him to remain in the country. In this way the vacancies were filled up in the Cape peninsula as fast as they arose, and many newcomers could be located beside experienced men at Stellenbosch.

A few years later a settlement was formed in a similar manner at Drakenstein, in the valley of the Berg river, one of the most charming situations in South Africa.

The directors were doing all that was in their power to get suitable people to migrate from the Netherlands. Among others they sent out a few young women from the orphan asylums in Amsterdam and Rotterdam, who were carefully protected and provided for until they found husbands in the colony.

And now an event took place in Europe which enabled them to secure over a hundred families of the very best stamp. This was the revocation by Louis XIV of the edict of Nantes, which drove many thousands of Protestant refugees from France into Holland. Their presence in some of the provinces so greatly reduced the demand for labour that industrious Dutch families were more willing to remove than they had previously been, and the Company was able to send to South Africa nearly two hundred Huguenots and about the same number

of Dutch people of both sexes and all ages. Upon their arrival they were scattered over the country between the Groenberg, the Koeberg, and Hottentots-Holland, the larger number of the French being located in the valley of the Berg river. Care was taken, however, to mix them together, so that the nationalities would speedily become blended.

Having now a base to fall back upon if necessary, a few stragglers began to push their way in one direction down the Berg river, and in another beyond the Koeberg. Still, at the close of the seventeenth century there was no white man living more than forty-five miles from the castle, and the whole territory occupied by Europeans was within the range of mountains visible from ships in Table Bay.

The colonists, with their wives and children, were then some fourteen hundred in number. The French Huguenots were about one-sixth of the whole, a rather larger proportion consisted of Germans from the borderland between the high and low Teutons, and nearly two-thirds were Dutch from the different Netherland provinces. The Germans were, almost without exception, men who were married to Dutch women. Intermarriages between the Huguenots and other colonists were common, and in another generation distinctions of nationality were entirely lost.

The language used in common conversation was Dutch made as simple and expressive as possible, so as to be understood by slaves with only the mental capacities of children. Grammatical rules were disregarded. In the pulpit and in family devotions,

however, correct Dutch was used, as it is very generally to the present day.

There were three churches provided with clergymen: in Capetown, at Stellenbosch, and at Drakenstein. At each of these places there was also a public school, in which children were taught to read the bible, to cast up simple accounts, to repeat the Heidelberg catechism, and to sing the psalms. The Dutch reformed was the state church, and no other public services were allowed, but in their own houses people might hold any kind of worship that they pleased.

The head of the settlement was now termed the governor. Public matters of all kinds were regulated by a council of eight individuals, who were the highest officials in rank in the country. In this council the governor sat as president. In Capetown there was a court for the trial of petty cases, and a high court of justice, from whose decisions there was an appeal to the supreme court at Batavia. Three burghers had seats in the high court of justice whenever cases affecting colonists were tried. They were the spokesmen between the colonists and the government, and were consulted upon all matters affecting the settlement, but they had no votes outside the court of justice. They were called burgher councillors.

At Stellenbosch there was a court which had cognisance of all petty cases beyond the Cape peninsula. It was presided over by an official termed a landdrost, who also collected the revenue and looked after the Company's interests generally. Eight burghers—termed *heemraden*—had seats and votes. This court

acted further as a district council, in which capacity it saw to the repair of roads, the distribution of water, the destruction of noxious animals, and various other matters. It raised a revenue by erecting a mill to grind corn and leasing it to the highest bidder, by collecting a yearly tax of one shilling and fourpence for every hundred sheep or twenty head of horned cattle owned by the farmers, and by sundry other small imposts. Further, it had power to compel the inhabitants to supply waggons, cattle, slaves, and their own labour for public purposes.

In Capetown there was an orphan chamber, which acted as trustee of property belonging to children when a parent died. There was also a matrimonial court, before which every person in the settlement—male and female—who wished to be married had to appear and show that there were no legal impediments to the union.

All these bodies—burgher councillors, petty court of justice, heemraden, orphan chamber, and matrimonial court—as also the consistories of the churches, were in a manner self-perpetuating corporations. Every year some of their members retired, but before doing so double lists of names were sent by the boards to the government, and from these lists their successors were appointed. Such a thing as popular election to any office was unknown. The system worked well on the whole, and the people were satisfied with it.

The burghers were required to meet at stated periods for drill and practice in the use of arms, and all were held liable for service in case of the

appearance of an enemy. They were formed into companies of cavalry and infantry, each with its standard of a particular colour. Most of them were excellent marksmen, owing to their habits of frequently hunting game; but their firearms were very clumsy weapons compared with those of our day. To reduce the cost of the garrison, numbers of soldiers were permitted to engage as servants to burghers, on condition that they could be called back to their colours at any time.

Capetown at the close of the century contained about eighty private houses. The great garden of the Company, which Simon van der Stel had partly converted into a nursery for European, Indian, and native plants, was regarded as something marvellous by visitors of all nations, so great a variety of vegetation was to be seen and admired there. This governor, upon his retirement in 1699, went to live upon a beautiful estate which the Company gave him a little beyond Wynberg, where he planted the vineyards that in later years produced the celebrated Constantia wines. He was an enthusiast in the matter of cultivating oak-trees, and during the twenty years of his government many scores of thousands were planted by his orders all over the settlement.

The system of taxation was as bad as could be devised, so far as effect upon the character of the people was concerned. The exclusive right to sell various articles—among others spirituous liquors—was sold by auction as a monopoly to the highest bidder. Upon anything that the government required—such as beef and mutton—a price per pound

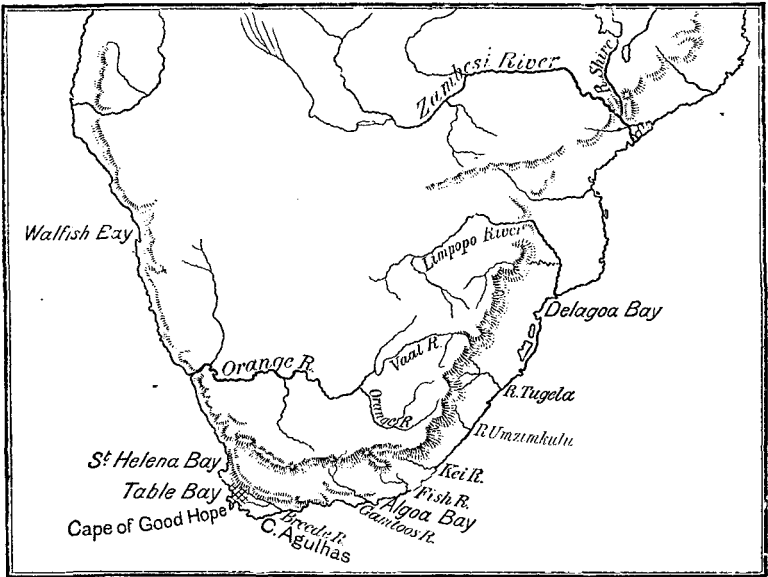
was fixed to the residents in Capetown, and a much higher price to foreigners; the monopoly was then put up for sale, and whoever offered to supply the Company at the lowest rate became the purchaser. Thus beef might be a penny a pound to a mechanic in Capetown, twopence a pound to the captain of an English ship, and a halfpenny a pound to the Company's hospital. The tithe of grain and the district tax upon cattle were both paid upon returns made by the farmers themselves, so that a premium was offered for falsehood. This system was soon discovered to be vicious, but it was continued without modification until towards the close of the next century.


The government exercised the right of fixing the price of anything that it needed, and prohibiting the sale of the article to any one else until its own wants were supplied. Thus, if half-a-dozen Dutch ships and two or three English Indiamen were lying at anchor in Table Bay at a time when the meal in the Company's stores was exhausted, the Englishmen would certainly get no bread until the Hollanders' tables were covered. But, upon the whole, strangers were much better treated here than the Dutch were treated in foreign ports, and it was only in times of scarcity that they had cause to complain of anything except high prices.

The Company was supposed to be the only wholesale merchant in the country. From its stores in Capetown shopkeepers were supplied with imported goods, and everything that was exported in bulk passed through its hands. But in point of fact a

large proportion of the trade of the country was carried on with ships' people, Dutch and foreign. From the captain of an Indiaman of any nationality down to the youngest midshipman, every one had some little venture of his own that he was always ready to trade with. It might be a bale of calico, or it might be a slave, for many bondsmen were brought to South Africa in this way. Even among the foremast hands the spirit of commerce was strong. A sailor when homeward bound was commonly accompanied by monkeys and parrots and cockatoos and various descriptions of birds and beasts till the fore-castle was often like a menagerie; in his chest he had fancy articles from Japan, silk handkerchiefs from China, or perhaps some curiosities picked up at an Indian isle. This kind of commerce was very petty, but in the aggregate it must have amounted to something considerable, for the inhabitants of Capetown during more than a hundred years lived and thrive upon it. Nowhere in the world, we read again and again in accounts of travellers of many nationalities, could a greater variety of goods be purchased and sold. The traffic was carried on openly, for though there was a law that goods should not be imported by foreigners, it was not applied to ventures by ships' people—English, French, or Danish—on their own account.

By this time the knowledge of South African geography had very greatly increased. Simon van der Stel himself with a large party of attendants had visited the copper mountain of Little Namaqualand, and had received information from the natives there



EXTENT OF THE SETTLEMENT IN 1700 

of the great river now known as the Orange. Some Dutch and English sailors, shipwrecked on the eastern coast, before they were rescued had travelled in one direction to Delagoa Bay, and in the other to the Buffalo river. From them as accurate an account of the southern Bantu tribes was obtained as any we have at the present day. Parties of cattle traders had brought back information of every Hottentot tribe in existence except the Korana. But as yet no white man had set foot upon the plain of the Karoo, and consequently nothing was known of the far interior.

VII.

PROGRESS OF THE CAPE COLONY FROM 1700 TO 1750.

IN the first year of the eighteenth century the second terrace upward from the sea began to be occupied by Europeans. Wilhem Adrian van der Stel, eldest son of Simon van der Stel, was then governor. He made a tour of inspection through the settlement, and afterwards crossed the mountain range close to the ravine of the Little Berg river, for the purpose of examining the country beyond. It was the beautiful tract of land now called the Tulbagh basin which the governor and his party entered, and it seemed to them to invite human occupation.

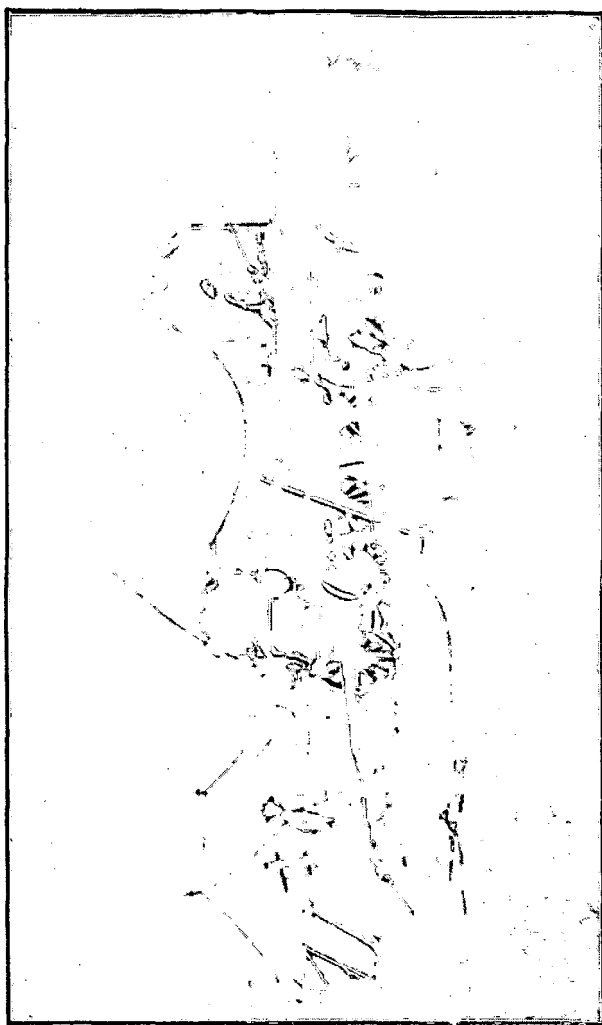
The settlement on the coast belt had been a success, but it had not been able to supply many cattle. The land was adapted for cultivation, there was a market within easy reach, and the ideas of the people favoured the plough. To this day the inhabitants of that part of the country depend upon their crops of wheat, their fruit, and their wine, and keep no more oxen and sheep than are required for their own use.

On the other side of the mountain range agriculture was not then possible. The Tulbagh basin is fertile ; its extensive corn lands, its vineyards, and the gardens and orchards round its homesteads form now a pleasant sight in the early summer ; but in those days, when there was no other way of access to it than over a mountain that could only be crossed with the greatest difficulty, no man would think of making a living by the plough. Cattle breeding alone could be depended upon there.

A small military outpost was formed in the basin to protect the settlers from the Bushmen who had their haunts in the surrounding mountains, and then several families were induced to try their fortune in the lonely vale. A few individuals were still being sent out from Europe every year, and the old system of discharging servants of the Company continued in practice, so that settlers were obtainable. But as a rule new-comers were located near the Cape peninsula, and young people born in the country commenced life for themselves beyond the mountain range.

Gradually they spread beyond the Tulbagh basin, down the valley of the Breede river, and over the Witsenberg to the high plateau called the Warm Bokkeveld. Others crossed the range at Hottentots-Holland, and pushed their way along the banks of the Zonderend and down towards the sea at Cape Agulhas. Others again kept up the western coast belt, passed the Piketberg, and in course of time reached the mouth of the Elephant river.

~~The life led by these pioneers of civilisation was~~ rough and wild, but it had its own peculiar charm,



SOUTH AFRICAN TENT WAGGON.

Cattle breeding was found to pay fairly well. Sometimes Bushmen would drive off oxen or sheep, and a little excitement was caused by the pursuit of the marauders, but otherwise the time passed away quietly. The best of health was commonly enjoyed, and there was the most perfect freedom. The only direct tax towards the general revenue was £5 a year, which each grazier was required to pay, and for which he had a legal right to the use of six thousand acres of ground, with the privilege of moving into the Karoo for a couple of months every year to give his stock a change of pasture. During these migrations he and his family slept in a great tent waggon, and passed the day in the open air, usually selecting a patch of trees on the bank of a stream for a camping place. A distaste for town life, with its restraints and all the nameless annoyances to which simple people are exposed when in contact with men of sharper intellect, soon became part of the nature of a cattle breeder, and grew stronger with each succeeding generation. The children and grandchildren of Dutch gardeners, German mechanics, and Huguenot tradesmen by force of circumstances reverted in habits and in thought to the condition of semi-nomads. In the language of South Africa these people were called trekboeren, that is wandering farmers. Many of them became expert elephant hunters, and travelled great distances in search of ivory.

Behind them, as they moved onward, a more settled class of people occupied the country, though very thinly. These built better houses than the others; as

soon as rough roads were made they combined agriculture with cattle breeding, and generally they led more stable lives. In this manner hardly a year passed by without an expansion of the European settlement.

Wilhem Adrian van der Stel, who was governor when the colonists crossed the first mountain range, was a man of culture and ability, but he had an inordinate passion for making money, a fault that was common to many of the Company's servants. To get together a fortune with which to return to the Netherlands was an object ever before the eyes of these men, and the system under which they served favoured the accomplishment of their plans. The Company paid its officers the smallest of salaries, but allowed them perquisites of various kinds. In the preceding chapter mention has been made of the trade carried on under its sanction by the people of its fleets. Its officials on shore had even greater privileges. Some of them received commissions on sales and purchases of goods, others held monopolies of lucrative duties, others again were allowed to trade in specified articles on their own account. Spices only were guarded with the most extreme jealousy, and if any one had ventured to buy or sell a pound of pepper or a dozen nutmegs except at the Company's stores, dismissal from the service would have been the lightest part of his punishment.

It followed from this system that in the early days of the settlement the officials in South Africa were in general exceedingly anxious to get on to India,

because there was little or nothing to be made here. Some of them had been allowed to carry on trade on their own account, the landdrost of Stellenbosch had a monopoly as an auctioneer, the secretary of the council had a monopoly of making out certain legal documents, and several others had exclusive privileges; but what were these petty gains, they thought, to the wealth that was gathered by others in the Indian isles?

Wilhem Adrian van der Stel looked about for some means to fill his purse, but could devise nothing else than a farm. There was a law that neither the governor nor any other high official should carry on farming or cattle dealing on his own account, and on several occasions the directors reminded him of it, but by fraudulent means and in direct opposition to the policy of the Company he obtained possession of a large tract of land at Hottentots-Holland. There he erected extensive buildings, planted nearly half a million vines, and laid out groves, orchards, and corn lands to a corresponding extent. In the open country beyond the mountain he kept from six to eight hundred breeding cattle and eight or ten thousand sheep. Of this extensive establishment the directors were kept in entire ignorance, and there is no mention whatever of it in any official document until complaints against the governor reached Holland.

The burghers looked upon the big farm with very lively indignation. Their principal gains were derived from the sale of produce to foreigners, and they saw that market being practically closed to



HOUSE ON W. A. VAN DER STEL'S ESTATE,
(From a Sketch by W. A. van der Stel.)

them. The governor, they believed, would manage to secure the larger part of any profitable business for himself, and whatever escaped him would fall either to his father, who was farming at Constantia, or to his younger brother, who was farming below Stellenbosch.

There have never been people less willing to submit silently to grievances, real or imaginary, than the colonists of South Africa. In 1705 some of them sent a complaint of what was going on to the governor-general and council of India, but at Batavia nothing was done in the matter. Probably they did not expect redress from that quarter, for before there was time to receive a reply, a memorial to the directors was drawn up and signed by sixty-three of the best men in the settlement. In this document Wilhem Adrian van der Stel was accused of misconduct and corrupt practices tending to the serious loss and oppression of the colonists. Similar charges, but in a lower degree, were made against the officer next in rank to the governor and against the clergyman of Capetown. These persons also had been neglecting their public duties, and devoting their attention to farming.

With the arrival of the homeward-bound fleet at the beginning of 1706 the governor learnt of the complaint sent to Batavia, and immediately suspected that a similar charge would be forwarded to Holland. The danger of his position now drove him to acts of extreme folly as well as of tyranny. He caused a certificate to be drawn up, in which he was credited with the highest virtues and the utmost satisfaction

was expressed with his manner of ruling the colony. The residents in the Cape peninsula were invited to the castle, and were then requested to sign this certificate. The landdrost of Stellenbosch was directed to proceed with an armed party from house to house in the country, and get the residents there to sign it also. By these means two hundred and forty names in all were obtained, including those of a few Asiatics and free blacks. Many, however, refused to affix their signatures, even under the landdrost's threat that they would be marked men if they did not.

The governor suspected that a farmer at Stellenbosch named Adam Tas was the secretary of the *disaffected party*, and the landdrost was directed to have him arrested. Early one morning his house was surrounded by an armed party, he was seized and sent to the castle, his premises were searched, and his writing-desk was carried away. There could be no truce after this between the governor and his opponents, for if a burgher could be treated in this manner, upon mere suspicion of having drawn up a memorial to the high authorities, no man's liberty would be safe. Bail was at once offered for the appearance of Tas before a court of justice, but was refused. He was committed to prison, where he was kept nearly fourteen months.

In his desk was found the draft from which the memorial to the directors had been copied. It was unsigned, but papers attached to it indicated several of those who had taken part in the matter. Within the next few days seven of these were arrested, two of whom were committed to prison, one was sent to

Batavia, and four were put on board a ship bound to Amsterdam. The governor hoped to terrify them into signing the certificate in his favour and denying the truth of the charges against him, but not one of them faltered for a moment. Their wives petitioned that the prisoners might be brought to trial at once before a proper court of justice, and when it was hinted that if they would induce their husbands to do what was desired, release would follow, these true-hearted women indignantly refused. In the meantime the memorial had been committed to the care of a physician in the return fleet, and after the ships sailed he gave it to one of the burghers who were banished.

The governor continued to act as if his will was above the law of the land. Further arrests of burghers were made by his direction, the properly constituted courts were abolished, and in their stead his creatures were appointed to office. The people of Stellenbosch, men and women, announced their determination to maintain their rights, upon which a body of soldiers was sent to support the landdrost.

Meantime three of the burghers sent to Europe arrived at Amsterdam, the other having died on the passage, and they lost not a day before presenting the memorial to the directors and making their own complaint. In a matter of this kind it was necessary to act with promptitude as well as with justice. The Company had numerous and powerful enemies always watching for a chance to attack it before the states-general, and a charge of oppression of free Netherlanders in one of its colonies would be a weapon of

which they would not fail to make good use. A commission was therefore appointed to investigate the matter, and a report was sent in by it that the charges were fully substantiated. In consequence the governor, the officer next in rank, the clergyman of Capetown, and the landdrost of Stellenbosch were ordered to return to Europe by the earliest opportunity, and as their guilt was fully proved they were dismissed from the service. Wilhem Adrian van der Stel's farm, as having been obtained by fraud and in direct opposition to their order, was confiscated.

From the documents connected with this case the views of the directors and of the colonists concerning the government of the country and the rights of its people can be gathered with great precision. The directors desired to have a large body of freemen living in comfort, loyal to the fatherland, ready and willing to assist in the defence of the colony if attacked, enjoying the same rights as their equals in Europe, and not differing much from each other in rank or position. They issued orders that no official, from the highest to the lowest, was to own or lease land in the colony or to trade in any way in corn, wine, or cattle. The burghers were to be governed in accordance with law and justice.

On their part, the colonists claimed exactly the same rights as if they were still living in the Netherlands. They expressed no wish for a change in the form of government, what they desired being merely that the control of affairs should be placed in honest hands. In their opinion they forfeited nothing by

removal to South Africa, and the violence displayed by the governor towards Adam Tas and his associates was as outrageous as if it had taken place in the city of Amsterdam. They asserted their undoubted right to personal liberty, to exemption from arrest unless under reasonable suspicion of crime, to admission to bail, to speedy trial before a proper court of justice, to freedom to sell to any one, burgher or foreigner, except under special circumstances when restriction was needed for the good of the community, whatever their land produced, after the tithes had been paid and the Company's needs had been supplied. And these claims, made in as explicit terms as they could be to-day by an Englishman living in a crown colony, were not challenged by the directors or even the partisans of the late governor, but were accepted by every one as unquestioned.

In 1710 the island of Mauritius was abandoned by the Dutch East India Company, the directors having come to the conclusion that it was not worth the cost of maintaining a large garrison, and that with a small garrison it was not secure. A few colonists who were there had the choice of removal to South Africa or to Java, and nine families elected to come to this country. A few months later the French took possession of the island, and under them it soon became a place of importance.

In 1713 a terrible evil came upon the country. In March of that year the small-pox made its first appearance in South Africa. It was introduced by means of some clothing belonging to ships' people who had been ill on the passage from India, but

who had recovered before they reached Table Bay. This clothing was sent to be washed at the Company's slave lodge, and the women who handled it were the first to be smitten. The Company had at the time about five hundred and seventy slaves of both sexes and all ages, nearly two hundred of whom were carried off within the next six months.

From the slaves the disease spread to the Europeans and the natives. In May and June there was hardly a family in the town that had not some one sick or dead. Traffic in the streets was suspended, and even the children ceased to play their usual games in the squares and open places. At last it was impossible to obtain nurses, though slave women were being paid at the rate of four and five shillings a day. All the planks in the stores were used, and in July it became necessary to bury the dead without coffins. During that dreadful winter nearly one-fourth of the European inhabitants of the town perished, and only when the hot weather set in did the plague cease.

The disease spread into the country, but there the proportion of white people that perished was not so large as in the town. It was easier to keep from contact with sick persons. Some families living in secluded places were quite shut off from the rest of the colony, and the farmers in general avoided moving about.

The death-rate among the free blacks was very high, but it was among the Hottentots that it reached its maximum. Whole kraals in the neighbourhood of the Cape peninsula disappeared without

leaving a single representative. The unfortunate clans when attacked, believing that they were bewitched, gave way to despair, and made no effort to save themselves. The beachrangers in Table Valley did not even remove the dead from their huts, but sat down and awaited their own turn without a gleam of hope.

When the disease ceased there were only dejected remnants left of the old tribes of the Hessequa, Chainouqua, Goringhaiqua, Cochoqua, and Grigriqua. Beyond them it had not spread. After this date these tribal titles are not found in official records or accounts by travellers, and the Hottentot clans that remained within a hundred miles of the castle ceased to be regarded as of any importance. They continued as before to be governed by their own chiefs without interference from the European authorities except when they committed crimes against white people or slaves, there were reserves specially set apart for their use, and they were at liberty to roam over any land not occupied by colonists; but they were without influence or power, and their friendship was no longer courted nor their enmity feared.

It does not appear that the Bushmen suffered from the small-pox, for by some chance they did not come into contact with other people while it was prevalent. In general there was war between them and the colonists. As the game was destroyed or retreated, they turned to the oxen and sheep of the graziers for sustenance, and it was then a matter of necessity to expel them from their haunts. They would not, or could not, accommodate themselves to the new

order of things that was growing up around them, and therefore they were doomed to perish. But the struggle was a severe one, and there were times when it almost seemed as if the wild people would be able to turn back the wave of colonisation that was spreading over the country. They managed to inflict heavy losses upon the Europeans by burning houses and driving off cattle, and occasionally a man or a woman died from the poison of their arrows; but in the long run the combined action of the farmers and the superiority of the flintlock over the bow decided the question against them.

In 1721 the Company established a station at Delagoa Bay, with the object of opening up a trade along the eastern coast. This station was a dependency of the Cape government, just as Mauritius had been. But the place proved exceedingly unhealthy, and the trade in gold, ivory, copper, and slaves was very much smaller than had been anticipated. On one occasion, also, the factory was surprised and plundered by pirates. Attempts were repeatedly made to explore the country and find the place from which a little alluvial gold was brought by occasional black visitors, but the parties sent out never succeeded in getting beyond the Lebombo mountains, as either fever attacked them or hostile Bantu barred the way. In every respect the station was a failure, and therefore, after maintaining it for nearly ten years at a great sacrifice of life and money, the Company abandoned it.

After the punishment inflicted upon Wilhem Adrian van der Stel and his associates, the govern-

ment of the Cape Colony was conducted for nearly three-quarters of a century in a fairly honest manner, and no complaint of tyranny or oppression was made by the people. The system of administration, indeed, opened a door to abuses that in the same form would not be tolerated now, and they were certainly of a grave nature. Thus a perquisite of the store-keeper was to buy at one rate of exchange of silver money and to sell at another rate, by which he gained a commission of nearly eight pence in the pound. The victualler was allowed to require a few pounds overweight in every bag of grain that the Company purchased from a farmer, and to place the surplus to his own credit. The police magistrate, as his perquisite, kept half the fines which he inflicted for contravention of simple regulations as well as for crimes. The governor himself and the officer second in rank had as perquisites a fixed sum deducted from the purchase amount of every cask of wine brought to the Company's stores.

But as this was the established order of things, the colonists submitted to it without complaint. Sometimes they grumbled about bad seasons, or the destruction of their crops by locusts, or the low prices given for farm produce; and cattle diseases of one kind or other often caused them much loss. When foreign vessels were in Table Bay, too, there was always much dissatisfaction if the Company required anything that was saleable at a large profit. There was never any distress, however, through want of the necessaries of life, nor was there any inter-

ference by the government with the recognised rights of the people.

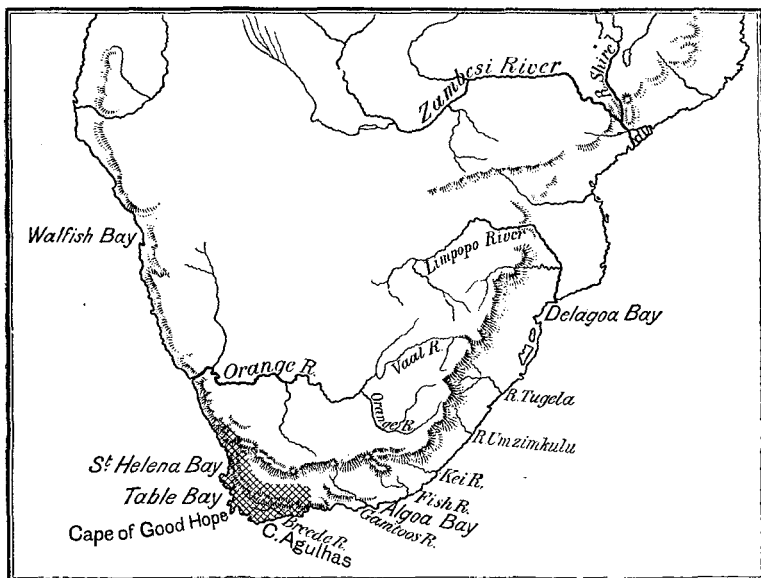
Experiments in the cultivation of various plants were frequently made by order of the directors, in the hope of finding something beside wheat and wine that would pay the farmers to grow and the Company to export. The olive was tried again and again, but always without success. Tobacco, indigo, and flax were also fruitlessly experimented with. Great expectations were once raised by the production of eight pounds of raw silk, but that also proved a failure, as the returns were so trifling that people would have nothing to do with it.


In the winter season Table Bay was unsafe, being exposed to the fury of north-west gales, and the Company had often sustained heavy losses by shipwreck there. Thus, in a terrible gale during the night of the 16th of June 1722 seven Dutch and three English vessels were driven ashore, and six hundred and sixty men were drowned. On this occasion property valued at nearly £250,000 was destroyed. And on the 21st of May 1737 nine vessels belonging to the Company were wrecked, and two hundred and eight lives were lost. The cost price of the cargo alone which was strewn on the beach was £160,000.

These and many other disasters caused the directors to issue orders that a mole should be constructed in Table Bay, so as to form a safe harbour, and in the meantime their ships were to refresh at Simon's Bay from the 15th of May to the 15th of August, the season when gales from the

north-west are common. Simon's Bay offered secure shelter during the winter season, but there was a drawback to its use in difficulty of access by land, which made the supplying a ship with fresh provisions very expensive. In 1742 it was first used as a port of call. A village then sprang up on its southern shore, which received the name Simons-town.

The mole in Table Bay was commenced in February 1743. As it was held to be a work of importance to the colony as well as to the Company, a tax was levied upon all the white people in the settlement. Those in the Cape peninsula were assessed at the labour of one hundred and fifty-three stout slaves for two months in the year, and those in the country at £293 in money or provisions. All the Company's slaves and all the waggons and cattle that could be spared from other work were employed upon the mole. A strong gang of convicts was sent from Batavia to assist in its construction. By the close of 1746 it was three hundred and fifty-one feet in length from the shore, but the work was then stopped. The convicts from Java had nearly all died from change of climate and excessive fatigue, and the burghers declared that they could not pay their quota any longer. The expense was found to be beyond the means of the Company, though it was believed that if the work could be completed Table Bay would be a perfectly safe harbour. The base of the mole is still to be seen like a reef running out from the shore, and its site is called Mouille Point on that account to the present day.



EXTENT OF THE CAPE COLONY IN 1750 

By this time the settlement extended so far that it was considered necessary to provide two more churches in the parts most thickly populated and a court of justice for the colonists on the frontier. In 1743 a clergyman was stationed at Roodezand, now the village of Tulbagh, and a church was established there. Two years later a clergyman and a schoolmaster were appointed to Zwartland, and went to reside at the warm bath, the site of the present village of Malmesbury. In 1745 a landdrost was stationed at a place thereafter known as the village of Swellendam, and a board of heemraden was appointed, just as at Stellenbosch. A dividing line was laid down between the districts of Stellenbosch and Swellendam, and also between the Cape and Stellenbosch; but on the north and the east the boundary was declared to be "where the power of the honourable Company ends."

VIII.

COURSE OF EVENTS IN THE CAPE COLONY FROM 1750 TO 1785.

FROM 1751 to 1771 the colony was governed by Ryk Tulbagh, a man of very high moral character and considerable ability, who had risen by merit alone from the humblest position in the Company's service. Though two great troubles fell upon the country within this period, it was always regarded by the old colonists as the brightest time during Dutch rule in South Africa. The governor was firm, but just and benevolent, and was so beloved that he was commonly called Father Tulbagh.

One of the troubles referred to was an outbreak of small-pox—the second that occurred in South Africa—that terrible scourge having been introduced at the beginning of the winter of 1755 by a home-ward-bound fleet from Ceylon. At first it was supposed to be a kind of fever, but after a few days there were cases that admitted of no doubt. It assumed, however, various forms, and among some of the distant Hottentot tribes differed in appearance so much from what was held to be true small-pox that the Europeans termed it gall sickness.

In Capetown hardly a single adult who was attacked recovered. In July the weather was colder than usual, and during that month over eleven hundred persons perished. If that death-rate had continued, before the close of the year there would have been no one left, but as soon as the warm weather set in the disease became milder. Two great hospitals were opened: one for poor Europeans, supported by church funds, the other for blacks. To the latter all slaves who were attacked were sent, the expense being borne by their owners. Those who recovered were employed as nurses. In Capetown from the beginning of May to the end of October nine hundred and sixty-three Europeans and eleven hundred and nine blacks died.

In the country the white people did not suffer very severely, as they kept so secluded on their farms that for several months hardly a waggon load of produce was taken to town for sale. The government excused the muster of the burghers for drill, and even the services in the churches were not attended by people from a distance.

With the Hottentot tribes that escaped on the former occasion the disease created fearful havoc. Not one was left unscathed, except the Korana along the Orange and its branches. On the coast northward to Walvis Bay and eastward until Bantu were reached, the tribes as such were utterly destroyed. The individuals that remained were thereafter blended together under the general name of Hottentots, and their old distinguishing titles became lost even among themselves.

How far the disease extended among the Bantu cannot be stated with certainty. These people had pushed their outposts as far westward as the Keiskama, and at least one Hottentot tribe—the Damaqua—had been incorporated by them, while another—the Gonaqua—was beginning to be assimilated. According to Tembu traditions the territory between the Kei and the Bashee was almost depopulated by the small-pox, and the clans between the Kei and the Keiskama must have suffered severely, but to what extent those beyond the Bashee were affected is not known.

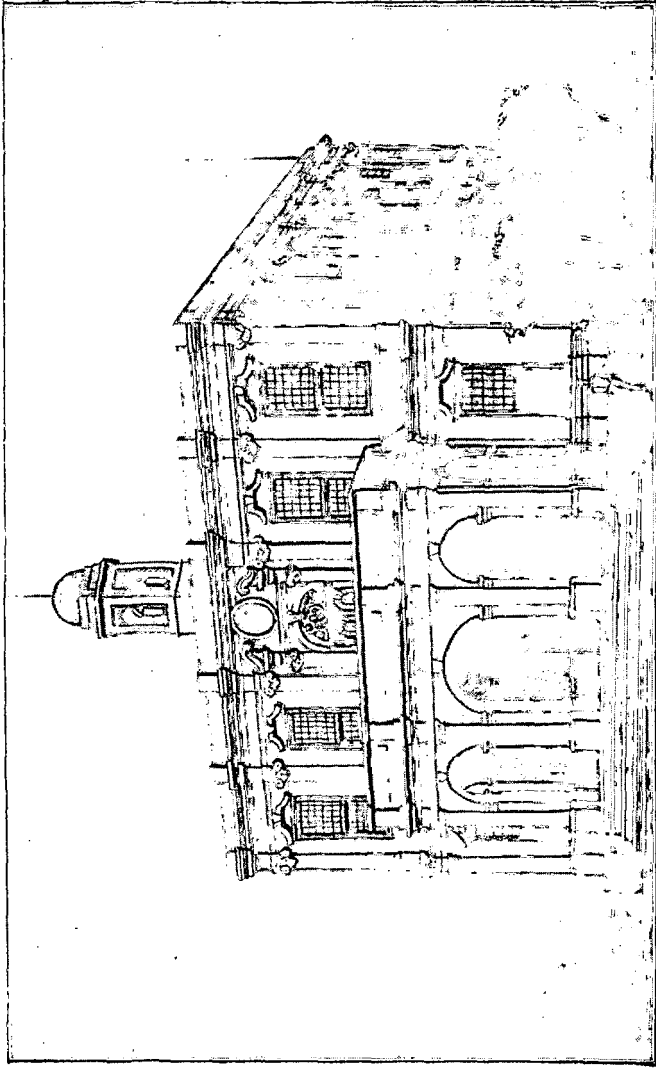
The other trouble was a depression in the price of agricultural produce, especially of wine, that brought the colonists to the verge of bankruptcy. The Company had been in the habit of purchasing a considerable quantity of wine for sale and consumption in India, where it was served out instead of spirits to the soldiers and sailors, but so many complaints were made about its quality that in 1755 its use there was nearly abandoned. By some chance just at this time very few foreign ships put into Table Bay, so that the market was glutted with produce for which there was no demand. Prices fell lower than had ever been known before, and the farmers saw nothing but ruin before them.

But South Africa has always been a country of sudden reversions from adversity. In this instance matters were at their worst when in December 1758 a large fleet of French men-of-war and transports with troops arrived from Mauritius, purposely to refresh and lay in a supply of provisions. At once

the price of produce doubled or trebled, and all the surplus stock was disposed of. There was then war between Great Britain and France, and the representatives of both nations in India soon came to look upon the Cape Colony as a convenient source of supply. The officers of French packets from Mauritius and of English packets from St. Helena bid against each other in Capetown for cattle and meal and wine, so that until March 1763, when tidings of the conclusion of peace were received, the farmers enjoyed unusual prosperity.

During Mr. Tulbagh's administration some previously unexplored parts of the country were carefully examined. One expedition travelled along the coast eastward to the Kei, and in returning kept as close as possible to the foot of the Amatola mountains and the Winterberg. West of the Tyumie river this party found no inhabitants except Bushmen. A botanist who was with the expedition brought back many specimens of plants then strange to Europeans, which he afterwards cultivated in the garden in Capetown. Another exploring party made its way far into Great Namaqualand. Among its spoils was the skin of a giraffe, an animal that never roamed south of the Orange river, and consequently was unknown to the colonists. The skin was sent by Governor Tulbagh to the museum of Leiden, together with many specimens of the animals and plants of South Africa.

Capetown at this time contained six or seven thousand inhabitants, rather more than half of whom were slaves. It had but one church building, but



THE OLD BURGER WATCH-HOUSE, CAPETOWN.

there were three clergymen. The houses were commodious, though commonly but one story in height. In front of each was an elevated terrace, called a stoep, on which the inhabitants lounged in the evenings. In the principal streets were miniature canals, that served for drainage purposes, and along which were rows of trees as in the Netherlands. The town was patrolled at night by a burgher watch. The watch-house, built while Mr. Tulbagh was governor, is still standing, and until recently served as municipal offices. It is now used as an art gallery, and in it is kept a magnificent collection of pictures presented to South Africa by a gentleman named Michaelis.

The village of Stellenbosch had grown to be a very pretty place, and was quite embowered with oak-trees and rose hedges. It was a custom for old people to live there, so as to be near the church and to provide homes for their grandchildren attending school, while men and women in the prime of life were occupied in their vineyards and orchards or on their farms.

Simonstown contained several large buildings belonging to the Company, but had not many private residences of much importance. Most of the families, indeed, moved to Capetown for the summer, and the place was then almost deserted.

Swellendam and Paarl were mere hamlets, consisting of large gardens, orchards, and vineyards along a single street. Both were in charming situations as far as scenery was concerned, and their beauty was increased by a row of oak-trees on each

side of the road. Swellendam had no clergyman, but was provided with a school, and the teacher conducted religious services. Its most prominent building was the drostdy, as the courthouse and residence of the landdrost was termed. The clergyman of the Drakenstein congregation resided at Paarl, and the church building was there. The hamlet had a school, but no courthouse, as it was within the magistracy of Stellenbosch.

While Mr. Tulbagh was governor the colonists spread out eastward to the Little Fish river and northward to the headwaters of many of the streams that flow into the Orange. They did not indeed occupy one-tenth of all the land embraced within these limits, but they took possession of the choicest spots for grazing cattle, and went beyond extensive tracts that were less suited to their needs.

Governor Tulbagh died in 1771. His successor, Mr. Joachim van Plettenberg, was a man of very different character. He was not devoted to money-making like Wilhem Adrian van der Stel, but he allowed his subordinates to do what they pleased, and many of them were not ashamed to resort to nefarious practices to increase their possessions. In consequence the residents in Capetown and the burghers who lived by agriculture were soon in a state of unrest. The graziers, who seldom came in contact with an official, were much less subject to oppressive treatment, and in general did not concern themselves much with what went on at the seat of government.

In 1778 the governor made a tour through the colony. On the Zeekoe river, near the present

village of Colesberg, he set up a beacon to mark the extent of his journey and the north-eastern limit of the colony. When returning to Capetown by another route, he inspected the bay which still bears his name, and caused another beacon to be erected there. At Willem Prinsloo's farm on the Little Fish river, the site of the present village of Somerset East, the governor stayed several days. There the frontier graziers and hunters assembled to meet him and make him acquainted with their condition and wants. Their principal requests were very commendable, for what they desired most earnestly was that a magistrate and a clergyman might be stationed with them. The governor forwarded a report of this interview to the directors, with a recommendation that the desires of the frontiersmen should be complied with. The result was that in 1786 a landdrost—as head of a new district—was stationed at a place which received the name Graaff-Reinet, and soon afterwards a clergyman went to reside there.

From Prinsloo's farm Governor Van Plettenberg sent messengers to invite the nearest Bantu chiefs to visit him. The Bantu tribe farthest in advance was the Xosa, and some of its clans were then living on the Tyumie and Kat rivers, while nearer the sea the remnant of the Gonaqua tribe of Hottentots, whose territory was between the Fish river and the Keiskama, had by mixture of blood become practically incorporated with it. Several of the chiefs accepted the governor's invitation, and a friendly conference took place, at which it was arranged that the lower course of the Fish river should be a dividing line between

the Bantu and the Europeans. In November 1780 this agreement was formally sanctioned by the council, and thereafter for many years the lower Fish river was regarded as the eastern boundary of the colony.

On the northern border the struggle between the colonists and the Bushmen was incessant. The wild people had been obliged to retire before the advancing wave of colonisation, and they seemed now to be massed in the mountains bordering the great plain south of the Orange river, while the graziers were scattered over the choicest pastures along the same range. Horned cattle, sheep, and goats were driven off in hundreds together, the herdsmen were murdered, and from several places the Europeans were obliged to retire. In May 1774 a commandant was appointed for the northern border, and a plan was made to eject the Bushmen from their strongholds and restore the farmers to the places from which they had been driven.

At the beginning of summer a combined force of burghers, half-breeds, and Hottentots, in three divisions acting in concert, took the field. The country for more than three hundred miles along the great mountain range was scoured, and all the Bushmen found who would not surrender were shot. According to the reports furnished to the government, five hundred and three were killed and two hundred and thirty-nine taken prisoners. Some of these were afterwards released, and others were bound to the farmers for a term of years.

It was hoped that this punishment would deter the Bushmen from thieving, but it had no such effect.

They became even more troublesome than before, and it was with difficulty that the graziers held their own. The wild people were really fighting for existence, as the Europeans destroyed the game wherever they settled and left the aborigines nothing to exist upon.

Another enemy also had now to be reckoned with, for the extension of the settlement had brought the Europeans face to face with the Xosas, a people who might be called civilised when compared with Bushmen, but who were almost as expert stock-lifters. The arrangement made by Governor Van Plettenberg and the chiefs who met him at Prinsloo's farm was not observed for a single year. In 1779 several Xosa clans crossed the Fish river and spread themselves over the present districts of Albany and Bathurst. They said they did not want to quarrel with the Europeans, and to prove the truth of their assertions they murdered a number of Hottentots and took their cattle, without molesting the colonists. But shortly they began to drive off the herds of the white people also, and in September 1779 the farmers of the invaded districts, together with those along the right bank of the Bushman's river, were obliged to withdraw to a place of safety.

Two commandos took the field against the intruders. The Xosas were attacked and defeated on several occasions, but they were not entirely driven to their own side of the Fish river. In the winter those who were supposed to have been subdued crossed again into the colony, together with many others, and it became evident that a grand effort must be made to expel them,

The government then appointed a farmer named Adrian van Jaarsveld commandant of the eastern frontier. He gave the Xosas notice that they must retire at once, or he would shoot them. One of the clans thought it prudent to remove, and was therefore not molested, but the others remained where they were.

The commandant thereupon collected all the European and Hottentot families of the frontier in a couple of lagers formed by drawing up waggons in a circle and filling the spaces between the wheels with thorn-trees. Leaving a few men to defend these camps, with ninety-two burghers and forty Hottentots, all mounted and well armed, he fell upon the Xosas and smote them hip and thigh. He was in the field less than two months, and when he disbanded his force there was not a Xosa west of the Fish river, and the first Kaffir war was over.

While the colony was in a state of disaffection and confusion, owing to misgovernment and strife with barbarians, tidings were received—March 1781—that Great Britain had declared war against the Netherlands, and that the republic was in alliance with France. The East India Company at this time was declining in prosperity, and was unable to maintain a large garrison in this country, where its yearly outlay was greater by about £25,000 than its income. Practically, therefore, Capetown was almost defenceless, and Great Britain had cast a covetous eye upon it as a half-way station to the great empire she was building up in Hindostan.

As soon as war was proclaimed, an English fleet with a strong body of troops was despatched under Commodore George Johnstone to seize the colony, but the object of the expedition was made known to the French government by a spy, and a squadron was hastily fitted out to thwart it. Pierre André de Suffren, in later years vice-admiral of France, was in command of the French ships.

Commodore Johnstone put into Porto Praya to take in a supply of fresh water, and anchored without any arrangements for defence, as he believed his destination was unknown to every one except the British government and himself. One of Suffren's ships was also in want of water, so he too steered for Porto Praya, and not expecting to find the English fleet there, made no preparations for action. Upon rounding a point of land he caught sight of his opponent, and pressed on with only half his ships to secure the advantage of surprise.

A sharp action followed, which ended by the French being beaten off, but some of the English ships were badly damaged. Suffren now pressed on under all the sail his vessels could carry, and upon his arrival at the Cape landed a strong body of French troops, who speedily made the peninsula secure against attack.

As soon as his fleet was refitted Johnstone followed, but learning the condition of things from the crew of a prize, he made no attempt upon the colony. He inflicted great damage upon the East India Company, however, by seizing several richly laden Indiamen that were waiting in

Saldanha Bay for men-of-war to escort them homeward.

To the great losses sustained during this war the bankruptcy of the Company has usually been attributed, but it may be doubted whether the corruption of its officials in the Indian islands had not as much to do with its downfall. As far as South African history is concerned, the cause is immaterial, the fact remains that the government of the Cape Colony now found itself unable to meet the calls upon it. It tried to borrow money on interest, but did not succeed in getting as much as it needed, and it then issued paper notes without any security excepting a promise to pay when possible, at the same time declaring these notes a legal tender for payment of debts. Some of them were redeemed a few years later, but others were afterwards issued, and then gold and silver disappeared from circulation and unsecured paper took their place.

The disaffection of the colonists in the vicinity of Capetown towards the government of Mr. Van Plettenberg was openly and fearlessly shown. In 1779 they sent four delegates to Holland to represent their grievances and endeavour to obtain redress. And now for the first time the burghers asked to be represented in the government, for they had been told by travellers of the events that had taken place on the other side of the Atlantic, and had begun to apply to themselves the political doctrines which the young republic was teaching. They asked also for free trade with the mother country and its eastern dependencies, and liberty to sell their produce to

foreigners without a license from the fiscal, as the chief law officer of the colony was termed. The practice of requiring a license had grown from a simple quarantine regulation to a source of great oppression, as the fiscal would do nothing unless he was heavily bribed. Many of the officials were openly keeping shops, and the burghers asked that this should be prohibited. Besides these they had several other grievances, most of which, however, can be summed up that they desired closer connection with Holland and less dependence upon Batavia.

But matters in the Netherlands were not as they had been in the time of Wilhem Adrian van der Stel. Then the East India Company was prosperous, and had many enemies always attacking it and bringing its transactions to light, so that there was a guarantee for the good government of its possessions. Now the Company was tottering to its fall, and men of all shades of opinion were doing their utmost to prop it up, as its crash might ruin the state. The directors, therefore, did not enter with alacrity into the unpleasant matter brought before them, though they appointed a committee to investigate the complaints. This committee sent copies of all the documents received from the delegates to the officials in the colony to report upon, and awaited the replies without doing anything further. The officials naturally tried to put their case in as good a light as possible, and the war gave them ample time for consideration.

Thus four full years elapsed before the committee sent in a report, and then it was to the effect that

the charges had not been proved. Almost the only relief recommended was that the high court of justice should consist of an equal number of officials and of burghers. The directors adopted this report, and thus the efforts of the burghers to obtain redress were so far a failure.

At this time the colonists were thriving, and it was supposed by the directors that they would not make much effort to disturb an order of things in which money was easily made. There had never before been such a demand for produce as that created by the large garrison and the French forces in the East. The Company's needs were very small during the war and for some time afterwards, so that little was taken at low prices. Many new trading houses had been opened by burghers. In Capetown there was a display of prosperity which astonished strangers. European and Indian wares in the greatest variety were introduced in large quantities by Danish ships, and though the prices asked were very high, they commanded a ready sale.

But the burghers of South Africa, though relishing keenly the pleasure of making money, have at every period of their history shown a firmer attachment to what they hold to be their political rights and liberties. If at times a few men have been found to waver between money and freedom from misrule, the women have never hesitated to reject wealth at the price of submission to wrong. On this occasion neither men nor women were disposed to let the question rest. The government resorted to various petty acts of tyranny, but the party opposed to it

grew in strength, and resolved now to appeal to the states-general.

The delegates were still in Holland, so documents were sent to them from the colony to be laid before the supreme authority of the republic. But as the directors now announced that they intended to replace the principal officials with other men, and to make a few small changes in the system of government and of carrying on trade, the states-general declined to take up the cause of the burghers until the effect could be seen. The colonists sent home other delegates to push their case, but these quarrelled with each other, and could therefore effect nothing. The agitation in South Africa did not cease, however, until the rule of the East India Company came to an end.

IX.

THE END OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S RULE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

THOUGH the condition of the East India Company was that of hopeless insolvency, as was afterwards seen, the directors managed to obtain large sums of money on loan, and among other expensive projects they resolved to fortify the Cape peninsula so that it should not again tempt an invader. With the consent of the states-general they sent out as governor an engineer officer named Cornelis Jacob van de Graaff, in order that he might direct the work, and they stationed here a large body of mercenary troops, chiefly German and Swiss regiments in their pay.

Colonel Van de Graaff took as little trouble to restrain the officials from acting unjustly as his predecessor had taken, and the new men were soon as corrupt as the old. They all knew that the end of the Company was at hand. Most of them were trying to make as much money as they could before the final crash, no matter by what means, and the governor, though free of that vice, had no scruple in

squandering the property entrusted to his care. No one at the Cape had ever before lived in such style. The horses, carriages, and servants at his town and country houses would have sufficed for the governor-general of India. There was reckless waste in everything that he took in hand. The public expenditure was made to exceed the revenue by nearly £92,000 a year, and though much of this was expended on military works, more was utterly thrown away.

In 1790 the money borrowed by the Company was exhausted, and as it was impossible to raise another loan, an immediate and great reduction of expenditure was unavoidable. The spendthrift governor was recalled, military works of every kind were stopped, and nearly the whole of the troops were sent to India.

The states-general now appointed a commission to examine the Company's affairs and report upon them, with the result that a supreme effort was made to prevent a collapse. Two men of ability—Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius—were sent to South Africa and India with power to reform abuses, increase revenue, and reduce expenditure. In June 1792 they arrived at the Cape and assumed control of affairs.

By increasing some of the old taxes and imposing new ones, the commissioners raised the revenue to rather over £30,000 a year. The white people in South Africa of all ages at this time were about fifteen thousand in number, so that on an average each paid £2 a year to the government. With this increase of revenue, and by reducing expenses in

every way that seemed possible, the balance of loss to the Company was brought down to £27,000 a year.

Distress, consequent upon the reduction of the garrison and an almost total cessation of trade, was now general. Professedly to relieve it, and at the same time to increase the revenue, the commissioners established a loan bank in connection with the government. Paper was stamped to represent different sums, amounting in all to £135,000, was declared a legal tender, and was issued through the bank to applicants at six per cent interest on good security. By this means relief from pressure of debt was obtained by many landowners; but the effect of adding such an amount to the cartoon money already in circulation, with no gold to redeem it, was highly disastrous.

The commissioners redressed a few of the grievances of which the burghers complained, but they made no change in the form of government. They fixed the price at which the Company could demand as much wheat as it needed at about five shillings the hundred pounds, and gave the colonists permission to export the surplus to India or the Netherlands, provided it was sent in Dutch ships. They also threw open the trade in slaves with Madagascar and the east coast of Africa. At the same time they forbade the landing of any goods whatever from foreign vessels. Trade with strangers was restricted to the sale of provisions for money, unless special permission was first obtained from the government.

Against this order the residents in Capetown protested in the strongest language. "We live from God and the foreigners," they said, "and if the trade is stopped we must perish." The commissioners declined to cancel the regulation, but they were at length induced to suspend it for three years, which, as events turned out, amounted to the same thing.

The graziers on the eastern frontier were in as great trouble as the residents of Capetown. A powerful Xosa chief had recently died, leaving as his heir a boy of tender years, named Gaika. The counsellors of the tribe selected Ndlambe, an uncle of the lad, as regent, but some of the clans refused to submit to him, and in March 1789 they suddenly crossed the Fish river into the colony. The farmers fled before them, but were unable to save the whole of their cattle. The landdrost of Graaff-Reinet then called the burghers of the district to arms, and sent an express to Capetown with a request that the government would assist him with a hundred soldiers.

The government decided that war with the Xosas must be avoided at any cost. A commission was appointed to induce them to make peace, and was plainly instructed to purchase their good will. In the meantime the burghers had taken the field, when the Xosa clans, without waiting to be attacked, fell back to the Fish river. They were lying on the western bank, and the burghers were approaching, when the instructions of the government were received by the landdrost. The commando was at once discharged. Not a shot had been fired, nor a

single head of cattle recovered, so the burghers were indignant and almost mutinous when they were required to disband.

The commission then sought an interview with the Xosa chiefs, and tried by means of large presents and smooth words to induce them to retire to their own country; but as this did not succeed, an arrangement was made that they might occupy the land between the Fish river and the Kowie during good behaviour. Of course they attributed such a concession to the weakness of the white people, and in a short time they sent out parties to steal cattle far and wide. This condition of things lasted four years, until May 1793, when a reprisal was made upon a kraal by a party of farmers. The clans in the colony were then joined by many of their tribe beyond the Fish river, all eager for plunder, and in a very short time they spread over the whole of the coast lands as far as the Zwartkops river, burning the houses, driving off the cattle, and murdering all the farmers that fell in their way.

There were fully six thousand warriors west of the Fish river, and over sixty-five thousand head of cattle, taken from colonists, had been driven across that stream. The government therefore had no option, but was obliged to call out the burghers of Swellendam, and attempt to drive the intruders back and recover the booty. The control of operations, however, was entrusted to a man who professed to believe in the guilelessness of children of nature and who had more sympathy with the Xosas than with the Europeans, so that the campaign ended in

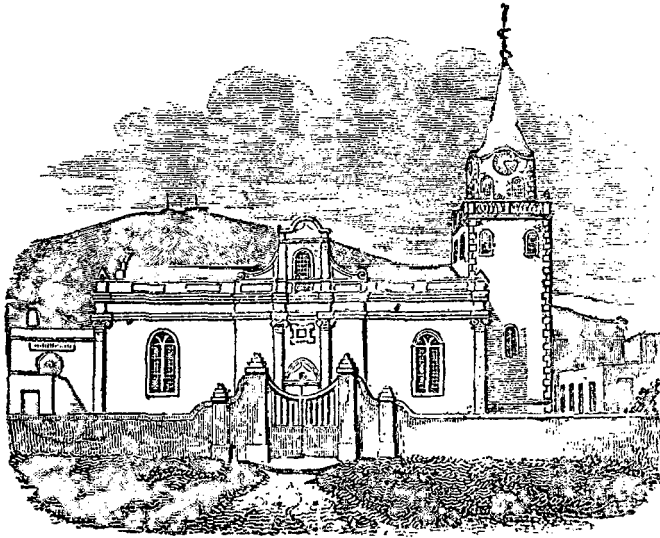
utter failure. The commandant then managed to get the chiefs to promise that they would live in peace with the white people, and upon this the government declared the second Kaffir war at an end.

The burghers were naturally dissatisfied, but the government took no notice of their request that some one in whom they could have confidence should be placed in command, and the war be prosecuted until the intruders were expelled from the colony. They were obliged to disperse, and they did so in a spirit which needed very little provocation to induce a revolt against the East India Company.

The Dutch reformed still continued to be the state church, but it was not now the only one in the colony. In 1780 the Lutherans were permitted to have a clergyman in Capetown, and in 1792 the Moravians founded the mission station Genadendal for the benefit of the Hottentots. This society had sent an evangelist to South Africa many years before, and he had met with nothing but kindness until he baptized some converts, when the government interfered, as in its opinion religious strife would follow the creation of a rival church. Now, however, more liberal views were entertained, and the Moravian clergymen met with hearty encouragement.

A great change was taking place in the Dutch reformed church itself, by the introduction of the teaching usually termed evangelical. The reverend Helperus Ritzema van Lier, a correspondent of the reverend John Newton, of Olney, and who was imbued with the same spirit as that celebrated

clergyman, created almost a revolution in Capetown. For the cold formal services of two or three hours' length, which constituted the principal duty of the earlier ministers, he substituted shorter sermons and prayers, more visitation of parishioners, frequent meetings for religious purposes, and incitement to acts of benevolence and charity. At this date



CHURCH OF LAST CENTURY IN CAPETOWN.

(From a Sketch by G. Thompson.)

mission work among the heathen was commenced by the colonial church, and it has ever since gone on increasing in volume. At this time also the philanthropic labours of a band of ladies in Capetown began, which resulted a few years later in the establishment of an orphan asylum, a mission chapel

and school, and a fund from which to the present day aged women in poor circumstances draw weekly allowances. The reverend Mr. Vos, of Tulbagh, belonged to the same school of thought as Mr. Van Lier, and his congregation set an example in mission work, which was shortly followed by others in the country.

Western Europe was now in the throes of the mightiest convulsion of modern times. France had become a republic. The people of the Netherlands were divided into two parties, one of which was in sympathy with the French, while the other favoured a stadtholderate with very large powers and the continuance of the alliance with England which had existed since 1788. The first was termed the patriot, the second the Orange party. An appeal to arms was unavoidable, and on the 1st of February 1793 a declaration of war with Great Britain and the stadtholder's government was issued at Paris.

Upon tidings of the outbreak of hostilities reaching South Africa, the commissioners formed all the clerks and junior officers in the civil service into a military company, which they termed the pennist corps, and they raised a company of half-breeds and Hottentots, put them in uniform, and set them to learn to be soldiers. This corps was termed the pandours. No other means could be devised of strengthening the colony.

Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius then appointed an old Indian official, named Abraham Josias Sluysken, head of the Cape government, and as soon as he took over the duty they proceeded to Java.

During 1794 the complaints of the burghers of Graaff-Reinet were unceasing with regard to the paper money, the stagnation of trade, the new taxes, and, above all, the arrangement with the Xosas which the authorities termed peace. The landdrost took no notice of their statements, so they requested the government to recall him, but Mr. Sluysken would not even listen to them. By this treatment their patience was at length exhausted.

In February 1795 they expelled the landdrost, and set up a republic of their own. No more absurd form of government than that which they established has ever existed, but it served their purpose. Adrian van Jaarsveld was appointed military commander of the new state. The burghers declared that they were not in rebellion against the Netherlands, but that they would be governed by the East India Company no longer. Mr. Sluysken had no force to send against them, so they had everything their own way.

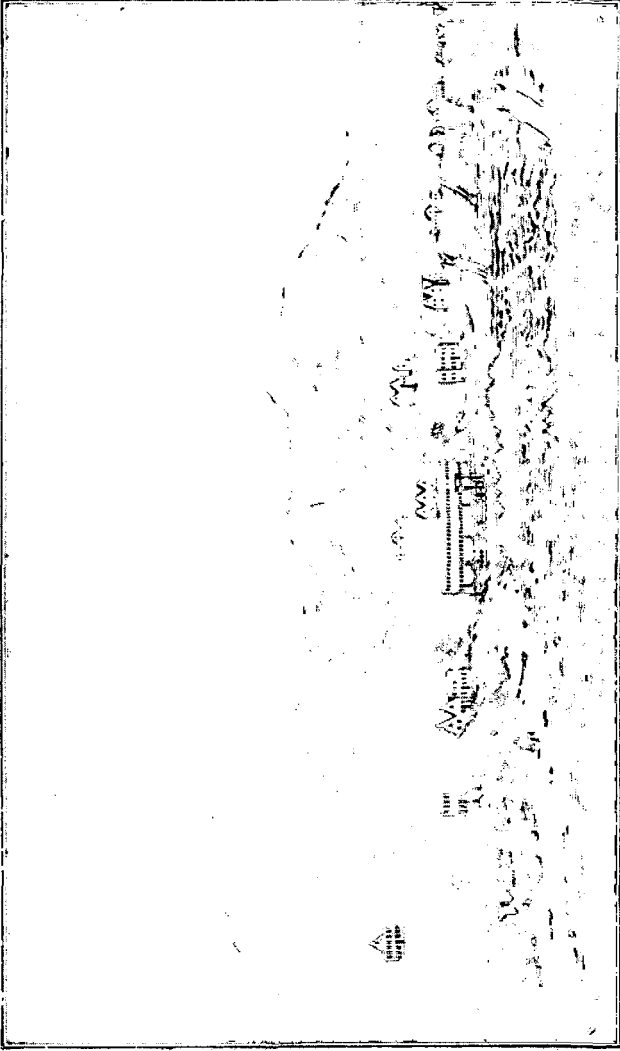
In June the people of Swellendam followed the example of those of Graaff-Reinet. They too expelled their landdrost, declared themselves a free republic, and elected a governing body which they termed a national assembly. In Stellenbosch and in Capetown there were many persons who sympathised with these movements, though they themselves did not proceed to the length of open rebellion. It is highly improbable that the puny states thus called into existence could have held their own for any length of time, as their commerce could easily be cut off; but, on the other hand, the East India Company

could not establish its authority over the distant colonists again. The country was really in a state of anarchy.

The troops in the Cape peninsula consisted of six hundred and twenty-eight infantry, four hundred and thirty engineers, and two hundred and ten pandours. The head of the whole force was Colonel Robert Jacob Gordon. The infantry regiment was termed the national battalion, though it was composed of men of various countries. It was commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel De Lille.

While matters in South Africa were in this condition the French were meeting with astonishing success in Europe. The winter of 1794-5 was so severe that towards the end of January the rivers were frozen hard, and their armies crossed into Utrecht and Gelderland, compelling the English forces to retire to Germany. The patriot party in the Netherlands gave them an enthusiastic welcome. The government was changed in form, the stadtholder made his escape to England in a fishing-boat, and the Batavian Republic, as the country was now named, entered into close alliance with France.

The British government immediately fitted out an expedition to seize the Cape Colony, and in hope of facilitating the conquest a mandate was obtained from the fugitive stadtholder requiring the authorities in Capetown to admit English troops into the castle and forts. In June 1795 the expedition arrived in Simon's Bay. Admiral Elphinstone and Major-General Craig, who were in command respectively of the sea and land forces, presented the



SIMONSTOWN IN 1795.
(From a Sketch by C. de Jongs.)

mandate to Mr. Sluysken and the council, who were in entire ignorance of recent events in Europe.

With hardly an exception the officials in South Africa sympathised with the Orange party, but they could not in decency openly obey an order issued in a foreign country by a fugitive prince. They therefore made many protestations of their duty to their country and of their determination to resist an invading force to the utmost, but their actions did not correspond with their words. There was but one way in which they could oppose the British forces with any hope of success, and that was by repudiating the East India Company and declaring for the patriot faction. The colonists, almost to a man, favoured that faction, as did the engineer corps and the few Dutch soldiers in the national battalion. The foreign soldiers in that battalion were disaffected, owing to being paid in paper money, and would not fight under any circumstances. But, with the engineers, from five to six hundred trained men were available, and at least two thousand burghers would have responded to an appeal to aid the patriot cause. Rather than this, however, Sluysken, Gordon, and De Lille were willing to let the English get possession of the country.

A long correspondence with the British officers followed, but it ended in nothing. Eighteen days after the arrival of the fleet in Simon's Bay the Dutch abandoned Simonstown, and concentrated their force at Muizenburg, a very strong natural position on the road to Capetown. A fortnight later eight hundred English soldiers were landed, and were quartered in deserted buildings.

On the 7th of August General Craig, at the head of sixteen hundred men, marched from Simonstown to attack the Dutch camp at Muizenburg. That position could easily have been made impregnable, but little or nothing had been done to strengthen it. De Lille, who was in command, did not even attempt to defend it, but fell back towards Capetown as the English approached. He would not resist the friends of the prince of Orange, and, indeed, shortly afterwards entered the English service. Some artillerymen under Lieutenant Marnitz and some burghers made a brief stand, but being abandoned by their commander and the national battalion, they were driven from the post. Besides securing the only obstacle to an advance upon Capetown, General Craig thus got possession of the greater part of the Dutch military stores and of a quantity of provisions, which he much needed. Two days later three hundred and fifty soldiers arrived from St. Helena to strengthen the force under his command.

Up to this time the burghers believed that the government was in earnest in opposing the English, and though they had little confidence in the military leaders and none at all in the national battalion, nearly fifteen hundred of them assembled in arms and were eager to defend the country. Even Swellendam sent a contingent, for the people there knew very well that if the English were masters of Capetown their republic would not last long. But now a belief began to spread that they were being betrayed, and every day some of those in arms left their colours and returned home,

On the 4th of September a fleet of English ships entered Simon's Bay with three thousand soldiers on board, under command of General Sir Alured Clarke. Some of them were destined for India, but as matters stood, they were all landed and sent on to Muizenburg. On the 14th two columns were formed, together between four and five thousand strong, and marched towards Capetown, sixteen miles distant by the road to be followed.

The Dutch forces, military and burgher, under Captain Van Baalen, were stationed at Wynberg, half way between Muizenburg and Capetown. Some burgher cavalry tried to harass the English troops on the march, and succeeded in killing one man and wounding seventeen, but the force to which they were opposed was too strong to be checked by any efforts that they could make.

Van Baalen drew up his troops as if he meant to stand firm, but as soon as the English were within range of his guns he retreated with the greater part of the national battalion. The burghers cried out that they were being betrayed and sold. It was a scene of confusion. One company of infantry and most of the engineers made a stand for a few minutes, and then fled towards Capetown, abandoning the camp with everything in it. The burghers, strongly impressed with the idea that Mr. Sluysken and Colonel Gordon, as well as the officers of the national battalion, were traitors at heart, and considering that if they fell back to Capetown they would be in a trap and must become prisoners of war, dispersed and returned to their homes.

The council then sent a messenger to the British officers, requesting a suspension of arms in order to arrange conditions of surrender, and at midnight General Clarke consented to an armistice for twenty-four hours. Next morning General Craig met the Dutch commissioners—Messrs. Van Ryneveld and Le Sueur—at Rondebosch, and after some discussion articles of capitulation were agreed to. These provided for the surrender of the Dutch troops, but the officers were to be at liberty either to remain in Capetown or to return to Europe, upon giving their word of honour not to serve against England while the war lasted. The colonists were to retain all their rights, including the existing form of religion. No new taxes were to be levied, but the old imposts were to be reduced as much as possible. Everything belonging to the East India Company was to be handed over to the English officers, but all other property was to be respected. The lands and buildings belonging to the Company were to be considered as security for the paper money in circulation.

At three o'clock in the afternoon of Wednesday, the 16th of September 1795, fourteen hundred British soldiers under General Craig arrived at the castle and drew up on the open ground in front. The Dutch troops marched out with colours flying and drums beating, passed by the English, and laid down their arms, surrendering as prisoners of war. In the evening General Clarke arrived with two thousand infantry and a train of artillery.

Thus ended the rule of the Dutch East India Company in South Africa, after an occupation of a

little over a hundred and forty-three years. The Company itself had ceased to exist before the symbol of its authority disappeared from the castle of Good Hope. Its administration until a quarter of a century before its fall, though by no means admirable, was as just and honest as that of any English foreign possession at the same time, because it had powerful opponents who kept a vigilant eye upon its proceedings ; but when that wholesome restraint was removed, its rule became corrupt and ruinous. Yet none of its acts even then were so unjust as prejudice has made them appear. Thus one English writer of eminence—Sir John Barrow—represented a regulation concerning the apprenticeship of children of slaves and Hottentot women living on farms as if it applied to the whole Hottentot race, and succeeding compilers copied his statement without question or doubt. Worse still, two English commissioners of inquiry, without taking the trouble to investigate the matter, reported upon a law concerning degraded Hottentot women and vagrants in Capetown as if the Hottentots everywhere had been made subject to its provisions ; and their report has been quoted again and again as proof of the merciless misgovernment of the East India Company. Now that its records are open to inspection, such charges are known to be incorrect. It governed South Africa with a view to its own interests, its method of paying its officials was bad, its system of taxation was worse, in the decline of its prosperity it tolerated many gross abuses ; but it cannot in fairness be accused of overbearing tyranny or cruelty towards either Europeans or Hottentots.

X.

THE FIRST BRITISH OCCUPATION.

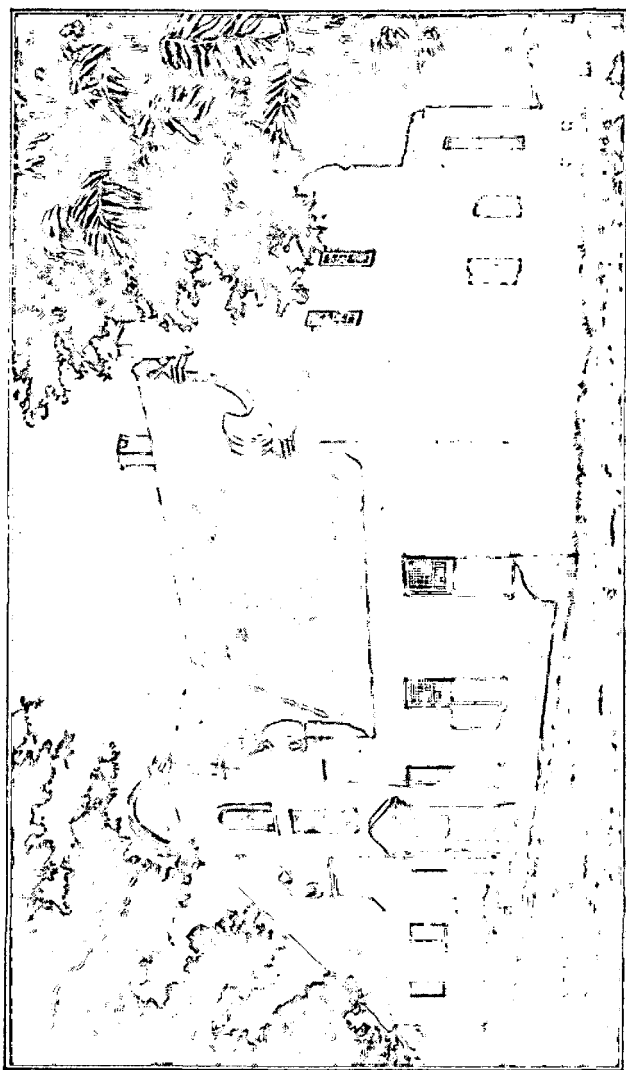
THE surrender of the Cape Colony to the British forces brought together two branches of the same race, for conquerors and conquered were of one stock. Of all the nations of Europe the inhabitants of the northern Netherlands are the closest in blood to the people of England and Scotland. During the centuries that they had been separated, however, their training had been different, so that many slight variations had arisen. Though in the most important features their characters were the same, each regarded the variations in the other as blemishes, and often made more of them than was fair or honest. If this can be said of Englishmen and Dutchmen in Europe, it can be asserted more strongly of Englishmen and Dutchmen when they first came in contact in South Africa, for in this country circumstances had tended greatly to develop a few traits.

The system of taxation had been pernicious in its effects upon the character of the people. There were exceptions, but in general the farmers had come to

regard very lightly the giving in the number of their cattle and the produce of their lands at less than a third of the true quantity. A man, whose word under other circumstances might be depended upon, in this matter would utter deliberate falsehoods without any twinges of conscience, and even thought he was justified in doing so because the returns he was supplying were for taxation purposes. This trait in the character of the burghers was at once detected by the Englishmen with whom they came in contact, and made a very bad impression.

On the other hand, the habit of most Englishmen of that time of distorting accounts of national events made an equally bad impression upon the South African burghers, and thus each regarded the other as untruthful.

The system of perquisites by which the East India Company's officials were paid had caused another ugly trait to be unduly developed in the character of many of the colonists. Accustomed to be mulcted of petty amounts in every transaction, they had come to consider it rather a proof of cleverness than an immoral act to get the better of those with whom they were bargaining. It was regarded as nothing more than fair retaliation to cheat the government and its officers whenever and by whatever means it could be done. The tendency to dishonest and deceitful practices was made much of by unfriendly critics, though it was far from general, and at its worst was not greater than that of traders elsewhere who sell a bad article at the price of a good one.



SOUTH AFRICAN FARMHOUSE OF THE BETTER CLASS IN 1795.

The burghers were charged with being very ignorant. Excepting those in Capetown, they had hardly any education from books, and knew nothing more than how to read, write, and compute a little. All had bibles, the psalms in metre, and the Heidelberg catechism; but few possessed any books on secular subjects. Yet no people on earth were less stupid. They filled the offices of elders and deacons in the churches, of heemraden in the courts of law, of commandants in war, with as much ability as educated people in Europe could have shown.

The colonists at a distance from Capetown were described as living in a very rough style. Their houses were small, poorly furnished, and untidy, said English visitors. It was true that the frontier farmers did not build large houses, for they were constantly liable to be plundered and driven away by savages. As soon as a district became tolerably safe, however, comfortable dwellings were put up by all who had means. The untidiness complained of was the result of the employment of coloured servants. The ancestors of the colonists brought to South Africa the cleanly and orderly habits of the people of the Netherlands; but in many instances families had been unable to sustain the effort of compelling their servants to be neat and clean, and had fallen into the way of letting things take their course. But this was not peculiar to the Cape Colony: it was the case wherever coloured people were employed as domestics. Mrs. Stowe's picture of Aunt Dinah's kitchen is just as faithful with the scene laid in Louisiana as if it had been laid in South Africa.

The other faults attributed to the colonists were those of country people all the world over. They were inclined to bigotry in religious matters, were very plain in their language, and loved to impose marvellous tales upon credulous listeners. They were accused of indolence by some English visitors, but that was not a charge that could fairly be made. The man who managed either a grain or wine or cattle farm so as to make it pay had sufficient occupation without doing much manual labour.

On their side, the colonists found just as great faults in the English character. They pictured Englishmen as arrogant above all other mortals, as insatiable in the pursuit of wealth, as regardless of the rights of others, and as viewing everything with an eye jaundiced by national prejudice.

And yet, with all these harsh opinions of each other, there was really so little difference between English people and South Africans that as soon as they came together matrimonial connections began to be formed. The attractions of blood were stronger after all than prejudices born of strife and want of knowledge.

In the blemishes of the colonial character that have been described, there was nothing that education of a healthy kind would not rectify, and against them could be set several virtues possessed in a very high degree. The colonists were an eminently self-reliant people, and seldom lost heart under difficulties. In tenacity of purpose they were without equals. Their hospitality was admitted even by those who were determined to see in them nothing else that was

praiseworthy, and their benevolence towards persons in distress was very highly developed. There was no part of the world where a well-behaved and trustworthy stranger more readily met with assistance and genuine friendship.

Though the British troops were in possession of Capetown, the people of the country districts were not disposed to acknowledge the new authorities. The greater number of the farmers retired to their homes, declaring that they did not consider themselves bound by the acts of the late government. Under these circumstances every possible effort to soothe the colonists was made by the British commanders. The people of Capetown were treated in such a manner as to dispel their anxiety, and they were assured that they would presently be in the enjoyment of such liberty and good fortune as they had never known before. Many of the old servants of the East India Company, who were willing to take an oath to be faithful to the king of England as long as he should hold the colony, were retained in employment, and most of the clerks in the different offices were allowed to keep their situations.

The paper money in circulation amounted to rather more than a quarter of a million pounds sterling, and was a source of much anxiety to its holders. The British commanders announced that it would be received at the public offices at its full nominal value. They also abolished a very obnoxious tax on auction accounts, and substituted for the old burgher councillors a popular board termed the burgher senate. Two days after the capitulation they sent a document

over the country, in which a promise was made that every one might buy from whom he would, sell to whom he would, employ whom he would, and come and go whenever or wherever he chose, by land or by water. The farmers were invited to send their cattle and produce to Capetown, where they could sell whatever they wished in the manner most profitable for themselves, and the English would pay for anything purchased in hard coin. They were also invited to send persons to confer with the British commanders, if there was any matter upon which they wished for explanation.

These measures had the desired effect in the Cape and Stellenbosch districts, and no opposition was made there to the new authorities. In Swellendam also, after a short time, the people decided to abolish the republic, and to submit to the English. An attempt to hold out was, however, made by the burghers of Graaff-Reinet, acting chiefly under guidance of a man named Jan Pieter Woyer. Supplies of ammunition and goods of every kind were therefore cut off from them, with the result that before the close of 1796 they too were obliged to tender a nominal submission, though they were in hope that before long aid from abroad would enable them to recover their independence.

Woyer had left the country in a Danish ship bound to Java, that put into Algoa Bay, where vessels were then very rarely seen. Six French frigates happened to be at anchor in Batavia Roads when he arrived there. The admiral sent one with a supply of powder and lead for the Graaff-Reinet farmers, but when she

reached Algoa Bay an English ship of war happened to be there, and after a short action the frigate was obliged to retire. The government of Java also sent a vessel laden with munitions of war, clothing, sugar, and coffee, for the use of the farmers. It was intended that her cargo should be landed at Algoa Bay, but in a storm the vessel was so much damaged that she put into Delagoa Bay to be repaired, and in that port was seized by the crew of an English whaler, aided by a few Portuguese.

A fleet of nine ships, sent from Holland under command of Admiral Lucas, also failed in the object of aiding the colonists against the English. The admiral put into Saldanha Bay, and was there caught as in a trap between a much stronger British fleet on one side and a large British army on the other. On the 17th of August 1796 he was obliged to surrender his ships and nearly two thousand soldiers and sailors, without even an attempt to resist.

Admiral Elphinstone and General Clarke only remained in South Africa a few weeks after the capitulation. They then went on to India, leaving General Craig at the head of the Cape government. This officer did his utmost to place English rule before the colonists in as favourable a light as possible, and though as a conqueror he could not be loved, as a man he was highly respected.

When tidings of the conquest reached England, the high authorities resolved that the Cape Colony should be ruled by a man of rank, who should have all the power held by the governor and the council under the Dutch East India Company. A very strong garrison

was to be maintained in Capetown, and the officer in command was to act as administrator in case of the governor's death or absence.

Accordingly the earl of Macartney, an old Irish nobleman who had done good service in India, was sent out as governor, and took over the duty in May 1797. His administration was free of the slightest taint of corruption, but was conducted on very strict lines. Those colonists who professed to be attached to Great Britain were treated with favour, while those who preferred a republic to a monarchy were obliged to conceal their opinions, or they were promptly treated as guilty of sedition. There never was a period in the history of the country when there was less freedom of speech than at this time. All the important offices were given to men who could not speak the Dutch language, and who drew such large salaries from the colonial treasury that there was little left for other purposes. An oath of allegiance to the king of England was demanded from all the burghers. Many objected, and a few did not appear when summoned to take it. The governor was firm, dragoons were quartered upon several of those who were reluctant, and others were banished from the country.

The free trade promised in 1795 also came to an end. Commerce with places to the east of the Cape of Good Hope was restricted to the English East India Company, and heavy duties were placed upon goods from the westward brought in any but English ships. British goods brought from British ports in British ships were admitted free of duty. The government

resumed the power to put its own prices upon farm produce, and to compel delivery at those rates of all that was needed for the garrison and the ships of war frequenting Simon's Bay. The prices fixed, however, were fair and reasonable, and the burghers did not object to sell at such rates, though among themselves they spoke very bitterly of the arbitrary rule to which they were subjected.

In November 1798 the earl of Macartney returned to Europe on account of his health. Major-General Francis Dundas then acted as administrator until December 1799, when Sir George Yonge arrived from England as governor.

During this interval there was a petty insurrection by a party of farmers in Graaff-Reinet. The arrest of Adrian van Jaarsveld on a charge of forgery and setting a summons of the high court of justice at defiance was the immediate cause of the outbreak. The old commandant was being conveyed to Cape-town for trial when he was rescued by a band of frontiersmen, the same who had been the last to submit to British authority. A strong military force, consisting of a squadron of dragoons, a regiment of infantry, and a Hottentot corps, was at once sent to quell the disturbance. This was an easy matter, as the great majority of the people of the district of Graaff-Reinet declined to aid the insurgents, who thereupon sent in a petition for pardon. The officer in command of the troops replied in writing that they must lay down their arms before he would have any dealings with them, and named a place where they could do so.

One hundred and thirteen men appeared at the place appointed, and gave up their arms to the troops. There was no promise of any kind in the document sent to them, but they were under the impression that pardon was implied in its terms, and therefore protested when they were made prisoners. Ninety-three were released upon payment of fines, and the remaining twenty were sent to Capetown, where they were placed in close confinement. Forty-two others afterwards gave themselves up, and were pardoned; but seven of the most violent fled into Kaffirland, where they were joined by a band of deserters from the British army, and lived for several years under protection of a powerful chief. Those who were sent to Capetown were brought to trial before the high court of justice, when two were condemned to death and the others to various kinds of punishment; but with the exception of one who was flogged and banished and two who died in confinement, they were all released by the high commissioner De Mist in 1803.

The appearance of the pandours on the frontier gave rise to a disturbance of another kind. Some of the Hottentots of that part of the country, seeing men of their own class in arms against colonists, very naturally felt an inclination to aid them, and began to plunder the farmhouses of guns, powder, and clothing. They shed no blood, however, and when they had secured what appeared to them to be sufficient booty, they repaired to the British camp with their wives and children, in the belief that they would be regarded as having acted in a praiseworthy manner. General Vandeleur, the officer in command, did not know

what to do with them. He allowed a hundred of the young men to enlist in the Hottentot regiment, and the others—about six hundred of both sexes and all ages—he sent to Algoa Bay with an escort to wait there until he could receive instructions concerning them from the government in Capetown.

A matter of much greater importance than either of these petty insurrections had unexpectedly arisen, and was claiming all his attention. Gaika, who was a boy at the time of the second Kaffir war, had recently attained manhood, and had then claimed the chieftainship to which he was by birth the heir. His uncle, the regent Ndlambe, was unwilling to resign, and a large party in the tribe declared its readiness to support him. Gaika appealed to arms, and a battle was fought, in which he was not only victorious but had the good fortune to take his uncle prisoner. Ndlambe was carelessly guarded, however, and in February 1799 he managed to escape, when with a great number of followers he crossed the Fish river into the colony. All the clans that had been living between the Fish river and the Kowie since the previous war, except one, joined the powerful refugee. The white people who were in or near the line of his march took to flight, some losing all they had, others who could collect their cattle in time driving them off and leaving everything else behind. In a few days the invaders were in full possession of the whole country along the coast to the Sunday river.

General Vandeleur had no intention of employing British soldiers against the Xosas, but as he was marching towards Algoa Bay, with a view of return-

ing to Capetown, he was attacked by them in a thicket on the bank of the Sunday river. He beat them off, and then fell back a little and formed a camp to enable a patrol of twenty men to join him. But this patrol had already been surrounded, and after a gallant defence all were killed except four men who managed to escape. The camp was hardly formed when it was attacked by the Xosas, who rushed on in masses with their assagai shafts broken short so that they could be used as stabbing weapons. These charges were met with volleys of musket balls and grape shot, that covered the ground with bodies, until at length the Xosas turned and fled.

The general then marched to Algoa Bay. After fortifying a camp on the Zwartkops river, he sent some of his soldiers to Capetown by sea, and called out a burgher commando to expel the invaders. The Hottentots who had plundered the frontier farm-houses were still at the bay drawing rations, and he thought it prudent to disarm them; but upon the attempt being made they fled in a body and joined the Xosas.

At the beginning of June a burgher commando assembled at the Bushman's river, but instead of attacking the intruders, General Vandeleur tried to persuade them to retire. Thus the farmers lost heart by being kept waiting, and many dispersed, while the Xosas came to believe that the white men were afraid of them. They and the insurgent Hottentots then overran and pillaged the country far and wide. By the close of July twenty-nine white people had lost their lives, there was hardly a house left standing east

of the Gamtoos, and nearly all the cattle were in the hands of the marauders.

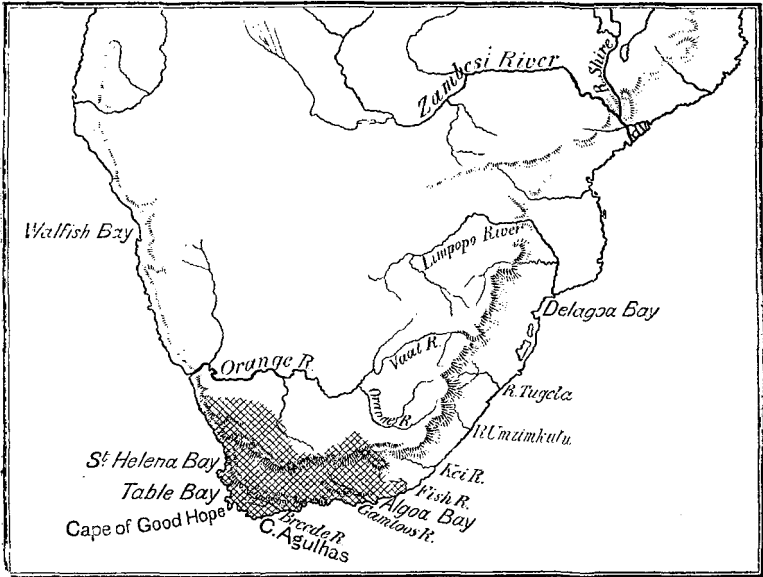
In August a large burgher force was got together, and five hundred soldiers were sent to Algoa Bay, General Dundas, however, was determined to make another attempt to come to a friendly arrangement, so he proceeded to the disturbed district himself, and sent a confidential agent named Maynier to parley with the hostile chiefs. Six or seven hundred soldiers and three strong divisions of burghers were in the field. There was nothing left within reach to plunder. So when Maynier offered not to molest the Xosas in the coast belt east of the Bushman's river, if they would promise not to trespass beyond that territory, they readily pledged their word, and accepted as a mark of friendship the presents which he offered them. To get a parallel to either this transaction or the dealings of the East India Company with the Xosas in the previous war, we must go back in English history to the time of the heathen Danes. The hearts of the farmers sank within them when peace was proclaimed, but they were obliged to abide by the decision of their rulers, and thus for a short time there was a kind of truce which was observed in an indifferent manner.


Things remained in this state for nearly three years, during which time the farmers of Graaff-Reinet were in a condition of great poverty and distress. The depredations of the Xosas and Hottentots were then carried so far that for very shame's sake it was necessary to renew hostilities. A burgher force was called out, and placed under a very brave and highly

respected farmer named Tjaart van der Walt. Some success attended the early operations of this force, but in August 1802 the commandant was killed in action, and the burghers then dispersed. Five months later they were brought together again, but as the Xosas now asked for peace and promised to return to their own country as soon as possible, terms were concluded with them. They and the Hottentots engaged not to roam about the country and plunder the farmers' cattle, and the Europeans engaged to give them time to remove without disturbing them.

The government of Sir George Yonge was thoroughly corrupt. It could not indeed be proved that he received bribes for his own benefit, but he could only be approached through his favourites, and they—the most prominent of them being his private secretary who was his near relative—were unscrupulous to the last degree. In a short time so many complaints reached England from people of both the English and Dutch nationalities at the Cape that he was recalled. He left the colony in April 1801, and after his arrival in London was not again employed in the public service. Major-General Dundas for the second time acted as administrator, and held that office until the restoration of the colony to Holland.

In 1799 the first agents of the London missionary society arrived in South Africa. Unfortunately almost from the day of their landing some of them took a more prominent part in politics than in elevating the heathen, and as they advocated socia



EXTENT OF TERRITORY UNDER EUROPEAN RULE IN 1800 

equality between barbarians and civilised people, they were speedily at feud with the colonists.

Terms of peace, which afterwards proved to be nothing more than a short truce giving the combatants a little breathing time, between Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands—then the Batavian Republic—were signed at Amiens on the 27th of March 1802, one of the conditions being that the Cape Colony should be restored to its former owners. Accordingly, after a delay in carrying out this condition which gave Napoleon an excuse for resuming hostilities a little later, in February 1803 a Dutch garrison of rather over three thousand men replaced the British troops, and General Dundas transferred the government to the Batavian commissioner De Mist.

XI.

THE COLONY UNDER THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC.

THE Cape settlement was now a direct dependency of the states-general as the governing body of the Batavian Republic, and liberal measures were adopted regarding it. The executive power was entrusted to a governor, who was also commander-in-chief of the garrison. For this office Lieutenant-General Jan Willem Janssens—an able military officer and a man of high moral worth—was selected. A legislative and executive council was provided, consisting of four members and the governor as president. The high court of justice was made independent of the other branches of the government, and consisted of a president and six members, all versed in law. Trade with the possessions of the republic everywhere was allowed on payment of a small duty for revenue purposes. An advocate of good standing—Mr. Jacob Abraham de Mist—was sent out as high commissioner, to receive the colony from the English, to instal the new officials, and to draw up such regulations as he might find necessary, which, after approval by the states-general, were to be embodied in a charter,

The 1st of March 1803 was observed as a day of thanksgiving to Almighty God for the restoration of the colony to its ancient owners. In the morning service was held in all the churches, and at noon the commissioner De Mist installed Lieutenant-General Janssens as governor. The other officials also who had arrived from Europe had their duties formally assigned to them. The landdrosts and most of the clerks under the English rule retained their posts.

In April the governor left Capetown to visit the eastern part of the colony, and ascertain how matters were standing with the white people, the Xosas, and the Hottentots. At Algoa Bay he found a party of Hottentots under the guidance of Dr. Vanderkemp, a missionary of the London society; and for their use he assigned a tract of land in the neighbourhood, ever since known as Bethelsdorp. Locations of ample size were also assigned to the Hottentot captains who had recently been in arms against the colonists, but with the improvidence of their race most of them with their people soon wandered away to other parts of the country, and the land set apart for their benefit was regarded as waste by succeeding governors. For the time being, however, matters were placed on a satisfactory footing with the people of this race who had lately been hostile.

The governor then proceeded to the Sunday river, where he had a conference with Ndlambe and the other Xosa chiefs who were living in the colony. The chiefs, who of course knew nothing of the relative strength of England and Holland, were under the impression that the Dutch government must be

much more powerful than the other, because it was apparent to them that it had supplanted its opponent, and they knew that the colonists were supporting it with enthusiasm. The farmers were in high spirits, and had sent them word that they must not think the old times had come back again, for the great person called the Batavian Republic was immeasurably superior to the poor creature John Company, who had been ill a long time and was now dead. They therefore expressed a desire for peace and friendship with the white people, and there was no difficulty in settling minor matters with them. But the all-important question of their return to their own country could not be arranged so easily, for though they admitted the Fish river as the boundary, they declared they could not cross it through fear of Gaika.

Shortly after this the intruding clans began to quarrel among themselves. Two of them joined Gaika in an attack upon Ndlambe, but the old chief succeeded in beating them back. The Xosas thus remained in occupation of the belt of land along the coast east of the Bushman's river. The other parts of the district of Graaff-Reinet, however, enjoyed for a season a fair amount of tranquillity, so that the farmers were able to carry on their ordinary occupations.

Mr. De Mist also, like the governor, made a tour through the colony, in order to become acquainted with the condition and wants of the people. The settlement was previously divided for magisterial and fiscal purposes into four districts—the Cape, Stellen-

bosch, Swellendam, and Graaff-Reinet,—he now divided it into six of smaller size, and stationed landdrosts at Tulbagh and Uitenhage.

Among the many regulations which he made was one giving full political equality to persons of every creed who acknowledged and worshipped a Supreme Being. Another provided for the creation of state schools, but this was an idea in advance of the times in South Africa, for the great majority of the colonists objected to schools that were not in connection with the church. The country did not remain long enough under the Batavian flag to test this question, but the probability is that state schools could not have succeeded, as the antipathy to them was so strong. Yet another regulation permitted marriages to take place before the landdrosts, and required them to be registered in the district courts.

In 1805 the European population of the colony consisted of between twenty-five and twenty-six thousand individuals, exclusive of soldiers. They owned nearly thirty thousand slaves, and had in their service about twenty thousand free coloured people. It is impossible to say how many Hottentots were living at kraals, or Bushmen roaming about on the border, for these people paid no taxes, and therefore no notice was taken of them by the census framers. Capetown had a population of rather over six thousand Europeans and nearly eleven thousand persons of colour.

In May 1803, less than three months after the restoration of the colony, war broke out again between Great Britain and the Batavian Republic.

On receiving this intelligence, General Janssens devoted all his attention to putting the Cape peninsula in a condition for defence. But soon instructions were received from Holland that he must send his best regiment to Batavia, as the mother country was unable to furnish more men, and troops were urgently needed in Java. All that the governor could do to make up for its loss was to increase the Hottentot corps, which had been transferred to him by General Dundas, to six hundred rank and file, and to form the Asiatics in and about Capetown into a volunteer corps, termed the Malay artillery.

No one doubted that the English would attempt to seize the colony again, but a state of suspense continued until the last week of 1805, when tidings were received that a great fleet was approaching. Signals were at once made to the different drostdies, summoning the burghers to arms, and though the heat was so intense that they could only ride at night, hundreds came trooping to Capetown. But there were no means of feeding them long after they arrived, for the two previous seasons had been exceptionally bad, and it had not been possible to lay up a store of grain. At this time, though the government made desperate exertions to obtain corn, there was never more than sufficient flour in Capetown for two days' consumption of the garrison and the inhabitants. Under these circumstances a large force, however devoted to the cause it was striving for, could not be kept together long.

In the evening of the 4th of January 1806 the fleet—which consisted of sixty-three ships—came to

anchor east of Robben Island, at the entrance of Table Bay. There were on board nearly seven thousand soldiers, under command of Major-General David Baird, an officer who was well acquainted with the Cape and its fortifications, having served here in 1798. On the 6th and 7th six regiments were landed, with some artillery and provisions, at a little cove about eighteen miles by road from Capetown.

As soon as it was known that the English were landing on the Blueberg beach, General Janssens marched to meet them, leaving in Capetown a considerable burgher force and a few soldiers under Lieutenant-Colonel Von Prophalow to guard the forts. He had an army rather over two thousand strong, but composed of a strange mixture of men. There were mounted burghers, Dutch soldiers, a German mercenary regiment, the crews of two wrecked French ships, Malays, Hottentots, and even slaves. He had sixteen field-guns.

At three o'clock in the morning of the 8th this motley force was under arms, when the scouts brought word that the English were approaching. Two hours later the British troops came in sight on the side of the Blueberg. General Baird had with him about four thousand infantry, besides artillerymen and five or six hundred sailors armed with pikes and drawing eight field-guns.

As soon as the armies were within range, the artillery on both sides opened fire. A few balls from the English guns fell among the German mercenary troops, who at once began to retreat. The burghers, the French corps, the remainder of

the troops, and the coloured auxiliaries behaved well, receiving and returning a heavy fire of artillery and musketry. But the flight of the main body of regular troops made it impossible for the mixed force left on the field to stand a charge which was made by three Highland regiments, and by order of General Janssens the remnant of the army fell back.

The loss on the English side in the battle of Blueberg was fifteen killed, one hundred and eighty-nine wounded, and eight missing. The roll-call of the Dutch forces when the fugitives were rallied shows the killed, wounded, and missing together. When it was made that afternoon three hundred and thirty-seven men did not answer to their names. General Janssens after his defeat sent the foreigners in his army to Capetown, and with the burghers and Dutch troops retired to the mountains of Hottentots-Holland.

In the morning of the 9th General Baird resumed his march towards Capetown. It was not in Colonel Von Prophalow's power to resist with any prospect of success, so he sent a flag of truce to request a suspension of arms in order to arrange terms of capitulation. General Baird granted thirty-six hours, but required immediate possession of the outer line of defence, including the fort Knokke at its extremity on the shore. His demand could not be refused, and that evening an English regiment was quartered in Fort Knokke.

In the afternoon of the 10th articles of capitulation were signed. The regular troops and the Frenchmen of the wrecked ships were to become prisoners of

war. Colonists in arms were to return to their former occupations. Private property of all kinds was to be respected, but everything belonging to the Batavian government was to be given up. The inhabitants were to preserve all their rights and privileges, and public worship as then existing was to be maintained. The paper money was to continue current until the pleasure of the king could be known, and the public lands and buildings were to be regarded as security for its redemption. The inhabitants of Capetown were to be exempt from having troops quartered on them.

The force opposed to General Janssens was so great that he could not hope to make a long resistance, but his position in the mountains of Hottentots-Holland was more favourable for obtaining terms than if he had fallen back upon Capetown after the defeat at Blueberg. General Baird proposed that he should capitulate on honourable conditions, and on the 18th arrangements to that effect were made. They provided that the troops should not be considered prisoners of war, but be sent to Holland at the expense of the British government, and that the inhabitants of the colony were to enjoy the same rights and privileges as had been granted to those of Capetown, except that the right of quartering troops upon them was reserved, as the country had not the same resources as the town.

Seven transports were prepared, and the troops—ninety-four officers and five hundred and seventy-three rank and file—were embarked in them. One of the best was placed at the disposal of General

Janssens, who had liberty to select such persons as he wished to accompany him. Thirty-one of the civil servants under the Batavian administration desired to return to Europe, and were allowed passages. Fifty-three women and the same number of children also embarked. All being ready, on the 6th of March 1806 the squadron, bearing the last representative of the dominion of the Netherlands over the Cape Colony, set sail for Holland.

General Janssens had endeared himself to the South African colonists, whom he held in strong regard. His last act before embarking was to write to General Baird recommending them to his care as a people who could be led to any good. He was a brave and skilful military commander, but he was unfortunate in having always to deal with an enemy of vastly superior strength. It was his destiny to surrender to the English at a later date the valuable island of Java, a possession then regarded as of much greater importance than the Cape Colony.

XII.

EARLY YEARS OF ENGLISH RULE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

CONQUEST is a grievous thing for any people, no matter how lightly the conqueror imposes his rule. Apart from all other considerations, it wounds their pride and reduces their energy, for it is everywhere seen that a man of a leading race will do without second thought what one of subject nationality will never do at all.

It was thus only natural that the colonists should feel dejected when the English flag was again the symbol of authority in South Africa. They had been ardently attached to the Batavian Republic, and had enjoyed three years of good government combined with ample liberty: now all they had cherished was gone. General Baird, indeed, used the most consoling language; but they remembered that General Craig had done the same, and a hard unsympathetic rule had followed. They saw all authority again centred in one man, for the council was abolished, and the independence of the high court of justice was destroyed. The members of that court—the president only excepted—were now ordinary civil servants

who were appointed by the governor and held office during his pleasure. Even religious freedom came to an end, for a Roman catholic clergyman who had been chaplain to some of the foreign troops in the Dutch service was not permitted to remain in the colony. *His* expulsion, however, was not felt as a grievance, for, in truth, the great majority of the burghers desired his presence less even than General Baird.

There was one hope left, and that rested on the chance of war. If Napoleon should succeed in the struggle with England, which seemed very probable in 1806, they would once more be connected with their fatherland. And so in a spirit of despondency, but not of absolute despair, they submitted to the power that they could not resist.

For some time there was fear of actual famine in Capetown. The inhabitants were restricted to a small daily allowance of bread, but with all haste wheat and rice were imported from India, and as the crops of the following season were remarkably good, the danger passed away.

As soon as possible the colony was again placed under the same form of government as during the first British occupation, and under the same commercial regulations. The earl of Caledon, an Irish nobleman only twenty-nine years of age, was sent out as governor with very great authority, though in matters of primary importance he was to act under instructions from the secretary of state in London. He could fix prices for any produce required by the army, and assess the quantity each farmer was com-

pelled to deliver. He directed and controlled the different departments. His proclamations and notices had the force of law. With the lieutenant-governor he formed a court of appeal in civil cases of over £200 value, and with two assessors he decided appeals in criminal cases. He had also power to mitigate or suspend sentences passed by the inferior courts.

Some of the orders of the earl of Caledon, such as forbidding the farmers of certain districts to keep African sheep, read strangely to-day ; but though he was very strict, he was an amiable and upright man, and was guided in all his doings by a desire to improve the country. His benevolence was almost unbounded, and, indeed, his last act when leaving South Africa was to present a thousand pounds in currency to the orphan asylum.

The most important measure of his administration had reference to the Hottentots. These people had always in theory been regarded as independent of the European government, and subject to chiefs of their own race. Only in cases where white people or slaves were concerned were they liable to be tried before courts of justice, and they were neither taxed nor called upon to perform public services except when of their own accord they enlisted as pandours. In reality they lived in a state of anarchy. Whoever believed that men of all colours and conditions were equal, the Hottentots certainly did not. They respected the poorest and weakest white man far more than they did their own nominal chiefs, for whose authority they cared nothing at all. Many of their women formed connections with slaves, and the farmers

were obliged to maintain them, or the slaves would run away. Children born of such connections could be apprenticed to the farmers for a certain number of years, when through their mothers' rights they became free to go where they chose. With this exception, all but those who lived in Capetown or one of the villages or mission stations could assault or plunder one another without fear of punishment.

As far as land was concerned, there were reserves set apart for their benefit in the long-settled parts of the country, and they could use ground not occupied by farmers anywhere. But many of them preferred to live as dependents of a white man, though they seldom remained long in the service of the same person. To obtain brandy and tobacco they were willing to perform light labour occasionally, but nothing could induce them to adopt a life of regular industry. In short, they had become rovers and vagrants.

The earl of Caledon issued a proclamation which removed all vestiges of chieftainship from the Hottentots in the colony, made them subject to European law, and restrained them from wandering over the country at will. Any one found without a pass from a landdrost or an employer was to be treated as a vagabond.

Certain missionaries of the London society raised a great outcry in England against this proclamation and another giving the landdrosts power to apprentice children of destitute Hottentots, which was issued by Sir John Cradock ; but no measures could be devised of greater benefit to the people affected. It is true

that some small bands, rather than submit to control, moved over the Orange river into Great Namaqualand; but the vast majority of the Hottentots were rescued by these apparently harsh proceedings from utter ruin, if not from extinction.

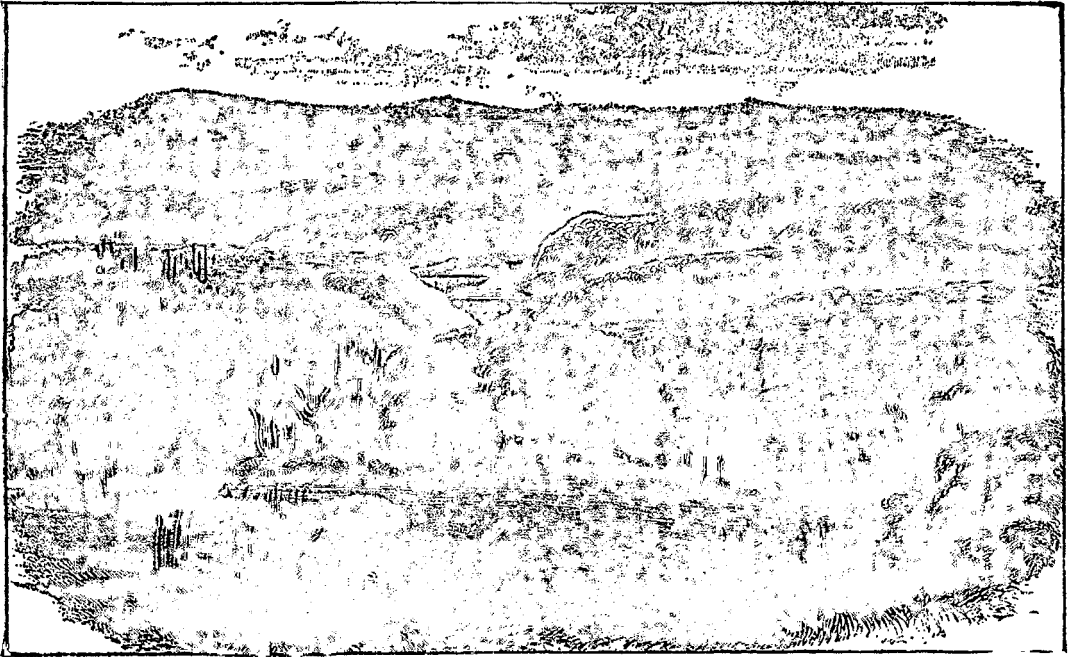
In 1811 Sir John Cradock succeeded the earl of Caledon as governor. He too was a man of very high principle, so that autocratic rule at this period was presented to the colonists in its best form.

Ever since the return of the English the Xosa clans within the colony had been restless, probably because they saw that the burghers were not attached to the new rulers, and in consequence were less capable of resistance. They not only sent out plundering parties to drive off cattle, but they were constantly taking more territory, and only laughed at the remonstrances of the white people. When Sir John Cradock reached South Africa, he found reports awaiting him from the landdrost of Uitenhage, in which he was informed that there was only one farm still occupied east of the drostdy, and that no other choice was left than the expulsion of the Xosas by force or the abandonment of the remainder of the district.

A strong body of burghers was therefore called out, and some European soldiers with the Hottentot regiment were sent to the front. Lieutenant-Colonel John Graham was placed in command of the whole force. He was instructed to try to persuade the Xosas to retire peacefully; but if they would not do so he was to take the most effectual measures to compel them to return to their own country. Major

Cuyler with an escort of twenty-five farmers and an interpreter was therefore sent to the most advanced kraal to hold a parley with the chiefs. Close to the kraal some men were observed, and the major tried to speak to them, but the old chief Ndlambe advanced a few paces from the others, and, stamping his foot on the ground, shouted: "This country is mine; I won it in war, and intend to keep it." Then shaking an assagai with one hand, with the other he raised a horn to his mouth. Upon blowing it, two or three hundred men rushed from a thicket towards Major Cuyler's party, who owed their escape solely to the fleetness of their horses.

There was thus no alternative to the employment of force. Everything was arranged for an attack upon the Xosas, but before it was made the landdrost of Graaff-Reinet and eight farmers were treacherously murdered during a conference with a party of warriors. In January 1812 an advance was made by the burghers and Hottentots in six divisions, that swept the country before them, while the European soldiers occupied strong positions in the rear. This plan succeeded admirably, for the Xosas, about twenty thousand in number, after a brief resistance fled to their own country. Some women who were made prisoners were then sent to inform them that on their own side of the boundary they would not be molested, but if they returned to the colony they would be shot. By the beginning of March the fourth Kaffir war was over, and it had ended—as neither the second nor the third had—favourably for the Europeans.



VIEW IN THE KOWIE VALLEY, BELOW GRAHAMSTOWN.
(From a Sketch by Rev. W. Shaw.)

A line of military posts, garrisoned partly by European soldiers, partly by the Hottentot regiment—which was shortly afterwards raised to eight hundred men,—and partly by burghers, was now formed from the sea to the second chain of mountains, to prevent the return of the people expelled. The principal post in the line, where the headquarters of the troops on the frontier were stationed, was named Grahams-town, in honour of the officer in command.

During recent years several governors had thought of establishing a circuit court, but the various changes which had taken place prevented the completion of the design until 1811. Three members of the high court of justice then left Capetown on the first circuit, with instructions to try important cases, to ascertain whether the landdrosts performed their duties correctly and impartially, to inspect the district chests and buildings, and to report upon the condition of the people and all matters affecting public interests. Their proceedings were conducted with open doors, and no distinction was made between persons of different races or colour, either as accusers, accused, or witnesses. Throughout South Africa satisfaction was expressed with the establishment of a circuit court of this kind, and everywhere the judges were received with respect.

Unfortunately, however, the reverend Messrs. Vanderkemp and Read, missionaries of the London society, had given credence to a number of stories of murder of Hottentots and other outrages said to have been committed by colonists, and their reports—in which these tales appeared as facts—were published

in England. By order of the British government, the charges thus made were brought before the second circuit court, which held its sessions in the last months of 1812.

In this, the black circuit as it has since been called, no fewer than fifty-eight white men and women were put upon their trial for crimes alleged to have been committed against Hottentots or slaves, and over a thousand witnesses—European, black, and Hottentot—were summoned to give evidence. The whole country was in a state of commotion. The serious charges were nearly all proved to be without foundation; but several individuals were found guilty of assault, and were punished. The irritation of the relatives and friends of those who were accused without sufficient cause was excessive; and this event, more than anything that preceded it, caused a lasting unfriendly feeling between the colonists and the missionaries of the London society.

In 1813 the French met with great reverses in Europe, and one of the first results was that the prince of Orange, who had been in exile in England since 1795, returned to the Netherlands and was received by the people as their ruler. To this time the British government regarded the Cape Colony not as a national possession, but as a conquest that might be restored to its original owner on the conclusion of peace. But now an agreement was made with the sovereign prince of the Netherlands that for a sum of six million pounds sterling he should cede to Great Britain the Cape Colony and some Dutch provinces in South America. This agreement was

embodied in a convention signed at London in August 1814, when the claim of the Netherlands to South Africa was extinguished for ever.

And so the hopes that the colonists entertained of coming again under the flag of Holland were dissipated, but time had done much to soften their regret. To say that they were reconciled to English rule would be incorrect. They were, however, becoming accustomed to it, and as yet, excepting the statements of the London missionaries, nothing had occurred to cause any friction. Their language was still used in the courts of law and the public offices. Their churches had been increased to nine, and their clergymen were paid by the state. Six new magistracies—George, Clanwilliam, Caledon, Grahamstown, Cradock, and Simonstown—had been established. The financial condition of the government, bad as it subsequently proved to be, was not yet causing much alarm. In the Cape peninsula, where alone Englishmen were met in considerable numbers, intermarriages were already so common that race antipathies were rapidly dying out. After the absorption of Holland by France, also, the colonists lost the enthusiastic attachment which they had felt for the Batavian Republic, so that altogether the prospect was fair that in course of time the Europeans in South Africa would forget their old aversion to British rule, unless something untoward happened to revive it.

XIII.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF LORD CHARLES SOMERSET.

THOUGH the colony had now become a permanent British possession, no change in the form of its government was made, nor was there any reduction of the excessively high salaries paid to the officials sent from England. Lord Charles Somerset, who succeeded Sir John Cradock in 1814, drew a salary of £10,000 a year, and was provided at the public expense with a residence in town, a country house at Newlands, a marine villa at Camp's Bay, and a shooting lodge at Groenekloof. He and the heads of departments among them absorbed more than one-fourth of the entire revenue of the country. Buildings needed for landdrosts' offices in the country districts and for various purposes in Capetown had been provided during recent years, but the cost had been defrayed by the creation of paper money, not from surplus funds in the treasury. Such a system could only end in disaster, but no one saw trouble ahead, and the secretary of state took no steps to correct it.

Lord Charles Somerset had been in the colony a little longer than a year when an event took place which stirred the smouldering fire of disaffection to British rule.

There was a farmer named Frederik Bezuidenhout living on the eastern frontier, in a secluded dell in the valley now called Glen Lynden. This man was summoned to appear before a court of justice on a charge of ill-treatment of a servant, but did not attend, so a company of pandours was sent to arrest him. When they were seen approaching he fired upon them, and then took shelter in a cavern close by, where, as he refused to surrender, he was shot dead.

On the following day his relatives and friends assembled for the funeral, when one of his brothers declared that he would never rest until the Hottentot regiment was driven from the frontier. The others present expressed themselves of the same mind, and a plan of insurrection was made. An attempt to induce others to join them failed, however, and they were never able to muster more than fifty men.

Within a very short time the government became acquainted with what was taking place, and as a strong force of burghers who had no sympathy with lawlessness assisted the troops sent to restore order, the revolt was suppressed without difficulty. Most of those who had taken part in it surrendered, but a few tried to escape to Kaffirland. These were followed by a party of pandours, and all were captured except Jan Bezuidenhout, who would not surrender, and,

with his wife and little son helping him, stood at bay till he was shot dead.

The prisoners—thirty-nine in number—were tried by a special commission of the high court of justice, and six were sentenced to death, the others to various kinds of punishment. Lord Charles Somerset would only mitigate one of the death sentences, and five of the insurgents were hanged in presence of their companions. The burghers who had assisted the government were greatly shocked by this severe punishment, for they had not thought they were helping to bring their misguided countrymen to death. By them, as well as by the families of those who took part in the disturbance, the event was long remembered with very bitter feelings towards the British authorities.

It is now necessary to cast a glance at the clans east of the Fish river, for movements were taking place among them that brought on another war with the white people, apparently a most unjustifiable war on the part of the European government, but really one for which a good reason was not wanting.

After Ndlambe's expulsion from the colony, bands of his followers found means to get through the line of military posts and plunder the farmers beyond. His young athletes, good-natured when not in a state of excitement, fleet of foot, daring, and capable of long abstinence from food, made their way from thicket to thicket through the country they had lived in nearly thirteen years, and the first notice of their presence in any locality was an empty fold from which the cattle had been driven at night. The more expert the robber, the greater hero was he

among his companions, and the prouder were his relatives of him. It was their way of earning glory and gain at the same time.

Occasionally a band of soldiers would appear at one of their kraals and take compensation for the losses of the farmers, and then another account would be run up in the same way. Thus there was a feeling of hostility on both sides, with no prospect of a change for the better.

Ndlambe and Gaika were all the time quarrelling with each other, and in 1818 the elder chief suddenly became the stronger of the two. A large and important clan, previously neutral, went over to his side, and a famous seer, named Makana, declared in his favour. This Makana was a man of conspicuous ability among his countrymen. If he had been of chieftain's blood, there is little doubt that he would have made a great position for himself, but his parents were commoners, and therefore in Kaffirland he could never be the head of a tribe. He took the only way to power open to him, and became a religious teacher. The people believed that he was in communication with the spirits of the mighty dead, and that his visions and dreams were inspired. His precepts were of a highly moral nature, for he had learned a good deal of Christianity from missionaries, and adapted it to his own ideas.

In time Makana acquired enormous influence, which he used in an attempt to solidify the western section of the Xosa tribe, by bringing the half-independent clans of which it was composed into complete subjection to one head. Gaika, sunk in

drunkenness and sensuality, was incapable even of comprehending such a purpose; so he declared for the manly and clear-headed Ndlambe, though that chief must then have been nearly eighty years of age. The nominal head of the tribe, who was named Hintsá, resided far away beyond the Kei, and usually troubled himself very little about the western clans, over whom he had hardly any authority. But on this occasion he too pronounced in favour of the old chief, and sent a band of warriors to aid him.

By a stratagem of Makana, the greater number of Gaika's adherents were drawn into an ambush on the Debe flats, where after a desperate battle they were driven from the field with frightful slaughter. The defeated chief fled to the Winterberg, and sent to the colony to beg for aid.

Now comes the question: Was Lord Charles Somerset justified in assisting him? The quarrel was between two rivals in a tribe over which he had no right of control, what business had he to interfere in it? The answer is that the governor could not permit a formidable hostile power to grow up on the border of the colony. To those who do not consider that reason sufficient, his action must appear unjustifiable. Regarding Ndlambe as an implacable and dangerous enemy, he issued instructions to Lieutenant-Colonel Brereton to proceed to Gaika's assistance with a combined force of burghers and soldiers. In December 1818 Colonel Brereton crossed the Fish river, and being joined by Gaika's adherents, attacked Ndlambe, who was believed to be at the head of eighteen thousand men.

Ndlambe and his followers, however, did not venture to make a stand on open ground, but retired to dense thickets, which afforded them shelter. Their kraals were destroyed, and twenty-three thousand head of cattle were seized. The British commander found it impossible to restrain the savage passions of Gaika's followers, who were mad with excitement and joy at being able to take revenge, and were unwilling to show mercy when any of their enemies fell into their hands. He withdrew, therefore, before Ndlambe was thoroughly humbled, and on reaching Grahamstown the burghers were disbanded and permitted to return to their homes.

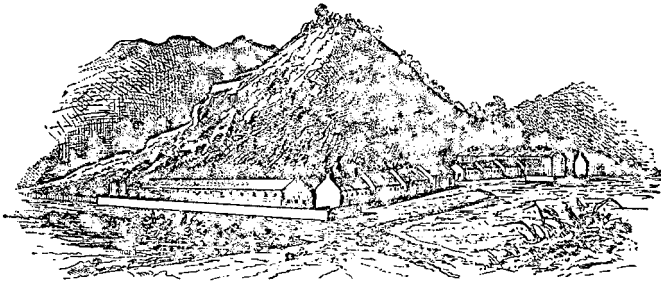
Ndlambe at once took advantage of the opportunity. Falling upon Gaika, he put that chief to flight, and then he poured his warriors into the colony. The inhabitants of the district between the Fish and Sunday rivers, unless close to military posts, were compelled hastily to retire to lagers, and lost nearly all their property. Seventeen white people and thirteen Hottentots were murdered.

A burgher force was called out, but before the farmers could take the field Grahamstown was attacked. In the early morning of the 22nd of April 1819 between nine and ten thousand warriors, led by Makana, made a sudden rush upon that post, which had then a garrison of only three hundred and thirty-three men. They were met with a deadly fire of musketry and artillery, and after a short struggle were driven back with heavy loss.

Three months later a strong army of colonists and soldiers crossed the Fish river, drove Ndlambe's

adherents eastward to the bank of the Kei, killed many of them, seized all their cattle, and burned their kraals. The old chief's power was completely broken. The fifth Kaffir war ended by the surrender of Makana, who gave himself up in the hope that his friends would then be spared. He was sent a prisoner to Robben Island, and three years afterwards was drowned when trying to escape.

Though there was no more fighting, the forces were kept in the field for several months. The



FORT WILLSHIRE. BUILT 1820; ABANDONED 1837.
(From a Sketch by A. Steedman.)

governor then resolved to try to prevent the Xosas from entering the colony again by keeping a belt of land beyond the border unoccupied except by soldiers, who were to patrol constantly up and down it. The military officers recommended that the Keiskama and Tyumie, as being a better line of defence than the Fish river, should be made the limit of Kaffirland, and the governor accepted their advice. In October he met Gaika, who was so dependent upon his good will that when he

proposed his scheme the chief at once agreed to it.

On the right bank of the Keiskama a defensible barrack was then built, which was named Fort Willshire, and there a body of European troops was stationed. A little later another barrack was built on the Kat river, and was named Fort Beaufort. The territory between the Fish river and the new line was kept without inhabitants, but it was easily traversed by the Xosas, who knew every thicket and jungle in it. In 1820 it was ceded by Gaika to the colony.

We have now arrived at an important period in the history of South Africa. To this time the colonists outside of Capetown were almost entirely Dutch-speaking, henceforward the English language is to be heard in many farmhouses as well as in the villages and towns throughout the country, and English customs and ideas are to come into rivalry with the customs and ideas of the earlier settlers.

For several years after the general peace which followed the fall of Napoleon much distress was felt by the labouring classes in Great Britain, and emigration was commonly spoken of as the only effectual remedy. In the Cape Colony in 1819, according to the census, there were only forty-two thousand white people; so it seemed to the imperial government that the country invited settlers, and parliament without demur granted £50,000 to defray the cost of sending out a large party.

Heads of families representing nearly ninety thousand persons applied for passages, and from these

a selection was made of the number required. The ships in which they left England and Ireland, with one exception, reached South Africa safely, and in April 1820 the immigrants commenced to land on the sandy beach of Algoa Bay. A few hundred who arrived a little later were located first at Clanwilliam, but in a short time most of them abandoned that part of the colony and followed the others to the eastern frontier. Several were people of some means, who brought out a number of servants and apprentices, the others were of various callings, a large proportion being artisans, men who had worked in factories in England, clerks, and storemen. There were nearly twice as many male as female adults.

The imperial government defrayed the cost of ocean transit, and each head of a family was promised a plot of ground one hundred acres in extent, on condition of occupying it for three years. Those who brought out servants were to have an additional hundred acres for each. Nothing more than this was promised, but means of transport to the land on which they were located were provided by the government, and for more than eighteen months rations of food were supplied to all who needed them. With few exceptions, the immigrants were located between the Bushman's and Fish rivers, the Zuurberg and the sea, a pleasant land to look upon, with its waving grass and many streamlets and patches of dark evergreen forest in the recesses of the mountains. It was part of the territory that Ndlambe had occupied for thirteen years, and that he had vainly tried to hold in 1812.

At the same time that these people were being sent from Great Britain at the expense of the government, a few came to South Africa without any aid, on the assurance of the secretary of state that they would receive larger grants of land if they paid for their passages. Altogether, nearly five thousand individuals of British birth settled in the colony between March 1820 and May 1821.

For several years the immigrants were subject to much distress. Most of them knew nothing about tilling ground, but they tried to live upon their little farms until they could get title-deeds, in order to be able to sell. Season after season their wheat crops were destroyed by rust. Then there was a great flood, which washed away many cottages and gardens. In addition to other troubles, roving Xosas made their way into the district, and robbed the poor people of many of the cattle that they had purchased.

At the end of 1821 the artisans began to disperse. In different villages throughout the colony they obtained plenty of work, at prices that soon placed them in a good position. They were followed from the locations by many others, who were not qualified to make farmers, but who easily found openings in other pursuits. The government then enlarged the farms of those who knew how to make use of them, and better times for all set in. It was about five years after their arrival before each one found himself in the sphere for which he was best adapted, and in another five years it began to be questioned whether a similar party had ever succeeded so well in any other country.

Grahamstown and Port Elizabeth owe their importance to these British immigrants. In 1820 neither of these places was more than a hamlet attached to a military post, but a few years later both were flourishing towns.

About one-eighth of the European inhabitants of the colony were now English-speaking, and theirs was a language which quickly spreads. When a man from the British Islands and one from any other country live together, their intercourse is conducted in the language of the Briton, for he refuses to learn a speech that was strange to him in youth. In South Africa this matter might with great advantage have been left to settle itself. But the deepest feelings of the old colonists were stirred by an order of the imperial government that after the 1st of January 1825 all official documents, and after the 1st of January 1828 all proceedings in courts of law should be in English. In Simonstown, Grahamstown, and Port Elizabeth, the exclusive use of the English language in the courts of law was not objected to; but in other places, where Dutch was spoken by nearly the whole people, the order was regarded as a very serious grievance. Many requests were made to the government to annul it, but to no purpose, and upon the dates named English became the official language of the country. It would have been difficult to devise a measure more calculated to irritate the Dutch inhabitants.

Just at this time also great distress was caused to many people by an order concerning the paper money. There were in circulation notes to the

nominal value of a little over £700,000, of which about one-third had been created by the English government, one-seventh had been forged so cleverly that they could not be separated from those that were genuine, and the remainder were of Dutch origin. The existence of this paper was certainly a very great drawback to commerce, and it was necessary for the advancement of the country that it should be got rid of. But when an order came from England reducing it to three-eighths of its nominal value, and making British silver money a legal tender at that rate of exchange, it was felt as a crushing blow by many people. Not a few were entirely ruined. But commerce was placed on a safe footing, for the old rixdollar notes were replaced by others at the reduced rate, on which the value was marked in pounds sterling, and the imperial treasury was responsible for their redemption in gold.

Notwithstanding the widespread discontent and the drawbacks to prosperity which have been mentioned, the colony showed many signs of progress during the administration of Lord Charles Somerset. The villages of Beaufort West, Bathurst, Worcester, Somerset East, and Somerset West were founded, the first lighthouse on the coast was built, a good waggon road was opened through a cleft in the mountain range behind French Hoek, and the South African public library was established. The breed of cattle, and especially of horses, was greatly improved, mainly through the importation of thoroughbred stock by the governor himself. Wine was the principal article of export, but mules were now

sent to Mauritius and horses to India in considerable numbers.

The clergymen of the Dutch church were increased to sixteen, and of the English church to five. A Wesleyan clergyman who was sent out from England in 1814 was not permitted by the governor to conduct services publicly, so his society appealed to the secretary of state, with the result that religious liberty was secured for the colony. A Roman catholic clergyman was now resident in Capetown, and Protestant clergymen of various denominations were scattered over the country and carrying on mission work beyond the borders. At each drostdy a high-class government school was established, to which parents were invited to send their children free of charge. In the eastern part of the colony these schools were of the utmost service, but as instruction was given through the medium of the English language only, they were regarded with much antipathy in the western districts, and were not there as useful as they might otherwise have been.

In 1825 a council was established to advise the governor in such affairs of importance as he might choose to submit to it for discussion. It consisted of six officials appointed by the secretary of state, and was intended to modify the despotic power of the governor; but practically it was a very slight check upon the authority of a man of strong will like Lord Charles Somerset, who treated in a most arbitrary manner all who professed democratic principles or who ventured to oppose him in any way. Among other acts which caused much clamour was the sup-

pression by his order of a liberal newspaper called the *Commercial Advertiser*, and the virtual confiscation of the press with which it was printed.

The later years of his administration were marked by distress among the farmers—owing to bad seasons,—by a decreasing revenue, by much grumbling about the burden of taxation and the excessive cost of government, and by numerous complaints of his tyranny made to the secretary of state and to the imperial parliament. But he had influential friends, for he was a brother of the duke of Beaufort and of that Lord Fitzroy Somerset who afterwards became Lord Raglan, and his party was then in power. In 1826, however, he was obliged to return to England to defend his conduct against charges by the liberal leaders in the house of commons, who were making capital of him in their attacks upon the treasury benches, and as there was a change of ministry shortly afterwards, he considered it prudent to resign the government of the Cape Colony, a course of action that prevented his case coming on for hearing.

XIV.

THE WARS AND DEVASTATIONS OF TSHAKA.

AT this period nearly the whole of South Africa beyond the borders of the Cape Colony was in a state of violent disturbance, owing to wars among different Bantu tribes.

About the year 1783, or perhaps a little later, one of the wives of the chief of a small tribe living on the banks of the river Umvolosi gave birth to a son, who was named Tshaka. Before he was fully grown the boy excited the jealousy of his father, and was obliged to flee for his life. He took refuge with Dingiswayo, head of a powerful tribe, who in his early years had gone through many strange adventures, and had by some means come to hear of the European military system. When Tshaka fled to him, Dingiswayo was carrying on war with his neighbours, and had his followers regularly drilled and formed into regiments. The young refugee became a soldier in one of these regiments, and by his bravery and address rapidly rose to a high position. Time passed on, Dingiswayo died, and the army raised Tshaka, then its favourite general,

to supreme command. This was the origin of the terrible Zulu power.

Tshaka was a man of great bodily strength and of unusual vigour of mind, but he was utterly merciless.



A ZULU WARRIOR IN UNIFORM.
(Sketch by Captain Gardiner.)

He set himself the task not merely of conquering but of exterminating the tribes as far as he could reach. With this object he greatly improved the discipline of the army, and substituted for the light

assagai a short-handled long-bladed spear formed either to cut or to stab. With this weapon in his hand, the highly trained Zulu soldier, proud of his fame and his ornaments, and knowing that death was the penalty of cowardice or disobedience, was really invincible.

Tribe after tribe passed out of sight under the Zulu spear, none of the members remaining but a few of the handsomest girls and some boys reserved to carry burdens. These boys, with only the choice before them of abject slavery or becoming soldiers, always begged to be allowed to enter the army, and were soon known as the fiercest of the warriors.

The territory that is now the colony of Natal was densely peopled before the time of Tshaka. But soon after the commencement of his career, various tribes that were trying to escape from his armies fell upon the inhabitants of that fair land, and drove before them those whom they did not destroy. As far as the Umzimvubu river the whole population was in motion, slaughtering and being slaughtered. One large horde of fugitives made its way as far as the river Umgwali, and was there attacked and beaten by a combined force of Tembus and Xosas. After the battle the horde dispersed, and its fragments settled down in a condition of vassalage among the clans between the Kei and the Umtata. So also at a little later date did other remnants of various tribes from the north, all of the refugees taking the common name of Fingos, or wanderers. By the beginning of 1824, between the rivers Tugela and Umzimvubu there were not left more than

five or six thousand wretched starvelings, who hid themselves in thickets, and some of whom became cannibals as the only means of sustaining life.

On the other side of the great mountain range known as the Kathlamba or Drakensberg, the destruction of human beings was even greater. Before the rise of the Zulu power, Bantu tribes peopled densely the northern part of the territory now termed Basutoland, the north-eastern portion of the present Orange Free State, and the whole area of the Transvaal Province of our days. During the winter of the year 1822 a tribe fleeing from the Zulus crossed the mountains and fell upon the people residing about the sources of the Caledon. They, in their turn, fell upon others in advance, until the whole of the inhabitants of the country as far as the Vaal in one great horde crossed the river and began to devastate the region beyond. Among their leaders was a woman named Ma Ntatisi, from whom the horde received the name Mantatis.

After crossing the Vaal, the Mantatis turned to the north-west, and created awful havoc with the tribes in their line of march. As each was overcome, its cattle and grain were devoured, and then the murderous host passed on to the next. Their strength was partly kept up by incorporating captives, but vast numbers of the invaders, especially of women and children, left their bones mingled with those of the people they destroyed. Twenty-eight distinct tribes are believed to have disappeared before the Mantatis received a check. Then Makaba, chief of the Bangwaketse, fell upon them unawares,

defeated them, and compelled them to turn to the south. In June 1823 they sustained another defeat from a party of Griqua horsemen, and then the great horde broke into fragments.

One section—the Makololo—went northward, destroying the tribes in its course, and years afterwards was found by Dr. Livingstone on a branch of the Zambesi. Another section, under Ma Ntatisi, returned to its old home, and took part in the devastation of the country along the Caledon. And various little bands wandered about destroying until they were themselves destroyed. Several thousand refugees from the wasted country found their way into the Cape Colony, where they were apprenticed by the government to such persons as were not slaveholders.

In the winter of 1828 a Zulu army penetrated the country as far south as the Bashee. Tshaka himself with a body-guard remained at the Umzimkulu, and sent one of his regiments to destroy the Pondos, while another division of his force proceeded to deal in the same manner with the Tembus and Xosas. The Pondos were plundered of everything they possessed, but the chief and most of his people managed to hide themselves until the Zulus retired. The Tembus and Xosas fared better. There was an Englishman, named Henry Fynn, with Tshaka, and he succeeded in inducing the chief to recall the army before there was much destruction of life or property.

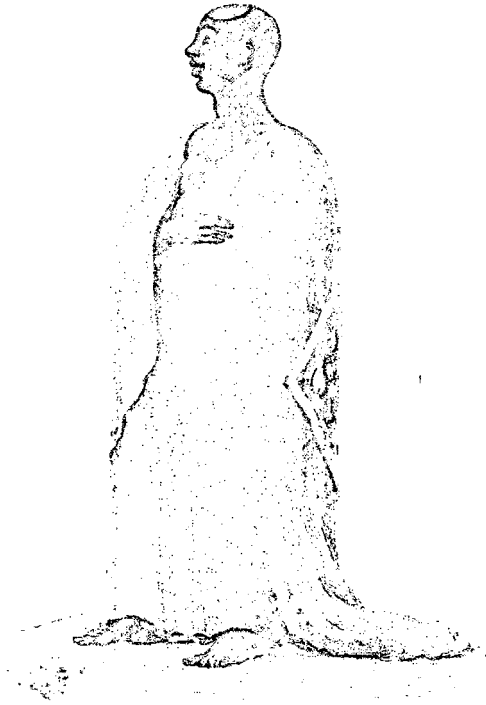
The Tembus and Xosas, however, were greatly alarmed. They sent to beg help from the Europeans, and to prevent them from being driven into the

colony a commando of a thousand men, under Lieutenant-Colonel Somerset, marched to their aid. This commando encountered a large body of fierce warriors, who were believed to be Zulus, and an engagement followed which lasted several hours. Afterwards it was discovered that the men whom the Europeans were fighting with were some of those who had fled from Tshaka, and whose course was marked by fire and blood. They were defeated with heavy loss, and as soon as they were scattered the Xosas and Tembus fell upon them and nearly exterminated them.

In September 1828 Tshaka was murdered by two of his brothers, one of whom—Dingana by name—succeeded as chief of the Zulus. The new ruler was equally as cruel, but not so able as his predecessor. Under his government the military system was kept up, though the only people left within reach that he could exercise his arms upon were the Swazis. War with them was almost constant, but their country contained natural strongholds which enabled them to escape destruction. Various armies, however, that had been put in motion at an earlier date were still moving on, some at a great distance from their starting places.

One of these was under a chief named Moselekatse, whose reputation as a shedder of human blood is second only to that of Tshaka himself. He was in command of a division of the Zulu army, and had acquired the devoted attachment of the soldiers, when a circumstance occurred which left him no choice but flight. After a successful onslaught upon

a tribe which he was sent to exterminate, he neglected to forward the whole of the booty to his master, and Tshaka, enraged by such conduct, despatched a great army with orders to put him



PORTRAIT OF DINGANA.

(From a Sketch by Captain Gardiner.)

and all his adherents to death. These, receiving intimation of their danger in time, at once crossed the mountains and began to lay waste the central zone of the country that is now the Transvaal Province.

The numerous tribes whose remnants form the Bapedi of our times looked with dismay upon the athletic forms of the Matabele, as they termed the invaders. They had never before seen discipline so perfect as that of these naked braves, or weapon so deadly as the Zulu stabbing-spear. All who could not make their escape were exterminated, except the comeliest girls and some of the young men who were kept as carriers. These last were led to hope that by faithful service they might attain the position of soldiers, and from them Moselekatse filled up the gaps that occurred in his ranks. The country over which he marched was covered with skeletons, and literally no human beings were left in it, for his object was to place a desert between Tshaka and himself. When he considered himself at a safe distance from his old home he halted, erected military kraals after the Zulu pattern, and from them as a centre his regiments traversed the land north, south, and west in search of spoil.

It is impossible to give the number of Moselekatse's warriors, but it was probably not greater than ten thousand. Fifty of them were a match for more than five hundred Betshuana. They pursued these wretched creatures even when there was no plunder to be had, and slew many thousands in mere wantonness, in exactly the same spirit and with as little compunction as a sportsman shoots snipe.

While the Matabele were engaged in their career of destruction, other bands were similarly employed farther north, so that by 1828 there was not a single Betshuana tribe left intact between the Magalisberg

and the Limpopo. On the margin of the Kalahari desert several were still unbroken, though they had suffered severely. In 1830 Moselekatse moved against these tribes, and dispersed them. They were not exterminated, because they took refuge in the desert, where they found sustenance in places to which the Matabele could not pursue them; but they were reduced to a very wretched state.

After this Moselekatse built his military kraals on the banks of the Marikwa, and was lord of the country far and wide.

Only one tribe escaped, and that the weakest and most degraded of all the southern Betshuana. The principal Batlapin kraal was then at the source of the Kuruman river, where missionaries resided for a short time at the beginning of the century. The station was soon abandoned, but was occupied again in 1817 by agents of the London society, and four years later the reverend Robert Moffat went to live there. Towards the close of 1829 Mr. Moffat visited Moselekatse, whose kraals were then about a hundred miles east of the Marikwa. The chief could not comprehend the character or the work of the missionary, but he was flattered by the friendship of such a man, and conceived a great respect for one who could weld two thick pieces of iron. He believed Mr. Moffat to be lord of the people at the Kuruman, and, to show his regard, he abstained from sending his warriors there. Thus the Batlapin, who would have fled from the smallest division of the Matabele army, were saved by the presence among them of a courageous and able European.

Meantime in one corner of the vast waste that had been created the process of reconstruction was going on. In the territory that is now called Basutoland a young man named Moshesh was collecting together dispersed people of various tribes, and forming them into a compact political body. He was only in rank the son of a petty captain, and his father was still living, so that under ordinary circumstances he would have had little chance of raising himself to power. But Moshesh possessed abilities of a very high order as a military strategist, a diplomatist, an organiser of society, and a ruler of men. His seat of government was Thaba Bosigo, an impregnable mountain stronghold. He prevented attacks of the

not take the stronghold. When the besiegers were compelled by want of food to retreat, Moshesh provided them with provisions sufficient for their homeward journey, and a friendly message accompanied the gift. He was never again attacked by them.

In 1833 missionaries of the Paris evangelical society went to reside with Moshesh, from whom they received a hearty welcome, as he recognised that their assistance in temporal matters would be of great service. In the same year a number of wandering bands—Bantu, Hottentots, and half-breeds—were persuaded by Wesleyan missionaries to settle on the right bank of the Caledon, not very far from Thaba Bosigo.

In 1836 a vast portion of the territory east and north of the Cape Colony was lost to the British. Between the Keiskama and Umzimvubu rivers were the Xosa, Tembu, and Pondo, the Fingos, and various clans driven north. Missionaries of the London, Glasgow, and Wesleyan societies were endeavouring to christianise and civilise these people. Between the Umzimvubu and Tugela rivers there were only five or six thousand inhabitants. North of the Tugela were the Zulus, under the chief Dingana, who had twenty-five or thirty thousand highly-trained soldiers at his command.

Within the western border of the present Transvaal Province, along the Marikwa river, were the Matabele military kraals; but the greater portion of that vast territory was unoccupied, except in the most rugged places, where the broken remnants of former

tribes were lurking. The present Orange Free State contained a few hundred Griquas or people of mixed Hottentot, negro, and European blood, who had migrated from the Cape Colony, a few hundred Hottentots of the Korana tribe, the remnant of the horde under Ma Ntatisi around Lishuane, and some Bantu clans at Mekuatleng, Thaba Ntshu, and Bethulie. In the territory now called British Bechuanaland the population consisted of the Batlapin tribe, some roving Koranas, and a few stragglers on the border of the desert. And in Basutoland there were the people collected by Moshesh. American missionaries were attempting to settle in Natal and with the Matabele on the Marikwa, a clergyman of the church of England had just gone to reside with Dingana, and missionaries of the Paris, London, Berlin, and Wesleyan societies were busy wherever there were inhabitants between the Kathlamba mountains and the desert.

XV.

EVENTS IN THE CAPE COLONY FROM 1826 TO 1835.

IT is not a pleasant admission for an Englishman to make, but it is the truth, that it would be difficult to find in any part of the world a people with so much cause to be discontented as the old inhabitants of the Cape Colony for many years after the fall of the ministry of the earl of Liverpool. There was no sympathy whatever shown towards them by the authorities in England, in fact there was a decided antipathy, which was fostered by the so-called philanthropic societies, then at the height of their power. The most outrageous stories concerning the colonists were circulated by men who bore the title of Christian teachers—and nothing was too gross to be believed in England,—until the word Boer (Dutch for Farmer) came to be regarded as a synonym for an ignorant and heartless oppressor of coloured people. It was useless for the governors to report differently, or for the courts of law to pronounce the stories libellous : the great societies condemned “the Boers,” and the great societies represented and led public opinion in England.

Something, however, must be said on the other side. The inhabitants of the Cape Colony were not all white people, and the British government tried to do what it held to be justice to the blacks. Then the whole number of Dutch colonists was only equal to the population of a third-class English town, and their sentiments must have been regarded as of little importance by those who were guiding the destinies of a mighty empire. To make them fall into line with the notions of the day in Great Britain seemed not only easy, but the correct policy to carry out. No one imagined that they were capable of making any effectual opposition.

In 1828 the whole of the courts of justice in the Cape Colony were remodelled after the English pattern. In the country districts the landdrosts and heemraden were done away with, and in their stead civil commissioners, resident magistrates, and justices of the peace were created. A supreme court was established, with judges appointed by the crown and independent of the governor, and though the Dutch code of law was retained, the forms of procedure were assimilated to those customary in England. Since that time criminal cases have been tried by a single judge and a jury of nine men, whose verdict must be unanimous in order to convict.

At the same time the burgher senate was abolished, and the government took upon itself the municipal and other duties previously performed by that body. As if these sweeping changes were not sufficient irritation for the old colonists, a notice was issued that all documents addressed to the government

must be written in English or have a translation attached, otherwise they would be returned to those who sent them.

A little later one of the judges removed the criminal cases from the circuit court at Worcester to Capetown for trial, on the ground that there was not a sufficient number of English-speaking men to form a jury at Worcester, though the prisoners and the witnesses spoke Dutch only, and every word that they said had to be translated to the court. The judges were divided in opinion whether it was necessary for jurymen in every case to understand English, and the question remained open until 1831, when an ordinance was issued defining their qualifications, among which a knowledge of English was not included. In the interval, however, the burghers, who regarded their exclusion from the jury-box as an insult, were deeply incensed. But they sent in no memorials, because they would not be driven to have them written in English, and there was little hope of success had they even done so.

And now was heard the first murmuring of a cry that a few years later resounded through the colony, and men and women began to talk of the regions laid waste by the Zulu wars, if it might not be possible to find there a refuge from British rule.

One measure, however, was carried out at this time which gave general satisfaction. The salaries of the officials sent from England had been far beyond the means of the colony, and they were now greatly reduced.

The condition of the Hottentots and other free coloured people had long been a subject of discussion in England, where it was commonly believed that they were treated with much injustice. In reality it was not so, though there certainly were instances of ill usage, just as there are outrages in all countries of the world.

After November 1809 Hottentots were not allowed to wander over the country without passes, and after April 1812 Hottentot children born while their parents were in service, and maintained for eight years by the employers of their parents, were bound as apprentices for ten years longer. In the opinion of the governor who made this law it was better for the children that they should acquire industrious habits, even if restraint had to be used, than that they should become vagrants. The reverend Dr. Philip, however, who was superintendent of the London society's missions in South Africa, claimed for people of all colours and conditions exactly the same treatment; and as the great philanthropical societies of England supported him, he was virtually master of the position.

In July 1828 an ordinance was issued which relieved the Hottentots and other free coloured people from the laws concerning passes and the apprenticeship of children, and placed them in all respects on a political level with Europeans. From that time the colony was overrun by idle wanderers to such an extent that farming could hardly be made to pay, and the coloured people were falling back in the scale of civilisation; but when an attempt was

made a few years later to get a vagrant act proclaimed, Dr. Philip and his party opposed the measure so strongly that it had to be abandoned.

Sir Lowry Cole, who became governor in 1828, caused between two and three thousand Hottentots and people of mixed blood to be located at the Kat river, in the territory ceded by Gaika to the colony. Several small streams unite to form this river, and in their valleys the land is easily irrigated and is of great fertility. In the best places settlements were formed, each divided into plots of from four to six acres in extent, upon which a family was placed. The ground between the settlements was to remain as a commonage, each family having the right to graze cattle on it. The settlers were to remain five years on trial, at the end of which period those who had built cottages and tilled the ground were to receive grants in freehold, but every plot not improved within that time was to revert to government. For a while the settlement appeared to flourish. The government supplied seed corn, furrows for leading out water were made, and a large extent of ground was brought under cultivation. In the course of a few years, however, it was seen that the pure Hottentots could not sustain such efforts beyond two or three seasons, but there were many half-breeds among those to whom plots of ground were assigned, and they formed a more stable class.

Early in 1834 Sir Benjamin D'Urban arrived as governor, with instructions from the secretary of state to carry out several important measures. The first was retrenchment of expenditure on a very

extensive scale, as the colonial revenue was less than the outlay, and the public debt was increasing. Various offices were now combined, so that one man had to do the work previously performed by two, and all salaries were greatly reduced. The outlay on roads, buildings, and, indeed, everything maintained by the government, was cut down as much as possible.

The second measure was a slight change in the form of government, caused by the creation of distinct legislative and executive councils. The colonists had often sent petitions to England to be allowed to have a representative assembly, but these had always failed. At length, however, the imperial authorities resolved to make the government of the Cape appear a little less despotic, and for this purpose a legislative council was created. It consisted of the governor, as president, five of the highest officials, and five colonists selected by the governor. Its power can be inferred from a remark of Sir George Napier to one of the unofficial members who was combating the government view of a question: "You may spare your breath in this matter, everything of importance is settled before it comes here." Still it was a step—though a very short one—in the right direction.

The council of advice previously existing now became an executive council, and was made to consist of four high officials.

The third special object which Sir Benjamin D'Urban was instructed to carry into effect was the emancipation of the slaves.

As long as the Dutch East India Company held the colony slaves were brought into it, but not in very large numbers, for their services were only needed to a limited extent. During the first British occupation a great many were imported, as the trade was then profitable, and English energy was employed in it. The Batavian government, being opposed to the system, allowed very few to be landed, and had it lasted a couple of years longer, every child born thereafter would have been declared free.

The suppression of the foreign slave trade by the British government followed so closely upon the second conquest of the colony, that there was only time in the interval for five hundred negroes to be imported. From that date the increase in the number of slaves was due to the large excess of births over deaths.

There never was an attempt in South Africa to defend the system in theory. Indeed, it was a common remark that it was worse for the white man, who had all the care and anxiety, than for the negro, who had only manual labour to perform. But it is not easy to disturb any system, good or bad, upon which the habits of a people have been formed, and in the Cape Colony money to the amount of over three million pounds sterling was invested in slaves.

The testimony of every one competent to form a correct opinion concurred that in no other part of the world was bondage so light. Except in planting and harvesting the labour of the negroes was easy, and they certainly did not feel themselves degraded

by compulsory service. They were the most light-hearted of mortals. The English governors were of opinion that they enjoyed more comfort than labourers in Great Britain, and that the Dutch laws gave them sufficient protection against ill-usage. To judge of their condition by imagining what a European would feel in a similar state leads to a false conclusion, for their hereditary training and line of thought were entirely different.

In 1816 laws began to be made for reducing the power of the masters and conferring rights upon the slaves, and almost every year they increased in stringency. For some time the colonists made no objection to them, but at length control over dependents was so limited that many negroes became insubordinate. Public meetings were then held, at which the opinion was maintained that the ties between master and slave were too weakened to bear further straining. A resolution was passed with one voice at a meeting of slaveholders at Graaff-Reinet, and was generally agreed to in the other districts, that if the English government would stop irritating legislation they would consent that from the date of the arrangement all female children should be free at birth, so that slavery might gradually die out.

Another plan was adopted by a few well-meaning persons in Capetown, who formed a society for aiding deserving slaves and slave children to purchase their freedom. The society collected subscriptions, and turned its attention chiefly to the emancipation of young girls. It hoped to receive aid in money from the British treasury and from benevolent persons in

England, but was disappointed in both. With means limited almost entirely to colonial subscriptions, however, it was able to purchase the freedom of about twenty-five girls yearly.

In England neither of these plans met with favour.

In 1830 an order in council was issued prescribing the quantity and quality of food to be given to slaves, the clothing that should be provided for them, the hours during which they should not be obliged to work, and many other matters. It was followed in 1831 by another order in council, limiting the hours of slave labour to nine daily, and nearly destroying the owners' authority. The excitement was now so great that the governor thought it necessary to prohibit public meetings and to threaten to banish any one who should attempt to disturb the peace.

As soon as the clamour subsided, however, he gave his consent to a public meeting being held, and about two thousand slaveholders came together in Capetown. The utmost order was observed, though resolutions were carried that the lately made laws were highly unjust. The whole assembly then marched to the open space in front of government house, when two gentlemen were deputed to inform the governor that the slaveholders were prepared to suffer the penalties of the orders in council, but could not obey them.

The strain upon the colonists was so great that it was felt as a relief when in August 1833 an emancipation act, to have force in all the British possessions, was passed by the imperial parliament. For the Cape Colony it provided that on the 1st of

December 1834 slavery was to cease, and after a short term of apprenticeship the negroes were to have exactly the same civil rights as white people. The sum of twenty million pounds sterling was voted to compensate the owners in the nineteen slave colonies of Great Britain, and the share of each colony was to be determined by the appraised value of its slaves.

There was a general impression that this money would suffice to meet the whole, or nearly the whole, value of the slaves, and as most people believed that a vagrant act would be passed before the day of emancipation, they were disposed to accept the new condition of things without demur or heartburning. There were then in the colony thirty-nine thousand slaves, of whom between three and four thousand were aged or infirm, and the others were appraised at rather over three million pounds sterling.

The year 1835 was well advanced when intelligence was received from England that the returns for all the colonies were complete, and that of the twenty millions sterling the share awarded to the Cape was a little less than one million and a quarter. The intelligence created a panic greater than any ever known before in South Africa. Many of the late slaves were mortgaged to the various institutions for lending money, and every bond contained a clause covering all other property. At once there was a demand for the redemption of the bonds, and goods and effects were sold at any price that could be obtained. In some instances slaves had been the sole property of widows, or minors, or aged people

and the late owners were at once reduced to indigence.

But the whole loss was not even yet known. Succeeding mails brought information that the imperial government would not send the money to South Africa, but that each claim would have to be proved before commissioners in London, when the amount allowed would be paid in stock, after certain charges were deducted. This decision brought into the country a swarm of petty agents, who purchased claims at perhaps half their real value, so that a colonist, instead of receiving two-fifths of the appraised value of his slaves, often received only one-fifth or one-sixth.

It would be difficult to picture too darkly the misery caused by this confiscation of two millions' worth of the property of a small and not over flourishing community. Some families never recovered from the blow. Aged men and women who had not before known want went down to the grave penniless, and in hundreds of the best households of the country the pinch of poverty was sorely felt. Emancipation in itself assuredly was a righteous act, for there can be nothing more abominable than one man holding another as property ; but a vast amount of distress might have been prevented by effecting it in the manner that the colonists proposed.

In addition to the direct loss, the wheat and wine farmers for many years were unable to bring as much produce to market as before, owing to the scarcity of labour. One industry only—but that afterwards a very important one,—the breeding of merino sheep

for the sake of wool, received a great impetus from the emancipation of the slaves, for it could be carried on with fewer workmen than were required in agriculture.

The liberated slaves mostly flocked into the towns and villages, where missionary and philanthropic energy in all conceivable forms was expended upon them. In general they could now exist by working perhaps half as many hours as before the emancipation, for much of their time was passed in idleness; but they were neither more comfortably clothed nor better fed or housed, nor—with few exceptions—did they make any perceptible intellectual advancement. During recent years, however, there has been a great improvement in the character of many of the descendants of the slaves, who now earn a respectable living by manual labour. These have probably improved in morals; very many of those who attend the mission chapels certainly have. But as free agents the pleasures of a large proportion of them continue to be of a low order. Given any noisy musical instrument, a bright sun, and a gaudy dress, and their mirth is unattainable by Europeans. Without energy, or ambition, or a thought of the responsibility of life, they manage to pass their days in an easy and joyous manner.

Three of the special duties assigned to Sir Benjamin D'Urban have been mentioned: another was to enter into treaties of friendship with the independent chiefs beyond the colonial frontier.

Both on the north and the east the border was then in a disturbed condition. There was a band

of freebooters—mostly Hottentots—plundering the graziers of the northern districts, and as their haunts were on some islands in the Orange river, which were covered with jungle and very difficult of access to strangers, they were able to set their pursuers at defiance. Farther up the river a petty Griqua captain, named Andries Waterboer, was living, and through the agency of his missionary a treaty was entered into with him. He was to receive £100 a year as a subsidy for himself and £50 a year for a mission school, he was provided with two hundred muskets and a quantity of ammunition, and he engaged in return to be a faithful friend and ally of the colony and to preserve peace along the border from Kheis to Ramah. This was the first treaty of the kind ever made in South Africa, and it was the only one that answered its purpose. Waterboer kept his engagement, and rooted out the freebooters.

Sir Benjamin D'Urban intended to visit the eastern frontier to make similar arrangements with the Xosa chiefs, but was detained in Capetown by pressing business, and before he had been a year in the colony the sixth Kaffir war commenced.

The plan of Lord Charles Somerset to keep the tract of land between the Fish and Keiskama rivers unoccupied soon proved a failure, as robbers made their way across it without difficulty. Then clans of Xosas supposed to be friendly—among others those under two sons of Gaika named Makoma and Tyali—were allowed to occupy the ground, in hope that they would prevent cattle-lifters passing through. But they proved to be as expert and unscrupulous

robbers as ever the followers of Ndlambe had been, and it became necessary to make reprisals upon them just as upon the others. After a while Ndlambe and one of his sons were recognised by the government as chiefs of the people who through all their troubles had adhered to them, and from that moment the sons of Gaika regarded the Europeans as enemies.

Their conduct now became so bad that the governor was obliged to remove first one and then the other from the ceded territory, and this, of course, created a strong feeling of resentment on their part. In 1829 Gaika died, leaving a young lad named Sandile as his principal heir, when Makoma's power was greatly increased, as he became regent for his half-brother. Ndlambe had died in the preceding year, and quarrels arose among his sons and grandsons, some of whom allied themselves with Makoma to gain support. Thus it happened that the family whose position the government had done so much to build up was now both strong and hostile.

A rupture had long been threatening, when some Xosas, by stealing the horses of the officers at Fort Beaufort, drew a party of soldiers into a quarrel in which a petty captain was slightly wounded and some cattle belonging to Tyali were seized. This was announced by the chiefs to be a declaration of war, and a few days later—21st of December 1834—between twelve and twenty thousand warriors made a sudden rush into the colony, swept off nearly all the cattle east of the Sunday river, burned the houses, and murdered every white man who could

not escape. Among others, most of the British settlers of 1820 who were living on farms were reduced to destitution. The unfortunate people had barely time to flee to Grahamstown, Bathurst, or some other place of refuge, and were compelled to abandon everything.

When intelligence of the invasion reached Capetown, Colonel—afterwards Sir Harry—Smith hastened to the frontier, and began to organise a force to operate against the Xosas. The governor followed as speedily as possible. The burghers all over the colony were called out, and as soon as they could muster, an advance was made into Kaffirland, the raiders having in the meantime retired to the fastnesses of their own country, after sending the cattle over the Kei to be guarded by Hintsa.

The Xosas, as is their custom, refused to meet the Europeans on open ground, and it was no easy matter to deprive them of their strongholds. They simply retired from one jungle to another, after resisting as long as they could, and reoccupied every place that was not well guarded after being taken. To meet this difficulty, Sir Benjamin D'Urban formed several camps in commanding positions, from which patrols could be sent out frequently to scour the forests in their neighbourhood. It was the only plan open to him, but the country was too large to be held in subjection in this way by the force at his disposal.

As soon as this arrangement was completed, the governor crossed the Kei with a considerable army to recover the cattle. Messages were sent to Hintsa offering peace if he would give them up, but for some

time he made no reply. Colonel Smith was then directed to scour his country, and met with such success that the chief himself came to the British camp and agreed to the terms demanded. He left his son Krelî and one of his brothers as hostages with Sir Benjamin D'Urban, and volunteered to guide a



PORTRAIT OF HINTSA.
(From a Sketch by Captain Michell.)

detachment of troops and burghers under Colonel Smith to the place where the cattle were kept; but on the way he attempted to escape, and was shot dead by a colonist who pursued him.

Krelî succeeded his father as paramount chief of the Xosa tribe, and peace was concluded with him

upon his undertaking to restore the cattle in instalments. The clans west of the Kei were still holding out, but in September 1835 they tendered their submission, and hostilities came to an end.

The arrangements made by Sir Benjamin D'Urban for the preservation of peace were such as every one approves of at the present day. He brought some eighteen thousand Fingos from beyond the Kei, and gave them ground between the Keiskama and Fish rivers, where they would form a buffer for the colonists. They and the Xosas hated each other bitterly, and this feeling was deepened by their appropriating and taking with them twenty-two thousand head of cattle belonging to Krelis's people. It was thus to their interest to act honestly towards the Europeans, whose support alone could save them from destruction. Between the Keiskama and the Kei the western Xosa clans were located as British subjects, but a great deal of authority was left to the chiefs. The territory was named the Province of Queen Adelaide, and Colonel Smith was stationed at a place in it which was called King-Williamstown, to command the troops and control the chiefs. This plan of settlement commended itself to the great majority of the colonists and of the missionaries, who hoped that under it the Xosas would make rapid advances towards civilisation and that property on the border would be secure.

There was, however, in Capetown—five hundred miles from the Kaffir frontier—a party under the leadership of the reverend Dr. Philip, that entirely disapproved of the governor's plans. It was composed

of only a few individuals, but it had powerful support from abroad. This party desired the formation of states ruled by Bantu chiefs under the guidance of missionaries, and from which Europeans not favoured by missionaries should be excluded. It maintained the theory that the Xosas were an eminently docile and peaceably disposed people, who could easily be taught to do what was right, and who must therefore have been provoked to take up arms by great wrongs and cruelties. The utmost fear was expressed by its members that the Bantu tribes would perish if exposed to free intercourse with white people.

To push his views Dr. Philip visited England with a Xosa and a half-breed Hottentot who had been trained by missionaries. A committee of the house of commons was at the time collecting information upon the aborigines in British colonies, and Dr. Philip appeared before it. His evidence was received at great length, and though it consisted largely of opinion, it was allowed to outweigh that of the officers of greatest experience in South African affairs.

Before the committee of the house of commons appeared also a disappointed retired official from the colony, Captain Andries Stockenstrom, who denounced the proceedings of the government on the eastern frontier as unjust and oppressive. He asserted his belief that there were civilised nations in which the proportion of thieves was greater than among the Xosas, and he was of opinion that treaties could be made with the chiefs by which cattle-lifting could be suppressed.

No evidence could have been more gratifying to Lord Glenelg, who in April 1835 became secretary of state for the colonies. He held the same views as Dr. Philip, and here was Captain Stockenstrom, a South African by birth, in full accord with him. The secretary resolved at once to undo all that Sir Benjamin D'Urban had done. In a despatch dated the 26th of December 1835, he announced that the sovereignty over the country between the Keiskama and the Kei must be withdrawn, because "it rested upon a war in which the original justice was on the side of the conquered, not of the victorious party." He asserted that "the Xosas had an ample justification of the war in the conduct which was pursued towards them by the colonists and the public authorities through a long series of years, they were urged to revenge and desperation by the systematic injustice of which they had been the victims, and they had a perfect right to endeavour to extort by force that redress which they could not expect otherwise to obtain." He added that a lieutenant-governor would immediately be appointed for the eastern districts, who would be entrusted with authority to arrange border affairs in accordance with his views.

- The contents of this despatch spread consternation widely over South Africa. Outside of Dr. Philip's little party in Capetown there was but one opinion: that it destroyed all hope of the preservation of order, and placed life and whatever property was left in the eastern districts at the mercy of the Xosas. The next mail brought tidings that Captain Stocken-

strom had been appointed lieutenant-governor, and might shortly be expected. The British settlers at once sent an earnest protest to England, with an appeal for a close investigation of all occurrences on the border, but they could obtain no redress. Sir Benjamin D'Urban wrote, pointing out that the colonists at any rate were free of blame, as they had no voice in devising the various modes of dealing with the Xosas that had been in force, but the only result was his dismissal from office. To the Dutch colonists in the frontier districts who still possessed the means of moving there seemed to be but one course open: to flee from British rule, and to seek a new home somewhere in the vast wilderness left unpeopled by the wars of Tshaka.

XVI.

GREAT EMIGRATION FROM THE CAPE COLONY. EXPULSION OF MOSELEKATSE FROM THE TERRITORY SOUTH OF THE LIMPOPO.

To people in England one of the strangest events of the nineteenth century is the abandonment of their homes by thousands of Cape colonists after 1836, and their braving all the hardships of life in the wilderness for no other cause than to be free of British rule. Yet there is nothing to cause surprise in the matter, if the character of the Dutch people is considered. These colonists were of the same blood as the men who withstood the great power of Philip II of Spain, who laid the richest part of their country under water rather than surrender it to Louis XIV of France. They were not the men and women to submit to what they believed to be misrule, if there was a possibility of successful resistance or a chance of making their escape.

Many of them, as we have seen, were accustomed to live in waggons and to subsist to a large extent upon game, so that moving deeper into the continent was in itself no great difficulty. Before them was a

vast waste swarming with wild animals, what wonder that they should move into it with such powerful motives to urge them on.

Let us look again briefly at the grievances which determined their conduct. First, there was subjection by a foreign and unsympathetic government. Second, there was the prohibition of their language in the public offices and courts of law. Third, there was the superintendent of the London missionary society, their ablest and most relentless opponent, in possession of boundless influence with the British authorities. Fourth, there were the slanderous statements made by the philanthropic societies in England concerning them. Fifth, there was the sudden emancipation of their slaves without adequate compensation. Sixth, there was the whole mass of the coloured people placed upon a political footing with them, and that without a vagrant act being put into force. Seventh, there was no security for life or property in the eastern districts, which were exposed to invasion by the Xosas, as the secretary of state took part with the barbarians. These were the chief causes of the great emigration, and there were many others of less importance.

And now all over the frontier districts the great waggons were laden with household goods and provisions and ammunition, and bands of people set out to seek a new home in the north. Each party was usually made up of families related to each other, and the man of greatest influence in it was elected its leader, with the title of commandant. The horned cattle, horses, sheep, and goats were driven slowly on,

and often when the pasture was good the caravans would rest for weeks together. They went up from the grass-covered hills along the coast and the bare Karoo farther inland, till they came to one or other of the steep passes into the elevated basin drained by the Orange and its numerous tributaries. With twenty to thirty oxen before each waggon they struggled up, and then went on without difficulty down the long slope to the river and across the wide plains of the present Orange Free State.

North of the Orange the emigrants regarded themselves as beyond English authority, for over and over again it had been officially announced that Great Britain would not enlarge her possessions in South Africa.

The first party that left the colony made its way northward to the Zoutpansberg, where it divided into two sections of about fifty individuals each. One of these sections was cut off by a band of blacks, and all its members, young and old, were murdered. The other attempted to explore the country to Delagoa Bay, but lost its cattle by the tsetse, and was then attacked by fever, from which only one man and barely half the women and children recovered. The unfortunate survivors after almost incredible hardships reached Delagoa Bay, where they were very kindly treated by the Portuguese authorities, being provided with food and shelter until their friends could send a vessel from Natal to rescue them.

The second party was much larger, and was under the leadership of a man of considerable ability,

named Hendrik Potgieter. It moved slowly on until it reached the banks of the Vet river, a tributary of the Vaal, where it halted. Potgieter found here a Bantu captain in a very wretched condition, who claimed to be the descendant of chiefs that had once ruled over numerous followers in a wide expanse of country. Having lived long in fear of doing anything that might bring him to the knowledge of Moselekatse, he was delighted at the appearance of the white people, especially when he received from them a very liberal offer. Potgieter proposed that he should sell the country which he claimed, except a reserve of ample size for himself and his followers, and receive in exchange protection and a small herd of cattle. The captain at once consented, and then the emigrants took possession of the land between the Vet and Vaal rivers, some of them even moving beyond the Vaal.

After a while Commandant Potgieter and eleven others went out to explore the country northward, and travelled as far as the Zoutpansberg, where they were much pleased with the fertility of the soil and the rich pasture. They believed also that communication with the outer world could be opened through Delagoa Bay, so that the country seemed to offer every advantage that could be desired for a settlement.

In high spirits they set out to return to their families, but on arriving at the place where they had left the last waggons they were struck with horror by finding that many of their friends had been massacred in a dreadful manner not long before. A band of

Moselekatse's warriors, while traversing the country to keep it from being occupied, had suddenly come upon a little party of white people, and murdered all who could not escape. Most of those along the Vaal, however, had notice in time to draw their waggons around them, and, when attacked, were able to beat off their assailants. The Matabele soldiers then returned to the Marikwa for reinforcements.

Potgieter immediately selected a suitable hill, and formed a strong lager on it, by lashing fifty waggons together in a circle and filling all the open spaces except a narrow entrance with thorn-trees. He had not long to wait before the Matabele attacked him. They rushed upon the lager with loud hisses, but were received with a deadly fire from the forty men inside, and were obliged to fall back. Again they rushed on regardless of death, and strove to tear the waggons apart, but could not. The forty defenders of the lager were keeping up a rapid fire, for their wives and mothers were loading spare guns for their use. As a last resource the men of one of the Matabele regiments threw their spears over the waggons, where over eleven hundred were afterwards picked up, and when this failed they withdrew, but drove off the whole of the emigrants' cattle. They left a hundred and fifty-five corpses on the ground outside the lager.

Potgieter's party was now in great distress. Including servants, forty-six of its members had been murdered, and the survivors were in a solitary waste without the means of moving and with very little food. Fortunately, however, the third band of emigrants,

under Commandant Gerrit Maritz, had just encamped at Thaba Ntshu, and learning what had happened, sent oxen to bring away the unfortunate people and their effects.

And now it was to be seen what metal the emigrants were made of. It might be thought that with such experience they would have retreated at once, but the idea of abandoning their project never occurred to one of them. Instead of fleeing from Moselekatse, they resolved to attack him in his own kraal, and punish him severely for what he had done. One hundred and seven farmers mustered for this purpose, and with them went forty half-breeds and a few blacks to look after the horses. A deserter from the Matabele army volunteered to act as guide.

So thoroughly depopulated was the country that not an individual was met between Thaba Ntshu and Mosega, and the commando under Potgieter and Maritz was able to surprise the southernmost military kraal of the Matabele one morning at break of day. Moselekatse himself was not there at the time, and the induna in command of the soldiers happened also to be absent. This was a fortunate circumstance for the farmers. The soldiers grasped their spears and shields, and rushed forward; but volleys of slugs drove them back in confusion, and there was no one of sufficient authority to restore order. They took to flight, and were hunted by the farmers until the sun was high overhead, when it was computed that at least four hundred must have been slain. The commando then set fire to the kraal, and with nearly seven thousand head of cattle returned to Thaba Ntshu.

After this Potgieter's party formed a camp on the Vet river, at a place to which the name Winburg was given in memory of the recent victory. There it was strengthened by the arrival of numerous families from the colony.

At this time also a band reached Thaba Ntshu from the Winterberg with a very able man, named Pieter Retief, as its head.

On the 6th of June 1837 a general assembly of the emigrants was held at Winburg, when a provisional constitution, consisting of nine articles, was adopted. The supreme legislative power was entrusted to a single elective chamber termed the volksraad, the fundamental law was declared to be the Dutch, a court of landdrost and heemraden was created, and the chief executive authority was confided to Mr. Retief with the title of commandant-general. The strong feeling of antagonism that Dr. Philip had roused is shown in one of the articles of the constitution, which provided that every member of the community and all who should thereafter join them must take an oath to have no connection with the London missionary society. That body was regarded by them as purely a political institution, advocating and spreading principles of anarchy; and they regarded it as something like blasphemy to speak of its superintendent in Capetown as a minister of the gospel.

Fresh bands of emigrants were frequently arriving, and some of them thought it would be better to go down into Natal than to remain on the highlands of the interior. Pieter Uys, the leader of one of these

bands, had visited Natal a couple of years before, and waxed eloquent when describing its beauty and fertility. Retief himself was inclined to favour a settlement near the sea, but before making up his mind finally, he and some others proceeded to inspect the country below the mountains and ascertain if Dingana would dispose of it.

While they were away the second expedition against the Matabele set out. It consisted of one hundred and thirty-five farmers in two divisions, under Hendrik Potgieter and Pieter Uys. Moselekatse was found on the Marikwa, about fifty miles north of Mosega, and he had with him at least twelve thousand warriors, all splendidly trained and as brave as any troops that ever lived. But the advantage of the farmers in their guns and horses was so great that the hundred and thirty-five did not hesitate to attack a force which was to theirs as ninety to one. For nine days the Matabele tried to reach their opponents, but all their efforts were in vain. The farmers were more than once nearly surrounded, still their plans were so perfect that they were never quite entrapped. They had little else than dried meat to live upon, and they had no resting-place but the bare ground with a saddle for a pillow. Only the hardest of men and horses could have carried on aggressive operations so long.

The loss of the Matabele was great, so great that at the end of the nine days Moselekatse gave up the contest and sought only to escape. With his people and his cattle he fled to the north, and in the country beyond the Limpopo commenced to destroy the

Mashona tribes as he had destroyed the southern Betschuana. The farmers were too wearied to follow him, and indeed they could not have continued in the field much longer under any circumstances, so they contented themselves by seizing six or seven thousand head of cattle, with which they returned to Winburg.

After the flight of Moselekatse, Commandant Potgieter issued a proclamation, in which he declared that the whole of the territory which that chief had overrun and now abandoned was forfeited to the emigrants. It included the greater part of the present Transvaal Province, fully half of the present Orange Free State, and the whole of Southern Betschuana-land to the Kalahari desert, except the district occupied by the Batlapin. This immense tract of country was then almost uninhabited, and must have remained so if the Matabele had not been driven out.

XVII.

DESTRUCTION OF THE ZULU POWER AND FOUNDATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF NATAL.

IN all the world there is not a fairer country than the pleasant land of Natal, stretching in steps from the Drakensberg, which bounds it like a mighty wall, downward to the shore of the Indian sea. The coast belt is covered with sub-tropical vegetation, for it is heated by the warm Mozambique current, which runs southward along it, and gives it a higher temperature than is due to its distance from the equator. Each terrace, as the traveller ascends, is cooler than the one below, though it is nowhere cold. It is a well-watered land. Numerous streams, issuing from the Drakensberg and the fronts of the lower terraces, rush along in deep gorges to the sea, and carry off the superabundant moisture, so that it is also well drained. Its soil is rich, its forests yield excellent timber, and the grass in its valleys resembles a meadow. Its climate everywhere is healthy for Europeans.

When Pieter Retief and his companions went down into it by a pass they had discovered, there were between the Tugela and Umzimvubu rivers only

from five to ten thousand inhabitants. These acknowledged as their chiefs a few Englishmen whom Tshaka and Dingana permitted to reside at the port as semi-independent vassals, and who carried on trade with the Zulu despot. The tract of land between the Tugela and Buffalo rivers, which in later years formed part of the colony of Natal, was then occupied by Zulu subjects, of whose numbers it is impossible to give an estimate.

Retief liked the appearance of the country, and the accounts which he received from the Englishmen at the port confirmed his impression. These Englishmen had in vain petitioned the imperial government to declare it a British possession, so now they were only too glad to welcome the emigrant farmers. Two of them, who had been in the country thirteen years and who spoke Zulu as well as English, accompanied Retief to Dingana's residence in the capacity of guides and interpreters.

The Zulu capital was called Umkungunhlovu. It was in the shape of an enormous hollow circle formed by concentric rows of huts that served as barracks for the soldiers. The interior space was the drill ground. An English missionary clergyman, named Owen, was living there at the time, but he had not been able to get any one to listen to his teaching. There was also an English lad named William Wood—son of one of the residents at Port Natal—who was a favourite of Dingana and his confidential interpreter.

The despot received Retief with every show of friendship. There was a grand parade, apparently to please him, and a big dance in which highly trained

oxen took part with soldiers. Beef in huge pieces was sent to the visitors from the chief's own eating-mat, which served as a dish does on a European table, and the best millet beer, such as Dingana himself used to drink huge draughts of, was supplied in calabashes of the largest size.

When Retief spoke about Natal, the chief said he might have it for his countrymen to live in, but first he must prove his friendship by recovering a herd of about seven hundred cattle that Sikonyela, son of Ma Ntatisi, had recently stolen from a Zulu outpost. Retief accepted the condition, and upon his return to Winburg sent for Sikonyela, whose residence was at *Imparani*, north of the *Caledon*, and required him to surrender Dingana's oxen and some horses he had stolen from the emigrants. They were given up without bloodshed, and then nearly a thousand white-tilted waggons in a long line went down the steep pass of the *Drakensberg* and halted on the banks of the *Bluekrans* and *Bushman's* rivers in the uplands of Natal.

Retief now prepared to proceed to *Umkungunhlovu* with the cattle. There were among the emigrants men who were suspicious of Dingana's good faith, and who thought their leader should not risk a life of such value to the community by going again himself, but he was so confident in the chief's friendly disposition that he would not listen to them. Sixty-six Europeans and about thirty Hottentot servants accompanied him.

They were received, as before, with every show of respect and hospitality, and Dingana expressed

himself well pleased with the restoration of his cattle. He requested the reverend Mr. Owen to draw up a paper to show that he had given Natal to Retief, and when this was done in the English language and translated to him, he said it was correct and handed it to the emigrant leader. The farmers were so entirely thrown off their guard that when they were ready to leave and were invited to go into the centre of the kraal to partake of some beer and bid adieu to the chief, they left their guns outside. They were seated on the ground without a thought of danger, when Dingana suddenly exclaimed "Seize them!" and immediately a regiment of soldiers rushed upon them, drew them to the place of execution, and broke their skulls with clubs. Not a single emigrant or a Hottentot, not even their English interpreter from Port Natal, was suffered to escape.

A few hours later some ten thousand soldiers left Umkungunhlovu, and, after eleven days' march, at early dawn one morning fell upon the most advanced emigrant encampment, which was near the present village of Weenen. Who can describe in adequate language the horrors that followed? Babes with their brains dashed out against waggon wheels, women ripped up with Zulu spears, girls and boys with their necks twisted, were lying thick on the ground when the sun rose that morning. Forty-one white men, fifty-six white women, one hundred and eighty-five white children, and about two hundred and fifty coloured servants perished in the dreadful massacre. Needless to say, the waggons and their contents were utterly destroyed.

Every emigrant in Natal must have met a similar fate had not, providentially, a young man been awake and close to a cattle kraal when the assault was made. He managed to spring on an unsaddled horse, and rode with all speed to give warning to the parties farther on. These had barely time to draw their waggons around them when the Zulus appeared, but though the most desperate efforts were made by the savage warriors, the simple lagers proved effective, for not one of them was taken. The courage, and skill, and coolness in danger displayed that day by the emigrants, men and women alike, have never been excelled in the world's history. The Zulus, too, were brave, and literally heaps of their dead lay around the lagers before they turned to retreat. At dusk they set out for Umkungunhlovu with as many cattle as they could collect.

The night was spent by the emigrants in watchfulness and prayer, each little party hardly daring to hope that any other had escaped. Next morning communication between the lagers was opened, and the full extent of their loss became known. Their first care now was to concentrate and strengthen an encampment, in case the Zulus should renew the attack, and then a general assembly was held to decide what was to be done. One or two men proposed that they should leave Natal, but they were put to shame by the women, who declared they would never abandon the country till the Zulus were punished for shedding so much innocent blood. This feeling was general, for it was regarded as a duty to bring the murderers to account. Then they put up

an earnest prayer to the God of heaven that He would not forsake His people, nor allow the heathen to triumph over them. From the bible—the only book with which they were thoroughly conversant—they drew consolation and hope, which enabled them to bear up against their trouble, and to take courage for the prosecution of the task before them.

When these events took place, Pieter Uys was at the top of the Drakensberg in readiness to go down, and Hendrik Potgieter was at Winburg, as his party preferred to remain on the interior highland. Both of them now collected as many fighting men as possible, and hastened to the assistance of the distressed people in Natal. The Englishmen at the port also, having lost two of their companions in the massacres, offered to help with all their followers, many of whom were trained soldiers who had deserted from the Zulu army.

When it came to a question of who was to be the leader, however, jealousy of each other—the bane of the emigrants—showed itself at once. Even Pieter Retief could not preserve perfect concord among the various heads of parties, and after his death there was no one whom all the others would admit as a superior. At length it was arranged that the English chiefs with their people should attack Dingana on one side while Potgieter and Uys attacked him on another, and Maritz should remain at the camp to protect it.

The two commandants, with three hundred and forty-seven men, rode directly towards the Zulu capital. After five days' march through an uninhabited country, they came in sight of a division

of the Zulu army, which they attacked impetuously, and were drawn into a skilfully planned ambushade. Before them were two parallel ranges of hills, with a long defile between them, and into this the farmers were led by the Zulus apparently retreating before them. Uys's division was in advance. When in the narrowest part of the gorge they found themselves surrounded by an immense force which had been lying in ambush, and by which they were so hemmed in that they could not fall back rapidly after firing and again load and charge, as was their mode of fighting with Moselekatse. They therefore directed all their fire upon the mass of the enemy behind them, when, having cleared a path by shooting down hundreds, they rushed through and escaped. Ten of them were killed, and they were obliged to leave their led horses, baggage, and spare ammunition behind. Among the slain was Commandant Uys, who was assisting a wounded comrade when he received a stab from an assagai. His son, Dirk Cornelis Uys, a boy of fifteen years of age, was some distance off, but, looking about, he saw his father on the ground, and a Zulu in the act of stabbing him. The gallant youth turned his horse and rode to help his parent, but could only die at his side.

A few days later seventeen Englishmen left Port Natal with about fifteen hundred blacks, of whom between three and four hundred were armed with muskets. A few miles south of the Tugela they came upon a Zulu regiment, which pretended to take to flight, left food cooking on fires, and even threw away a number of shields and assagais. The

Natal army pursued with all haste, crossed the Tugela, took possession of a kraal on the northern bank, and then found it had been drawn between the horns of a Zulu army fully seven thousand strong.

The battle that was fought, on the 17th of April 1838, was one of the most desperate contests that ever took place on that bloodstained soil. Three times in succession the Natal army beat back the regiments that charged furiously upon it. Then a strong Zulu reinforcement came in sight, and renewed the enemy's courage. Another rush was made, which cut the Natal army in two, and all hope of successful resistance was over. One of the divisions tried to escape by the only open path, which was down a steep bank of the Tugela and across that river. A Zulu regiment hastened to cut off the retreat of the fugitives, and many were killed in the water; but four Englishmen and about five hundred blacks managed to get through. The other division was entirely surrounded. But no lion at bay ever created such havoc among hounds that worried him as this little band caused among the warriors of Dingana before it perished. The young regiments were selected to charge upon it, while the veterans watched their prowess from a neighbouring hill. Whole masses went down before the withering fire, the survivors recoiled, but again they were directed to charge. At last a rush of a regiment, with another in reserve close behind, carried everything before it, and the stubborn fight was over. Thirteen Englishmen lay dead on the field of battle,

with a thousand Natal blacks and probably three times that number of Zulus.

After these disasters the emigrants were unable to take the offensive again for some time. Owing to the excessive jealousy between the leaders, Potgieter and his adherents left Natal and went to reside along the Mooi river, where they founded the village of Potchefstroom. Those who remained behind did not venture far from their fortified camp, and suffered much from sickness and insufficiency of food. While in this distress, however, they were strengthened by the arrival of many of their friends from the colony, and they never once gave up hope of ultimate success. During the winter Dingana sent an army to attack them, but they were careful not to be drawn out of the lager by stratagem, and all attempts to reach them behind their defences failed.

In November a man of great natural ability, named Andries Pretorius, arrived in Natal, and was elected commandant-general. He at once assembled a force of four hundred and sixty-four men, all that could be spared from guarding the camp, and marched towards Umkungunhlovu. He took with him a sufficient number of waggons to form a lager, and at every halting-place these were drawn up in a circle and lashed together. While on the march scouts were patrolling in all directions to guard against surprise. The commando resembled an itinerant prayer meeting rather than a modern army, for the men were imbued with the same spirit as the Ironsides of Cromwell, and spoke and acted in pretty much the same manner. There was no song, no jest heard

in that camp, but prayers were poured forth and psalms were sung at every halting-place. The army made a vow that if God would give them victory over the cruel heathen, they would build a church and set apart a thanksgiving day in every year to commemorate it. The church in Pietermaritzburg and the annual celebration of Dingana's day bear witness that they kept their pledge. They did not wish to fight merely for the sake of revenge. On three occasions the scouts brought in some captured Zulus, and Mr. Pretorius immediately sent these to Dingana to inform him that if he would restore the property taken from the emigrants they were prepared to enter into negotiations for peace.

Dingana's reply came in the form of an army ten or twelve thousand strong, which attacked the camp at early dawn on Sunday the 16th of December 1838. For two full hours the soldiers persevered in the attempt to force a way in, notwithstanding the terrible havoc created among them by the fire from the farmers' guns and several small pieces of artillery. When at length they broke and fled, over three thousand corpses were lying on the ground, and a stream that flowed past the field of carnage was discoloured with gore. It has ever since been called the Blood river.

Pretorius marched to Umkungunhlovu as rapidly as possible, but before he could reach the Zulu capital Dingana set it on fire, and fled. He was pursued, but escaped to a part of the country where cavalry could not act, so the commando returned to Natal with four or five thousand cattle, all that were seen. In the

campaign six white men were killed and three were wounded.

Since the commencement of hostilities Dingana had lost about ten thousand warriors, but his army was still so large that he was by no means humbled. When the farmers retired he rebuilt his capital, and though he pretended to fall in with overtures which were made for peace, it soon became evident that he was only watching for an opportunity to destroy the emigrants. It was therefore not considered advisable to scatter upon farms, so a town, named Pietermaritzburg, was laid out in such a manner that each family could have a large garden, and the cattle be kept under constant protection.

In September 1839 a very important event took place in the Zulu country. Panda, a half-brother of Dingana, conspired to seize the chieftainship. A great number of the incorporated Zulus—the remnants of tribes that had come under Tshaka as the only means of saving themselves—were ready to rally round any leader who could give them reasonable hope of deliverance from incessant bloodshed, and when the induna Nongalaza, who was in command of the district along the northern bank of the Tugela, declared for Panda, they joined him. The rebel chief with a large following then crossed the Tugela, and sent to ask assistance from the Europeans.

The emigrants at first regarded him with suspicion, as it was by no means certain that his flight was not merely a pretence to draw them to destruction. But he soon convinced them of his sincerity, and an

arrangement was then entered into by which he became a vassal of the emigrants in consideration of receiving their support. He remained in Natal under their protection until January 1840, when a burgher force of four hundred men under Commandant-General Pretorius marched with him against Dingana. His own army was about five or six thousand strong, and was commanded by Nongalaza. It marched in a parallel line, but at a distance of twelve or fifteen miles from the burgher commando.

Dingana now realised the danger of his position, and attempted to come to terms with the emigrants. There were two officers immediately under him, whose advice he frequently sought, and through whom he carried on his government. Their names were Tambusa and Umthlela. The first named he sent to the European camp to negotiate for peace. Upon Tambusa's arrival, he and his servant Kombazana were made prisoners, and contrary to all law and justice were brought to trial before a court-martial for having taken part in the massacre at Umkungunhlovu, were sentenced to death, and were executed.

A few hours after this great crime was committed a messenger from Nongalaza brought word to the burgher column that on the preceding day, 30th of January 1840, he had fought a great battle with Dingana's army led by Umthlela, and had won a complete victory.

This battle proved a decisive one. At its commencement Dingana's army was superior in number

but during the action a body of his troops went over to Panda's side, and turned the scale. Those who were faithful stood their ground, and fell as became Zulu warriors. The slaughter on each side was enormous. The two best regiments of Dingana perished, for the veterans who had won their plumes under Tshaka chose to die rather than show their backs to the traitors who had deserted their cause. Umthlela placed himself at the head of the reserve, and went into the hottest part of the field, where he was pierced through the heart with an assagai. Still the issue of the day was doubtful, when the cry echoed along Nongalaza's ranks: "The farmers are coming!" It was not so, but the belief that it was answered Nongalaza's purpose. The remnant of Dingana's army, the men who could not flee from a foe armed with spear and shield, gave way in their fear of those dreaded horsemen who had power to deal out death without meeting it themselves. A bushy country spread out before them, and favoured their escape. The battle was over, and the terror which the Zulu name had inspired was a thing of the past.

Dingana fled northward to the border of the Swazi country, where he was soon afterwards assassinated by a man who stole upon him unawares. Those who had adhered to him in his misfortunes then tendered their submission to Panda, by whom they were received with every mark of favour.

After the decisive engagement an enormous booty in cattle fell into the hands of the conquerors. About forty thousand head were delivered to Mr.

Pretorius, and were subsequently distributed among the emigrants in proportion to their losses, which enabled them to follow again their ordinary occupation of cattle breeders, though the stock now acquired was greatly inferior in quality to that they had brought with them from the Cape Colony and that the Zulus had driven off and slaughtered for food.

Before returning to Natal, Mr. Pretorius formally installed Panda as chief of the Zulus, but in vassalage to the volksraad, to which he promised fidelity. This meant that he could continue to rule his people in their own way, without any interference by the Europeans, but that he should do nothing detrimental to the interests of the white people or such as the volksraad might not approve of. The republic of Natal was declared to extend from the Umzimvubu to the Tugela, and the land between the Tugela and Black Umvolosi was proclaimed an appanage of that republic, set apart for the use of the Zulu people.

XVIII.

SEIZURE OF NATAL BY BRITISH FORCES. CREATION OF TREATY STATES ALONG THE FRONTIER OF THE CAPE COLONY.

THE emigrant farmers had now freed South Africa of the destructive Zulu power, and had driven the ferocious Matabele into regions unknown to Europeans. Seldom have such great events been accomplished by means apparently so feeble. Yet they took no credit to themselves for what they had done, because in their view it was God who had wrought the great deliverance, and they were merely humble instruments in His hands. No Israelite of old ever held a belief of this kind more firmly than did these wanderers who had suffered so much and acted so bravely.

It was, however, soon evident that they were less qualified for self-rule than for war, as the government which they established was the weakest and most imprudent that ever existed. It could not be carried on efficiently without a suitable revenue, and they refused to pay any but the most trifling taxes. Every measure of importance after adoption by the volks-

raad had to be referred to the burghers in primary assembly, and nothing but confusion was the result. The public offices from the highest to the lowest—with a solitary exception—were held by uneducated men, who could barely write an ordinary letter, and who were of course ignorant of routine duties. Above all, the utmost prudence was needed to avoid irritating the British government, and they acted as if they could afford to be indifferent to English opinion.

The elevation of the coloured races was then a leading—and surely a praiseworthy—idea in England, but, unfortunately, the great philanthropic and missionary societies had made up their minds as to the precise manner in which this should be effected, and condemned as unchristian all views that differed from their own. Applying their principles to South Africa, the formation of large Bantu states under missionary guidance and British protection was what they desired, and the reverend Dr. Philip, the exponent of their views, was urging this scheme upon the Cape government. Time has shown how faulty it was, but no one even in South Africa could foresee the full extent of the harm it would cause to the black people as well as to the white. The devastations which the Zulus and Matabele had wrought were unknown in Europe, and therefore when intelligence reached England that many thousands of the men of those tribes had fallen before the farmers' guns, public opinion was shocked. No one suspected that the destruction of those fierce warriors meant life to all other black people in the country. The great

societies brought their influence to bear upon the government, in order—as they believed—to stop further bloodshed by compelling the emigrants to return to the Cape Colony. Hardly any one considered it advisable that the British dominions in South Africa should be enlarged by the annexation of the territory which they occupied.

While this was the feeling in England, the republican government resolved not to allow Bantu from beyond the borders to settle in Natal, and to confine those who were already there to certain locations. A commando was also sent against a marauding chief who lived between Natal and the Cape Colony, and he was severely dealt with. If the emigrants had sought to provoke the British government, they could hardly have devised a surer plan. As soon as the intelligence reached Sir George Napier, who was then governor of the Cape Colony, a body of troops was sent to protect the Bantu, and a military camp was formed within a short distance of the southern boundary of the republic.

For some time after the arrival of the emigrants in Natal, every possible effort had been made by the authorities in Capetown to cut off their supply of ammunition, but all attempts to do so had failed. They had now a port of their own, and foreign vessels were beginning to find their way to it. This naturally caused English merchants engaged in the South African trade to feel irritated, for it was supposed that the harbour of Natal might become the principal gateway to the interior.

A resolution of the volksraad to compel some recent Bantu immigrants to retire to a location on the southern side of the republic brought matters to a crisis. The troops on the border were reinforced, and were ordered by Sir George Napier to move on and take possession of Port Natal.

Accordingly two hundred and sixty-three soldiers of all ranks and of different arms, under Captain Thomas Smith, marched forward, meeting with no molestation on the way, and formed a camp at Durban. The volksraad sent a protest, but no notice was taken of it. Commandant-General Pretorius then assembled a number of farmers, and formed a camp at the head of the inlet, from which he sent a demand that the English troops should leave without delay. He claimed for the emigrant farmers perfect independence, but Captain Smith maintained the English view, that they had not ceased to be British subjects and could not by any act of their own throw off their allegiance to the crown of England.

A contest was now inevitable. Captain Smith who altogether underrated the vigilance and courage of his opponent, thought to crush out opposition by a single blow, and left his camp one evening at the head of a hundred and thirty-seven soldiers with the intention of falling by surprise upon Pretorius, who had then with him two hundred and sixty-four men. No military operation could have been worse planned. It was clear moonlight, yet it was thought that the troops would not be noticed. The distance was a march of three miles, and the road was along the

shore of the inlet, which was bordered at one place by dense scrub.

The troops were marching fully exposed past the thicket, with two field-pieces drawn by bullocks, when a sharp fire was opened upon them. They returned the volley, but without doing the slightest damage to the farmers, who were well protected and thoroughly concealed. Another discharge from the thicket wounded some of the oxen, which broke loose from the yokes and rushed furiously about, adding to the confusion. There was no remedy but retreat. Sixteen killed and thirty-one wounded were found by the farmers next day, and three others were drowned. The two guns, the oxen, and indeed everything that could be left behind, fell into the hands of the farmers.

Mr. Pretorius now again demanded that the troops should leave Natal, and to gain time to strengthen his camp, Captain Smith agreed to a truce of a few days, under pretence of considering the matter. A messenger, Richard King by name, provided with two good horses, was directed to ride with all speed through Kaffirland to Grahamstown with a request for help, and he managed to get safely away.

When the truce expired the English camp was invested, and fire was opened upon it from the farmers' batteries, on which three small cannons were mounted. Captain Smith caused deep trenches to be dug, in which the soldiers could remain in security, and he increased his stock of provisions by slaughtering his horses and drying their flesh. The men were put upon short allowance, which, as the siege

advanced, became less and less, until they had nothing more than a few ounces of biscuit-dust and dried horseflesh daily. Fortunately for them there was no want of water, which was obtained from wells sunk within the camp.

The force under Pretorius increased by fresh arrivals until it amounted to six hundred men. They fortified the entrance to the inner harbour, and pressed the siege with vigour. Their cannon-balls having become exhausted, they manufactured others by casting leaden ones over links cut from a chain cable. But so well were the soldiers protected that the fire against them was almost harmless, only eight men being killed and eight wounded on the British side during the twenty-six days that the siege lasted, though six hundred and fifty-one cannon-shot were fired at the camp. On the other side four men were killed, and eight or ten—the exact number cannot be given—were wounded.

The messenger sent by Captain Smith overland, who was familiar with the language and customs of the Bantu tribes on his way, reached Grahamstown in safety, and informed the military authorities of what had happened. A hundred soldiers were thereupon embarked in a schooner at Algoa Bay, and sailed for Port Natal. A wing of a regiment was also taken on board a frigate at Simon's Bay, and proceeded to the same destination.

On Sunday, the 25th of June 1842, the schooner sailed into the inner harbour with a fair wind, having as many soldiers on board as could find room, and towing a number of boats containing others. The

frigate at the same time opened fire with her heavy guns upon the high land commanding the entrance. Three men were killed and five were wounded when passing under the farmers' batteries, but no further resistance was offered, for as soon as the fresh troops landed and Captain Smith was relieved, the burgher force under Pretorius dispersed.

Natal thus became a British possession. Some of the farmers remained in it, but most of them packed their effects in their waggons, and moved over the Drakensberg into the interior. More than three years elapsed, however, before a government under English officials was established, and during that time great numbers of Bantu—chiefly refugees from Zululand—moved into the nearly vacant territory. An arrangement was made with Panda, by which he ceded to the British government the ground between the Buffalo and the upper Tugela river, so that the boundary was extended on the north beyond the passes through the mountain range. Thereafter the Zulu chief was treated as an independent sovereign, and immediately the process commenced of building up again that great military power which cost so much English blood in later years to overthrow. On the south all the land beyond the Umzimkulu river was given to the Pondo chief Faku, and thus Natal was much reduced in size in that direction.

The farmers who went back over the Drakensberg settled in the territory between the Magalisberg and the Vaal river, that had previously been occupied by Commandant Potgieter's adherents. These now moved away to the north-east, in hope of being able

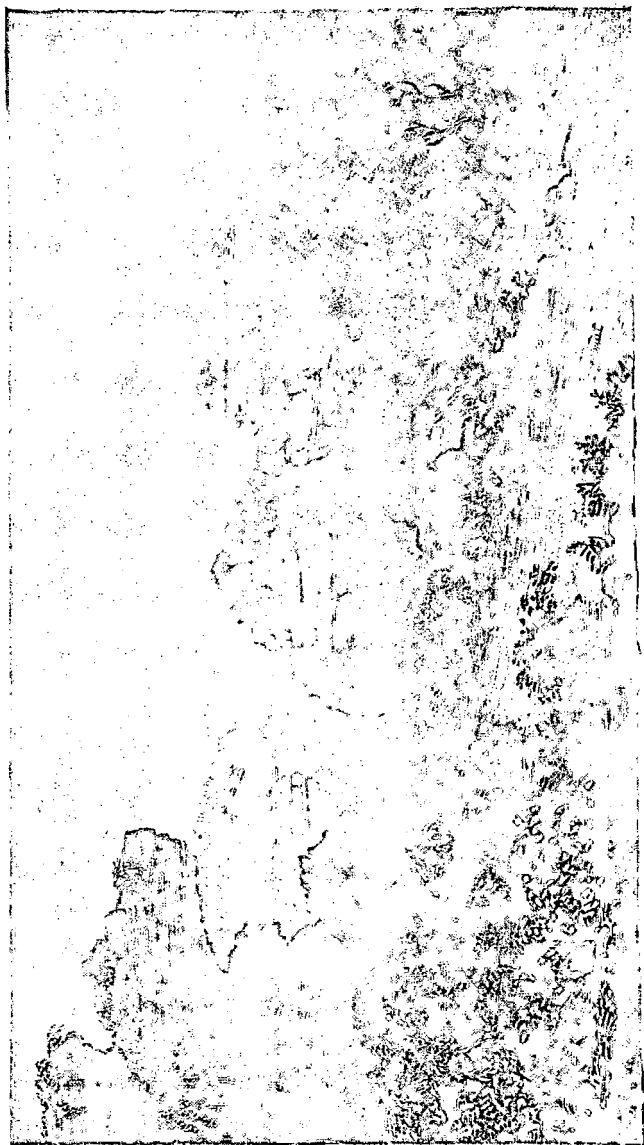


PLATE I
MOUNTAIN ROCK
(See page 100 for description)

to open communication with the outer world through Delagoa Bay, which, as it belonged to the Portuguese, they thought would be safe against attack by Great Britain. They halted on the headwaters of some streams flowing into that bay, and built a village which they named Ohrigstad. There, however, they suffered very severely from fever, so that they were obliged to move again. They then divided into two parties, one of which founded the village of Lydenburg, and the other, under Potgieter himself, went away north to the Zoutpansberg and settled there.

In England the conduct of the emigrants in thus persistently retiring from British authority was regarded as very objectionable. The opinion was general that something should be done not only to compel the wanderers in the interior of the continent to return to their old homes, but to prevent others from abandoning the colony and joining them. The project of forming a barrier along the colonial border, by means of the creation of a chain of large native states, had for some time been advocated by the great societies, and was now determined upon by the government. Such a barrier, it was imagined, would cut off commercial communication with the emigrants, and leave them no alternative but to retrace their steps.

In carrying this scheme into execution, Sir George Napier followed the method suggested by the reverend Dr. Philip, who made the preliminary arrangements. His plan was to select in a given area the most competent chief, that is the one supposed to be most amenable to missionary guidance, to enter into treaty with him as a sove-

reign, and to support him with all the influence of the British government.

At Thaba Bosigo one such chief was found in the person of the wise and able Moshesh, the friend and patron of missionaries. He had already built up a considerable power, which it was the great object of his life to increase and solidify. Nothing, therefore, could have been more in accordance with his desires than the scheme which was proposed: alliance with the British government, a subsidy in money, a vast extension of territory, and supremacy over all other chiefs within the area assigned to him. In 1843 a treaty was concluded, in which he was acknowledged to be the sovereign of a large vacant tract of land north of the Orange river, of the basin of the lower Caledon, where European farmers were settled, of the territory along the western bank of the Caledon higher up, which was occupied by various clans brought there by Wesleyan missionaries, and of all the land on which his own people lived. He was to have a subsidy of £75 a year, payable either in money or in arms and ammunition, as he might choose. It will be seen in future chapters that no other document ever signed in South Africa cost so much blood and treasure as this, or was so productive of evil in various ways.

West of the territory assigned to Moshesh there were no Bantu, but at and around a mission station of the London society, named Philippolis, there were some fifteen hundred or two thousand Griquas, under a captain named Adam Kok. These people were of mixed European, Hottentot, and negro blood, and

most of them had recently migrated from the Cape Colony. They were supposed to be under missionary guidance and to be partly civilised, but the men lived chiefly by hunting, and their character was far from stable. It was not then known that they were a



GRIQUA MAN AND WOMEN.

(From a Sketch by Mr. Thos. Baines.)

perishing race. For one or two generations the hybrid offspring of Europeans and coloured people possess a fair amount of fertility, but they must then intermix with one of the pure original stocks, or die out. Within fifty years the Griquas, by attempting

to live as a separate people, decreased to little more than one-fourth of their original number.

There were more white people than Griquas living in the territory between the Modder river and the Orange, but at the same time that the treaty was made with Moshesh a similar one was made with Adam Kok, and thereafter this petty captain was officially regarded by the British government as the sovereign of all the land from the new Basuto boundary to the territory claimed by Andries Waterboer under the treaty of 1834. He was to receive a subsidy of £100 a year in money and the use of a hundred stand of arms with a reasonable quantity of ammunition. The London society was to receive £50 a year for the maintenance of a mission school.

Thus, as far as paper treaties could make states there was now a barrier along the whole northern border of the Cape Colony from the Kalahari desert upward. A little later, by another treaty, the Pondo chief Faku became the nominal ruler of all the territory between the Umtata and Umzimkulu rivers, the Drakensberg and the sea, and thus the girdle was made complete.

But it was soon found that for the purpose intended the treaty states were useless. The emigrant farmers ridiculed the idea either of their removal or of their subjection to the puppet sovereigns thus set up, and matters went on pretty much as before, so far as they were concerned. In the territory assigned to Moshesh trouble of an unexpected kind immediately arose. The chiefs of the clans along the Caledon indignantly

refused to acknowledge him as a superior, and the Wesleyan missionaries took part with them in doing so. The French missionaries, on the other hand, did their utmost to support and build up the Basuto power. Thus jealousies and quarrels were fomented, and the clans were kept in perpetual disturbance.

In the territory assigned to Adam Kok many of the white people had come to fear that such anarchy as had prevailed in Natal was inseparable from a republican form of government, and they were not only willing but anxious to see the country annexed to the British dominions. There were circumstances in their condition and in the manner of their removal from the colony that made them the least disaffected of all the Dutch-speaking people of South Africa. But they, too, repudiated the sovereignty of Adam Kok, and refused to acknowledge him as anything but a Griqua captain. Besides these people there were two large parties of emigrants in the country bitterly hostile to England, and they at once declared that if Kok attempted to interfere with them in any way whatever they would resist with arms.

The treaty states were thus no barrier to commercial intercourse with the emigrants in the interior, they did not prevent further emigration, nor did they cause a single individual to retrace his steps. They provoked disputes and quarrels among people who were before friendly, and they enabled Moshesh to build up a power antagonistic to the interests and welfare of South Africa.

XIX.

EVENTS TO THE CLOSE OF THE SEVENTH KAFFIR WAR.

SIR PEREGRINE MAITLAND, who succeeded Sir George Napier as governor of the Cape Colony, determined to support Adam Kok with a military force if he should be attacked, and a promise to that effect was made to him. Thereupon he assumed a very haughty tone towards the white people, and shortly afterwards sent a band of his followers to arrest a farmer who ignored his government. The farmer was not at home when the Griquas arrived at his house, so they poured a storm of abuse upon his wife, and took possession of his guns and ammunition.

Upon this the burghers formed a lager about thirty miles from Philippolis, and having placed their families in safety within it, they left a guard for its defence and took the field. There was at the time a body of British troops stationed at Colesberg, on the colonial side of the Orange river, two hundred of whom now marched to Philippolis to aid the Griquas. Adam Kok was also supplied with muskets and

ammunition from the military stores. He was thus able to defend himself until a regiment of dragoons, with some artillery and a company of light cavalry, could march to his support from Grahamstown. As soon as the force reached Philippolis, Colonel Richardson, who was in command, issued a proclamation calling upon the farmers to surrender unconditionally; but they took no notice of it. He then marched towards their lager, and by a stratagem drew two hundred and fifty men out of it, who were nearly surrounded before they were aware that British troops were acting against them. Taken by surprise, they did not attempt to make a stand, but in their efforts to escape three were killed. A little later in the same day possession was taken of the lager without resistance, when all the arms found there were confiscated.

Colonel Richardson next called upon the emigrants to take an oath of allegiance to the queen, when all those—three hundred and sixteen in number—who have been mentioned as not ill-affected towards the British government did so. The others were not arrested, as there were no means of supporting them in detention, so they moved away to Winburg, beyond the territory claimed by Adam Kok.

By this time Sir Peregrine Maitland had become convinced that the Griqua treaty state, as originally planned, could not be maintained without the constant presence of a considerable military force, and in that case to regard Kok as a sovereign would be an absurdity. But he did not know what change to make, and so he visited the country in order to learn

its condition by personal intercourse with the different people there, and to devise some plan of action. At Touwfontein, where the emigrant lager had been, he met a great number of farmers, all the chiefs between the Orange and Vaal rivers, and most of the missionaries. During several days matters were discussed, and the views of the different parties were laid before the governor.

Adam Kok contended that he was a sovereign in alliance with Great Britain, that every one within his dominions who did not implicitly obey his orders was a rebel, and he requested that all the white people should be removed.

The farmers contended that as there was no one living in the territory claimed by Kok whose parents had been born there, all being recent immigrants, their right was equal to that of the Griquas. Much of the land they occupied was vacant when they took possession of it, and the remainder had been purchased or leased from individual Griquas who by an earlier selection had prior claims. They could not return to the colony, where they had no ground, nor could they submit to such a government as that of Adam Kok and his missionary.

Moshesh contended that as he was acknowledged to be the sovereign of the territory assigned to him by treaty, no one within it should be communicated with except through him.

The chiefs along the Caledon contended that their independence of Moshesh ought to be recognised, and declared that they would rather die with arms in their hands than submit to him.

Each of the missionaries supported the claims of the particular chief with whom he was living, so that their opinions differed greatly.

Out of this confusion Sir Peregrine Maitland saw but one way of establishing order. He gave up all idea of the return of the emigrants to the Cape Colony, and endeavoured to arrange for the proper government of those who were living in the treaty states. He proposed to Adam Kok that the land between the Modder and Riet rivers should be allotted to Europeans, and that between the Riet and Orange rivers to Griquas. The Europeans were to be governed by an English officer whom he would nominate, and to whom Kok was to give a commission. Quitrent was to be levied on their farms, one half of which was to be devoted to the payment of the English officer and his assistants, and the other half was to be handed over to Kok, whose sovereignty over the whole territory was in this manner still to be recognised. The Griqua captain at once closed with the offer, for it relieved him of a great difficulty and gave him an addition to his income. The Europeans also accepted the proposal, though some of them grumbled at having to pay tribute to a man whose right to the ground was no better than their own.

Major Warden was selected by the governor to rule the European community between the Riet and the Modder, and fixed his residence at a place named Bloemfontein. A few soldiers of the Hottentot regiment were stationed there to support his authority, and he received all his instructions from Capetown, so that practically the territory was a British depen-

dency, though writs and other public documents ran in the name of Adam Kok. This arrangement worked fairly well, and a short period of peace and prosperity followed in that part of South Africa.

A similar proposal was made by Sir Peregrine Maitland to Moshesh, but that chief was in a very different position from the Griqua captain, and was loth to exchange power for money. He wanted to keep on good terms with the governor, however, and so he made an appearance of consenting to the plan while really thwarting it. He offered for the use of Europeans a tract of land in the angle of the Orange and Caledon rivers, so far away from the possessions of his own people that there was no likelihood of its ever being of value to him, and so small that no revenue derived from it could cover the salary of a British official. This offer he could not be induced to enlarge, and though negotiations were carried on with him after Sir Peregrine Maitland's return to Cape-town, nothing came of them. Thus within the Basuto treaty state matters remained in a most unsatisfactory condition.

At this time the eastern frontier of the Cape Colony was exposed to depredations as it had never—even in the worst times—been exposed before. Lord Glenelg, through his agent Lieutenant-Governor Stockenstrom, had given up to the Xosas the whole country east of the Kat and Fish rivers, and had entered into treaties with the chiefs as sovereign rulers. This action they considered a proof of weakness, and in consequence they laid aside all respect for the British authorities. Within the next ten years over a hundred murders

were committed by their people on colonial ground, and the country as far west as the Sunday river was harried and wasted almost as in a time of war. The unfortunate British settlers of 1820 were the principal sufferers, but their prayers for relief were altogether disregarded in England. Modifications of the treaties were made by Sir George Napier and Sir Peregrine Maitland, but the position was not improved, for it was the system itself that was the cause of the evil.

In other respects this period was marked by many beneficial changes. The cost of government was greatly reduced, so that every year a surplus could be applied to the reduction of the public debt. By the sale of the old drostdies, the conversion of a number of quitrent farms into freehold, and licenses for the removal of a quantity of guano from some small islands off the western coast, by 1847 the debt was entirely paid off. Magistrates were increased, and churches of various denominations were multiplied throughout the colony. Municipal government of the towns and villages was introduced. An excellent system of schools was brought into operation. Good waggon roads were made—principally by convict labour—through many mountain passes, where previously produce could only be transported with extreme difficulty. The value of the exports was rapidly rising by increase in the production of wool.

More than all, four or five thousand English, Scotch, and Irish agriculturists and mechanics were brought into the colony by a system of aided immigration, and partly filled the places of those who had



SCENE IN MONTAGU PASS.

moved into the interior. No people in any country have thriven better than these. About seven hundred destitute children sent out from London by a benevolent society were apprenticed to carefully selected persons, and though a few turned out badly, most of them became useful and prosperous members of the community. Unfortunately, however, these were not the only immigrants. The Cape was made the station where all slave ships captured by British cruisers south of the equator were brought, and the negroes were apprenticed here for short periods; after which they became merged in the general coloured population. The farmers and townspeople, who were without a sufficient supply of labour, were very glad to get them, and the missionary societies welcomed them as material to work with; but they were not a class to add permanently to the prosperity of the country.

After the frontier colonists had been exposed for ten years to the depredations of the Xosas, an event took place which brought on open war. A Xosa, who was detected in an act of theft at Fort Beaufort, was arrested, and was being conveyed to the nearest magistrate's office for trial, when a party of his clansmen crossed the border, and after overpowering the constables and murdering a Hottentot, released their friend. Sandile, the legal heir of Gaika, was then the principal chief of Western Kaffirland. The governor applied to him to surrender the raiders for trial, as their crime had been committed on colonial ground, and he had bound himself by treaty to give up offenders of this kind. But he

made light of the matter, and refused to carry out his engagement.

A military force was then directed to enter Kaffirland and occupy Sandile's kraal, so as to bring him to terms. A very long waggon train accompanied it, conveying provisions, tents, baggage, and ammunition; and, as if to invite attack, this tempting prize was almost unguarded. The movements of the expedition were, of course, closely watched by the keen eyes of Xosa scouts, and when in a spot convenient for the purpose, while the main body of the English troops was some miles distant, a strong band of warriors rushed upon the train, and without any difficulty made themselves masters of a great portion of it.

By this disaster the British force was compelled to retreat precipitately. After considerable loss it reached the Lovedale mission station, just within the colonial border, and hastily fortified a large stone building used as a boarding school, which enabled it to stay there in safety.

At once a great body of Xosa warriors poured into the colony, swept off all the cattle east of Uitenhage, burned many dwelling-houses, and murdered several individuals who had not time to escape to villages or lagers. Their success encouraged a large portion of the Tembu tribe to join them, and these people laid waste the country north of the Winterberg just as the Xosas had done south of that range. Thus the European settlement in the eastern districts was reduced to the towns and villages, which were crowded with helpless and destitute people. The

farms—except a few where there were lagers—were abandoned.

Another disaster followed. The garrison of the most advanced fort on the frontier was in urgent need of supplies of food and ammunition, and a train of waggons, under military escort, left Grahamstown for its relief. In a thicket the train was attacked, the guard was obliged to retire, and the supplies fell into the hands of the Xosas.

The whole burgher force of the colony was called out, and every soldier that could be spared from duty in Capetown was sent to the front. Hottentots and other coloured people were enrolled, waggons and oxen were everywhere impressed, and in a short time a mass of combatants sufficiently large for offensive operations was assembled on the frontier. A greater difficulty than that of collecting men, however, was that of collecting provisions. It was not only the army that the government had to feed, but the unfortunate European women and children whose property had been destroyed, and the families of all the Hottentots of the frontier.

Some successes were gained, but operations were stayed by the collapse of the transport service, and the army was obliged at one time to encamp on the coast, where supplies could be obtained by sea, in order to escape starvation. After a while several regiments of soldiers arrived from abroad, the transport service was organised on a better plan, and provisions were sent from the western districts. Then a kind of lull took place, in consequence of a declaration of submission by most of the hostile

clans, whose object was to get a crop of maize and then renew the war.

During this lull Sir Peregrine Maitland was recalled, as every governor since Lord Charles Somerset has been in whose term of office war has broken out. He was succeeded by Sir Henry Pottinger, who was also appointed high commissioner for the purpose of dealing with matters beyond the colonial border. All succeeding governors of the Cape Colony have been high commissioners also.

The crops of maize were gathered, and the war was resumed. But soon afterwards Sandile found himself hardly pressed, and surrendered, upon which there was another general profession of submission. In later years the Xosas laughed at the ease with which the white people were deceived, and ridiculed the idea of their being beaten in this war. But the governor, judging them by a European or an Indian standard, believed that they were subdued, and was about to proclaim peace when he received news of his transfer to Madras.

The enormous expense of the war had brought home to the imperial government the folly of the treaty system, of which it was the result, in a manner that the prayers of the colonists had never done. The ruined eastern farmers were clamouring for compensation from the British treasury for their losses, on the ground that they had protested against the measures which led to the war, and Lord Glenelg had accepted the responsibility of carrying them out. They did not get what they asked for, but the whole military and commissariat charges were of necessity

borne by England. Both Sir Peregrine Maitland and Sir Henry Pottinger had come to the conclusion that Sir Benjamin D'Urban's system of dealing with the Xosas should be reverted to, and even Sir George Napier was of the same opinion.

The imperial authorities then resolved upon another complete change, and to carry it out they selected as governor and high commissioner Sir Harry Smith, who, as Colonel Smith, had been Sir Benjamin D'Urban's most able lieutenant in South Africa, and who had recently won high military renown in India. But while making this resolution they were beginning to comprehend that it was impossible at a distance of six thousand miles to direct the affairs of a country either safely or satisfactorily, especially under such pressure as could be brought by the great societies to bear upon a government in England; and they were already impressed with a belief that the best course they could adopt would be to let the affairs of the Cape Colony be settled by its own people. To the Kaffir war of 1846-7 more than to any other event is due the liberal constitution that was granted a few years later.

XX.

EVENTS DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF SIR HARRY SMITH.

NO governor has ever been more heartily welcomed in South Africa than Sir Harry Smith. Every section of the inhabitants of the colony hailed him as an old and tried friend, and there was a general hope that better days had now set in. He was not long in making known the details of the changes which he came to effect. Hurrying to the eastern frontier, he issued a proclamation, extending the Cape Colony on the north to the Orange river from its mouth to the junction of the Kraai, and on the east to the Keiskama and the Tyumie.

The territory between the Keiskama and Tyumie on one side, and the Kei on the other, he then proclaimed a British possession, but to be kept entirely for the use of the western clans of the Xosa tribe, just as Sir Benjamin D'Urban intended when he annexed it under the name of the province of Queen Adelaide. Colonel Mackinnon was appointed a commissioner to exercise general authority over the clans, an office which the governor himself had once



PORTRAIT OF SIR HARRY SMITH.

held. The chiefs remained the rulers of their people in many matters, but vicious customs were no longer to be tolerated, and punishment of persons accused of dealing in witchcraft was to be suppressed. A strong body of troops was to garrison various forts in the territory, and to support the authority of the commissioner and his assistants. The new province was named British Kaffraria.

The whole of the chiefs who had been in arms agreed to this arrangement, and those who resided within the province took an oath to maintain it. The others, who lived east of the Kei, were left perfectly independent. The governor, the colonists, and the missionaries—whose views were greatly modified by the late war—alike considered this settlement satisfactory, and to all outward appearance the Xosas were pleased with it; but within three years the chiefs declared that they had only agreed to it as a truce, in order to get material together for another trial of strength with the Europeans.

As soon as these arrangements were made, Sir Harry Smith proceeded to the territory north of the Orange river. Treaties between the British government and Bantu chiefs he regarded as agreements between a full-grown man and little children, and he repeatedly and emphatically declared that there should be no more of them. As for the treaty states on the northern border, he looked upon them as the creations of supreme folly, and he therefore intended to destroy them. But as neither Adam Kok nor Moshesh had violated any of the conditions of the

treaties, he could not declare the documents annulled, and it was thus his object by some means to induce those persons to consent to their own effacement as sovereign rulers.

The emigrant farmers between the Riet and Modder rivers gave him an enthusiastic reception, for many of them had fought under his command thirteen years before, and they had always liked him as he had liked them. They had no complaint to make against Major Warden, but they had a grievance, in that half of the land tax which they paid went into the pocket of Adam Kok, and they had no return for it. Was it not scandalous, too, they asked, that they should be officially termed subjects of that petty captain of a mongrel band?

By the governor's desire, Kok went from Philipopolis to Bloemfontein to meet him. At the conference Sir Harry stated that he was about to place the white people in the territory under the direct rule of the queen of England, but he would not interfere with Kok's government of his Griquas. The whole of the land between the Riet and Orange rivers—which was ten times as much as the Griquas could make use of—would be regarded as their reserve, the captain should have a perpetual pension of £200 a year, and as some of his people had leased farms north of the Riet river, which would now be lost to them, they should have among them £100 a year in perpetuity as compensation. The captain demurred to these terms, and spoke of his dignity in such a way that the governor lost all patience and threatened him with speedy punishment. He then submitted, and

affixed his name to a document which put an end to the Griqua treaty state, but left him far more than he had any reasonable claim to.

A little later the governor had an interview with Moshesh, to whom he made some valuable presents, at the same time professing his friendship in the warmest language. He then announced his intention as regarded the white people, and asked for the co-operation of the chief. Probably Moshesh felt somewhat overawed in the presence of the impetuous governor, and it is improbable that he fully comprehended what the proposals laid before him would lead to, but he attached his mark to a document which destroyed the Basuto treaty state.

These preliminaries having been settled, on the 3rd of February 1848 Sir Harry Smith issued a proclamation, adding to the British dominions the whole territory between the Vaal river, the Orange river, and the Kathlamba mountains, under the name of the Orange River Sovereignty. The Europeans in it were placed under the immediate rule of the queen, and a staff of officials was appointed to administer justice and collect taxes in her Majesty's name. Major Warden was appointed head of the new administration. The coloured people were left under the government of their chiefs, and the land *then actually in their occupation was to be reserved* for their use and secured against encroachment. What might be termed their foreign relations, that is everything affecting the dealings of one head chief with another, or of any chief with Europeans, were to be under the control of the British authorities.

Here, at last, was a policy such as nearly every man in the Cape Colony approved of. Unfortunately, however, it came too late. The vast majority of the white people living between the Modder and Vaal rivers were indisposed to submit to British rule in any form, and prepared to fight for the independent government they had lived under for twelve years. Moshesh, who had by this time built up a power far greater than Sir Harry Smith was aware of, began to devise schemes for the destruction of the Sovereignty government as soon as he found that he was to be confined to a reserve covering only the actual ground on which his people lived, that his practice of incorporating members of other tribes with his own was likely to be severely checked, and that the clans along the Caledon were treated as independent of him.

Sir Harry Smith had not long returned to Capetown when he received intelligence that the farmers in the north of the Sovereignty had elected Mr. Andries Pretorius to be their commandant and had risen in arms, that Major Warden with the little garrison of Bloemfontein had been obliged to capitulate, and that the whole of the English officials had been driven over the Orange river and were then in a camp near Colesberg. The energetic governor at once directed a strong body of troops to march to the Orange, and followed himself to take command in person. Commandant Pretorius did not attempt to defend the passage of the river, but made a stand at a strong position called Boomplaats, where on the 29th of August 1848 a severe engagement took place, which ended in the defeat of the farmers.

All who were inveterately opposed to British rule now made their way in haste across the Vaal river, and there was no attempt to follow them. The Sovereignty government was re-established, and a much larger garrison than before was left in Bloemfontein. The places of those white people who had moved away were filled by fresh emigrants from the Cape Colony, many of whom were Englishmen, so that from this time forward the European population of the territory consisted of people either well affected to the British government or not bitterly opposed to it.

Leaving now the region beyond the Cape Colony for a short time, an event must be related which caused intense excitement throughout South Africa. This was a project of the imperial ministry of the day to make of the Cape a convict settlement. The tidings caused a feeling somewhat akin to what a proposal would have done to introduce a dreadful disease. Men and women of respectability everywhere raised their voices against it, for if a class of people that had either by choice or of necessity become criminal, and whose self-respect was destroyed by conviction, were once allowed to mix with the coloured races, the country would no longer be fit to live in. Petitions and protests against the measure were sent to England in great number, and when the ship *Neptune* with convicts on board arrived in Simon's Bay, the people of the Cape peninsula—with few exceptions—bound themselves together under a pledge not to supply anything whatever to persons who had dealings with her, nor to have any intercourse with them.

This pledge was so strictly carried out that not a particle of food could be obtained for the convicts, and it was with much difficulty that supplies for the troops in garrison were procured. Any one who opposed the popular will in the matter did so on peril of being assaulted and having his property destroyed. Sir Harry Smith was very much opposed to the scheme of making the country a convict settlement, but he was obliged to carry out the instructions which he received from England, and so he could not send the ship away, though the colonists were very anxious that he should.

Five months the *Neptune* lay at anchor in Simon's Bay. Her crew and the convicts on board could get nothing to eat but provisions out of ships of war. If the plague had been in her she could not have been more carefully avoided. All this time the greatest excitement prevailed in the colony, and great caution had to be used by the government to prevent a collision with the people. At length, to the joy of every one, instructions were received from England that the convicts should proceed to Tasmania, as the secretary of state had changed his mind, owing to the numerous petitions of the colonists.

The anti-convict agitation had hardly died out when the country became involved again in war with the Xosa and Tembu tribes. The principal chiefs of these people had never regarded the cessation of hostilities at the close of 1847 as anything but a truce, though they were crafty enough to conceal their views from even those Europeans who were most intimately acquainted with them, and it was only at a later date

that this became known. The common people were ready to support their chiefs with their lives as well as their substance, and, from their point of view, they had at least one very serious grievance against the European authorities.

The Bantu believe most implicitly that diseases and disasters of all kinds are caused by wizards and witches, and in every clan there is a recognised witchfinder who, whenever any trouble occurs, goes through certain forms called "smelling out," and then points to an individual whom he pronounces guilty of having caused it. The individual thus accused is, without further investigation, subjected to torture of different kinds, often resulting in death, and may consider himself fortunate if he escapes with a few scars and the loss of all his property. The British authorities suppressed the practice of "smelling out," and punished the witchfinders. They believed that by so doing they were conferring a benefit upon the people, who would be grateful for relief from the danger of being despoiled and tortured without cause or guilt. But the people supposed to be relieved looked at the matter in a different light. The English, they said, are giving us over to the wizards and witches to do as they like with us. Their view was what ours would be if a government were to suppress punishment for murder and imprison the constables, who arrested a man for committing it.

Only a slight pretext was therefore needed for a renewal of the war, and any accident might have precipitated it, but, as it happened, the frontier colonists received timely warning of what was

coming. It became known that a man named Umlanjeni, who was credited by his people with great magical knowledge, was issuing charms which he asserted would turn bullets fired at their wearers into water, and the Xosa warriors were repairing to him in hundreds at a time to procure them.

On receiving a report to this effect, Sir Harry Smith proceeded to King-Williamstown, and convened a meeting of all the chiefs in British Kaffraria, in order to discuss matters with them. Sandile, the most powerful among them, did not appear. Still, as the others made no complaints of any kind, and seemed to be prosperous and happy, the governor thought they could not have war in their minds. He returned to Capetown, but reports followed him that there would surely be a speedy outbreak.

With all the soldiers that could be mustered, Sir Harry was soon back in King-Williamstown, and as Sandile was known to be in one of the forests at the sources of the Keiskama, a body of troops was sent to arrest him. On the way the troops were attacked in the Boomah pass by thousands of Xosas, and lost twenty-three men killed and as many wounded in fighting their way through. A few hours later in another part of the country a patrol of fifteen soldiers was met by some of Sandile's people, and all were put to death.

On the following morning—Christmas 1850—three villages named Auckland, Woburn, and Juanasburg, close to the colonial side of the border, were surprised by Xosas, when forty-six men were murdered in cold blood, and the houses were burned to the ground.

In this manner the eighth Kaffir war commenced, and it was the longest and most costly in blood and treasure that the Cape Colony had ever been engaged in. The frontier districts were ravaged once more, and the burghers of all parts of the country were obliged to leave their homes and take up arms. The Xosas were joined by a great part of the Tembu tribe and by several hundreds of Hottentots from the settlement at the Kat river and other places. Even some of the soldiers of the Hottentot regiment deserted and went over to them, as the colonists had always feared would some day happen.

A very sad event was the loss of the transport steamship *Birkenhead*, which was sent from England with troops to assist in the war. She was proceeding to Algoa Bay, when in the middle of the night she struck on a reef running out from Danger Point. The women, children, and sick people were put into the boats, while the soldiers were drawn up on the deck as on a parade ground. The sea was swarming with sharks, the shore was so far distant that the strongest swimmer could not hope to reach it, and the wreck was breaking up fast. Yet those brave men stood calmly there till the boats with the helpless ones got away. Then, just as the ship fell to pieces and sank, they leaped into the sea, and a few, by clinging to floating wreckage, got to land. Over four hundred perished.

There had never before been so strong a force in South Africa as there was in Kaffraria at this time. For more than two years the soldiers, burghers, and auxiliaries of various kinds were employed against

an enemy that could not be brought to a decisive action, but that seemed to go from one forest to another with the facility of birds, and that carried on war by doubling upon pursuers, cutting off stragglers, and seizing everything that was not strongly guarded. At length, however, the food of the hostile clans was completely exhausted, and the chiefs then asked for peace, which was gladly granted.

It was not Sir Harry Smith's fault, but his misfortune, that the war had taken place. It would have been beyond the power of any man to have staved it off permanently, for even the settlement made at its close, as will hereafter be seen, was only regarded by the Xosas as a truce. But, following the invariable custom in such cases, the secretary of state recalled the governor. Sir George Cathcart, who was sent out as his successor, took over the duty on the 31st of March 1852, and thereafter directed operations in person until the conclusion of peace.

He located the Tembus—who were really subdued—in the district that is now called Glen Grey, and gave much of the remainder of the land they had occupied for the last quarter of a century to colonists to be held under military tenure. It was for a time called North Victoria, but subsequently became known as the district of Queenstown, from the neat and flourishing village that was built near its centre. The Fingos, who had fought well on the European side, received the best of the land along the foot of the Amatola mountains and some ex-

tensive tracts forfeited by the Tembus. The independent section of the Xosa tribe, under the chief Kreli, was left in possession of the territory between the Bashee and the Kei; and the western clans of this tribe, who had been British subjects since 1847, had all the open ground from the Kei to the Keiskama assigned to them.

The government of British Kaffraria was re-established with a strong and reliable force to support it. Before the war there had been a large body of Kaffir police, but at the commencement of hostilities the men composing it had gone over to their own people. Their place was now taken by a corps composed chiefly of young colonists, with a few Fingos attached to it as detectives. The men, who were armed with the best weapons, were mounted, and proved a most useful body for either military or police purposes. Several regiments of British troops were also stationed in the province.

XXI.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT BY GREAT BRITAIN OF THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC, AND ABANDONMENT OF THE ORANGE RIVER SOVEREIGNTY.

FOR a short time after the restoration of British rule in the Orange River Sovereignty, everything went on smoothly, and the people appeared to be prosperous. But this satisfactory state of affairs did not continue long. Moshesh was unwilling that the growth of his power should be restricted, and as he did not wish openly to break with the British government, he endeavoured secretly to foment such disturbances as would destroy the arrangements then existing. He—a self-made Bantu ruler—cannot be blamed for doing this; but what can be said of the treaty system which enabled him to build up sufficient power to do it?

It was easy for him to bring about a collision between one of his vassal captains and the chief Sikonyela, while all the time he was professing to be an advocate of peace and apparently making sacrifices to secure it. Presently other clans became

nvolved in the quarrel, and Major Warden, who had done all that was possible to restore order by advice and expostulation, then tried to quell the disturbance by force.

This course of action was regarded by the Europeans in the Sovereignty as a mistake. They maintained that the government ought not to meddle with matters affecting only Bantu clans, as it had no spare strength to squander, and should reserve its interference for occasions when Europeans were threatened with damage. But Sir Harry Smith thought differently. He had no idea that the Basuto power was as great as it afterwards proved to be, nor indeed had any other European in South Africa. He was of opinion that by adding the English soldiers at Bloemfontein and an equal number of farmers to any side in a quarrel in the Sovereignty, he could turn the scale against the other side. And so it was by his instructions that Major Warden attempted to punish the disturbers of the peace.

With one hundred and sixty-two soldiers, one hundred and twenty farmers, and from a thousand to fifteen hundred blacks, the major marched against Molitsane, the vassal of Moshesh who was held to be the cause of the disturbance, and at Viervoet was drawn into a trap and suffered a crushing defeat. No one was more surprised than Moshesh himself at the issue of the battle, for he had not believed that the troops and farmers under Major Warden's command could have been driven from the field so easily. He at once threw off the mask he had

hitherto worn, and laid aside his assumed respect for British authority.

It has before been stated that the majority of the farmers in the Sovereignty were well affected towards England, but a strong minority were at heart opposed to English rule, though up to this time not inclined to offer open resistance. These last were hardly less surprised than Moshesh at the decisive success of the Basuto in the battle of Viervoet. They knew that no aid could be sent to Major Warden from the Cape Colony, which was then involved in a war of its own, and so, as a matter of self-protection, they set aside their duty to the Sovereignty government and entered into an engagement with Moshesh. They promised not to take part in hostilities against him, and he engaged not to allow his people to molest them. On both sides this agreement was faithfully kept.

The Europeans who were loyal to the British government, on the contrary, were sought out by bands of Basuto and plundered mercilessly. The clans along the Caledon were dispersed, and were reduced to great distress. Major Warden was perfectly helpless, for without a strong military force order could not be restored, and he had only men enough to guard the fort in Bloemfontein.

Some of the farmers now sent a request to Commandant Pretorius to come and devise some plan to put an end to the prevailing anarchy, and Moshesh joined in the invitation. Since the battle of Boomplaats Pretorius had been living north of the Vaal, with a reward of £2000 for his apprehen-

sion hanging over his head all the time. When urged to interfere in matters in the Sovereignty, he wrote to Major Warden announcing his intention to do so, but intimating that he would prefer to make a treaty of peace with the British government, in which the independence of his adherents should be acknowledged. Major Warden hereupon reported to Sir Harry Smith that the fate of the Sovereignty depended upon the movements of a proscribed man. He had been instructed to act strictly on the defensive until troops could be spared from the Kaffir war to aid him, but if Pretorius and the emigrants north of the Vaal united with the Europeans who ignored his authority and with Moshesh, he would be entirely at their mercy.

Under these circumstances the governor decided to acknowledge the independence of the Transvaal emigrants, as the imperial ministers had announced their determination not to add another square inch of ground in South Africa to the queen's dominions, and advantages which could be obtained by a convention were not to be had in any other way. Two assistant commissioners—Major Hogg and Mr. Owen—were therefore sent to make the necessary arrangements with Commandant Pretorius and a number of delegates from the Transvaal people. The conference took place on a farm in the Sovereignty, and there, on the 17th of January 1852, a document—known ever since as the Sand River convention—was signed, in which the British government guaranteed to the emigrants north of the Vaal the

right to manage their own affairs without interference. The convention was confirmed by the secretary of state for the colonies, and was ratified by the volksraad, so that thereafter the South African Republic—as the country was named—had a legal as well as an actual existence in the eyes of the British government.

The Sovereignty was thus preserved from interference by Mr. Pretorius, and its government became somewhat stronger than before, because a good many of those who had ignored Major Warden moved over the Vaal. But Moshesh's people still continued to plunder and harass the loyal farmers, and the clans that had opposed him remained in great distress.

This was the state of matters until Sir George Cathcart was able to spare a strong body of troops from British Kaffraria, with which he marched northward to restore order. He reached Platberg on the Caledon with a splendidly equipped force, consisting of nearly two thousand infantry, five hundred cavalry, and some artillerymen with two field-guns, hoping that the mere presence of such a body of troops would enable him to settle everything to his satisfaction, without having recourse to hostilities. From Platberg, after a minute investigation of affairs, he sent an ultimatum to Moshesh, demanding that chief's compliance with certain conditions and the delivery within three days of ten thousand head of horned cattle and one thousand horses, as compensation for the robberies committed by the Basuto.

Moshesh personally was willing to accede to the high commissioner's terms, for he dreaded a struggle

with the British power now that the Tembus had been subdued, the Xosas were ceasing to fight, and the Transvaal farmers were pacified. He knew that the army at Platberg was only a small portion of the force at Sir George Cathcart's disposal, and he was in that condition that any serious reverse might ruin him. The great tribe that called him master was composed of the fragments of many others that had not yet thoroughly blended, and disaster would cause its disintegration. There were numerous individuals in it of higher rank by birth than he, so that elements of discord were present, though they did not show themselves in times of prosperity. In short, to save his dynasty it was necessary for Moshesh to avoid defeat.

But the Basuto people preferred a trial of strength to the surrender of so many cattle and horses as the high commissioner demanded, and the great chief could not afford to act in opposition to their wishes, as a ruler by hereditary right could have done. The result was a kind of compromise. Moshesh sent in three thousand five hundred head of cattle, with a faint hope that they would be accepted as sufficient, and then assembled his warriors at Thaba Bosigo to resist the British army if it should advance.

The country of the Basuto is an exceedingly difficult one to penetrate. It is the Switzerland of South Africa. Resting on the interior plateau of the continent, five thousand feet above sea-level, it rises like a gigantic billow in successive waves of mountains until the summit of the Drakensberg is reached, the highest peaks of which are over eleven thousand



THE GIANT'S TEP, AS SEEN FROM THE SEAWARD SIDE OF THE COWLING CLIFF.
(From a Sketch by Captain Gardiner.)

feet above the ocean. The lower valleys are remarkably fertile, so that the country can support a large population, though no other use is made of the higher lands than to pasture cattle in summer. There are many hills with flat tops and precipitous sides that can easily be defended against an enemy, and of all these Thaba Bosigo, the seat of Moshesh's government, is the strongest.

On the 20th of December 1852 Sir George Cathcart crossed the Caledon from Platberg, and entered Basutoland, with the intention of occupying Moshesh's mountain. He made the great mistake of underestimating the strength and courage of his opponent, and not giving him any credit for ability as a strategist. His officers took no thought about the matter, but looked upon their occupation of Thaba Bosigo as a certainty, and their march as a pleasant excursion. The army entered the Basuto territory in three divisions.

By a simple stratagem—that of exposing an immense herd of cattle in a position on the Berea mountain where their capture appeared easy—one of the British divisions was drawn into an ambush, and after suffering considerable loss was obliged to retreat to the camp at Platberg. It drove before it, however, some four thousand horned cattle, with a few horses and sheep, which the enemy was unable to recover.

Another of the divisions, under Sir George Cathcart in person, suddenly found itself face to face with about six thousand Basuto horsemen armed with European weapons, and though the discipline of the soldiers enabled them to keep the untrained mass

from breaking their ranks, no further advance was now thought of. A little before dusk the third division managed to join the commander-in-chief, and a defensible position among rocks was then taken for the night. At daybreak next morning the army commenced its retreat to the camp at Platberg. It had lost thirty-seven men killed, fifteen wounded, and one made prisoner, who was murdered by his captors.

Though he had gained such a success, the wise Basuto chief's first thought after the battle was to obtain peace. He sent for the reverend Mr. Casalis, one of his missionaries, and after consulting with him, the most politic document that has ever been penned in South Africa was written. It was as follows :—

“ THABA BOSIGO,

“ *Midnight, 20th December 1852.*

“ YOUR EXCELLENCY, This day you have fought against my people, and taken much cattle. As the object for which you have come is to have a compensation for Boers, I beg you will be satisfied with what you have taken. I entreat peace from you—you have chastised—let it be enough, I pray you ; and let me be no longer considered an enemy to the Queen. I will try all I can to keep my people in order in the future.

“ Your humble servant,

“ MOSHESH.”

It was some time before a messenger could be found who would venture near the English sentries,

and when at length one left Thaba Bosigo with a flag of truce, Sir George Cathcart was retiring to his camp at Platberg. The messenger followed and delivered the letter.

The English general, on his part, was not less anxious for peace. In his opinion there was everything to lose in a war with a tribe so strong as he had found the Basuto to be, and so he eagerly availed himself of the opening for escape from a grave difficulty which Moshesh's letter afforded. He announced that he was satisfied with the number of cattle captured, that he considered past obligations fulfilled, and that he would at once retire. There was much murmuring in the English camp when this announcement was made, but the general shut his ears to it all, and before the end of the month the army reached the Orange on its return march.

For some time the imperial government had been undecided whether to retain the Sovereignty as a British possession or not, but as soon as intelligence of the engagement with the Basuto reached England a decision was formed. The next mail brought a despatch from the secretary of state for the colonies that the territory was to be abandoned.

To carry this resolution into effect, Sir George Clerk was sent out as special commissioner. He called upon the European inhabitants to elect a body of representatives to take over the government; but when the representatives assembled, they objected in the strongest terms to be abandoned by Great Britain, for even while they were debating, Moshesh was crushing Sikonyela and another of his opponents,

and adding their territory to his own. In effect, the representative assembly said to Sir George Clerk that they held England in honour bound to reduce the great barbaric power she had done so much to build up. When that was done, they would not need military assistance, and would be prepared to take over the government of the country, though they wished to remain permanently connected with the British empire. The special commissioner, however, was prevented by his instructions from paying any attention to language of this kind, and was obliged to term those who used it "obstructionists." The assembly then sent two delegates to England to implore the queen's government and the parliament not to abandon them, but those gentlemen met with no success in their mission.

Sir George Clerk now encouraged the remnant of the party that was at heart opposed to British rule to assert itself openly. With his concurrence, one of its ablest leaders returned from beyond the Vaal, and went about the country addressing the people and arguing that connection with England meant nothing but restraint, for no protection whatever was received. In the special commissioner's phraseology, Mr. Stander and those of his way of thinking, who used language to that effect, were "well-disposed."

This party elected a body of delegates, who met in Bloemfontein, and opened negotiations with Sir George Clerk. The "obstructionist" assembly protested, and was thereupon dissolved by the special commissioner, when most of its members and supporters, finding resistance to the will of the British

government useless, went over to the "well-disposed" side, and tried to get as good terms as possible. Gold was freely used to suppress complaints—it was termed part compensation for losses,—and nothing that was possible to be done was neglected to make the abandonment acceptable to the people generally. The result was that on the 23rd of February 1854 a convention was signed at Bloemfontein by Sir George Clerk and the members of the "well-disposed" assembly, by which the government of the territory previously termed the Orange River Sovereignty, thereafter the Orange Free State, was transferred, and its future independence was guaranteed.

There were now in South Africa five distinct European governments, namely of—

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|------------------------|
| 1. The Cape Colony, | } | British Possessions. |
| 2. Natal, | | |
| 3. British Kaffraria, | } | Independent Republics. |
| 4. The South African Republic, | | |
| 5. The Orange Free State. | | |

In 1854 the Cape Colony comprised all the land between the Orange river on the north, the Indian ocean on the south, the Atlantic ocean on the west, and British Kaffraria and the rivers Indwe and Tees on the east.

Natal comprised the territory between the Buffalo and Tugela rivers on the north-east, the Umzimkulu river on the south-west, the Kathlamba mountains or Drakensberg on the west, and the Indian ocean on the east.

British Kaffraria comprised the territory between the rivers Klipplaats, Tyumie, and Keiskama on the west, the river Kei from the junction of the Klipplaats to the sea on the north-east, and the Indian ocean on the south-east.

The boundaries of the South African Republic were undefined, but, roughly speaking, they were the Limpopo river on the north, the Vaal river and a line a little above Kuruman on the south, the Kalahari desert on the west, and the mountainous country corresponding with the Drakensberg on the east.

The Orange Free State comprised the territory between the Vaal river, the Orange river, and the Drakensberg, except Basutoland and the reserves set apart for coloured people.

XXII.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE CAPE COLONY.

THE story of the Cape Colony from this time onward is very different from that of the preceding period. Arbitrary rule is henceforth a thing of the past, and a constitution of a liberal nature, granted by Great Britain, gradually removes the memory of old grievances, and creates a strong feeling of loyalty to the throne and the empire in all sections of the civilised inhabitants.

The imperial authorities having resolved to confer upon the Cape people the privilege of parliamentary institutions, the details were referred for arrangement to the legislative council, and when everything was settled, on the 11th of March 1853 the constitution was promulgated by an order in council. By it two chambers—termed the legislative council and the house of assembly—were created, both of which were elective. The upper chamber for some years consisted of fifteen members, but in course of time this number was increased to twenty-six, beside the chief justice as president. For the purpose of electing the members, the colony was divided into two

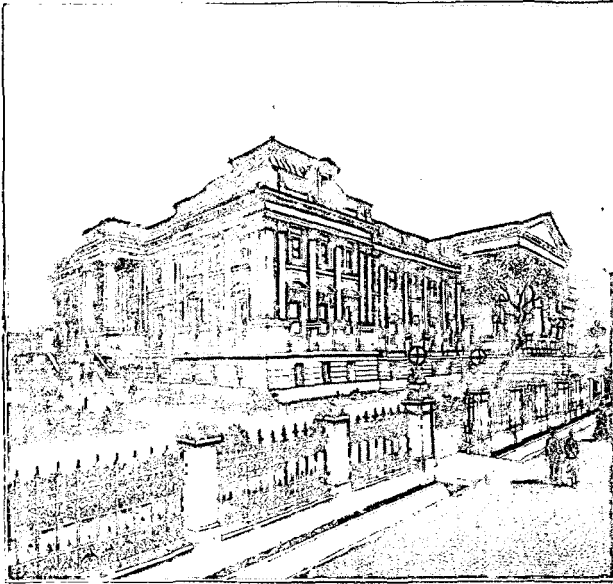
provinces, more recently into nine circles. The members held their seats for seven years. The house of assembly on its creation consisted of forty-six members, elected by twenty-two divisions, Cape-town having two more representatives than any of the others. Later it consisted of one hundred and seven members, elected by forty-seven divisions, and holding their seats for five years. Parliament was summoned to meet by the governor, but a period of twelve months was not to elapse between the sessions.

The right to vote for members of both chambers was conferred upon every male British subject over twenty-one years of age, who occupied a house or land worth £25, or was in receipt of a salary of £25 a year with board and lodging or £50 without. There was no distinction as regards race, or colour, or religion, or manner of living. In course of time, however, it was found expedient to alter these qualifications, as in the Cape Colony there was a large class of people unable to comprehend the nature of representative institutions, and yet in possession of sufficient property to bring them within one of the conditions specified above. In 1892 the right to vote was restricted to such adult male subjects as were able to sign their names and write down their addresses and employment, and who either occupied property worth £75, or received £50 a year as salary or wages.

Parliament met for the first time in June 1854. After that date no law could be made without the approval of both houses and the sanction of the governor. The right was reserved to the queen to

disallow any law so made within two years of its reaching England, but in practice this right was very rarely used. The ordinary yearly sessions of the parliament usually lasted about three months, from early in June to the end of August.

Naturally the colonists were gratified with the



PARLIAMENT HOUSE, CAPETOWN.

change from arbitrary to representative government, but there was still much to wish for. The officials of highest rank, who formed the executive council and were therefore the governor's advisers, continued to be sent out from England, and held their appointments during the pleasure of the secretary of state

for the colonies, no matter whether parliament liked them or not. They framed all government bills, and no measure involving the expenditure of money could be brought before the house of assembly unless introduced by them. They possessed the right of discussion, though not of voting, in both chambers.

This condition of things lasted eighteen years. In 1872 responsible government was introduced, and the ministers—as the high officials were termed—after that time were the leaders of the party in parliament that could command the largest number of votes in support of their measures. They were the colonial secretary, the treasurer, the attorney-general, the commissioner of public works, and the secretary for native affairs. At a later date a secretary for agriculture was substituted for the last named. There was also the premier, or prime minister, who might hold any of these appointments, or none of them; but who, in any case, after 1893 had all matters connected with the coloured races directly under his care. When any important measure, introduced by the government, failed to secure the support of a majority of the members of parliament, the ministers resigned, and the leader of the opposition was entrusted by the governor with the task of forming a new cabinet.

In practice this system gives to the men who are chosen by the people the power of making and altering laws, of levying taxes and controlling the manner of using the public money, and of creating and doing away with offices. But it is a system

adapted only for races of high civilisation. The majority of the day possesses supreme power, and if it came to consist of men whose constituents were incapable of acting with moderation, the minority could be more grievously oppressed than under the purest autocratic rule. There were many thinking people in the colony who regarded the franchise as still too low for perfect safety, with this form of government and the political equality of the various races that composed the population.

Until 1882 the English language only could be used in debate in parliament, just as in the proceedings of courts of justice or in transactions in the public offices. This was decidedly unfair, for Dutch was habitually spoken by fully three-fifths of the white people in the colony, and by a still larger proportion of the coloured inhabitants, exclusive of Bantu. It will be remembered that its suppression as the official language was one of the chief grievances that rankled in the breasts of the old colonists. The parliament could not be said in truth to represent the people as long as the language of the majority was proscribed, and in point of fact comparatively few of the old stock sought admission into it. It was some time before they realised the full significance of responsible government, but when they did, one of their first acts was to secure the same rights for their own tongue as for the English. Either could then be used in parliament, courts of law, and public offices, at the choice of the speaker, and no one was admitted into the ordinary branches of the civil service without a perfect knowledge of both.

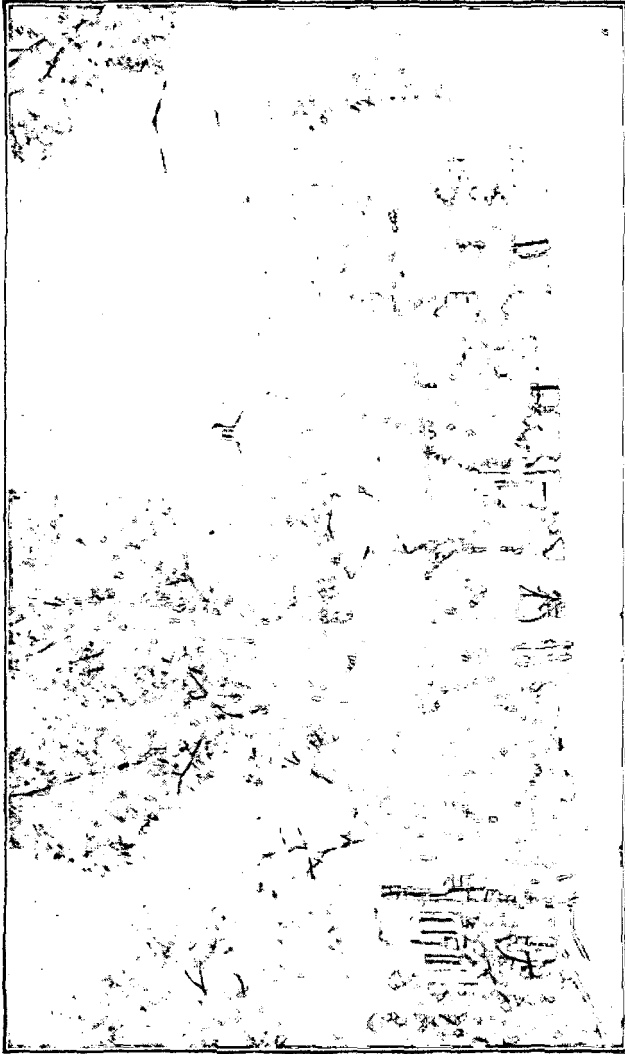
It would be incorrect to say that this measure raised the tone of debate in parliament or improved the administration of justice in the slightest degree, but it certainly made the parliament more truly representative of the people, and it removed a serious obstacle to the perfect co-operation in public matters of the colonists of Dutch and British blood. It did not of course make one people of the two nationalities, whose ideas are in some respects different, and each of which clings to its own mother tongue with the utmost tenacity. But it did away with a real grievance felt by a decided majority of the electors, who were now for the first time raised to an equality with their English neighbours, not only in the opinion of the later colonists, but in their own. All acts of parliament and other public documents were thereafter printed in both languages, and correspondence with government departments could be carried on in either at the option of the writer. English is, and bids fair to remain, however, exclusively the language of commerce throughout the country.

XXIII.

THE PROVINCE OF BRITISH KAFFRARIA.

BEFORE 1857 there were hardly any Bantu in the Cape Colony except the Fingos who had been introduced by Sir Benjamin D'Urban and the Tembus of Glen Grey, while British Kaffraria—the territory between the Keiskama and the Kei—had very few white inhabitants except soldiers, as the land there was reserved for the section of the Xosa tribe that was under English rule. After that date many thousands of Xosas were scattered over the country as far west as Port Elizabeth, and a population of European blood occupied a considerable portion of the land eastward to the Kei. This change in the position of the two races was caused by an event more astounding than anything in the pages of the wildest romance.

The chiefs had accepted the terms imposed upon them at the close of the last war, but resolved to renew the struggle with the white people as soon as circumstances would permit it. Shortly after the conclusion of peace, Sir George Cathcart was succeeded as governor and high commissioner by Sir



THE GIBBY HOSPITAL, KING-WILLIAMSTOWN.

George Grey, one of the ablest administrators the country has ever had, and he immediately took steps to prevent, as he hoped, another outbreak of hostilities.

As high commissioner he exercised supreme control in British Kaffraria. Provided with a large amount of money from the imperial treasury, he attempted to pacify the chiefs by giving them pensions, payable monthly, as compensation for the power they had apparently lost, and he tried to break the belief in witchcraft by building a large and beautiful hospital in King-Williamstown, where any sick black person was attended by skilful medical men and provided for free of charge. Further, he commenced to make roads in the province, and to build a great sea wall at the mouth of the Buffalo river—called the port of East London—with the express object of teaching the Xosas the advantage of earning money by labour. In the same spirit he encouraged the Wesleyan and Free Church missionary societies to establish industrial institutions, where young Fingos and Xosas could be trained as gardeners, carpenters, blacksmiths, and waggon-makers, and where a number of the most intelligent boys could be educated as interpreters, schoolmasters, and evangelists. One of the institutions which he thus assisted with funds is still in existence. This is Lovedale, an establishment of the Free Church, where an exceedingly good training has ever since been given, and where at the present time some five or six hundred youths of both sexes are living as pupils.

These truly philanthropic measures, however, required many years to produce a good effect, and even then a very small proportion of the people would be benefited by them. They had not well been taken in hand when tidings reached the high commissioner in Capetown that cattle in unusual numbers were being slaughtered in and beyond British Kaffraria, and that the Xosas were assuming a defiant attitude. Colonel Maclean, who had succeeded Colonel Mackinnon as head of the local government, was not long in finding out and reporting the cause.

One morning in May 1856 a girl named Nongkause went to draw water from a little stream that flowed past her home. On her return, she stated that she had seen by the river some men who differed greatly in appearance from those she was accustomed to meet. Her uncle, whose name was Umhlakaza, went to see the strangers, and found them at the place indicated. They told him to return home and go through certain ceremonies, after which he was to offer an ox in sacrifice to the spirits of the dead, and to come back to them on the fourth day. There was that in their appearance which commanded obedience, and so the man did as they bade him. On the fourth day he went to the river again. The strange people were there as before, and to his astonishment he recognised among them his brother who had been many years dead. Then, for the first time, he learned who and what they were. The eternal enemies of the white man, they announced themselves as having come from battlefields beyond the sea to aid the Xosas with their invincible power in driving the

English from the land. Between them and the chiefs Umhlakaza was to be the medium of communication, the channel through which instruction would be given. For strange things were to be done, stranger than any that had ever been done before, if the proffered assistance was welcomed. And first, he must tell the people to abandon dealing in witchcraft, to kill fat cattle and eat.

Such is the tale which the Xosas told each other of the manner in which Umhlakaza and Nongkause became acquainted with the secrets of the spirit world. Umhlakaza and Nongkause! What terrible visions of suffering and death are called forth in Kaffirland now at the mention of those two names!

Kreli, the paramount chief of the tribe, hailed the message with joy, and indeed it is generally believed—though it cannot be proved—that he was the instigator of the scheme. His word went forth that the command of the spirits was to be obeyed, that the best of all the cattle were to be killed and eaten. Messengers from him hastened to the chiefs in British Kaffraria to inform them of what had taken place, and to require their co-operation. Instantly the clans were in a state of commotion. Most of the chiefs commenced to kill, but one, Sandile, timid and hesitating, for a time held back. The high commissioner sent word to Kreli that though in his own territory he could do as he pleased, he must cease from instigating those who were British subjects to destroy their property, or it would become necessary to punish him. But he cared little for such a threat,

as the time was at hand when it would be for him to talk of punishing.

The revelations communicated through Umhlakaza grew apace. The girl, standing in the river in presence of a multitude of deluded people, heard strange unearthly sounds beneath her feet, which Umhlakaza pronounced to be the voices of spirits holding council over the affairs of men. The first order was to slay cattle, but the greedy ghosts seemed insatiable in their demands. More and more were killed, but still never enough. And thus the delusion continued month after month, every day spreading wider and embracing fresh victims in its grasp. After a while Sandile gave way to the urgent applications of his brother Makoma, who asserted that he had himself seen and conversed with the spirits of two of his father's dead counsellors, and that they commanded Sandile to kill his cattle if he would not perish with the white man.

Before this time the last order of Umhlakaza had been given, that order whose fulfilment was to be the final preparation of the Xosas, after which they would be worthy of the aid of a spirit host. Not an animal out of all their herds must be left living, every grain of corn in their granaries must be destroyed. But what a future of glory and wealth was predicted for the faithful and obedient! On a certain day myriads of cattle, more beautiful than those they were called upon to kill, were to issue from the earth and cover the pastures far and wide. Great fields of millet, ripe and ready for eating, were in an instant to spring into existence. The ancient heroes of the race, the

great and the wise of days gone by, restored to life on that happy day, would appear and take part in the joys of the faithful. Trouble and sickness would be known no more, nor would the frailties of old age oppress them, for youth and beauty were to return alike to the risen dead and the feeble living. Such was the picture of Paradise painted by the Xosa prophet, and held before the eyes of the infatuated people. And dreadful was to be the fate of those who opposed the will of the spirits, or neglected to obey their commands. The day that was to bring so much joy to the loyal would bring nothing but ruin for them. The sky itself would fall and crush them together with the Fingos and the white people.

Missionaries and agents of the government tried in vain to stay the mad proceedings. A delirious frenzy possessed the minds of the Xosas, and they would listen to no argument, brook no opposition. White men who attempted to interfere with them in any way were scowled upon and warned to take care of themselves. Yet these fanatics, with their imaginations fixed on boundless wealth, were eagerly purchasing trifles from English traders, bartering away the hides of two hundred thousand slaughtered cattle. Most of them acted under the influence of superstition alone, though there is no doubt that some of the leaders viewed the proceeding as calculated solely for purposes of war. To throw the whole Xosa tribe, fully armed and in a famishing state, upon the colony, was the end kept steadily in view by these. The terrible odds against the success of such a venture they were too blind to see or too excited to calculate.

Some there were who neither believed the predictions of Umhlakaza nor looked for success in war, and who yet destroyed the last particle of their food. Bukhu, Krel's uncle, was one of these. "It is the chief's command," said he, and then, when nothing more was left, the old man and his favourite wife sat down in their empty kraal and died. Krel's principal counsellor opposed the scheme till he saw that words were useless. Then, observing that all he had was his chief's, he gave the order to kill and waste, and fled from the place a raving lunatic. Thus it was with thousands. The chief commanded, and they obeyed.

In the early months of 1857 an unwonted activity reigned throughout the country from the Keiskama to the Bashee. Great kraals were being prepared for the reception of the cattle, so soon to appear like stars of the sky in multitude. Enormous skin bags were being made to contain the milk shortly to be like water in plenty. And even as they worked some were starving. East of the Kei the prophet's command had been obeyed to the letter, but the resurrection day was still postponed. It was in mercy to the Gaikas, said Umhlakaza, for Sandile had not finished killing yet. Nothing surely was ever more clumsily arranged, more blindly carried out than this mad act of the Xosas. One section of the tribe was literally starving, while another section was still engaged in destroying its resources.

The government did all that was possible to protect the frontier. Every post was strengthened, and every available soldier was sent forward. The

colonists, too, were prepared to meet the expected shock, come when it would. And then, after defence was provided for, stores of food were accumulated for the purpose of saving life. For there could be no heart so cold as not to feel pity for those misguided beings who were rushing into certain destruction.

At length the morning dawned of the day so long and so ardently looked for. All night long the Xosas had watched with feelings stretched to the utmost tension of excitement, expecting to see two blood-red suns rise over the eastern hills, when the heavens would fall and crush the races they hated. Famished with hunger, half-dying as they were, that night was yet a time of fierce, delirious joy. The morn, that but a few short hours, slowly becoming minutes, would usher in, was to see all their sorrows ended, all their misery past. And so they waited and watched. At length the sun approached the horizon, throwing first a silver sheen upon the mountain peaks, and then bathing hillside and valley in a flood of light. The hearts of the watchers sank within them. "What," said they, "will become of us if Umhlakaza's predictions turn out untrue?" But perhaps, after all, it might be midday that was meant, and when the shadows began to lengthen towards the east, perhaps, they thought, the setting of the sun is the time. The sun went down—as it often does in that fair land—behind clouds of crimson and gold, and the Xosas awoke to the reality of their dreadful position.

A blunder, such as a child would hardly have made, had been committed by the managers of this

horrible tragedy. Under pretence of witnessing the resurrection, they should have assembled the warriors of the whole tribe at some point from which they could have burst in a body upon the colony. This had not been done, and now it was too late to collect them together. An attempt was made to rectify the blunder, and the day of resurrection was again postponed, but fierce excitement had given place to deepest despair. The only chance of life that remained was to reach the colony, but it was as suppliants, not as warriors, that the famished people must now go.

The horrors that succeeded can only be partly told. There are intelligent men living now, then wild naked fugitives, who cannot recount the events of those days. The whole scene comes home to them as a hideous nightmare, or as the remembrances of one in a state of delirium. In many instances all the ties were broken that bind human beings to each other in every condition of society. Brother fought with brother, father with son, for scraps and shreds of those great milk sacks so carefully made in the days when hope was high. The aged, the sick, the feeble, were abandoned by the young and vigorous. All kinds of wild plants, and even the roots of trees, were collected for food. Many of those who were near the sea coast endeavoured to support life upon the shellfish found there. Being unaccustomed to such diet, they were attacked by dysentery, which completed the work of famine. In other instances whole families sat down and died together. From fifteen to twenty skeletons were

afterwards often found under a single tree, showing where parents and children met their fate when the last ray of hope had fled. A continuous stream of emaciated beings poured into the colony, young men and women mostly, but sometimes fathers and mothers bearing on their backs half-dying children. Before the farmhouses they would sit down, and ask in piteous tones for food, nor did they ask in vain.

Between the first and last days of 1857 the official returns of British Kaffraria showed a decrease in the population from one hundred and five thousand to thirty-eight thousand of both sexes and all ages. Sixty-seven thousand had perished or dispersed. In the centre of this territory was King-Williamstown, where the government had provided a quantity of corn, by which the lives of thousands were saved. Between the Kei and the Bashee there was no such storehouse, and flight, except to rival and unfriendly tribes, was next to impossible. The death-rate there was consequently higher than in British Kaffraria. The lowest computation fixes the number of those who perished on both sides of the Kei at twenty-five thousand, ordinary calculations give double that number. The power of the Xosa tribe was for the time completely broken.

Large tracts of land in British Kaffraria having become waste by this mad act of the Xosas, Sir George Grey allotted farms of about fifteen hundred acres in size to a considerable number of selected individuals from the Cape Colony, to be held under tenure of military service and a small quitrent. A strong body of European settlers was thus stationed

in advance of the most formidable Kaffir strongholds. Some regiments of the German legion, raised by Great Britain during the Crimean war, were sent out, and were disbanded in the province, where plots of land were assigned to the officers and soldiers on a military village system. Many of these men prospered, and they were undoubtedly of great service to the country, but on the whole the villages were failures. The proportion of women was too small to give reasonable hope of permanency to the settlements, and the men were better adapted for life in towns than as tillers of the soil. Most of them dispersed as soon as the issue of rations ceased.

A body of agricultural labourers selected from the hardy peasantry of Northern Germany was introduced shortly afterwards. The men were accompanied by their wives and children, and were inured to toil and accustomed to rough living. In 1858 and 1859 these people, in number rather over two thousand, landed at East London. They were sent out under a contract between Sir George Grey and a merchant in Hamburg, and were bound to refund within a certain period the cost of their transport and to pay twenty shillings an acre for the ground allotted to them. They were located in different parts of the province, but chiefly in the valley of the Buffalo river. No better settlers could have been introduced. By their industry, in the course of a few years they became possessed of a considerable amount of stock and brought their little farms to a high state of cultivation. As market gardeners they were unrivalled in South Africa. Frugal, temperate,

industrious, and religious, they contributed very largely to the prosperity of the province.

King-Williamstown soon grew to be a place of importance. It was garrisoned by a strong body of British troops, and was the centre of a large trade, besides being the seat of the local government.

In theory the Cape parliament had no power to legislate for British Kaffraria, but in practice as soon as an act was passed in Capetown the high commissioner proclaimed it of force in the province, and thus secured uniformity in the laws. The revenue was small, and required to be supplemented by grants in aid from the imperial treasury. But now that the territory had ceased to be occupied exclusively by Bantu, it seemed to the queen's ministers that it might with advantage be incorporated with the Cape Colony, and this burden be removed from the British taxpayer. Proposals to that effect were therefore brought before the Cape parliament on several occasions, but were always rejected. At length the imperial parliament passed an act of union, which was, however, only to take effect after the lapse of a certain period, and provided the Cape parliament did not in the meantime annex the province. Armed with this document, Sir Philip Wodehouse, Sir George Grey's successor as governor and high commissioner, introduced a bill which provided for the incorporation of British Kaffraria as two electoral divisions—King-Williamstown and East London—and after much opposition it was passed by a majority of both houses of the Cape legislature, and in 1865 was carried into effect.

XXIV.

RAPID PROGRESS OF THE CAPE COLONY UNDER HOME RULE.

THE introduction of responsible government had the effect of causing the people to take much greater interest in the public life of the colony than had previously been the case. One of the first things attended to was the opening up of the interior by means of railways, as communication with places on the upper terraces was often almost impossible in times of drought, and even in the best seasons was tedious and expensive. In 1874 the first large extensions were resolved upon by parliament, and were taken in hand without any delay. From Cape-town the existing line to Wellington was to be continued to Beaufort West, from Port Elizabeth a line was to be constructed to Graaff-Reinet, with a branch to the Bushman's river, and from East London one was to be constructed to Queenstown. The gauge was to be forty-two inches, and the lines were to be made and worked by the government.

Harbour works, which have made of Table Bay and East London safe and convenient ports, were

pushed on, and telegraph lines were laid down in every direction. By means of a subvention to a company in 1879 connection with Aden was made by cable, which put South Africa in communication with Europe and India. An act was passed to encourage irrigation, a matter of the highest importance to the country. The system of public schools was greatly extended and improved. In 1873 the university of the Cape of Good Hope was established, as an examining body with power to confer degrees. Here certainly was a big bound forward towards equality with more densely populated dependencies of the empire.

Unfortunately at this time two insect pests made their appearance, which caused great loss to large sections of the community. One of these was the dorthesia, that entirely destroyed the orange groves before it was discovered that a species of foreign beetle was its natural enemy. This was introduced, with the excellent result that the dorthesia was soon practically exterminated, and all varieties of the orange tree could again be cultivated with success. The other pest was the phylloxera, that attacked the roots of the grape-bearing vines, and threatened absolute ruin to the wine farmers of the west. But for it a remedy was found after it had caused very extensive damage. The roots of an American vine are immune from its attacks, and these were planted and grape-producing stocks grafted upon them.

Since that time the production of many varieties of fruit has gone on increasing, and a profitable

market has been found in England, where it arrives when European fruit is out of season.

Ostrich farming was rapidly extending, and in favourable situations was more profitable than any other industry. Naturally, with the great increase in the production of feathers their value diminished, but not to such an extent as to discourage the breeders of the birds.

In 1879 an association termed the Afrikander Bond was founded, which afterwards had immense influence in the colony. It was founded at a time when great irritation existed owing to the annexation of the Transvaal republic to the British empire against the wishes of its people, and consequently its first constitution favoured independence; but very shortly it came largely under the guidance of Mr. J. H. Hofmeyr, one of the ablest statesmen that South Africa has yet produced, who realised the advantages of connection with Great Britain and the absurdity of this country attempting to stand alone, and it then became perfectly loyal, confining its exertions to guarding the interests of the Dutch-speaking section of the inhabitants.

In 1877 hostilities with the Bantu on the eastern border broke out, but as this matter led to the incorporation in the colony of the whole territory up to Natal, it will be dealt with in a separate chapter. On the northern border at a little later date there were two punitive expeditions that require notice.

The Orange river in its central course for some eighty miles expands to a great width, abounds with

falls and rapids, and contains many islands of considerable size, covered with dense thickets. To the north the country is a waterless desert, and to the south it is not much better, so that approach to the islands was always difficult, and in addition to this the fords to them were unknown to people at a distance. They formed thus ideal strongholds for robber bands, and in 1879 they were occupied by a few hundred Korana, Griqua, Bantu, and Bushman depredators, the very scum of South Africa, who from them as a base made raids to places hundreds of miles distant. Volunteers and police were sent against the marauders, but month after month passed away, and the northern border war, as the operations were termed, still went on. The difficulty was to find the vagabonds. At length, however, they were tracked out, when most of them were killed in action, others were made prisoners, and the wretched affair was over.

A greater contrast than this wild country, the haunt of robbers in 1879, and the same tract of land in 1916, is nowhere to be found in the world. Here at present is the Kakamas labour colony of the Dutch reformed church, where hundreds of poor white families are residing in comfort and leading honest and useful lives. There are large tracts of rich land along the banks of the river, and the falls and rapids offer facilities for leading water to them. Canals many miles in length have been constructed, and irrigation has converted this desert waste into gardens, orchards, and corn-fields. A railway conveys the surplus produce to

distant markets, so that a thriving settlement has arisen.

Near the source of the Orange there was another disturbance in 1879, which caused much trouble and expense. A petty Bantu chief named Morosi, who was a subject of the Cape Colony, rose in rebellion, and took refuge on an almost impregnable mountain. Two attempts to storm the stronghold failed, and then it was invested, in hope of starving the rebels out. Months later, as that did not succeed, an attempt was made to scale the mountain at night from ledge to ledge by means of long ladders, and this succeeded. The summit was gained by a few daring men, and in the combat that followed Morosi and most of his retainers were killed.

At this time the Cape Colony was rapidly expanding. Along the western coast between Walvis Bay and the mouth of the Orange river there are several rocky islets upon which seabirds congregate in vast flocks, and as there is hardly any rainfall in that region the guano is of considerable value. In 1866 these islets, twelve in number, were proclaimed dependencies of the Cape Colony. The most valuable of them is the one named Ichaboe, which is less than a mile in circumference. The only inhabitants are the men employed by the government to gather the guano, which is sold at a very low rate to colonial farmers.

Missionaries and traders were living on the adjoining mainland, but no civilised power claimed any authority there. That far-seeing governor, Sir

Bartle Frere, on more than one occasion urged upon the colonial office in England the desirability of proclaiming it British territory as far north as the Kunene river, but his advice was unheeded, as the expense of following it was feared. If the little inlet named Angra Pequena be excepted, there is but one safe harbour along the whole coast. This is Walvis Bay, and on account of its strategical importance, in March 1878 it with a small tract of land behind it was taken possession of as part of the British empire, and a magistrate was sent to reside there. The Cape Colony bore the expense, as there was no revenue, and in August 1884 it was formally annexed and made subject to colonial rule and law. The inhabitants were the magistrate with his staff of police, a missionary family, a couple of traders, and about seven hundred Hottentots of a very low type.

An important acquisition was that of the sterile territory then termed Griqualand West, which contained diamond mines of enormous value.

One day in 1867 a child on a farm in the north of the Cape Colony was observed to be playing with a remarkably brilliant pebble, which a trader, to whom it was shown as a curiosity, suspected to be a gem of value. He obtained it and sent it for examination to a qualified person in Grahamstown, who reported that it was a diamond of twenty-one carats weight, and that its value was £500. Search was immediately commenced in the neighbourhood by several persons in odd hours, and soon another, though much smaller, was found. Then a third was

picked up on the bank of the Vaal river, and attention was directed to that locality.

During 1868 several were found, though as yet no one was applying himself solely to looking for them. In March 1869 the Star of South Africa was obtained from a Korana Hottentot, who had been in possession of it for a long time without the least idea of its value except as a powerful charm. It was a magnificent brilliant of eighty-three carats weight when uncut, and was readily sold for £11,000. From all parts of South Africa men now began to make their way to the banks of the lower Vaal to search for diamonds, and trains of waggons conveying provisions and goods were to be seen on every highway to the interior. Some of the diggers were fortunate in amassing wealth, but this was by no means the case with all. Diamond digging, in fact, was like a great lottery, with a few prizes and many blanks. But it had a powerful attraction, and shortly many hundreds of adventurers from Europe and America were also engaged in it.

The quiet, simple, homely life of the South African farm and village in olden times—rarely disturbed except by wars with Bantu tribes—had passed away for ever, and a bustling, struggling, restless mode of existence was rapidly taking its place. The wealth of the country was enormously increased, for diamonds soon attained a high place in the exports; but it may be questioned if the people are on the whole as happy as they were before.

The southern bank of the lower Vaal was Free State territory, but the ownership of the northern

bank was disputed. Before the discovery of diamonds it was regarded as of so little value that no actual government existed there, though the South African Republic, the Orange Free State, the Batlapin tribe, and the Griqua captain Nicholas Waterboer all claimed the ground. The consequence was that each mining camp on that side of the stream formed a kind of government for itself, and a great deal of confusion and lawlessness was the result.

After a while much richer diamond mines than those along the Vaal were discovered on some farms to the southward, and most of the diggers removed to them. The public offices of the district in which they were situated were at a considerable distance, but as soon as arrangements could be made by the government, a resident landdrost was appointed, a post-office was established, and some policemen were engaged.

In the minds of people at a distance the various camps were confused with each other, and all were supposed to be in the lawless condition of those north of the Vaal. Most of the diggers were British subjects, so that her Majesty's high commissioner considered it his duty to interfere in the interests of order. At that time one of the shrewdest men in South Africa was agent for the Griqua captain Nicholas Waterboer, and on behalf of his client had laid claim to a large part of the Orange Free State, including the locality in which the diamond mines were situated. No pretension could be more shadowy, but when Mr. Arnot, on behalf of Waterboer, offered the territory to the British government, it came to be

regarded, on one side at least, as having some real foundation.

The high commissioner proposed arbitration, which President Brand declined. The territory which Mr. Arnot claimed south of the Vaal, he said, had been part of the Free State ever since the convention of 1854. Before that date it had been part of the Orange River Sovereignty, and some of the farms in it were held under British titles issued at that time. Nicholas Waterboer and his people lived far away, and, as well as could be ascertained, had never occupied ground there. Under these circumstances he would not admit that there could be any question of ownership. The right of the state to land beyond the Vaal, however, he was willing to submit to arbitration, as it had been acquired by purchase, and the seller's title might be open to doubt.

While the high commissioner and the president were corresponding on this subject, Mr. Marthinus Wessel Pretorius, who was then president of the South African Republic, agreed to submit some disputes between that country and the Barolong, Batlapin, and Griquas, to arbitration, in consequence of which a court was appointed, with Mr. Keate, governor of Natal, as final umpire, and proceedings were opened at the little village of Bloemhof, on the northern bank of the Vaal. The Free State government was not represented in the court.

The interests involved were greater than were recognised at the time. It was supposed that the sovereignty of some of the diamond mines was the great question at issue; now it is seen that access by

Great Britain to the distant interior was also involved. On one side the proceedings were a perfect farce. President Pretorius and his attorney did nothing whatever to work up their case; they did not attempt to meet evidence that might have been disproved with the greatest ease; they even put in a spurious document given to them by one of their opponents purposely to befool them. On the other side was Mr. Arnot, who knew exactly what to withhold as well as what to bring forward. The result was that Mr. Keate, acting solely on the evidence before him, gave judgment against the South African Republic, and in defining the territories of the disputants included within Nicholas Waterboer's boundary the part of the Free State which that captain claimed.

As soon as the Keate award was issued—October 1871—Sir Henry Barkly, who was then high commissioner, proclaimed Waterboer's country a British dependency, with boundaries enclosing the mines along the Vaal, and at Dutoitspan, De Beer's, and Kimberley. An armed force was sent to take possession of it, and the Free State officials withdrew under protest. The territory, which was named Griqualand West, then became a crown colony. It had a stormy existence, for many of the diggers, when unsuccessful, were difficult men to rule, and there was once a rebellion that required British troops to suppress. Then the Batlapin north of the Vaal resented their ground having been declared to be Nicholas Waterboer's, and rose in arms. The Griquas, too, in the west, finding they had gained nothing by the cession, gave endless

trouble, and finally went into rebellion. The government, however, was strong enough to overcome all opposition, and even furnished a corps of volunteers for service in other parts of South Africa.

As different potentates had made grants of the same ground, a special court was created to decide upon conflicting claims. During many weeks evidence was taken, and the most minute research was made into the history of the land and its people. When at length judgment was given, all claims within the diamond mining area that rested on grants by Waterboer were thrown out, because that captain was proved never to have had any rights there.

President Brand then went to England and laid his case before the imperial authorities. In brief it was this: that Great Britain had taken the land from the Free State under pretence that it belonged to Waterboer, and that a British court, after a careful examination, had since decided that Waterboer had no right to it. The reply that he received was to the effect that it was a necessity for the paramount power in South Africa to be in possession of the diamond fields, but he would receive £90,000 from Griqualand West as a solatium.

The president accepted the offer, and thus the long controversy between him and the secretary of state came to an end. The settlement removed the only objection the Cape parliament had to annexing the territory—the desire to do nothing to affect the Free State claims—and as the British government was desirous of being relieved of the responsibility of

directly ruling it, in 1880 Griqualand West was incorporated in the Cape Colony as the magisterial districts of Barkly West, Kimberley, Hay, and Herbert.

The Keate award was hardly delivered when the clans cut off by it from the Transvaal republic began to quarrel with each other, and their feuds continued with hardly any intermission until 1877, when the British flag was hoisted at Pretoria. Then for a time there was comparative order, because the Transvaal authorities favoured the strongest chiefs, and the military force in the country commanded respect.

When the republic was restored in 1881 the old quarrels began afresh, and soon became more bitter than ever. Some of the chiefs now professed strong attachment to Great Britain, and as a matter of course their rivals professed equally strong attachment to the government of the farmers. At this stage a European renegade suggested to the chief with whom he was living that white men should be enlisted to fight for him, and as a result volunteers were called for, each to receive a farm in payment when the war was over. The other side adopted the same course, so that bodies of Europeans—decidedly of the vagabond type, however—were apparently pitted against each other in a cause that did not concern them in the least. In reality there was no fear of such combatants shedding each other's blood, except when an individual made himself particularly obnoxious; but it soon became a certainty that unless some power intervened the volunteers would divide the best part of the country

among them and leave little worth having for their employers.

The western border of the Transvaal republic was the base of operations on one side, and President Kruger's government made little or no effort to prevent its being so used. The burghers of that state would not put themselves to trouble to protect clans that had thrown off their authority, and they had also an excuse that volunteers for the other side were enlisted at the diamond fields—on British soil—with hardly a show of secrecy. This implication in the disturbances caused people in England to regard the republic as being at the bottom of the whole matter, and public opinion supported the government in sending out a strong military force under Sir Charles Warren to protect the clans from being despoiled.

Meanwhile the volunteers—or freebooters—had taken possession of two considerable tracts of ground and set up an independent government on each. One was termed the republic of Stellaland, the other the land of Goshen. When Sir Charles Warren approached, the people of Goshen, instead of preparing to resist, dispersed to other parts of South Africa, and the people of Stellaland submitted, so that there was no necessity to fire a shot in anger.

The expedition, though it had not to fight, was of the utmost service to British interests in the country, as it secured an open highway to the interior of the continent. In September 1885 the territory which had been the scene of the disturbances was taken under British sovereignty. It was formed into a

crown colony, governed by an administrator under her Majesty's high commissioner, and was divided into five magisterial districts—Mafeking, Vryburg, Taung, Kuruman, and Gordonia.

The best of the land was set apart as reserves for the Betshuana clans, but considerable tracts were allotted to European farmers. It is well adapted for cattle runs, though agriculture only succeeds in limited localities, and in general there is a scarcity of surface water. No minerals of any importance except salt have yet been discovered. The climate is exceedingly healthy, and though the days in mid-summer are sometimes unpleasantly warm, the nights are invariably cool and enjoyable.

After the establishment of British authority order was observed as well as in any part of the world. The railway from Capetown, Port Elizabeth, and East London, passing through Kimberley, was extended through the province, and continued to the far distant north. Vryburg and Mafeking, the largest centres of European population in the territory, are served by this line.

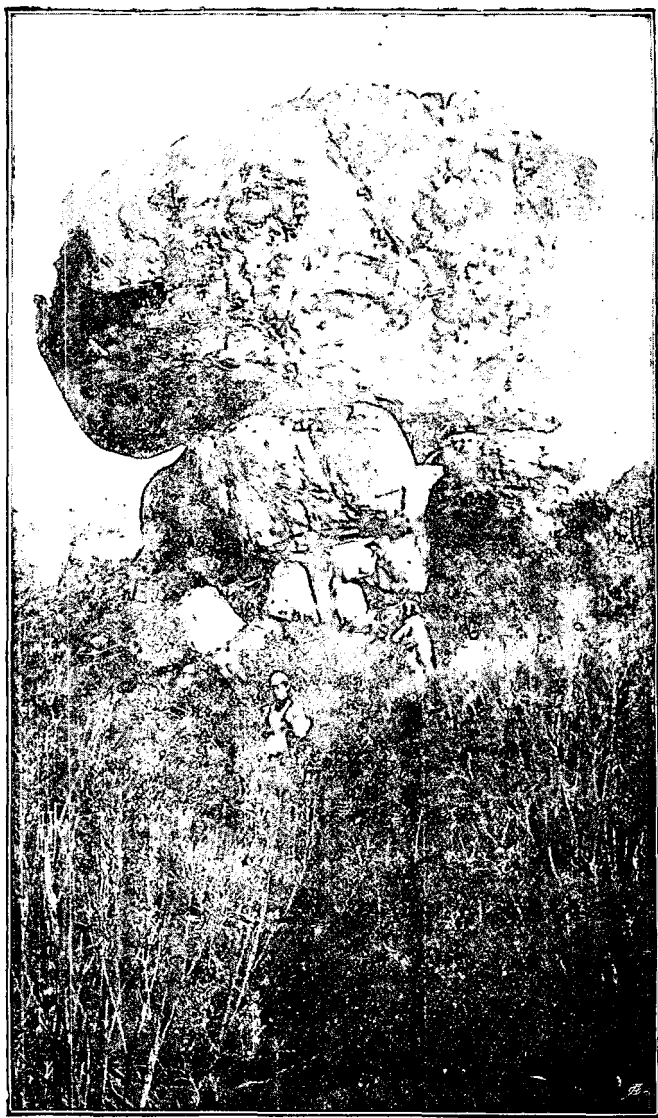
In 1895 the crown colony of British Betshuanaland ceased to exist, by being incorporated in the Cape Colony. The boundary on the north now became the Molopo river and Ramathlabama Spruit, and the great block of land between the Transvaal republic and the twentieth meridian eastward from Greenwich was within the colonial border.

XXV.

FURTHER ENLARGEMENTS OF THE CAPE COLONY.

SOON after the introduction of responsible government, as the colony had now taken upon itself the entire burden of its defence, the attention of the ministers was drawn to the country between the Kei and Indwe rivers on one side and Natal on the other, the greater part of which was occupied by Bantu tribes almost constantly at war with each other. This state of things was a perpetual danger to the colony, because clans of two of the most important of the tribes—the Xosa and the Tembu—were British subjects living within its border, and could not be kept quiet while their friends and relations were engaged in strife.

The territory between the Kei and Indwe rivers and Natal is a very beautiful and fertile tract of land, resembling Natal in appearance, though the temperature along the coast is not quite so high. On the elevated belt just below the Draakensberg the winter nights are too cold to be pleasant to Bantu, and consequently no one except Bushmen resided there permanently until quite recently. There are some



SOUTH AFRICAN BOULDER.

fine forests on the lower terraces. The rainfall is abundant, and the drainage perfect, the rivers on account of their great slope speedily carrying off all superfluous moisture. The climate is therefore healthy, though the grass is so rich and other vegetation so luxuriant that had the country been nearly level fever certainly would be endemic.

South Africa abounds in cascades. The most celebrated of these, next to the Victoria falls of the Zambesi, are the great falls of the Orange, the Tugela's leap of sixteen hundred feet over the face of the Drakensberg, and the fall of the Umgeni a few miles from Maritzburg in Natal. But one of the most picturesque is in the Tsitsa river, in the territory now being treated of. Ordinarily the stream tumbles over the precipice in three or four rills, but in times of flood a volume of water from four to five hundred feet wide drops nearly four hundred feet into a narrow chasm.

When white men first visited this territory, more than three hundred years ago, there were no Bantu tribes of any importance living in it. A number of little clans, each independent of all the others, occupied the land north of the Umzimvubu river, and south of that stream the people were of mixed Bantu and Hottentot blood. They had the same customs and language as the present inhabitants, but the tribes now existing were either not yet formed or were too small to attract the attention of travellers.

Towards the close of the seventeenth century some shipwrecked sailors found four tribes occupying the

territory : the Pondos, the Pondomsis, the Tembus, and the Xosas. All are there at the present day, and the fragments of many others as well. At that time they had advanced southward as far as the river Kei, and one little offshoot was even found at the mouth of the Buffalo. They had partly incorporated and partly exterminated the Hottentots to the north, and were continuing that process with others in their way as they advanced.

In preceding chapters sufficient has been related of these people from that date until the destruction of their cattle and grain by the Xosas in 1856 and 1857. As punishment for the part taken by them in that occurrence, in 1858 Kreli and his people were driven over the Bashee by a body of the colonial armed and mounted police. A few hundred Fingos and some Xosas who professed to be attached to the British government were then located in the district of Idutywa, part of the vacant territory, and an English official was stationed there to preserve order among them. The rest of the old Xosa country between the Kei and Bashee rivers continued to be without inhabitants until 1864, when Sir Philip Wodehouse believed it necessary to strengthen the European element west of the Kei, as the military force on the border was being reduced by the imperial authorities.

His first plan was to give out the vacant ground as farms to a selected body of young men from different parts of the colony, but as the British government emphatically refused to extend its dominion in South Africa he was obliged to relinquish that

project. He then resolved to make room for more farmers within the established border by inducing some of the Bantu clans there to move eastward.

In execution of this design it was necessary to attempt to turn Kreli from an enemy into a friend, and with this view he was offered the districts of Kentani and Willowvale, with a pension of £100 a year as long as he should behave himself to the satisfaction of the governor. The chief joyfully accepted the offer, and immediately moved in with his people. This of course was no relief to the colony, and the Gaikas under Sandile, who were next offered land over the Kei in exchange for their location on the western side, refused to move. They professed that they wished to remain British subjects, but in reality their reason for declining the offer was attachment to Kreli, their tribal head, whom they thought they would be wronging if they took possession of land that had once been his. The Tembus of Glen Grey, however, and some of the Fingos west of the Keiskama had no such scruples, and they accepted the governor's proposal. The former received the districts of Xalanga and Saint Mark's, the latter the districts of Tsomo, Nqamakwe, and Butterworth.

Thus the whole of the land east of the Indwe and the Kei was again occupied by a Bantu population. British officials were stationed with all these people, but as the imperial government would not permit the territory to be formally annexed, they were really only diplomatic agents.

Sir Philip Wodehouse's object in removing these Bantu was entirely frustrated, for not a rood of

ground was obtained by the measure for Europeans. The Tembus and the Fingos in the colony simply threw off swarms, but took care not to abandon any part of their locations, and it was not possible for the government to use force to drive them away.

The main branch of the Tembu tribe lived between the Bashee and Umtata rivers. After 1863 its chief was a man named Gangelizwe, ordinarily a gentle-looking and soft-speaking individual, but subject to outbursts of violent passion. His great wife was a daughter of the Xosa chief Kreli, and his treatment of her was at times so inhuman that her father was exasperated to the last degree. There was an old feud between the Tembus and the Pondsos, so that Gangelizwe had an enemy on the other side also. In 1875, in a mad fit of rage, he murdered one of his concubines, who was an illegitimate niece of Kreli and an attendant upon the great wife. His enemies on all sides were now ready to fall upon him, and as his tribe contained many fragments of others whose fidelity could not be depended upon in such a quarrel, the chief himself and his counsellors requested British protection and offered to become subjects of the queen. To prevent a disturbance on the border the high commissioner consented, and in 1875 the districts of Elliot, Engcobo, Umtata, and Mqanduli were added to the empire in the same loose way as those previously mentioned.

Living on the eastern bank of the Bashee river, close to the coast, was a clan called the Bomvana, the fugitive remnant of a tribe destroyed in the early Zulu wars. This clan was nominally attached to the

Xosa tribe, but it did not destroy its substance in 1856 and 1857, and was consequently able to give shelter to Kreli when he was driven over the Bashee in the following year. From that time it was really independent, and remained so until 1878. Then the country around was involved in a war yet to be referred to, and Moni, the chief of the Bomvanas, who was too weak to maintain neutrality, applied to be received as a British subject. The high commissioner accepted his offer, and took possession of the district of Elliotdale, thus bringing the whole country between the colonial border and the Umtata river more or less authoritatively under the British flag.

It was regarded as being under the protection and control of the high commissioner as representing the empire, and no part of it was made subject to the Cape Colony until 1879, when the districts of Idutywa, Tsomo, Nqamakwe, and Butterworth were formally annexed. The districts of Kentani, Willowvale, Xalanga, Saint Mark's, Elliot, Engcobo, Umtata, Mqanduli, and Elliotdale were annexed in 1885.

The whole of the territory between the Umtata and Umzimkulu rivers was allotted to the chief Faku, when in 1844 an attempt was made to form a powerful Pondo state. But that attempt was a failure, for the upper portion of the territory was nearly uninhabited, and the lower portion was filled with refugee clans from the north, some of whom were almost as strong as the Pondos themselves. The country therefore continued to be convulsed with feuds and wars, and Faku became at length only

too glad to part with his nominal right to a portion of it that he might have a chance of conquering and holding the rest.

He first ceded the land along the coast between the Umtamvuna and Umzimkulu rivers to Natal, thereby getting rid of a number of his opponents, and then in 1861 he offered to the Cape government nearly two-thirds of the remainder. The line which he proposed cut off the Pondomsis—a tribe as old as his own and that had never been subject to him or his ancestors,—the Bacas, the Hlangwenis, and some others of less note, whom he desired to place under such control that they could not molest him while he subjugated the enemies that would be left on his side.

His offer was not at once accepted, but thereafter Sir George Grey and succeeding governors looked upon the territory along the base of the Drakensberg, north of the proposed line, as waste land at their disposal as the highest authority in South Africa. Sir George Grey offered a portion of it to Adam Kok and his Griquas, if they would remove from the Orange Free State, and they accepted it. In 1862 Sir Philip Wodehouse located them in the districts of Kokstad and Umzimkulu, and from them the whole territory north of that which Faku retained for himself became known as Griqualand East.

The object of placing the Griquas there was to establish a power, acting under British prestige, believed to be sufficiently civilised to set a good example and sufficiently strong to maintain order.

But the scheme was an utter failure, and in a few years Adam Kok was obliged to ask that a British officer should be stationed in the country to endeavour to keep the different sections of the inhabitants from exterminating each other.

During the last war between the Orange Free State and Moshesh, some Basuto, Batlokua, and Fingo clans moved in, and were located by Sir Philip Wodehouse in the districts of Mount Fletcher and Matatiele. Some freed slaves and colonial blacks had previously settled in the district of Maclear.

Constant quarrels among the various clans at length induced the high commissioner to interfere, as nearly all the chiefs declared their readiness to place themselves under British authority. In 1873 an officer with the title of resident was sent into the country, and the districts of Maclear, Mount Fletcher, Tsolo, and Qumbu—the last two occupied by the Pondomsi tribe—were taken over. In the following year the districts of Matatiele, Kokstad, and Umzimkulu, with Adam Kok's consent, were also taken over, as was in 1876 the district of Mount Frere, with the consent of the Baca chief Makaula, whose people occupied it. These eight districts comprise the whole of the territory north of the line proposed by Faku. In 1879 they were formally annexed to the Cape Colony. In 1886 the district of Mount Ayliff, occupied by the Xesibes under the chief Jojo, was also annexed. It was south of Faku's line, but it became a necessity either to take over the Xesibes, or to stand by and see a brave little clan exterminated by the Pondos.

A small tract of land, less than sixteen square miles in extent, on the western side of the Umzimvubu river at its mouth, together with the navigable part of the stream and the eastern bank from the lower ford to the sea, is called the district of Port St. John's. The mouth of the Umzimvubu, in common with all the streams along the coast, is nearly closed by a shifting bar of sand. When heavy rains fall in the uplands, a channel is sometimes opened across the bar thirty feet and upwards in depth at low water of spring tides, but on other occasions the channel is often not more than three feet deep. Above the bar a sheet of water from two hundred to two hundred and fifty yards across, and from twenty to thirty feet in depth, extends some eleven or twelve miles, when a ford is reached.

There are other places along the coast where boats can effect a landing, but the mouth of the Umzimvubu is the only place worthy the name of harbour between East London and Port Natal. The outer anchorage is fairly good, and the river is usually accessible to boats, coasting vessels, and small steamers. The greatest drawback to its use is not the difficulty of landing and shipping cargoes, but the difficulty of communicating with the back country, owing to the ruggedness of the land near the coast and the want of a good road.

In July 1878 the colonial government purchased the ground at the mouth of the river from the Pondo chief Nquiliso, and in the following month British sovereignty was proclaimed over the port. In September 1884 the district was annexed to the Cape Colony.

The remainder of Pondoland continued under the government of its chiefs ten years longer. Constant quarrels between different clans, when the defeated parties often took refuge in colonial territory and caused endless difficulties there, at length made interference a matter of necessity. In March 1894 a strong body of police was massed on the border, and a commissioner was sent into the country, who required the chiefs to place themselves and their people under British control. The destructive nature of maxim guns, as proved in the recent Matabele campaign, was just at that time a matter of discussion by the Pondos, and the chiefs shrank from coming into contact with such weapons. They agreed to receive pensions in exchange for their independence, and the territory was proclaimed part of the British dominions. In September 1894 it was formally annexed to the Cape Colony, and was divided into five districts named Libode, Ngqeleni, Umsikaba, Tabankulu, and Bizana. Thus all the territory from the Indwe and the Kei on one side to the Natal border on the other was brought under colonial rule.

The Bantu in these dependencies have given very little trouble during recent years, but there were some serious disturbances in several of the districts before they became accustomed to European guidance.

On the 3rd of August 1877 there was a marriage at a Fingo kraal just within the Butterworth border, and two petty Xosa captains, with a small party of attendants, crossed over from Kreli's district of Ken-

tani to partake in the festivities. On such occasions custom demands that all who attend are to be made welcome. In the evening, when the guests were excited with dancing and drinking millet beer, a quarrel arose, no one afterwards was able to tell exactly how or why. At any rate the Xosas were ranged on one side and the Fingos on the other, and they used their sticks so freely that the two captains were badly bruised and one of their attendants was killed. The visitors were then driven over the border.

Strong bands of Xosas immediately mustered to avenge the insult offered to their friends, and began to sweep off the Fingos' cattle. The excitement on both sides soon became so great that the efforts of the officials to restore order were unavailing. The police were sent to the front, the colonial volunteers were called out, and an imperial regiment of the line marched to the border. Several sharp actions were fought with Kreli's people, who lost some seven hundred men, and then fled into Pondoland.

In the belief that the disturbance was over, the volunteers were now permitted to go to their homes; but they were hardly disbanded when the Xosas returned and attacked the police. In December Kiva, a relative of Kreli, crossed the Kei, and appealed to the Xosas in the colony to support the head of their tribe. Most of them, with the chief Sandile, responded to the appeal, and the country was involved in the ninth Kaffir war.

In February 1878 the colonial camp at Kentani was attacked by about five thousand Xosas, who charged

in dense masses, but were mown down by a fire from heavy guns. Both Kreli and Sandile were present in the engagement. The principal column was led by the tribal priest, who had performed certain ceremonies which caused the warriors to believe that they were invulnerable; but this feeling of confidence being destroyed, they gave way to despair. When they broke and fled, the volunteer cavalry and the Fingos pursued and prevented them from rallying.

As far as Kreli was concerned the battle of Kentani was a decisive one. He did not attempt any further resistance, but with his adherents at once crossed the Bashee. After the conclusion of peace a small location was assigned to him in Elliotdale, and there he spent the remainder of his life.

West of the Kei the Xosas held out for many months, but at length Sandile was killed in action, and they then submitted.

In October 1880, just after the Basuto tribe rose in rebellion, the Pondomsi in the districts of Tsolo and Qumbu, the Basuto in the districts of Mount Fletcher and Matatiele, and the Tembus in the districts of Saint Mark's, Xalanga, and Engcobo rose also against the Europeans. They committed some atrocious murders—notable among which was the treacherous massacre of the magistrate Hamilton Hope and the clerks Henman and Warrene by the Pondomsi chief Umhlonhlo,—and they destroyed much property, but within four months they were completely subdued by a combined force of burghers and rival Bantu.

Bantu law is in force in all civil cases between black people throughout this territory, so that disputes regarding marriage customs and inheritance of property are decided according to it. In each district there is a resident magistrate, and over the whole territory there is a chief magistrate, to whose court, in which assessors sit, there is an appeal in all but trifling civil cases. The chiefs are at liberty to try any civil cases the people choose to bring before them, and they are allowed pensions to enable them to live comfortably. Police cases are decided by the magistrates, and criminal cases are tried before a judge of the supreme court on circuit. On the uplands, where there was vacant space, several thousand European farmers are living, and they and other white people are subject to colonial law alone. This operation of two different systems of law—one, for instance, recognising polygamy and the other punishing it severely—at the same time and in the same place, might seem confusing, but in practice it works smoothly and well.

Another difference between the laws of this territory and those of the country west of the Kei is that no intoxicating liquor of any kind is allowed to be sold or supplied to any coloured person in it under very severe penalties. These people are unable to resist the temptation to drink to excess, so that this law is necessary for their protection. They are increasing in number rapidly, but since the destruction of their cattle by disease during the closing years of the nineteenth century the death-rate of little children has been higher than formerly, owing to the want of milk for food.

There are two towns of importance, Umtata and Kokstad, in the territory, both centres of commerce and seats of mission enterprise on a very large scale. Mission stations and schools are dotted thickly over the land, and the Blythswood industrial institution is doing excellent work. On the lower terraces Europeans are not permitted to acquire land, except in the towns, all of it being needed for the use of the Bantu, but good roads have been made, and even railroads have been constructed in some places. Everything that is possible is thus being done to lead the people onward in civilisation.

XXVI.

CONDITION OF THE CAPE COLONY IN 1910.

THE Cape Colony after the enlargements that have been mentioned covered an area of 276,565 square miles, equal to a square block of land five hundred and twenty-six miles each way. In consequence of the increase of territory and population, its legislature had been enlarged, and the house of assembly now consisted of one hundred and seven members and the legislative council of twenty-six.

The principal industries of the European inhabitants were still pastoral and agricultural, owing to the nature of the greater part of the country.

The Karoo plains which occupy so much of its surface, thinly speckled with succulent plants, were the grazing ground of flocks of merino sheep and Angora goats, that were kept up to a high standard by the importation of the best foreign blood. From the Karoo to the Orange river and thence northward to the Molopo, the surface, carpeted in good seasons with long grass, supported large herds of horned cattle and considerable flocks of sheep. In these parts agriculture, except in certain limited localities

such as the basin of the Hart river, was precarious where there were no running streams, but a great deal of labour had been expended in making reservoirs from which gardens and orchards could be irrigated, and much success had attended the sinking of artesian wells. Along the Zak river and at Kakamas on the banks of the Orange large irrigation works had converted extensive areas of desert into rich cornlands and gardens. The cultivation of lucerne in such places had enabled horses, cows, and ostriches to be kept to advantage.

On the first and second terraces from the southern coast the rainfall is ample, and agriculture was carried on conjointly with cattle-breeding. Wheat and maize were the principal crops, but oats and barley were extensively grown for horses, and almost every kind of vegetable and fruit was abundant. In the southwestern angle of the colony—the part settled in the seventeenth century,—the cultivation of wheat, fruit, and especially the vine were the chief industries.

Skins of wild animals had quite disappeared from the exports, for the large game with which the country once teemed had been exterminated. The same may be said of ivory.

The diamond mines, except those along the banks of the Vaal river, had been amalgamated and were controlled by one powerful company, that regulated the production and so kept the value from falling below a wide margin of profit. In the exports from the colony diamonds occupied the first place, though the area in which they were found was very small. They were contributing greatly to the public revenue,

were giving employment to large numbers of men, were furnishing an excellent market for farm produce, and in many ways were promoting trade.

In 1852 rich copper mines were opened in the barren district of Little Namaqualand, and the part of the colony previously considered the least valuable began to contribute its quota to the exports. It has continued to do so ever since, and bids fair to maintain its position for a long time to come.

The only other mineral productions of the Cape Colony that were of any note in 1910 were salt and coal. Salt, ample in quantity for home use, was gathered from pans in several localities, and coal, not of the best quality, however, was found at Molteno and Indwe and used on the railways within a certain radius of the mines and for fuel in private houses.

In dealing with the Cape Colony, it must be borne in mind that it, in common with all other parts of South Africa, is subject to many drawbacks. Long and severe droughts sometimes occur over very extensive portions of its surface, when everything green perishes, and animals of all kinds die off in great numbers. Sometimes, though rarely, these droughts produce actual famine, especially among the coloured people, who are too improvident to lay by anything for a day of distress.

Floods too sometimes cause great damage over large areas, sweeping away cultivated land, buildings, and animals, turning rivulets into rushing torrents, and destroying massive bridges as if they were matchwood. Fortunately such terrible storms do not often occur.

The mild climate favours insect life, so that the farmers and fruitgrowers have to contend with difficulties unknown in Central and Northern Europe. Myriads of caterpillars sometimes devastate the cultivated land, and vast swarms of locusts appear, when before them the country may be as the garden of the Lord, but behind them it is a naked desert. Means to cope with these pests, to a considerable extent at least, have been discovered, however, and their ravages are now much less dreaded than formerly.

Cattle are subject to various diseases. In the summer months, except in a few localities, horses require to be stabled at night, or they contract a disease which nearly always ends in death. Lung-sickness and redwater sometimes create havoc among horned cattle, and other diseases of a less deadly nature are common. During the last years of the nineteenth century the rinderpest swept down from the north, and in some parts carried off nearly all the cattle. Investigations into the nature of these and other diseases have, however, resulted in remedies or palliatives having been discovered for most of them. Scab in sheep, once the most dreaded of all cattle plagues, is now completely under control.

The agricultural and pastoral products of the colony were in 1910 about ten times as great in value as in 1872. Its mineral productions had increased to almost the same extent.

Among the Bantu residents in the colony missionaries of almost every Christian society had been labouring for nearly a century, and since the first

converts were made three or four generations had grown up under their care. The result upon the whole was disappointing to those who anticipated great improvement in a short space of time, although a considerable advance had certainly been made by a section of these people. Where youths had been separated from the surroundings of the kraals, and been trained in habits of order, cleanliness, and—as far as practicable—industry, the most good had



THE BOYS' SCHOOL, LOVEDALE MISSIONARY INSTITUTION.

been effected. In this direction the Free church of Scotland had led the way, and its noble institutions at Lovedale, on the western bank of the Tyumie river, and Blythswood, in Fingoland, were models which other Christian bodies were copying. It had become generally recognised that the system of education carried out by most of the missionary societies in earlier years was faulty. Their idea was to teach the children of barbarians to read and write, to give them a knowledge of grammar and geography, of arithmetic and English history, and especially to

instruct them in Christian doctrine and cause them to read the holy scriptures. The government subsidised the schools, and the rivalry among the different denominations was so keen that no location of any importance was lost sight of. But, after a vast expenditure of money and energy, it came to be seen that education of this kind was by itself of little value, and industrial training had come to be regarded as a necessity.

The mixed breeds, descendants of slaves, and Hottentots had also been the objects of missionary solicitude, and as they had long been in close contact with white people, their mode of living was based upon the European model. At Genadendal the Moravian society, whose work is above all praise, had been training these people for a century and a quarter. Most of them professed Christianity, and in many places they formed congregations and supported their own clergymen. They did the rough work of the farms and the towns, but some of them were averse to steady labour, and in general they were thriftless. The instances were rare of people of this class accumulating property, though they often had excellent opportunities for doing so.

The Asiatics in the colony were chiefly descendants of people from the Spice islands, who were sent here in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and were commonly termed Malays. Those of pure blood were almost—if not wholly—without exception Mohamedans. But many Africans and people of mixed blood had adopted that creed, and as they had intermarried, the Malays presented every variety of

appearance between the pure Asiatic, the pure European, and the pure African, while some of the mixed breeds fluctuated between Christianity and Islam. They were certainly of a higher type than the ordinary Cape coloured labourer. Most of the men were mechanics, greengrocers, or shopkeepers, and the amount of property that they held was considerable. A large part of the fishing industry was in their hands. They were confined entirely to towns, far the greater number of them to the Cape peninsula. A few Indians from Hindostan had of late years found their way to the colony, but immigration of others was then prohibited.

Owing to the zeal of the missionaries, for many years greater efforts were made to give a good school education to coloured children than to white, and it was a lamentable fact that there was a large section of the European rural population without any knowledge of the use of books. This matter had been brought to the attention of the government and parliament, and before 1910 was rectified, so that at this time white children were receiving as good an education throughout the Cape Colony as in any other country in the world. In the towns and villages there were excellent public schools, separate for boys and girls, each under the joint control of a local board of management and the educational department of the government, half the cost being defrayed by the treasury. Those of the first and second class were attended exclusively by white children. Then there were several colleges in which higher education was imparted, such as the South

African college in Capetown, the Rhodes university college in Grahamstown, the Victoria college in Stellenbosch, the Dale college in King-Williamstown, the Diocesan college at Rondebosch, and the Huguenot college for girls at Wellington, where students were prepared for matriculation and degrees in the university. An excellent normal college in Capetown was devoted to the special training of teachers for ordinary schools, but the professors in the colleges and nearly all the teachers in the high-class public schools had been educated in European universities. In the thinly populated parts of the colony a difficulty existed in the distance between the residences on farms, but that too had been overcome by giving assistance if necessary to boarders where the children were too few for the employment of a qualified teacher.

No expense was spared in bringing justice within reach of every one. There were nearly a hundred stipendiary magistrates, holding courts in as many districts or sub-districts into which the colony was divided. All petty civil and criminal cases were tried by them. The supreme court consisted of the chief justice and eight puisne judges, but as two formed a quorum, in practice three of the judges sat in Grahamstown, three in Kimberley, and the others in Capetown. Twice a year a judge of the supreme court visited each district town, and tried cases which were beyond the jurisdiction of the magistrates.

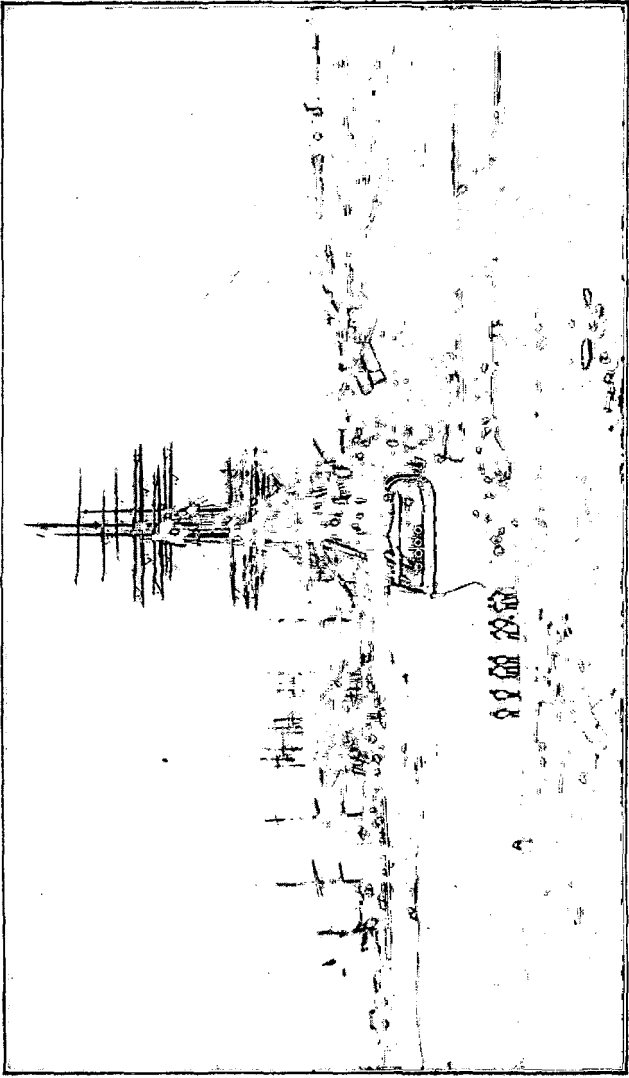
The towns and villages were supplied with public libraries aided by government, hardly any were

without two or three churches of different denominations, and banks, insurance offices, newspapers, and benevolent institutions were found in nearly all. Municipal government—in very rare instances abused—was in force in every community of the slightest note. Each district had a divisional council, with powers over a large area somewhat similar to those of municipal councils in villages.

Good roads had been made even in the wildest parts of the colony, and the rivers on the principal routes had been bridged. There was scarcely a hamlet that was not connected with all parts of South Africa by the post and the telegraph wire. There was a network of railways over the colony, which were of the greatest use not only for transport purposes, but for promoting progress of all kinds.

Very great improvements had been made in the harbours, especially in Table Bay and East London. In Table Bay in olden times the beach after storms in winter was frequently strewn with the wrecks of costly fleets; in 1910 ships of the largest size lay beside wharves in a dock in perfect safety, and received cargo from or discharged it into railway trucks. If damaged, they could be repaired in a graving dock, and when lying at the outer anchorage they were protected by a magnificent breakwater. At East London the bar at the mouth of the Buffalo had been removed, and large steamers and sailing ships could enter the river, where every facility was provided for loading and unloading them.

On the coast numerous lighthouses stood as sentinels to warn seamen of danger by night, and the



INNER DOCK, CAPETOWN.

ancient terror of stormy seas off the Cape of Good Hope had long since been forgotten. It arose more from distance from home in the early days of circumnavigating Africa than from the real violence of the sea, for that is commonly trifling compared with the fury of the North Atlantic.

The colony was connected with Europe by three submarine cables, so that anything of importance that occurred there one day was known here through the newspapers on the next. Splendid steamships carrying mails and passengers arrived from and left for England weekly, often making the run of six thousand sea miles in less than sixteen days, and the passage was certainly one of the pleasantest in the world.

The deplorable war with the two republics in 1899-1902 did an immense amount of harm temporarily to the Cape Colony. British gold was expended in the greatest profusion, and people lost their reasoning power and seemed to think it would last for ever. Expensive habits of living were introduced, and the towns—especially those on the coast—were altogether overbuilt, while borrowed money was expended by the government in a most lavish manner. Crowds of immigrants, many of them British artisans, arrived, and for a short time it seemed as if the colony was really making a great bound forward.

Then came peace, and with it the withdrawal of the great army employed in South Africa, and the cessation of the influx of British gold. Everything came at once to a standstill. The recent immigrants abandoned the country, as they saw no means of

obtaining a living in it, and half the houses in many of the streets in the towns and their suburbs were left empty. Most of the slaughter cattle and sheep in the country had been consumed by the soldiers and temporary settlers, and frozen meat was being imported in very large quantities for common use. Nearly everything that was needed for home consumption was brought from abroad, so that the cost of living was very much greater than it had been before the war. The railroads, which had cost £32,000,000, ceased to bring in the amount required for their maintenance and the interest on the capital employed in their construction, which had to be made up from the general revenue. The interest on the public debt, which had been enormously increased, became a burden almost too great to be borne. Nor was this all, for the various municipalities had also incurred heavy debts, and the interest had now to be paid by a dwindling population.

Retrenchment in every branch of the public service and in every commercial establishment was unavoidable, and was carried out to an extent that created an enormous amount of distress, and drove thousands of useful people from our shores. Taxation heavier than any previously thought of was of necessity imposed, the operation of the sinking fund was suspended, and yet the revenue could not be made to meet the expenditure, greatly reduced as this was, so that further debt had to be incurred. Never before in South Africa had there been such a period of depression, or such faint hopes of a speedy return of prosperity.

But all the time the cows and sheep and goats were increasing on the farms, until it became no longer necessary to import frozen meat and dairy produce in large quantities, agriculture was greatly extended, and very fortunately the seasons were favourable, new industries were opened up, and the exports were rising steadily and showing year after year a more decided balance in favour of the country. The rapid increase in the production of gold in the Transvaal also aided the commerce of the colony. And so by 1910 the period of great depression had wellnigh passed away, and there was a good prospect of matters resuming the same steady progress as before the war.

XXVII.

THE COLONY OF NATAL FROM 1842 TO 1873.

NATAL became a British possession at a very unfortunate time for the good of the country. Sentiment in England was then running so strong in favour of black people that this beautiful and fertile country, which might have been made the home of many thousands of industrious European families, was given away to any Bantu who chose to enter it.

There are, of course, different ways of looking at this matter. The Bantu themselves, who regard their mode of life as vastly preferable to ours, inasmuch as it is comparatively free of care and toil, certainly think their possession of Natal proper and desirable. The missionary looking for raw material to work with is naturally of the same opinion. But the man who believes that the strengthening of the European element would be a blessing to Africa itself, who is convinced that the unprogressive people of the continent can never become civilised except under European government and under the guidance and control of a strong body of European settlers, must look upon

the alienation of the soil of Natal to the Bantu as a very great mistake.

As soon as Great Britain was dominant there, all who were in fear of Panda made their way into the country, where they were sure of being protected and of being allowed to live as they chose. Their birthplace and that of their parents might be far away, but they were all termed natives by the government, and as soon as arrangements could be made tracts of land were assigned to them to live upon. Missionaries settled among them, and in course of time a few became converts to Christianity and made some advance towards civilisation. But the great majority remained what their forefathers had been, for it cannot be said that their use of a few articles of European manufacture was an indication of any real change.

There are no people in the world more prolific than the Bantu of South Africa, and though their death-rate in places partly occupied by Europeans, where they contract chest diseases, is high, in their own kraals, where they live after the manner of their ancestors, it is low, and many of them attain a great age. Their practice of polygamy has the result that among them there are no old maids. The consequence is an amazingly rapid increase of people, wherever the old checks of war, famine, and punishment by death on charges of dealing in witchcraft are removed. So very shortly there was a large Bantu population within the borders of Natal, where a few years before there had been hardly any in-

habitants. They were permitted to live according to their own laws and customs, but they paid a small hut-tax, and the government exercised general control over them. This it was able to do, as there were no hereditary chiefs of high rank among them, and it was possible to use one of the little groups to keep another inclined to be unruly in check.

Owing to their presence in such numbers the country failed to attract European settlers, and in the early days after the British conquest only one large body of white immigrants entered it. Between 1848 and 1851 some four or five thousand English people arrived, to whom small plots of ground were given, but many of them afterwards removed to Australia, and few remained as cultivators of the soil. White people from abroad settled in the country every year, but never in large numbers, and most of them took up their residence in Durban or Maritzburg, or in one of the villages along the trading routes to the interior. In 1872, thirty years after the British conquest, including the Dutch-speaking families who remained on the uplands, there were not nineteen thousand white people living in Natal, and the Bantu had increased to over a quarter of a million.

Although the disparity in number was so great, the Bantu did not often disturb the peace of the country, and only on two or three occasions was it necessary to use military force against defiant chieftains. They had ample space for living comfortably in their own way, and taxation was so light that they did not feel it as a burden. But the

Europeans realised that this condition of things could not be permanent, for they were multiplying so rapidly that there must some day be a struggle for more room.

So matters went on until 1873, when the first serious disturbance took place. In 1848 a section of the Hlubi tribe fled from Zululand, and had a location assigned to it at the sources of the Bushman's river, at the foot of the Drakensberg. The Hlubi had once been the largest tribe in South-Eastern Africa, but in Tshaka's wars most of its members were killed, and those who survived were dispersed far and wide. "There was a white mark from the Tugela to Thaba Ntshu, and that mark was our bones," said once an old Hlubi to the writer of this volume, in recounting his personal adventures. He might have added that there was a similar line from the Tugela to the Kei. Along both these routes a few fugitives were scattered, and these have multiplied so greatly that if their descendants could all be collected together to-day the Hlubi would again stand out as the largest tribe of the country, except the Basuto.

The great chiefs had perished in Tshaka's wars, and the one of highest rank that was left was Langanibaléle—in English "The Sun is burning,"—the head of the clan that sought refuge in Natal. A stranger visiting his location in 1873 would have regarded him as a man of little importance, with a following of not more than ten thousand souls, all told; but those acquainted with his history knew that he was held in strong attachment by clans as

far away as the Caledon in one direction and the Fish river in another.

There was a law in Natal, required for public safety, that no Bantu should have guns in their possession without being registered. In other parts of South Africa guns were obtainable, and Langa-libaléle, setting the law at defiance, sent his young men away to earn money and purchase these weapons, which were brought by hundreds into his location without the necessary formalities being observed. When this became known, the chief was called upon to account for his guns, but he declined to do so. Message after message was sent, requiring him to appear at Maritzburg, but he made excuses, and never went. It was subsequently proved that he was in treasonable correspondence with other chiefs beyond the Drakensberg, from whom he expected to obtain assistance, and he must have felt himself strong enough to maintain his independence against the white people.

Peaceable means having failed to secure his obedience, an armed party was sent to enforce the demands of the government. Upon its approach Langalibaléle abandoned his women and children, and with his cattle and most of his warriors fell back upon the mountains. In the Bushman's pass Major Durnford and a small party of volunteers overtook the rearguard of the rebels. The chief was in advance, and as the volunteers had orders not to fire first, they attempted to communicate with him. The induna in command pretended to send for the chief, and while waiting for him to arrive, the

volunteers were being surrounded. At the same time threatening gestures and language, coupled with taunts, were used towards them. They fell back in a panic, when too late, and as they did so five of them were shot down.

The colonists at once awoke to a sense of their danger. They did not know how far the inclination to rebel extended, but of one thing they were certain: that nothing but the prompt punishment of the Hlubis would prevent all who were disaffected from rising in arms. Volunteers at once came forward. Everywhere in South Africa the Europeans were ready to help. The government of the Cape Colony took immediate measures to render effectual assistance, and the two republics expressed a willingness to give aid if needed. It was recognised that not only the peace of Natal, but of the entire country, was imperilled, for if time was given for all the sections of the Hlubi tribe to unite with the clan in rebellion a general war of races might ensue.

Langalibaléle and his warriors crossed the Drakensberg to Basutoland, in expectation of being joined there by one of Moshesh's sons; but such prompt measures were taken by the governments of the Cape Colony and Natal that the rebels were surrounded before they reached their destination, and the chief, with some of his principal men, who were in advance, were obliged to surrender to a division of the Cape frontier armed and mounted police. The main body made an attempt to resist, but was dispersed after a sharp action, and all the cattle were captured.

During this time the excitement of the Natal colonists was naturally very high, and what, under ordinary circumstances, would be regarded as undue severity was exercised towards the people Langalibalé had left behind, as well as to another clan living close by that sympathised with him. But as soon as the danger was over, violent measures of every kind ceased.

Langalibalé was tried by a special court, which sentenced him to banishment for life ; and as Natal had no outlying dependency to send him to, an act was passed by the Cape parliament authorising his detention on Robben Island. His clan was broken up, and the ground it had occupied was resumed by the government.

This event attracted a great deal of attention in England, chiefly through the action of the Aborigines Protection Society and of Bishop Colenso, who represented the conduct of the white people and of the government as in the highest degree cruel and unjust towards the Hlubis. The Natal clergy, seventy-four ministers and missionaries of different denominations, did their utmost to show that it was not so ; but their opinions were in general unheeded, as were also the statements of the South African press.

The imperial ministry reflected the sentiments of the people. Sir Benjamin Pine, the lieutenant-governor of Natal, was recalled. Compensation was ordered to be paid from the colonial treasury to the clan that had suffered loss owing to its sympathy with the rebels ; various Hlubis who had been condemned to terms of imprisonment had their

sentences commuted; and it was required that Langalibaléle should be removed from Robben Island to a farm on the mainland, where he could have the society of his wives and be treated as a prisoner of state. These orders were of course promptly carried out.

Langalibaléle remained an exile for twelve years, during which time he was provided with every possible comfort. He lived in a house on a small farm in the Cape peninsula, and had part of his family with him. He was then permitted to return to Natal, and died there shortly afterwards.

His rebellion was followed by an improvement in the mode of dealing with the black people. Bantu law was codified, so that thereafter it could not be interpreted differently by different magistrates. A Native High Court was created, which was presided over by a qualified judge, and to which there was an appeal from the decisions of the location magistrates. A tax on marriages, recently imposed, was withdrawn, and the hut-tax was increased to fourteen shillings a year. The amount of marriage settlements was fixed and made payable only before the marriage, thus doing away with the most fruitful cause of litigation, and girls were amply protected from being forced to marry old men against their will.

Owing to the hot Mozambique current flowing down close to it, the belt of land along the coast north of the Umzimkulu has a tropical vegetation, though it is perfectly healthy for Europeans. It seemed therefore to present a favourable field for the production

of coffee, sugar, ginger, arrowroot, cotton, and tea, and no long time elapsed before experiments began to be made. Not a plant among them all but thrived wonderfully well, so that it was hoped and expected that Natal would shortly become one of the most valuable dependencies of Great Britain. Here was a favourable soil and a favourable climate, and here, thought people at a distance, in the teeming Bantu locations was a great reservoir of labour that could be utilised for the good of both employers and employed. But the Bantu declined to be utilised in this way. Some of them were willing to work for a while when the whim seized them and they had a particular object in view, but they could never be depended upon, and were prone to leave service just when they were most needed.

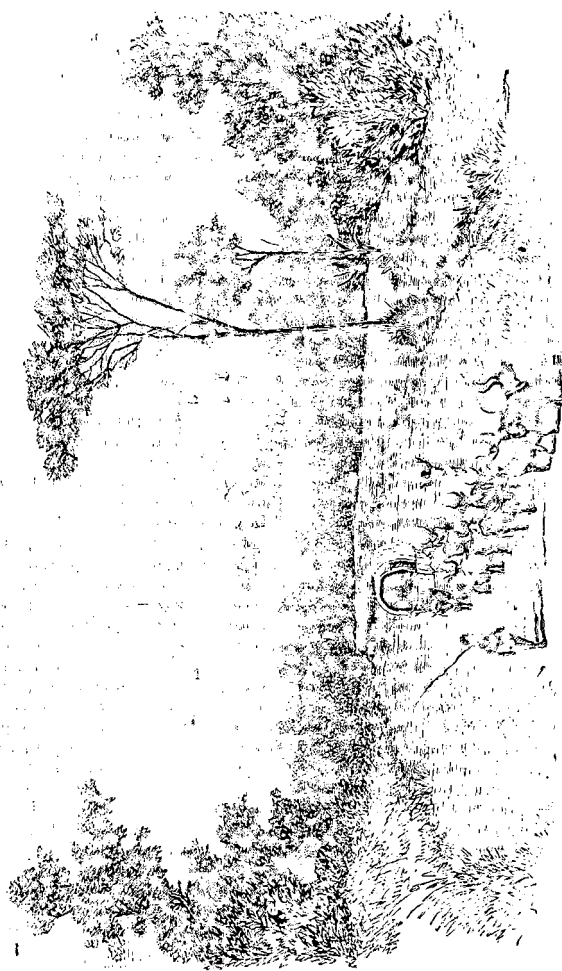
The planters then turned to India for a supply of labour. Coolies were engaged there, and were brought over under contract for a term of years. By their assistance the soil was made to bring forth tropical products in considerable quantities, but eventually some were destroyed by diseases and others were found not to pay. Among these were cotton and coffee, both of which at one time gave promise of good returns. Sugar succeeded best, and its production remains to the present day an important industry.

It was supposed that the coolies would return to India when their contracts expired, as they were entitled to free passages back; but they had found a goodly land, and many of them had no mind to leave it. Some of their countrymen of the trading class

were next attracted by the accounts spread by those who returned, and soon quite a little stream of Indian immigrants set in. As they can live upon the merest trifle, European competitors were rapidly driven out, and retail dealing, with all kinds of light labour, fell into their hands. They contributed nothing towards the military strength of the country and very little towards the revenue. They continued to arrive until at the present day they surpass the white people in number, but further immigration is now prohibited.

The circumstances under which they lived determined the mode of life of the Europeans in Natal. They became for the most part traders and forwarders of goods to the interior republics. There were planters and farmers among them, and the Dutch-speaking colonists continued to be agriculturists and cattle breeders, but more than half of the whole number of the English-speaking settlers resided in the two towns Maritzburg and Durban, and a large proportion of the remainder occupied villages along the trade routes.

Maritzburg, and especially Durban, grew and prospered. In each of these towns improvements were seen every year. Newspapers, as well conducted as those of any other British colony, were published in both of these places, there were banks, insurance offices, churches of various denominations, and literary and benevolent institutions of different kinds. The education of children was carefully attended to. The religious controversy connected with the name of the right reverend Dr. Colenso, bishop of Natal,



POKE NATAL AND DURBAN IN 1880.
(From a Sketch by K. v. J. Groot.)

attracted the attention of English-speaking people throughout the civilised world and helped to bring the colony into notice.

The position of Durban made it a place of commercial importance. From early days it was realised that if the bar between the Point and the Bluff could be removed, so that ships could enter the inner sheet of water, it would become the gateway to a large area of the interior, and to effect this the energetic colonists turned their attention. A plan known ever since as Milne's was adopted, and a considerable amount of money was expended upon it, when it was abandoned for another designed by Captain Vetch, of the admiralty. This was proceeded with for some time, but it proved a failure. Meantime ships lay at anchor in the outer roadstead, and communication with the inner harbour was maintained by means of lighters. From the Point a railway conveyed goods to Durban.

For a few years after the British occupation Natal was regarded as a dependency of the Cape Colony, and laws were made for it by the Cape parliament. Then a legislative council, consisting entirely of officials, was created, and the connection with the Cape Colony was severed, except that the high commissioner retained a good deal of power, and the head of the local administration ranked only as a lieutenant-governor. In 1856 a charter was granted by the queen, and a legislative council, with most of the members elected by the people, was constituted. This with a few slight changes continued until 1873, when the imperial authorities considered it necessary

to increase the power of the crown, and the council was induced to pass an act admitting a number of nominee members. This act, however, was to be in force for only five years, and at the end of that period the more liberal constitution was restored.

In 1866 Natal was enlarged by the addition to it of the tract of land between the Umzimkulu and Umtamvuna rivers, thereafter called the county of Alfred. It was part of the Pondo treaty state, but Faku found it impossible to bring the clans living in it under his authority, and was glad to get rid of them by ceding the territory to Natal.

XXVIII.

ZULULAND TO ITS ANNEXATION TO NATAL.

PANDA, who became independent of foreign control in 1843, was much less intelligent than either of his predecessors, Tshaka or Dingana. Soon after his accession to power he grew so stout as to be unwieldy, and never afterwards displayed activity of any kind, bodily or mental. Two of his sons, however, Umbulazi and Ketshwayo by name, grew up to be men of superior ability. Though the discipline of the army was greatly relaxed, the military system introduced by Tshaka was still kept up, and the regiments were divided in their attachment to the young chiefs. "Two young bulls cannot live together in the same kraal," said Panda; "one must drive the other out or be gored." The brothers were of the same opinion. In December 1856 a battle was fought between their adherents on the northern bank of the Tugela, which resulted in complete victory for Ketshwayo. His brother must have been killed, though the body was not found, for he was never seen again. Then a dreadful massacre of the defeated chief's adherents took place, when not only the

men, but the women and children related to them, were put to death. About one-fourth of the Zulus perished.

From that day Ketshwayo was the real ruler of the tribe, though his father lived until 1872. The young chief was a man of prepossessing appearance, dignified in manner, and gifted with mental power in a high degree. But he was as pitiless as a piece of steel, and human life under his government was sacrificed with as little compunction as the life of oxen and cows. Much as one could wish it otherwise, observation shows that this is the kind of rule which brings out what is best in the Bantu character as well as what is worst, and under Ketshwayo the Zulus were recognised by every one as the most intelligent, the most active, and the most fearless of all the blacks in South Africa. They were the most handsome too, for constant exercise in arms and in military drill greatly improved their appearance. Discipline had become relaxed during the fifteen years following Panda's accession, but by Ketshwayo it was restored to the same condition as under Tshaka.

As time went on the Zulus became more and more a menace to their neighbours. Hemmed in between the South African Republic, Natal, and the sea, if they used their arms at all, it could only be against a civilised power.

In 1877 Sir Bartle Frere became governor of the Cape Colony and high commissioner for South Africa. No man had a kinder heart or a more earnest desire to promote the welfare of the people of the country,

white and black, the Zulus as well as British subjects. But war with Ketshwayo had become a necessity, and he could not avoid it without betraying his trust. It was his duty to protect the queen's subjects, and there was no question that many of them were in imminent peril, and must so remain until the Zulu military system came to an end. Unfortunately he did not know how strong the Zulu army really was, and none of those upon whom he depended for information were able to tell him. Ketshwayo gave him more than one provocation. A powerful Zulu force paraded along the British border, and the chief spoke of it as a mere hunting party. English officials who were sent into Zululand as envoys were treated by the indunas in a contemptuous manner. Zulu subjects crossed the boundary, seized two women on Natal soil and carried them away to death, and Ketshwayo, when called upon for redress, treated the matter as of trifling importance. In several serious disturbances by Bantu tribes in distant parts of South Africa the agency of the Zulu chief was clearly traced, and in many other respects he showed himself an enemy to the civilised governments of the country.

In December 1878 Sir Bartle Frere, having collected a military force in Natal which every one believed to be strong enough for the purpose, sent an ultimatum to Ketshwayo, in which he demanded redress for the injuries sustained, and called upon the chief to disband his army. As no notice was taken of the message, on the 10th of January 1879 an English army entered Zululand in three divisions,

consisting partly of British soldiers, partly of colonists, and partly of blacks.

Ten days after crossing the Buffalo the central column formed a camp at the foot of the hill Isandlwana—that is The Little Hand—within sight of the Natal border. The country was so rough that it needed all that time to construct a road along which provisions could be conveyed. On the following morning part of the column, with Lord Chelmsford, the commander-in-chief, left the camp and moved away to attack a kraal several miles distant. Some Dutch farmers had advised the English officers to take precautions against surprise, and had told them of the encounters with Dingana, but their warnings were disregarded. Nothing was done for protection at Isandlwana, though there were waggons enough to form a lager. Not a trench was dug nor a spadeful of earth thrown up in a bank. No one there even dreamed of danger until a little before noon on the 22nd of January 1879, when the horns of a Zulu army about twenty thousand strong were closing around the camp.

The fight for life was stubborn, but the odds on the enemy's side were too great, and all was soon over. A few, principally mounted irregulars, managed to make their way out of the circle of Zulu spears before it was quite closed, but the ground was full of boulders and dry beds of occasional torrents, so that many of these even were overtaken and killed. With them were Lieutenants Melvill and Coghill, who were trying to save the colours of the first battalion of the 24th regiment, and who reached the Natal bank

of the Buffalo before they were struck down. The colours were found in the river some days afterwards. At Isandlwana nearly seven hundred British soldiers and over one hundred and thirty colonists perished, for the Zulus gave no quarter. The victors lost about three thousand men.

Information of the terrible disaster reached Lord Chelmsford in the afternoon. An officer had ridden towards the camp, and had seen it in possession of the Zulus. The party with the general, though weary from marching in the hot sun, at once commenced to retreat, for all its stores of every kind were lost. Isandlwana was reached shortly after nightfall, and there, among the corpses of their slain comrades, officers and men, alike worn out with anxiety and fatigue, lay down and tried to rest. The Zulus, after plundering the camp, had retired. At early dawn the retreating band resumed its march, and reached Natal without being molested.

At Rorke's Drift, where the column had crossed the Buffalo, there was a small depôt of provisions and a hospital, and there a hundred and thirty soldiers, under Lieutenants Bromhead and Chard, had been left to keep open communication with Natal. About five o'clock in the afternoon of the day of Isandlwana this post was attacked by between three and four thousand of the very best of the Zulu soldiers, commanded by Dabulamanzi, a brother of Ketswayo. Fortunately the garrison had received warning in time to enable them to make a lager of sacks of maize and boxes of biscuits, behind which they maintained such a gallant defence until four o'clock in the morn-

ing of the 23rd that Dabulamanzi then thought it prudent to retire. Over three hundred of his men were lying dead around the lager. Of the garrison seventeen were dead and ten were wounded. This splendid defence saved Natal from invasion, for if the post had fallen the colony would have been open to the Zulus.

The other columns fared better than the one whose fate has been told. Colonel Pearson, with about two thousand European combatants and the same number of blacks, crossed the Tugela near the sea, and marched towards Ulundi, the Zulu capital, where the whole of the invading force intended to unite. At Inyesane he was attacked by a Zulu army between four and five thousand strong, but beat it back with heavy loss, and on the 23rd of January reached the Norwegian mission station Etshowe. Here he learned of the disaster at Isandlwana, so he sent his cavalry and blacks back to Natal, and fortified the station, where he remained until reinforcements arrived from England.

The third column consisted of about seventeen hundred British soldiers, fifty farmers under Commandant Pieter Uys, and three or four hundred blacks. It was commanded by Colonel Evelyn Wood. This column was not attacked on its march, and after Isandlwana fortified a post at Kambula, where it remained. Colonel Wood managed to inflict much damage upon the Zulus in his neighbourhood by frequent sallies, but on one occasion, at a mountain named Hlobane, his patrol was nearly surrounded, and ninety-six of the party were killed.

Among them were Commandant Uys, Colonel Weatherley, and the son of the latter, a mere youth, who died at his father's side just as Uys's brother had died by his father's side forty-one years before. On the day after this event the lager at Kambula was attacked by a great Zulu army, which suffered tremendous loss before it retired discomfited.

In the beginning of April Lord Chelmsford, with a strong force of soldiers and sailors, marched from Natal to the relief of Colonel Pearson at Etshowe. On the way he was attacked at Ginginhlovu, but beat back his assailants, and succeeded in reaching the station.

As soon as intelligence of the disaster at Isandlwana reached England strong reinforcements were sent out, and before June some nine thousand soldiers, cavalry and infantry, with a vast quantity of munitions of war and provisions, reached Natal. With them came the young prince imperial of France, who was fated to lose his life a few weeks later in a lonely dell in Zululand. He went out from a camp with a small reconnoitring party, which was surprised by a band of Zulus while it was resting in a garden, and the prince, being unable to mount his horse, was stabbed to death, his companions having abandoned him and ridden away.

Despatches now reached South Africa announcing that Sir Garnet Wolseley had been appointed commander-in-chief of the forces, high commissioner for South-Eastern Africa, and administrator of the territories bordering on the seat of war. Lord Chelmsford was at the time just completing his

arrangements for an advance upon Ulundi. It seemed as if he was to be deprived of the satisfaction of bringing the war to an end, and, as actually happened, Sir Garnet Wolseley arrived before the 4th of July, when Ulundi was reached and the final battle was fought; but Lord Chelmsford was still in command of the column.

It is estimated that about ten thousand Zulu soldiers had been killed before the end of June. Some twenty thousand more had lost heart, as they had not succeeded in taking a single lager during the war, and they had consequently deserted and dispersed. With from fifteen to twenty thousand who were true to him still, Ketshwayo awaited the British army at Ulundi. Lord Chelmsford formed his troops in a hollow square, upon which the Zulus dashed themselves in vain. Beaten back by a terrible storm of bullets, and having no hope of breaking the British square by even the heaviest sacrifice, they turned to retire, when the cavalry was let loose upon them. They dispersed, never again to rally, and Ketshwayo was a fugitive seeking only concealment. After Ulundi and the military kraals near it were burned, the army fell back upon its base of supplies, and Lord Chelmsford resigned his command.

The war was over, the colonial volunteers were allowed to return home, and part of the large regular force in the field was sent to England, though until Ketshwayo's person could be secured it was not considered advisable to remove the whole of the troops from the country. The people—all honour to them for it—were so loyal to their chief that for many

weeks not one could be found to betray him, though thousands must have been acquainted with his hiding-place. At length, however, a man, who was threatened with death if he did not divulge the secret, pointed out a secluded kraal on the border of a forest, and Ketshwayo became a prisoner.

No captive ever conducted himself more decorously than the fallen chief of the Zulus. He was sent a prisoner to Capetown, and, after a short confinement in the castle, had a small farm close to the one occupied by Langalibaléle assigned to him as a residence. There he was attended by servants of his own choice, and was well cared for in every respect.

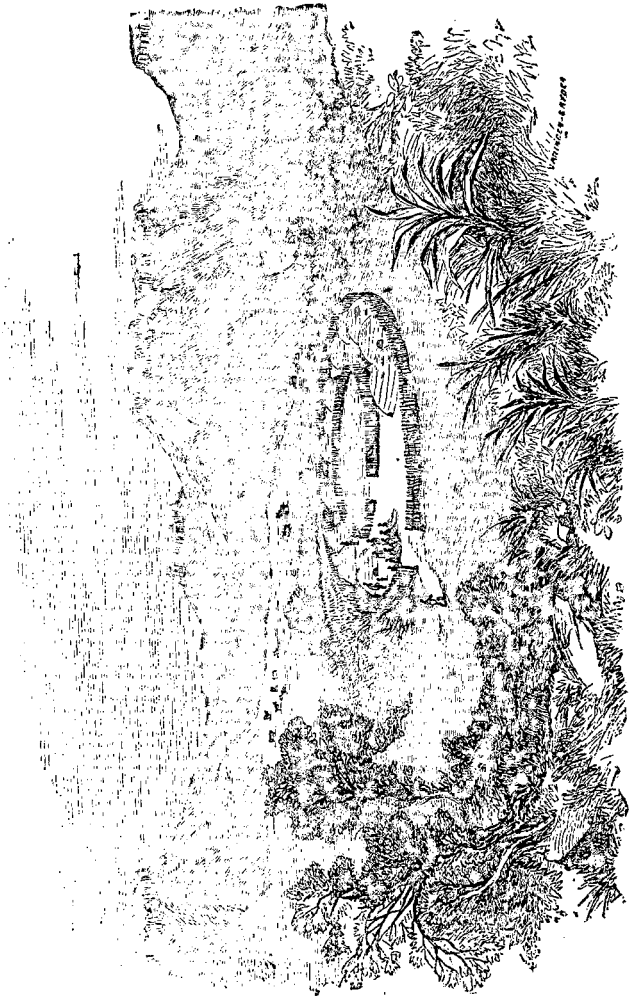
Zululand was divided by Sir Garnet Wolseley into thirteen districts, each of which was placed under the government of a chief independent of all the others, and nominally guided by the advice of a single British resident. But this plan of settlement did not answer at all, and in 1883 Ketshwayo was allowed to return. In the meantime he had visited England, where he was very well received, and by his sensible observations and dignified deportment had acquired the favourable opinion of every one with whom he came in contact. It was thought that after the experience he had gone through he might without imprudence be allowed to return to his own country, upon making a promise to observe conditions that would prevent his power from becoming dangerous again.

Some of the people welcomed him back, but others adhered to a rival chief named Sibepu, who had found means to secure a large following. War at once broke out between them, and when Ketshwayo died

in the following year, it continued between his son Dinizulu and Sibepu. Dinizulu secured the aid of a body of farmers, in return for which he ceded to them a large tract of land, which was formed into an independent state, but was soon afterwards incorporated in the Transvaal Republic as the district of Vryheid. With the assistance of the farmers he subdued his rival, but confusion and strife still continued, so that in 1887 what remained of Zululand was of necessity annexed to the British dominions. On the 19th of May of that year a commission was issued appointing the governor of Natal governor of Zululand, but otherwise the two countries remained separate. Zululand was divided into six districts, and a European magistrate was placed in charge of each, with a strong body of police to support his authority.

This arrangement was acceptable to most of the people, but not unnaturally Dinizulu objected to it, and he caused such disturbances and opposed British authority so strongly that his arrest became unavoidable. In 1888 he was tried by a specially appointed court of three judges, and was sentenced to banishment for life. Early in 1889 with two other chiefs he was sent to the island of St. Helena as a state prisoner, and perfect order was thereafter established in Zululand. As things were now going on smoothly, and imperial control was no longer needed, on the 30th of December 1897 the six districts were annexed to Natal and the system of government made uniform throughout.

At the same time Dinizulu accepted an offer to become government induna with a salary of £500 a



SCENE IN ZULULAND.
(From a Sketch by Rev. L. Grant.)

year and a residence at Etshowe, and on the 5th of January 1898 he reached his native country again. A good house was built for him at Etshowe, but he soon got tired of it, and went to live at a kraal bearing the significant name Usutu, the battle cry of his partisans. In the disturbances of 1906, which will be related in the next chapter, he was implicated, and for which he was tried by a court similar to that which condemned him twenty years before. His case excited widespread interest, and he was defended gratuitously by Advocate W. P. Schreiner, now high commissioner in London. The trial took place at Greytown, and lasted from the 19th of November 1908 to the 3rd of March 1909. He was pronounced guilty of high treason, and sentenced to four years' imprisonment from the 9th of December 1907 and to pay a fine of £100 or undergo confinement for another year.

In 1910 the Union government took pity on him and released him from prison on condition of his residing on the farm Rietfontein, near Middelburg in the Transvaal province, which had been acquired for the purpose. His forfeited salary of £500 a year was also restored to him as a pension. He gladly embraced the proposal, and went to live at Rietfontein, where in October 1913 he died. So ended the line of the most powerful military chiefs that ever ruled in South Africa.

XXIX.

NATAL FROM 1873 TO 1910.

AFTER 1873 the progress of Natal was much more rapid than before that date. The improvement, or rather the construction, of a sheltered harbour was a matter of the greatest importance, for if this could be effected prosperity would be certain. The eminent marine engineer Sir John Coode was requested to visit the place and ascertain what could be done, and he prepared a plan that differed very little from that of Mr. Milne, needing only more blasting and dredging. This was taken in hand by the government, and was carried out with the greatest success. An excellent harbour was formed, accessible to any ships frequenting the Indian ocean, where they can lie in perfect safety beside wharves and discharge or take in cargo. There is even a dry dock for the repair of damaged vessels.

The construction of railways came next in importance, and this was carried on until there were lines open from Durban to the heart of the Transvaal Republic and of the Orange Free State, with branches northward and southward opening up the whole pro-

vince to commerce. The lines were constructed by the government, and had a gauge of forty-two inches.

The main branch of this system of railways has the great advantage of passing through an extensive field of coal of good quality, from which fuel can be obtained at a cheap rate. It is on the plateau at the foot of the Drakensberg, so that it is centrally situated, and the coal, which is easily worked, is conveyed to Durban mainly along a descending gradient. It is not the least important of the natural riches of Natal. Besides furnishing fuel for the railways and the towns, an ever-increasing quantity is yearly disposed of to steamers, some of which call purposely to take it in, and an export trade is being opened up. The appliances for discharging it into ships are of the most perfect kind known anywhere. The coaling-station is on the southern side of the harbour, at a sufficient distance from the quays to prevent it from being unpleasant.

Durban grew to be a thriving city, with great warehouses, noble public buildings, beautiful private residences at the Berea in gardens adorned with almost every variety of trees and flowering shrubs and vines, and with all the conveniences of a modern European town. The large number of Indian residents strikes the eye of a stranger at once, for they have a monopoly of nearly all light occupations. In the winter months it is regarded as one of the pleasantest places in South Africa for tourists to visit, as the climate is then most agreeable and the surroundings are in every way charming.

The area of Natal during these years was greatly enlarged. On the 22nd of April 1895 the strip of land west of the Pongolo river was annexed to the empire, and on the 30th of May of the same year a British protectorate was proclaimed over Tongaland. On the 31st of December 1897 these territories together with Zululand were annexed to Natal, thus bringing the northern border up to the Portuguese territory surrounding Delagoa Bay. Then in January 1903 the districts of Utrecht and Vryheid and that portion of the district of Wakkerstroom lying east of the Drakensberg were cut off from the late Transvaal Republic and added to Natal. This was a very important addition, on account of the Europeans residing there. Natal in 1910 thus embraced the whole territory between the Drakensberg and the sea, from Portuguese South-Eastern Africa to the Cape Colony. It covered an area of 36,173 square miles, or nearly double its extent (18,630 square miles) in 1873. Its European population was more than five times as great as in 1873, being now nearly one hundred thousand.

In 1893 responsible government, that had long been desired, was introduced. Thereafter there was a legislative council of eleven members, who were nominated by the governor and selected by him to guard the rights and interests of the Bantu, holding their seats for ten years, and a legislative assembly of thirty-seven elected members, holding their seats for four years.

The franchise differed in principle from that of the Cape Colony, or representative government of

any kind would have been an impossibility. The Indians, as coming from a country where such institutions were unknown, were not given the right to take part in elections. Male British subjects, not being Indians or Bantu, who owned land worth £50, or who paid £10 a year for rent, or who had lived three years in the country and were in receipt of salaries of £96 a year, were entitled to vote. Bantu who possessed any of the above qualifications, and in addition had been by their own desire exempted from tribal and subject to colonial law for seven years, might have the franchise specially conferred upon them by the governor, but this was very rarely done. Individuals of mixed European and coloured blood who lived after the manner of white people and possessed the necessary qualifications were entitled to vote, but they were few in number. The principle kept in view was that a privilege of which they were incapable of making proper use should be withheld from barbarians and ignorant people. In this respect Natal followed the system of the two republics rather than that of the Cape Colony.

The effect of the war between Great Britain and the republics from 1899 to 1902 was the same upon Natal as upon the Cape Colony: there was a period when the influx of gold caused extravagance in building and in style of living, that was followed by great depression, from which the colony only recovered after several years.

In 1906 there were more serious disturbances with some of the Bantu than any the colony had pre-

viously to grapple with, and being under responsible government it had to meet them without any assistance from imperial forces.

In 1905 an act was passed imposing a poll tax of £1 yearly upon all adult male Europeans, Asiatics, and Bantu except those who paid hut-tax, and this was regarded by some of the latter as a grievance. On the 7th of February 1906 two Europeans who were sent to collect the tax from a kraal in the south of Natal were attacked and murdered. The circumstance was attended with peculiar barbarity, but condign punishment was inflicted upon the perpetrators some months later, for no fewer than twelve men suffered the death penalty for it.

The next to take up arms was a petty chief named Bambata, who resided about two hours' ride from Greytown, in the county of Umvoti, and had a following of not more than five thousand souls all told. In March 1906 this man paid a visit to Dinizulu at the Usutu kraal, and upon his return home set his magistrate at defiance. On the 4th of April he attacked a party of police, killed four of them, and wounded four others, after which he fled to the Nkandla forest in Zululand. There he was joined by the powerful chief Siginanda, who was over ninety years of age, Methlokazulu, who was also a man of importance, and several others.

The government felt the necessity of stamping out the rebellion without any delay, and at once put a very strong force in the field. Colonel Mackenzie,

who was in chief command, had nearly ten thousand Europeans and over six thousand obedient Bantu under him, with whom he not only inflicted very heavy losses upon the rebels, but overawed others that were suspected of a disposition to join them. On the 8th of June the most severe action of the campaign was fought, in which both Bambata and Methlokazulu, with fully five hundred of their followers, were killed. Shortly afterwards Siginanda surrendered, and some others of note were made prisoners. Before the end of July all resistance had ceased, and the disbandment of the colonial forces was proceeding rapidly. It was estimated that two thousand three hundred of the rebels had lost their lives, but thirty Europeans had also been killed and thirty-seven others wounded. The cost of suppressing the rebellion was nearly £900,000.

A great number of prisoners were tried, and were sentenced to varying terms of confinement with hard labour. Twenty-five of them were banished to the island of St. Helena. But in 1910 the Union government, then just established, in a spirit of clemency set them all at liberty again. Natal had shown herself capable of quelling an insurrection on a large scale, but could not venture to be as lenient with rebels as the vastly stronger government of united South Africa.

New and profitable industries were at this time being developed in Natal. First among these was the cultivation of the black wattle for the sake of its bark, which is valuable for tanning purposes.

It was found to pay for exportation to England, and the quantity produced increased yearly.

It was ascertained that there was a good market for maize in Europe, but its growth was not so much a European as a Bantu industry. If, however, the Bantu grow it on a large scale and sell it for exportation, the advantage to the country is great, for whatever tends to make them more industrious and to enrich them tends to the general prosperity. They have been compelled to depend much more upon agriculture than formerly, as the cattle plague, which made its first appearance in Natal in 1897, swept off nearly all their herds, and deprived them not only of the means of purchasing any articles they needed by the sale of oxen, but of the milk which formed a very large part of their food. This loss of cattle has seriously affected even their increase, as the death-rate among little children has risen considerably owing to the want of milk.

Another industry that has its base at Durban is that of whale fishing, which, though it is carried on by foreigners, adds to the purchasing power of the country.

During recent years the number of Europeans in Natal engaged in agriculture has been increasing, and the tendency in that direction must become greater as the peril arising from the large number of Bantu on the soil diminishes. That this will be the result of union with the other provinces of South Africa and the establishment of a government with great resources is evident.

XXX.

THE ORANGE FREE STATE FROM 1854 TO 1899.

THE history of the world may be searched in vain for an instance of a community in a more unenviable position than the burghers of the territory between the Orange and Vaal rivers when they were abandoned by Great Britain. They were scattered thinly over a great plain, and beside them in a mountain land like a strong fortress was a hostile tribe armed to the teeth, under the ablest chief in South Africa, exulting in its recent victory over a British army, and vastly exceeding them in number of combatants. To the policy of forming a powerful Basuto state they had been resolutely opposed, yet now they were made to bear the consequences of its creation. Their country was without roads or bridges, almost without churches and schools, so that these were to be provided as well as the ordinary machinery of government, while they received no share of the customs duties on their trade levied in the ports of Natal and the Cape Colony. That they surmounted these difficulties and made their state one of the most

flourishing in South Africa was something that they were justly proud of.

The form of government that they adopted was republican. There was a president, who was the principal executive officer, and who was elected by the burghers for a term of five years. He carried out the resolutions of the volksraad, and had no veto upon its proceedings. He was assisted by an executive council. The volksraad was the supreme authority, and consisted of a member for each field-cornetcy and one for each seat of magistracy. They were elected for four years. The president and the state secretary had the right of debate, but not of voting, in the volksraad. All European males of full age born in the State were electors, and also all European immigrant males of full age who had become burghers and were in possession of unmortgaged land to the value of £150, or were lessees of landed property at a yearly rental of £36, or were in receipt of a fixed yearly income of £200, or had been resident in the State for three years and possessed movable property worth £300. Men of coloured blood who lived in all respects as Europeans could have the privilege to vote accorded to them by special resolution of the volksraad, and some of very dark tint living in the same way went to the polls unquestioned. But the principle was kept clearly in view that the government was to represent the civilised inhabitants of the country, and that those who were uncivilised could have no voice in its formation, though they were to be protected equally with electors and had the same right in courts of justice.

The fundamental law of the state, like that of all other European communities in South Africa, was the Roman as modified by the legislature of Holland before 1652. The official language was Dutch, and the courts of law were after the Dutch pattern, though considerably modified. In each district there was a landdrost, with a body of heemraden to assist in settling important cases, and over all was a supreme court of judges, who must previously have been qualified barristers.

When the British flag was withdrawn the community was split into factions, but the common danger forced them to unite in choosing a president acceptable to Moshesh. Mr. Josias Hoffman, a farmer who was intimately acquainted with the great chief and on excellent terms with him, was therefore elected. During his short tenure of office, however, the burghers felt that concession to the Basuto power was carried further than was consistent with the dignity of an independent state, and early in 1855 the volksraad took advantage of his having made a present of a keg of gunpowder to Moshesh without reporting the circumstance and clamoured so loudly against him that he was compelled to resign.

Mr. Jacobus Nicolaas Boshof, a man of education, of high moral character, and of considerable ability, was then elected president. Having had a training in official work in the civil service of the Cape Colony, he was able to put the different departments of the government in good order. But from the day of his assuming duty he was so incessantly harassed by

the all-important question with Moshesh that he could do little or nothing else for the general welfare of the country.

Moshesh's object, from a Bantu point of view, was so praiseworthy that his followers were ready to do everything in their power to promote it. He wished to recover for his tribe the whole of the territory south of the Vaal and west of the Drakensberg that had been in occupation of black people before the wars of Tshaka. The remnants of the tribes that in olden times had occupied the ground were now his followers, and he wanted the soil that once was theirs. Sir George Napier had given him by treaty a large portion of it, and that much, at any rate, he was determined to have.

The object of the Free State government and burghers was to retain the boundary fixed by Sir Harry Smith, which, in their opinion, was a fair one. When white people moved into the territory it was a vast waste, and if they had not come Moshesh could never have had a quarter of the land that was now in his possession. Certainly Bantu had at some former period occupied ground nearly as far west as Bloemfontein, but they had irrecoverably lost it during the Zulu wars. To admit Moshesh's claim would be to consent to the annihilation of the state, and the burghers had no mind for that. Here, in brief, was the cause of the long and desperate struggle between the Orange Free State and the Basuto tribe.

For several years Moshesh directed his efforts towards the south, leaving the farmers on his other borders undisturbed. In that direction the herds of

the white people were plundered mercilessly by his followers, and as a rule he would give no redress. Sir George Grey once tried to arrange matters amicably between the two parties, and through his agency an agreement of peace and friendship was signed; but Moshesh did not long observe it. At length actual possession of occupied farms was taken by parties of armed Basuto, and hostilities could be staved off no longer.

In March 1858 the burghers of all parts of the state were called out, and entered Basutoland in two divisions, the object being to try to confine the war to the enemy's country. But Moshesh was much too skilful a strategist for their commanders to cope with. He kept them closely occupied until after some severe fighting they arrived in front of Thaba Bosigo, where they learned that swarms of his light horsemen were ravaging their farms. Before them was a mountain stronghold which could not be taken by storm, and they had not the means of laying siege to it. Under these circumstances the burghers dispersed, and made the best of their way to the localities where they had left their families.

President Boshof had already applied to the South African Republic for aid, but as the burghers of the northern state were holding out for special terms of union, and there was no time to be lost, he requested the mediation of Sir George Grey. Moshesh consented to an armistice, and promised to abide by the decision of the governor. He was wise enough to recognise that if he pushed his advantage too far he would have to deal with the northern republic as

well as the southern, and he felt certain that the governor would give him, as the conqueror, a good strip of territory.

Sir George Grey accepted the office of mediator. He took from Moshesh a far outlying mission station which was a kind of semi-independent fief of the Basuto chieftainship, but gave him a large extent of territory south of Sir Harry Smith's line. Thus the first struggle with the Basuto ended in very serious loss to the Orange Free State.

Shortly after this Mr. Boshof resigned, and was succeeded as president by Mr. Marthinus Wessel Pretorius, son of the famous commandant-general. He represented a strong party that desired the union of the two republics, but as there were many conflicting interests in the way, besides the declaration of the high commissioner that union would dissolve the conventions with Great Britain, every attempt at amalgamation failed.

During these years the Free State was continually growing stronger. The Griqua captain Adam Kok sold his territorial rights to the republic, his people sold their ground to farmers from the Cape Colony, and then the whole clan moved away to a new country below the Drakensberg and south of Natal, given to them by Sir George Grey. With the exception of a little tract of almost unoccupied land belonging to the Griqua captain Nicholas Waterboer between the Modder and Orange rivers and a location belonging to the Barolong chief Moroko, the whole territory between the Vaal and the Orange up to the Basuto border was now in possession of white

people, and sheep farming and cattle rearing could be carried on in a large portion of it with greater profit than in any other part of South Africa.

Along the Basuto border, however, there was a continual state of unrest. Moshesh had conquered the clans on the northern bank of the Caledon, and had annexed their ground. The white people maintained that the boundary should remain as before, but the chief said contemptuously that he had never agreed to it, and he showed clearly that he would not respect it. President Pretorius did all that was possible to induce him to act fairly in the matter, but in vain. His people pressed across the line, settled on farms, and plundered the country for miles in front of them.

In 1865 Advocate Jan Hendrik Brand was elected president. Of him it may be said that South Africa knows no worthier name, for no one has ever contributed more to the welfare of the people than he. Sir Philip Wodehouse had succeeded Sir George Grey as governor of the Cape Colony and her Majesty's high commissioner for the regions beyond. President Brand requested him to mark off the northern boundary between the Free State and Basutoland, and the volksraad empowered him to alter Sir Harry Smith's line if he saw fit to do so, as they were willing to lose some ground if only they could secure peace. Sir Philip was no lover of republics, and he never concealed his dislike of the South African farmers; but in a matter of this kind he could be depended upon to act with the strictest justice. Moshesh very reluctantly agreed to abide

by his decision. He visited the country, carefully inspected it, heard the arguments on both sides, and after much consideration confirmed Sir Harry Smith's line. The president then called upon Moshesh to withdraw his followers from the farms they had taken possession of, and upon the chief's failure to



PORTRAIT OF PRESIDENT BRAND.

do so, the burghers were called out to drive them back by force, when open war began.

The laying waste of a large extent of territory in the Free State by Basuto horsemen could not be prevented, and a number of people were massacred in a shocking manner; but, on the other hand, the

burgher forces were victorious in several engagements and took some mountain strongholds by storm. Thaba Bosigo, however, resisted every attack upon it. After ten months' fighting Moshesh asked for peace, and offered to cede a considerable part of his country, but a year later he declared that he had only done so in order to secure a harvest. The president and the burghers were deceived, and in April 1866 terms were agreed to and a treaty of peace was signed.

His gardens were planted, and when his harvests were gathered Moshesh threw off the mask. He declined to fulfil the terms of the treaty, and in July 1867 President Brand was obliged to call the burghers again to arms to compel him to observe his engagements. Both sides recognised that the struggle must now be a final one, and each put forth its utmost strength. But Moshesh no longer possessed the mental vigour of his earlier years, and in his tribe there was no one who could take his place as a strategist. His sons were mere ordinary barbarians. Soon fragments of the tribe began to drop off and move over the Drakensberg. Then one after another all the Basuto strongholds fell, except Thaba Bosigo, Moshesh's own mountain, which defied attack. The granaries were destroyed, and the bulk of the tribe, driven into the mountains, was suffering severely from hunger and disease.

The Free State was in a fair way of being able very shortly to dictate its own terms when Sir Philip Wodehouse interfered. At Moshesh's request he proclaimed the Basuto tribe British subjects, and

sent an armed force to protect them. British interests, he declared, would not permit of their being dispersed over the country as fugitives. Naturally the people of the Free State regarded this action as unfriendly and unfair, and the volksraad sent deputies to England to protest against it; but the imperial authorities left the matter entirely in the governor's hands. The president then tried to secure as good terms as possible, and in February 1869 an agreement was concluded at Aliwal North by which the Free State obtained all the land north and west of the Caledon and south of a line almost identical with that of Sir Harry Smith between the Caledon and the Orange.

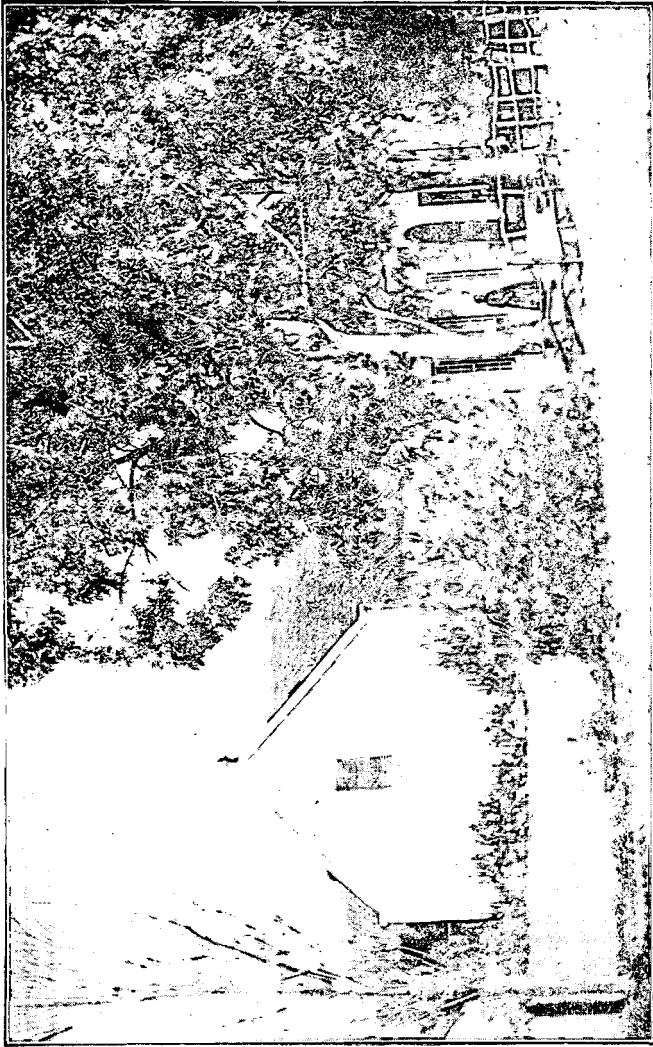
The republic sorely needed rest when the struggle with the Basuto was over, though it was less exhausted than its opponent. Paper money had been issued to a large amount, and the notes were greatly depreciated in value. Farming operations had been neglected, and individuals as well as the state had been compelled to incur heavy debts. There was hardly a household in the land which did not bear evidence that a crisis of no ordinary nature had been experienced. The loss of life too had been heavy in proportion to the population. But the hearts of the people beat high, and burghers and government alike set to work resolutely to repair their losses.

They had not time to get on their feet again when a new difficulty arose in the discovery of rich diamond mines in the western part of the state. An account of this has been given in another chapter, as well

as of the occupation of the mines by Great Britain and their ultimate annexation to the Cape Colony. The difficulty was at length settled by the payment of £90,000 as a solatium to the Free State, with which the public debt as represented by bluebacks was reduced. The sore feeling entertained by the burghers passed away, and they began to reflect that perhaps after all it was better for them to be relieved of the responsibility of maintaining order among the diggers. A diamond mine at Jagersfontein had been left to them, and it was turning out much richer than had once been anticipated. Then they had all the advantages which the other mines offered as markets for farm produce, so that they might have a good deal of gain with no risk.

After this settlement the Free State enjoyed constant peace. Roads, bridges, and good public buildings were constructed, and an excellent system of public schools was maintained by the government. In course of time railways were constructed, connecting the state with Capetown, Port Elizabeth, East London, Durban, and Lourenço Marques, and a customs union with the Cape Colony was entered into.

The boundaries of the republic on all sides were undisputed, and it had no longer independent tribes within its borders. The Barolong clan at Thaba Ntshu was the last to occupy that position. In 1880 the chief Moroko died at a very advanced age, and the succession was disputed by two men named Tšepinare and Samuel. Most of the people favoured the former, and when he was killed by



COMMON STYLE OF SOUTH AFRICAN FARMHOUSE

Samuel they appealed to President Brand to take them over as Free State subjects. This was the only way to restore order, so the president complied with their wish, and the ground they lived on was kept as a reserve for their use. It was named the district of Moroka.

President Brand was elected again and again until 1888, when he died in office. Mr. F. W. Reitz, previously chief justice, was then chosen to fill the vacant place, which he did to the entire satisfaction of the people. Owing to ill health he was obliged to retire in 1895, and early in 1896 was succeeded by Mr. M. T. Steyn. The principal event of this time was a close alliance, defensive and under certain conditions offensive, with the South African Republic, which was then in a position of great difficulty, and with whose burghers those of the Free State naturally had strong sympathy.

The industries of the state still remained almost entirely pastoral and agricultural, but valuable coal fields were beginning to be worked, and there were diamond mines at Jagersfontein and Koffyfontein, the last named, however, not being of great importance.

XXXI.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC FROM 1852 TO 1884.

THE vast tract of land north of the Vaal, that became the property of the emigrant farmers after the expulsion of Moselekatse, contained ground suitable for almost every variety of agricultural and pastoral industry, and, though the circumstance was then unknown, in mineral wealth it was not surpassed by any country in the world. Its eastern and northern valleys, well watered and of great fertility, had for a time a strong attraction for settlers, but experience proved them to be less healthy than the open highlands, and they were therefore partly abandoned. In some places the tsetse fly abounded, and this scourge of domestic cattle prevented settlement in its neighbourhood until the large game was exterminated, when it disappeared. The fever too, that was once so prevalent on the borders of forests and streams in the lowlands, in course of time became almost unknown in the same localities if the ground was cultivated and the rank grass burnt off before it began to decay.

The farmers were only fifteen or sixteen thousand in number, all told, so they naturally selected what appeared to them the choicest spots, and no one considered it worth his while to settle on the great plains of the west. There was no such thing as union among them. An attempt was made to form a kind of common government, by the election of a single volksraad for legislative purposes, but with four executive heads, one for each of the principal factions. This system, as may be imagined, was accompanied by much disorder, and was soon succeeded by four republics, independent of each other: Potchefstroom, Zoutpansberg, Lydenburg, and Utrecht. Matters were not mended by this arrangement, and it may almost be said that the white people beyond the Vaal were without government at all.

A notable evil that resulted from this condition of things was that the outskirts of the occupied area offered a refuge to vagabonds of every stamp, who resorted to them from other parts of South Africa. Men capable of the most abominable cruelty and meanness, but possessing the quality of brute courage, roamed along the frontier nominally as hunters and traders, and their lawless deeds were attributed by people at a distance to the whole community.

When Europeans first entered the country, it was in a similar condition to Mashonaland in 1890. North and west, as far as it was known, the Bantu tribes had been destroyed by the Matabele, and only a few wretched remnants were living either along the margin of the Kalahari desert or among almost

inaccessible mountains. The greater portion of the territory south of the twenty-second parallel of latitude was literally without inhabitants, for Moselekatse's bands were in the habit of traversing it yearly in one direction or other, and no clan could live in their way. The arrival of the white people and the flight of the Matabele gave new life to the dwellers in the mountains and deserts. They could come out into the open country once more, and make gardens and sleep in safety. The Europeans were masters and owners of the land, but in accordance with the ancient Dutch custom, they permitted each little Bantu community to be governed by its own chief in all matters that did not affect the ruling race.

The kraals were made subject to a labour tax, and under a strong government no better tax could be imposed upon a barbarous people. But under the weak rule of the emigrant farmers the system was liable to great abuses, though the Bantu thought lightly of it until the dread of the Matabele was forgotten. Life was now safe, and the occupants of the kraals were multiplying at a prodigious rate, besides which fugitives were coming in from the regions beyond the Limpopo, where Moselekatse was lord.

Ten years passed away, and the clans had become so strong that they began to chafe under the restraints imposed upon them by the white men and to aspire to independence. The anarchy and strife among the Europeans appeared to give them the opportunity they wanted. But among themselves

also there was the remembrance of ancient feuds, which caused so much jealousy that combination was impossible, and instead of rising all together, it was in succession that the most disaffected among them took up arms. Then, too, as will be seen on a much more memorable occasion at a later date, in presence of an opponent the farmers stood shoulder to shoulder, and were therefore able to suppress the various risings against their authority.

These disturbances were brought prominently to the notice of the English people by the reverend Dr. Livingstone, the greatest explorer of modern times, who was then a missionary with the Bakwena under the chief Setsheli, and whose house and furniture were destroyed during the war. Dr. Livingstone was a strong partisan of the Bantu, and did his utmost to oppose the claim of the emigrant farmers to dominion over the clan with which he was living, so that his statements are those of an advocate rather than those of a judge. He represented Setsheli as wholly in the right, and the farmers as wholly in the wrong; but any impartial writer who examines Setsheli's own account of the matter, as given by himself personally to the governor in Capetown, must come to a different conclusion.

War cannot be carried on without cruelty, but in these contests acts were sometimes performed by the Europeans which exceeded the limit regarded as permissible by civilised nations. It should be remembered, however, that the provocation on such occasions was very great, as, for instance, when white women and children were murdered in cold

blood, or when corpses were mutilated, or captives put to death by torture. Men belonging to the most refined circles in Europe would probably retaliate under such circumstances as cruelly as the emigrant farmers did.

Early in 1857 the Potchefstroom faction adopted a new constitution, under which Mr. Marthinus Wessel Pretorius became president, though with no other power than to carry out the resolutions of the volksraad. In the following year Zoutpansberg gave in its adhesion to this constitution, and, in 1860, Lydenburg and Utrecht, previously united, were also incorporated, so that the whole country north of the Vaal became a single republic. The different factions now began to strive for the supreme power in the state, and a civil war broke out, in which some blood was shed. Peace was restored in May 1864, when Mr. Pretorius was accepted by all parties as the legally elected president, and Mr. S. J. Paul Kruger as commandant-general or military head.

Meantime the Baramapulana tribe, which was living in a mountainous tract of land in the north of the republic, had become very strong in number, owing to an influx of broken clans from beyond the Limpopo. It was in possession of a good many guns, procured from the vagabond whites in the neighbourhood, and was disposed to resent any interference with its actions. In a feud a brother of the chief was obliged to flee, and was protected by the government, a circumstance which greatly annoyed his opponents. In April 1865, when searching for a fugitive offender, some of the lawless Europeans and

a party of blacks who were assisting them committed acts of great violence upon the outposts of the tribe, and a general war was brought on.

For more than three years the republic strove in vain to subdue the Baramapulana. There was no money in the treasury, and the government was actually at one time unable to raise funds sufficient to pay for the carriage of ammunition from Durban. The burghers of the southern part of the state refused to take part in the war. Commandant-General Kruger did all that man could do with the slender means at his disposal, but he was at length obliged to withdraw discomfited. The village of Schoemansdal, the centre of the ivory trade and the residence of a landdrost and a clergyman, was abandoned by its inhabitants when the feeble commando retired, and was afterwards burnt by the enemy. The Europeans were obliged for their safety to withdraw from a large part of the district of Zoutpansberg, to which they were never able to return. The Baramapulana, however, felt the want of commercial intercourse, and in July 1868 expressed a desire for a renewal of friendship, at the same time offering to pay tribute, when peace was gladly made on conditions which by no means secured the absolute supremacy of the republican government.

The white people had thus lost ground, and the fact of their having done so made it more difficult than before to preserve order among the Bantu farther south. In one respect only the country showed signs of progress: in the number of churches

built and clergymen engaged. Yet even in religious matters there was constant strife among the sections of what outsiders can only regard as one church, so trifling are the differences that break it into distinct communions. A generation had grown up without a knowledge of books or of events beyond their own little circle. The rivers were unbridged, there were no public offices worthy of the name, the treasury was always empty, and the salaries of the officials, trifling as they were, could seldom or never be paid when they fell due. Commerce was carried on chiefly by means of barter, as gold and silver were exceeding scarce. Still on the farms anything like want was unknown, for the flocks and herds thrive and increased in the rich pastures, and the fertile soil produced grain and vegetables and fruit in abundance.

The war with the Baramapulana was hardly concluded when fresh difficulties arose through the Barolong of Montsiwa and other clans on the west setting up a claim to independence and to the possession of a territory of immense extent. The republic was not in a position to assert its authority by force of arms, and indeed the matter was hardly considered worth much notice until the discovery of diamonds along the lower Vaal gave importance to the claim. Then President Pretorius and her Majesty's high commissioner for South Africa arranged that it should be settled by arbitration, and each party appointed a representative to form a court, with Governor Keate, of Natal, as final umpire. The manner in which the case for the

republic was conducted has been related in another chapter. Governor Keate's award gave to the tribes the independence and the territory that they claimed, and even took from the government at Pretoria a large district that had been occupied by white people ever since the great emigration.

As soon as the award was known President Pretorius was obliged to resign, for the volksraad maintained that he had exceeded his authority in making the agreement with the high commissioner, and declared that they were not bound by his action. The high commissioner, however, announced that he would enforce the award, though he did not take possession of the territory cut off from the republic by it. And now there was a general cry that a clever man, capable of conducting business on equal terms with the queen's representative in Capetown, must be found to fill the office of president. The reverend Thomas François Burgers, a clergyman who had abandoned the orthodox church and whose name was then prominently before the public on account of the skilful manner in which he had conducted some difficult cases in the law courts of the Cape Colony, seemed to possess the requisite ability, and he was elected by a nearly unanimous vote.

Mr. Burgers was an able and an active man, with large persuasive powers, but he was a dreamer. He dreamed of a powerful and prosperous republic, with colleges and telegraphs and railways, with a high name among the nations of the earth; and he imagined that it could be formed off-hand out of a few thousand uneducated men with seventeenth

century ideas and such immigrants as he could induce to join him from Holland. Two years after his election he induced the volksraad to send him to Europe to negotiate a loan for the purpose of constructing a railway from Pretoria to Delagoa Bay and to engage teachers for a number of state schools.

In Holland £90,000 was subscribed towards the loan, and with the money railway material was purchased and sent out to rust and rot away at Lourenço Marques, for no more could be borrowed. A superintendent-general of education and a few other officials were engaged, with whom the president returned to Pretoria, to find that during his absence the Bapedi tribe, under the chief Sekukuni, that occupied a wild and rugged tract of land in the valley of the Olifants river, had acted in a manner that no government could tolerate.

A large commando was called out to punish the insurgents, but the burghers assembled in fear and trembling. The president was to lead it in person, and as he was in religion an agnostic, they—with their thorough orthodox creed—feared much that the blessing of God could not rest upon the enterprise. So strong had this feeling become throughout the country that a large number of families, rather than remain under his government, were moving away to seek a new home beyond the Kalahari desert, and were even then marking the road to Mossamedes, in the Portuguese province of Benguela, where they ultimately settled, with a line of graves showing the terrible sufferings of their march. The passionate

feeling at the time of his election had passed away, and hardly anything was now remembered except the failure of many of his plans.



PORTRAIT OF SEKUKUNI.

One strong place was taken, which the president in overdrawn language wrote of as the Gibraltar of the south, but this success did not give heart to the farmers. An attempt to take another stronghold failed chiefly owing to the conduct of the burghers

themselves, and then there was a perfect stampede homeward, which all the efforts of Mr. Burgers could not prevent. Some days later the fugitives reached Pretoria, and no hope of suppressing the rebellion speedily was left.

The volksraad was hastily convened, when it was resolved to engage men wherever they could be obtained, at £5 a month, rations, and a farm of four thousand acres when the disturbance was quelled. To meet the expense heavy war taxes were imposed. But the country was quite unable to bear this strain. The ordinary charges of government and the interest on the public debt could not be met, much less an additional burden. And so the whole administrative machinery broke down. The republic was really in a pitiable state, without money or an army, with rebellion triumphant, and a general election approaching that was feared might be attended with civil war.

While things were in this condition Sir Theophilus Shepstone, previously secretary for native affairs in Natal, was sent by the British government as a commissioner to Pretoria with very large powers. It is admitted by every one that a country is entitled to interfere with a neighbour whose weakness is a cause of common peril; but whether Great Britain was justified in this instance in taking possession of the South African Republic is a question upon which opinions differ. One of the reasons assigned by Sir Theophilus Shepstone for the action which he took was that the territory was in danger of being overrun by the Zulus, and if that was really so, the

circumstance would go a long way to support his proceedings. But the farmers never expressed a fear of such a danger, and always alleged that they could repel Ketshwayo's armies much more easily than besiege a fortified mountain stronghold. The Zulu chief at the time was trying to play off the republic against Natal, and his declarations to one party concerning the other cannot be regarded as evidence, though the British commissioner seems to have attached much value to them. Further than this, the residents of the villages, who were principally English and Germans, requested the commissioner to declare the country a British dependency, as the only remedy against anarchy, and the farmers did nothing to oppose him and his slender escort. The government managed to patch up a kind of peace with Sekukuni, but otherwise matters remained in the condition described until the 12th of April 1877, when Sir Theophilus Shepstone issued a proclamation declaring the country a British possession, and thereupon assumed supreme control, the president retiring under protest.

A considerable military force now entered the Transvaal territory, as the country was renamed, and apparently the new government was firmly established. Trade revived, money flowed in, and property of every kind increased in value. But the farmers were dissatisfied with the loss of their independence, and sent Mr. Paul Kruger and Dr. Jorissen to England to endeavour to get the annexation withdrawn. The deputation failed in its purpose, and at that time the British ministry appear to have believed that a large

proportion of the people of the territory—if not the majority—were in favour of English rule. As a proof that this was not the case, memorials were sent round against the annexation, and received the signatures of over six thousand five hundred individuals, representing practically the whole rural population. Another deputation, consisting of Messrs. Paul Kruger and Pieter Joubert, with Mr. Eduard Bok as secretary, was now sent to England, in hope that with so strong an argument in its favour it would meet with success. But it returned disappointed, and thereafter repeated declarations were made by the highest officials in South Africa that under no circumstances would the British flag be withdrawn from the Transvaal.

Sir T. Shepstone was personally not greatly disliked, and if any one could have made the farmers contented under English rule he would have done it. But in March 1879 he was succeeded as administrator by Sir Owen Lanyon, a man of haughty disposition, who was incapable of even attempting to conciliate the people of the country. The feeling now rapidly gained ground that if peaceable means to obtain the restoration of independence did not soon succeed, an appeal to arms ought to be made. The women of South Africa have always had great influence in public affairs, and on this occasion their voice was decidedly in favour of war. Mothers encouraged their sons, wives their husbands, to act as men, and if they were beaten they could die the death of patriots or move away to the unknown north as their fathers had done before them.

At this time Sekukuni again gave trouble, but Sir Garnet Wolseley with a strong body of troops and a band of Swazis marched against him, inflicted great damage upon his tribe, and brought the chief himself a prisoner to Pretoria. Shortly after this event intelligence reached the country that Mr. Gladstone had succeeded the earl of Beaconsfield as prime minister of England, and as the new premier when in opposition had denounced the annexation as unjust, the farmers not unnaturally thought that he would give them back their independence. For a while therefore the agitation almost ceased. Some of the troops were withdrawn from the territory, and Sir Garnet Wolseley, having been relieved as commander-in-chief by Sir George Colley, returned to Europe.

As soon as it was known, however, that Mr. Gladstone declined to withdraw the British flag, the general discontent came to a head. An attempt to seize the waggon of a farmer who refused to pay a tax brought a number of his friends to the rescue, and the officials at Potchefstroom, though supported by a strong military force, were openly set at defiance. A great meeting took place at Paardekraal, where Krugersdorp now stands, and after several days' discussion it was resolved to commit their cause to the Almighty God and live or die together in a struggle for independence. Messrs. S. J. Paul Kruger, M. W. Pretorius, and Pieter J. Joubert were elected a triumvirate to conduct the government, and the volksraad resumed its functions as the supreme legislative power. It was decided that Heidelberg

should be the capital until Pretoria could be recovered, and there, on Dingana's day, the 16th of December 1880, the flag of the republic was hoisted again.

The act certainly proved that the European blood has not degenerated in courage by removal to South Africa, as many persons had previously assumed. And here it may be asked how it was that the same men who dared not face danger in the commando under President Burgers went through this war for independence with the bravery and devotion of ancient Spartans, yet afterwards claimed no glory for what they had done. The reply is short: religion caused the change. In one instance they believed that the Almighty was against them because their leader was not of the true faith, in the other they believed most thoroughly that the Almighty was with them, guiding and strengthening them in the unequal fight. It was this, and this alone, that turned the fugitives from Steelpoort into the men of Majuba hill.

On the same day that the flag was hoisted the first blood was shed. A party of burghers, under Commandant Cronjé, went to Potchefstroom to have a proclamation printed, and was fired upon by the soldiers there, when one of them was badly wounded. Colonel Winsloe, who was in command of the soldiers, had a camp outside the village, and had also fortified the landdrost's office and some adjoining buildings, in which a garrison was stationed under Major Clarke. Commandant Cronjé returned the fire, and then laid siege to the buildings occupied by Major Clarke, who

after holding out two days was obliged to surrender. Colonel Winsloe held the camp throughout the war, and only surrendered it after an armistice was entered into.

Disaster after disaster now attended the British arms.

Colonel Anstruther was directed to march from Lydenburg with two hundred and sixty-four men to reinforce the garrison of Pretoria, and was warned that he might meet with resistance on the way, but having a very poor opinion of the fighting powers of the farmers, he took no precautions whatever. On the 20th of December he was marching carelessly with a long waggon train, when at Bronkhorst Spruit, thirty-eight miles from Pretoria, he suddenly found himself in front of a force of about the same number of farmers under Commandant Frans Joubert. The commandant demanded that he should proceed no farther, and upon his replying that he would go on, a volley was poured in by the farmers. The soldiers made a very feeble resistance, and in a few minutes so many were disabled that the colonel—who was mortally wounded—was obliged to surrender.

From the garrisons in Natal Sir George Colley now collected a body of rather over a thousand men, and set out to assist the troops in the Transvaal, who with the loyalists were beleaguered in the various villages. On learning of this movement, Commandant-General Pieter Joubert, who was one of the triumvirate, entered Natal with a force superior in number, and occupied a strong position at Lang's Nek, on the road along which the British general must march. On the 28th

of January 1881 Sir George Colley attempted to force the passage of the Nek, but was beaten back with heavy loss. He then fortified a camp at Mount Prospect, four miles distant, and awaited reinforcements which were on the way from England.

On the 8th of February with nearly three hundred men General Colley left his camp to patrol the road towards Newcastle, and near the Ingogo river was drawn into an engagement with a body of farmers under Commandant Nicolaas Smit. Up to dusk neither side could claim victory, but when night fell the remnant of the English patrol returned to camp in a heavy fall of rain, leaving two-thirds of those who went out in the morning dead and wounded on the field.

In the three engagements here mentioned the British loss was about six hundred men, nearly half of whom were killed. The farmers had seventeen men killed and twenty-eight wounded. Military critics attribute the difference largely to steady aim and skill in shooting on one side, the farmers attribute it entirely to the working of Providence in their favour.

The crowning disaster was yet to come. During the night of the 26th of February General Colley left his camp with six hundred men, and climbed to the top of Majuba hill, posting two pickets on the way. From this position he hoped to command the farmers' camp at the Nek two thousand feet below, and when at dawn on the next morning Commandant-General Joubert observed the soldiers on the crest above him, he at once realised the danger. Some hundred and

fifty volunteers now offered to try to take the hill, and actually made their way up in face of the superior force above, the bullets passing over them as if they were charmed. A little before noon seventy or eighty men reached the crest at different points, and then the soldiers were seized with a panic and fled. Ninety-two killed, one hundred and thirty-four wounded, and fifty-nine prisoners represented the British loss that day, against one man killed and five wounded on the farmers' side. General Colley himself was among the slain.

In the meantime the soldiers and British adherents in the Transvaal villages were closely besieged, and a good many lives were lost in sorties and skirmishes, but none were reduced to surrender.

After Sir George Colley's death, Sir Evelyn Wood took command of the English forces, and as troops were fast arriving in Natal, he soon found himself at the head of twelve thousand men. But now came instructions from the imperial government not to advance, and on the 5th of March an armistice was concluded between the general and the triumvirate. This led to the arrangement of terms of peace and the restoration of semi-independence to a portion of the former republic, Swaziland being cut out and the boundary on the western side being drawn in so as to exclude nearly the whole of the Betshuana and Korana clans living there.

It was to be under the suzerainty of her Majesty the queen, who was to have control of all its external relations and of all legislation affecting the Bantu residents. On the 3rd of August a document

termed the convention of Pretoria was signed to this effect, and five days later the British forces were withdrawn. A volksraad was elected, but for some time it was doubtful whether the convention would be ratified. The condition of things which the Sand river convention laid down was what the members wanted and what they believed they had a right to, not such shackled privileges as were described in the convention of Pretoria. But it was clearly explained to them by the triumvirate that their only choice in the matter was that or renewal of the war with Great Britain. The volksraad then yielded, and on the 25th of October 1881 the convention was formally ratified, but to say that it was approved of would be incorrect.

Mr. Kruger was shortly afterwards elected president of the vassal state, which entered upon a career beset with difficulties.

Things could not work smoothly under such an arrangement, and the British government soon came to consider that a really friendly independent Transvaal republic would be better than such a discontented inimical vassal state as then existed. So in October 1883 a deputation, consisting of President Kruger, the reverend S. J. Dutoit, superintendent-general of education, and Commandant Nicolaas Smit, proceeded to England and concluded an agreement by which the obnoxious suzerainty was withdrawn and all the other restraints upon independence were removed, though the full extent of ground claimed by the old republic was not given back, because England regarded it as imperative

on her to retain the highway to the centre of the continent. On the 27th of February 1884 a document known as the convention of London was signed, which restored independence to the South African Republic, with limited boundaries, and in the words of the earl of Derby, who was then secretary of state for the colonies, its administration "was left free to govern the country without interference, and to conduct its diplomatic correspondence and shape its foreign policy, subject only to the requirement that any treaty with a foreign state should not have effect without the approval of the queen."

Even this convention did not fully satisfy the Transvaal people, because of the restriction on their freedom to make treaties with foreign states, and more particularly because it did not restore to them all the land on their south-western border that they believed themselves entitled to. For these reasons many of the members of the volksraad refused to agree to it, and it was only owing to President Kruger's influence that it was at last ratified.

XXXII.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC FROM 1884 TO 1899.

AN event of primary importance, not only to the Transvaal Republic, but to all South Africa, was the discovery of gold on the Witwatersrand, the watershed from which the streams flow northward on one side and southward on the other. Ever since 1872 two or three hundred gold-diggers had been working at Pilgrim's Rest and other localities in the district of Lydenburg, but for many years the quantity of the precious metal found was too small to attract the attention of people in other parts of the world. In 1885 richer and more extensive fields were opened up, and a town named Barberton, which for some months was the busiest place in the country, sprang into existence.

In 1886 some gentlemen named Struben, who had been for over a year prospecting on the high belt of land between Pretoria and the Vaal river, proved the existence of gold there in payable quantities. It was soon found that the extent of the gold-bearing reefs was very great, though some parts were much

richer than others. It was not a field for individual diggers, because the precious metal was embedded in rock or conglomerate, which had first to be removed, then to be crushed by powerful machinery, and finally to be treated by different processes, all of which required large capital and special skill. But companies were rapidly formed, and for a distance of thirty miles along the reef mining rights were secured and men were set to work.

In the centre of this line, 5,600 feet above the level of the sea, rose almost as by magic the largest city in South Africa, the world-famed Johannesburg, a city of massive edifices, many of architectural beauty that would not be out of place in any capital of Europe, a city of parks, and luxurious clubs, and magnificent hotels, and churches of all denominations, with trams and telephones and all other appliances of modern times. To it people migrated from Europe and America, with ideas and habits different from those of the people of the country. Every year saw the production of gold increasing, until it has now, in 1916, with that from Lydenburg and Rhodesia, reached nearly forty million pounds sterling, and South Africa furnishes more of that metal than any other country in the world.

The republic possessed also iron in the greatest abundance, coal of good quality and practically limitless in quantity, silver, copper, lead, and several other minerals.

The people brought into the country by the attraction of gold were mostly English-speakers, and between their interests and those of the farmers

there was a great difference. The farmers regarded the country as theirs, bought with the blood of their kindred, and converted by them from a waste, such as Moselekatse had made it, into a civilised state covered with peaceful homesteads and places for worshipping God. They were determined not to surrender their right of governing it to strangers, who, if admitted into the legislature, would certainly use their power to subvert the constitution, if not the independence of the republic. Before 1877 the franchise was probably the lowest in the world, but now it was raised so that foreigners, without renouncing their allegiance to the governments under which they were born and without long residence, could not become voters.

The burghers regarded the mineral wealth of the country also as something in which the state was entitled to share largely, and which should not therefore be removed without leaving in its stead public works and buildings and improvements of other kinds. With this view, taxation was so arranged as to bear much more heavily upon the mining than upon the farming industry. The great mass of the miners and speculators they regarded not as men who had come there to make the republic their permanent home, but as men who had come there to make as much money as possible in as short a time as possible, and then to return to their own countries to spend it. The gold, though plentiful, was not inexhaustible, and when the mines were worked out, these strangers would certainly not remain.

The newcomers, on the other hand, maintained that as they were the wealth producers, the persons who brought the revenue to a sum that would have been deemed fabulous before, they were entitled to representation in the legislature. They had many other grievances, among which was the discouragement of the use of the English language in schools, but all centred in want of representation.

A second volksraad was introduced by the government to deal principally with mining matters, and in it the newcomers were represented, but as its powers were subordinate to those of the first volksraad, it did not give much satisfaction.

At this time goldmining overshadowed all other matters in the South African Republic, still there were many changes going on besides that. A market in which prices unknown before for all kinds of farm produce could be obtained stimulated agriculture and made money plentiful. Railroads were constructed in different directions, and public works of various kinds were undertaken by the government. The various Bantu tribes and clans that had given so much trouble in earlier days were reduced to subjection and made to observe quietness and order. Among others the Baramapulana in Zoutpansberg were compelled to submit once again to the authority of the republic, so that the supremacy of the Europeans was undisputed throughout the whole country.

At this time the government was unfriendly to the Cape Colony, and by heavy taxation of colonial produce to encourage home industry and by an attempt to close the drifts of the Vaal river to

colonial trade in order to force importers to make use of Delagoa Bay, so many well-wishers in other parts of South Africa were turned into ill-wishers that the disaffected party at Johannesburg reckoned largely upon outside support.

They then entered into a conspiracy to overturn the government at Pretoria, which they believed could be easily effected. Their plan was to introduce rifles and ammunition secretly, with which to arm the workmen, and to seize by night the state arsenal at Pretoria, which was almost without means of defence, thus adding to their own supply of materials of war while depriving the government of its reserve stock. It is to be deplored that the right honourable Cecil J. Rhodes, then prime minister of the Cape Colony, made the single great mistake in his brilliant career by taking part in this conspiracy and promising to aid it with a strong contingent of Rhodesian police, that was at his disposal, as he was managing director of the chartered company. The police were accordingly massed near Mafeking under pretence that trouble was feared from the Bantu there, and Dr. L. S. Jameson, then administrator of Rhodesia, took immediate command of them.

But nothing was in readiness at Johannesburg when in the evening of Sunday, the 29th of December 1895, with almost inconceivable rashness Dr. Jameson crossed the border with five hundred mounted men and eleven pieces of artillery, to make his way to the goldfields, one hundred and seventy miles distant. He feared that if he delayed any longer the republican government would suspect his purpose and

prepare to oppose him, and further he believed that the leaders of the conspiracy were wrangling and wasting time, so that his presence was necessary to force them to take immediate action.

Intelligence of the invasion spread rapidly, and the farmers hastily saddled and rode, each one instinctively, to the hilly country about twelve miles west of Krugersdorp, through which Dr. Jameson would have to pass. On Tuesday evening he reached that part of the road, and skirmishing commenced. It continued until the morning of Thursday, the 2nd of January 1896, when his position was utterly hopeless, and he was obliged to surrender to Commandant Cronjé. He had lost eighteen men killed and about forty wounded.

On Monday morning, the 30th of December 1896, intelligence was received at Johannesburg that Dr. Jameson had set out, when the leaders of the plot at once recognised that all prospect of its success was destroyed. There was now no possibility of seizing the arsenal at Pretoria, and they could not arm more than three thousand men. They took possession of the hills commanding the city, however, and threw up entrenchments, enrolled a strong body of police, and assumed the local government, in hope that by putting on a bold face they might secure good terms from the authorities at Pretoria.

At the urgent request of the leaders of the revolt and with the concurrence of the president and the executive council, Sir Hercules Robinson, her Majesty's high commissioner, hastened to Pretoria, where he was informed that Johannesburg must lay

down its arms and surrender unconditionally before anything else could be determined, and this was accordingly done. Dr. Jameson and his band were then handed over to the high commissioner, who released the rank and file and sent the officers to England for trial, where they were sentenced to short terms of imprisonment. Sixty-four of the leaders of the plot were arrested and put upon their trial at Pretoria, where they received various sentences, which were afterwards commuted into payment of heavy fines.

The attempt to overturn the republican government had completely failed, and its evil consequences remained. Not the least of these was the retirement of Mr. Rhodes from public life, for he immediately resigned both the important positions he had previously held. That it increased President Kruger's distrust of Englishmen goes without saying, and that their antipathy to him was henceforward more bitter is equally obvious.

It has been stated that the policy of the republican government was unfriendly towards the British possessions in South Africa. But the unfriendliness was not confined to one side, though neither the colonial governments nor the colonial people were to blame in the matter. The long delay in connection with the transfer of Swaziland and the annexation to the British dominions in April and May 1895 of the territory between the Portuguese dominions and Zululand, whereby the republic was shut in from extending to the sea, cannot be ignored as weights in the other scale.

After the discovery of gold at Witwatersrand the revenue of the republic rose by leaps and bounds, and public works could be undertaken that were undreamed of before. A system of state-aided schools was established. Many new towns were laid out, and some of the buildings in them are among the best in South Africa. Good roads were made in various places, rivers were bridged, and lines of telegraph were constructed. A railway was laid down from Lourenço Marques to Pretoria, with a branch to Barberton. It was constructed from the Portuguese border by a company called the Netherlands South African, which was aided by the republican government. A line from Pretoria to Vereeniging on the Vaal river, passing through Johannesburg, was also constructed by the same company, with assistance from the Cape government. At Vereeniging it joined the trunk line through the Orange Free State, which branched off to the three chief ports of the Cape Colony. From Krugersdorp a railway was constructed through Johannesburg to the Springs, passing over a great coal mine which supplied fuel to the city and to the quartz-crushing machinery along a route of fifty-four miles. Another line connected Johannesburg with Natal, so that a large portion of the present network of railways was completed before the close of the nineteenth century.

At that time the country was governed by a president, elected for five years. After the restoration of independence Mr. S. J. Paul Kruger filled that office uninterruptedly. He was aided by an execu-

tive council, consisting of three heads of departments and two non-official members appointed by the first volksraad. For military purposes a commandant-general was elected by the burghers every ten years.

The legislative power was vested in two chambers, each consisting of twenty-four members, elected for four years. The first volksraad was by far the more important of the two. Its members were elected by burghers of European blood, either born in the republic or naturalised after a difficult probation. The second volksraad had very little power, being intended chiefly as an advisory body in matters connected with the mining industry, and its enactments being subject to review by the first volksraad. Its constituency was larger than that of the first volksraad, as foreigners could make themselves eligible as voters after a residence of two years.

Dr. Jameson's raid at the close of 1895 caused the government of the republic to devote a very large part of its resources to the increase of its military strength. It had not been neglectful in that respect before, but now large sums of money were devoted to the importation of munitions of war and to the construction of forts, until the whole of the burghers were armed with the most perfect modern weapons, Johannesburg, with its people utterly defenceless, lay commanded by the great guns of a battery, and Pretoria was fortified as if it had been in the condition of Metz or Strassburg.

This, which seemed to the republican government to be merely a prudent measure to maintain its inde-

pendence if again attacked, was regarded by Great Britain in another light. Here was a state making itself the first military power in South Africa, a position that could not be conceded to it if English prestige was to be preserved. Hence the British garrisons were strengthened, and a word that had not been pronounced for thirteen years was used to denote the relationship of the republic to the British government, the word "suzerainty."

By far the greatest benefit that the burghers of the republic regarded as gained by them in the substitution of the convention of 1884 for that of 1881 was the elimination of that word, with whatever it meant or might be made to mean, for nobody could define its exact purport. From the moment it was used again—in 1897—the difficulty of negotiation was increased a hundredfold, for to the mind of the South African burghers of Dutch descent it seemed as if Great Britain had resolved to withdraw from the agreement she had entered into in 1884, and by some means or other to destroy the independence of the northern republic.

In Johannesburg the English residents were seething with discontent. Apart from the humiliation caused by their want of success in 1895-6, and their being deprived of arms, they had many grievances. They had not even a real municipal government, while the want of proper sanitary arrangements caused not only much discomfort, but also much sickness, and a death-rate considerably in excess of what under other circumstances it would have been. This was due to the resolution of the government to

withhold even limited power from all except burghers of the state.

Then there was the subject of language in public schools frequented by English children. The government, forgetting what resentment this question had caused among the Dutch colonists when an attempt was made to force the use of English upon them, made Dutch the principal medium of instruction, and although this rule had been relaxed, the bitter feeling it engendered could not easily pass away.

A system of granting monopolies—especially one for the manufacture of dynamite, which raised the price of that necessary article in mining to an exorbitant rate—was another grievance, though perhaps not much felt except by the proprietary classes.

Taxation was so adjusted as to fall chiefly upon those inhabitants who were not burghers, and by it the cost of living was greatly increased.

The means of obtaining the right of voting for the head of the state and members of the first *volksraad* were so restricted that practically Englishmen could not obtain that privilege.

To those accustomed to the highly trained and splendidly conducted body of men who preserve order in English cities, the police appeared to be a mere rabble, and many of its members were believed to be corrupt to the last degree. This vice was also said to extend to not a few men in higher positions.

Petitions had been sent to the *volksraad* asking for more liberal treatment, and had been rejected—even worse, had been received with taunts by individual members.

Without going further, a position existed here which enabled men of influence to bend the masses easily to their will. An Englishman not allowed to carry arms, with the great guns of a fortress frowning upon him, paying taxes without being represented in the government, unable to send his children to a public school, liable to abuse from an ignorant and corrupt policeman, taunted by an equally ignorant member of the *volksraad* when petitioning for redress: such a man needed very little persuasion to induce him to follow any one in opposition to the rulers of the land.

There is in brief one side of the question; but it must be looked at also from the opposite direction. To the foregoing observations the government at Pretoria would reply as follows:—

In no other country in the world is a foreign language the medium of instruction in state-aided schools. Dutch is the language of the South African Republic, and yet English children are taught in their own tongue up to a certain standard.

The monopolies complained of and the high import duties on all articles that can be produced in the republic are to encourage home industries. Other countries—notably the United States—have protective tariffs for the same purpose.

The system of taxation is not unfair. The burghers have military duties to perform without payment, which fully compensate for the smaller amount of money they contribute.

The right of voting carries with it duties which the great majority of Englishmen would not perform.

The privilege cannot be given without adoption of the burghers' burdens as well as their rights.

The police are the best that can be obtained, and it is unreasonable to expect from them the demeanour of those of London.

If corruption existed to the extent that is stated there would be no reason for further opposition, because all that is asked for could be bought. The existence of corruption in high places implies the existence of corrupters as well.

The taunting language of a few individuals should not be regarded as an offence committed by a community, neither has it been confined to one side only.

Nearly all other Europeans are satisfied, and submit without demur to the government of the country; it is only Englishmen who complain.

That was the other side of the question, and every reader can decide for himself as to the merits of the respective cases. But at the back of each stood a principle which was really the governing factor of the whole position. According to the authorities at Pretoria the South African Republic was a sovereign state subordinate to Great Britain only to the extent that treaties with foreign powers were subject to the queen's approval before they could be put in force, and they rested this claim upon the wording of the convention of 1884. They therefore maintained that they had the same right with regard to Englishmen in the republic as, for instance, Germany exercised with regard to Englishmen in Metz or Berlin, and whether it was prudent or not for them to exercise

such power was for them to decide, the fact that the number of Englishmen in the German cities was exceedingly small in comparison with the whole population, whereas the number on the goldfields approached that of the burghers themselves, not affecting the question of right. According to this view Great Britain could interfere only under international law on behalf of any of her subjects who believed themselves to be suffering wrongs, in precisely the same way that France or Germany could.

On the other hand, Great Britain maintained that the republic was really a subordinate state, moving in the political sphere not as a primary but as a secondary body, and not justified in attempting to carry out a policy opposed to that of the power whose interests and responsibilities in South Africa were immeasurably greater.

That was the real question at issue, and neither side would recede from its position by a hair's-breadth. The claim to suzerainty made on behalf of Great Britain in 1897 exemplified this in a striking manner.

The matter was brought to a point by a petition to her Majesty the queen from the great body of Englishmen on the goldfields, asking for interference on their behalf. President Steyn, of the Orange Free State, invited Sir Alfred Milner, governor of the Cape Colony, and President Kruger, the head of the South African Republic, to meet in conference at Bloemfontein, in hope that an amicable arrangement could be made. The governor proposed that all foreigners

should be admitted to full burgher rights after a residence of five years in the republic, and that they should be allowed a certain number of representatives in the volksraad. The president declined, as he believed the concession would jeopardise the independence of the republic, and the conference came to an end.

By independence President Kruger meant not only the retention of a separate flag and administration, but the retention of power by the Dutch-speaking burghers of the country. To him and to them the conversion of the state into an English republic, in which they would form a mere party—possibly in time a mere minority—signified a loss of independence quite as complete as if the four-coloured flag should be replaced by the British ensign.

The volksraad then passed an act to admit foreigners to the franchise after a residence of seven years and to increase the number of representatives for the districts in which they resided; but this did not satisfy the British government.

Negotiations, however, were continued, and at one stage an offer was made in practical agreement with the governor's proposal, provided the suzerainty claim was withdrawn. This was declined, but no exact and formal demand embodying everything that Great Britain required was presented in its place, and the government at Pretoria was left to believe that no matter what it conceded short of independence some fresh claim upon it would be made.

Meantime troops were being massed on the borders of the state, chiefly in Natal, and an enormous force was in preparation to be sent to South Africa. A great proportion of the British press was advocating war as the only means by which the supremacy of England could be maintained. On the 7th of October 1899 the British reserves were called out, which was a practical intimation that military force was to be resorted to. As such it was received by the governments of the two republics, then in the closest alliance, and on the 9th an ultimatum was handed to the British agent at Pretoria, demanding the removal of the forces from the border and an engagement that the troops then on the way out should not be landed in South Africa, failure of compliance before the evening of the 11th to be regarded as a declaration of war. The object of the ultimatum was to bring on hostilities, which were then inevitable, before the arrival of the main body of the army, and thus open a way for the mastery of the troops in Natal. The reply of the British government was the recall of its agent, and at five o'clock in the evening of the 11th of October 1899 a state of war existed between Great Britain and the two republics.

XXXIII.

THE TRANSVAAL AND ORANGE FREE STATE FROM 1899 TO 1910.

IT is not necessary to enter into the details of the war, which would occupy too much space in a book like this, and of which there are scores of volumes for any one desiring complete information to refer to. At its commencement the two republics could put sixty thousand combatants into the field with the foreigners that joined them, and during its course they were aided by a few thousand of their kinsmen in the Cape Colony, whose sympathies with them were so strong as to overcome the fear of danger that such action involved. But beyond these they had no reserves, for that number included every boy that could carry a rifle as well as every greybeard capable of enduring the fatigue of a campaign. When any were lost therefore by death or capture they could not be replaced, so that attrition became the determining factor in the strife. Before the conclusion of peace thirty-one thousand four hundred combatants had been captured and sent abroad, three thousand eight hundred had been killed in

action or had died of wounds, some ten thousand had either abandoned the cause in utter despair of success or had tendered their submission and promised fidelity to the British government, and only fifteen thousand remained in the field at last. Of those who had submitted, some, who were called by friends the national scouts, by opponents the handsoppers, actually fought on the British side and from their knowledge of the country and of the habits of their countrymen were of great service to the cause they had adopted.

On the other side Great Britain employed considerably over three hundred thousand fighting men under her ablest generals, Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener, and without difficulty replaced her losses : nine thousand killed, thirteen thousand deaths from disease, and seventy-five thousand wounded and invalided. She was supported by her great over-sea dependencies too, for as soon as her supremacy in South Africa was endangered, regiments from Canada and Australia hastened to her aid. They were Canadian troops that forced the first large commando in the Free State to surrender.

The great distance of the scene of operations from the coast made it necessary to employ a very large number of men to guard the lines of communication, and also made the expense of supplying the forces with food and war material enormous, the cost of the war to the imperial treasury being at least £250,000,000. But this sum represents only a fraction of what the war really cost Great Britain, for the creation of a powerful German navy received

from it a tremendous stimulus. The want of a navy alone prevented Germany's interference in a quarrel that might have given her the dominion of a very large part of the continent, and at once associations to promote the building of a fleet of enormous strength sprang up throughout that empire. Very largely to the South African war of 1899-1902 Germany owes her possession of a navy second only in fighting strength among all those of the world to that of England.

But if the cost of the war to Great Britain was enormous, to the two republics it was even more in comparison, so great was the destruction of property, so widespread the impoverishment of the people. There were whole districts in which hardly a farmhouse was left standing and not a single ox or sheep remained. Nearly all the women and children were in concentration camps, where over twenty-six thousand of them perished from sickness and diet they were unaccustomed to, and more than half of the men still alive were prisoners in distant lands.

In modern times there had been no such instance of prolonged endurance of suffering and of resistance to overwhelming force, but at last even the coarsest food was almost exhausted, and the horses were all worn out. Most of the men of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State felt that they could do no more, though some of them were still averse to submission and the women encouraged them to hold on till death. They had hoped that some European power would have interfered on their behalf, and had sent

delegates to try to obtain assistance, but without success. President Kruger himself had gone on a like mission, leaving Mr. Schalk W. Burger to act during his absence ; but though he had been received—especially in Holland—with warm sympathy, no power would give more than that. The plain fact had to be faced that to prolong the strife could only entail more suffering, possibly the entire destruction of the people of the two republics, without the slightest hope of ultimate success.

In January 1902 the government of Holland requested the secretary of state for foreign affairs in London to permit the republican delegates to return to South Africa to consult the leaders of their people with a view of bringing the war to an end, and then return to Europe with the information they should gather. As this implied mediation, Lord Lansdowne declined to do so, and stated that the South African leaders could enter into direct communication with the commander-in-chief of the British forces, who had already been instructed to forward immediately any offers he might receive for the consideration of his Majesty's government.

This led to a correspondence between Acting President Burger and Lord Kitchener, which resulted in safe conducts being granted to the principal men on the republican side to meet at Klerksdorp and confer together as to terms of peace. Accordingly, on the 9th of April 1902 there assembled Messrs. S. W. Burger, acting president, F. W. Reitz, state secretary, Louis Botha, commandant-

general, J. H. de la Rey, commandant, and six others, forming the government of the South African Republic, and M. T. Steyn, president, C. R. de Wet, chief commandant, J. B. M. Hertzog, commandant, and four others, forming the government of the Orange Free State.

On the 11th of April the two governments requested Lord Kitchener to grant them a personal interview, and on his consenting they went to Pretoria, and proposed to enter into a customs, postal, telegraph, and railway union with the two British colonies, to grant the English language equal rights with the Dutch in schools, and that there should be an amnesty on both sides. This proposal was communicated by telegraph to England, and a reply was sent that his Majesty's government could not entertain any proposals that were based on the continued independence of the former republics. The imperial authorities regarded them as extinct, because Lord Roberts, on the 24th of May 1900, had proclaimed the Orange Free State, and on the 1st of September of the same year the South African Republic, British possessions.

The republican governments having no power to agree to the surrender of independence, it was arranged with Lord Kitchener that thirty representatives should be elected by the people of each state purposely to instruct them how to act, and that they should meet at Vereeniging on the 15th of May, where the members of the two governments would await them. When they assembled the greatest diversity of opinion was expressed, but after a time

it was resolved by a majority to send a commission to Pretoria to offer the Witwatersrand and Swaziland fully to Great Britain, to admit a British protectorate, with the entire control of foreign relations, over the remainder of the country, and if this offer should not be accepted, to ascertain what terms would be granted.

As members of this commission Commandant-General Botha, Chief Commandant De Wet, and Commandants De la Rey, Smuts, and Hertzog were appointed. They proceeded to Pretoria, where Lords Kitchener and Milner rejected their proposal, and the following terms, which the British representatives said could not be altered, were submitted to them:—

The burgher forces in the field immediately to lay down their arms, to surrender all material of war, to acknowledge King Edward VII as their sovereign, and to desist from further opposition to his Majesty's authority. The burghers sent abroad as prisoners of war to be brought back to their former residences. The burghers not to be deprived of personal liberty or property, and no civil or criminal proceedings to be taken against them for anything done in accordance with the rules of war. The Dutch language to be taught in schools where the parents desired it, and to be used where necessary in courts of law. The possession of rifles for defence to be permitted on taking out licenses. Military administration on the earliest possible date to be followed by civil government, and as soon as circumstances would permit representative institutions to be introduced, ending

in responsible parliamentary government. The question of conferring the franchise on natives not to be determined before the introduction of self-government. No special taxation to be laid on landed property to assist in defraying the cost of the war. His Majesty's government to place £3,000,000 at the disposal of a repatriation commission, and to permit all notes and requisition receipts given by burgher officers in the field to be paid out of it. Where urgently needed to re-establish individuals on the land, money to be lent without interest for two years, to be repaid thereafter on easy terms.

The commission returned to Vereeniging, and on the 29th of May delivered a report to the above effect. Earnest discussion followed, a few of the representatives declaring themselves in favour of continuing the war rather than consent to the loss of independence; but the good sense of the majority prevailed, and on the 31st it was resolved by fifty-four votes against six to empower the members of the two governments to accept these terms. Those gentlemen immediately proceeded to Pretoria, and at eleven o'clock that evening a document embodying them was signed in Lord Kitchener's residence by them and by Lords Kitchener and Milner. Mr. Steyn's health had completely broken down, and two days before he had formally resigned his office, when Chief Commandant Christian de Wet was appointed acting president, and in that capacity he signed the document.

In this manner the two republics came to an end, and thereafter they took the status of British colonies,

The position of those individuals in the Cape Colony and Natal who had assisted the republics was a matter that affected the early proceedings, as they could not be abandoned without dishonour. Lords Kitchener and Milner declined to make any written stipulations concerning them, but gave a verbal assurance that those of them—three in number—who were accused of committing crimes not permissible by the laws of war, though they would be tried, should not suffer the death penalty, and all the others would merely be deprived of the right to vote at parliamentary or municipal elections. In point of fact, even this punishment was only temporary, for in 1906 the Cape parliament passed an act conferring the franchise on them again.

One good effect of the war was that it created in England a feeling of greater respect for the Dutch-speaking farmers than had existed before. They had proved themselves valiant, if stubborn, opponents, in many instances they had acted chivalrously, and, in sporting language, they had played the game fairly and kept it up well. For such a people the feeling could only be one of admiration. Co-operation between them and English-speaking people now became possible, for such prejudice as was caused by the misrepresentations of former times could no longer exist.

Immediately after the terms of peace were signed the fullest confidence in each other was shown by those who had just before been enemies, and all combined in a strenuous effort to repair as much as possible the damage that war had wrought. It was

a difficult task to undertake. A very large proportion of the adult males of the late republics were prisoners in Ceylon, St. Helena, and the West Indies, and these had to be brought back to their former homes in South Africa. Their families were in concentration camps, their homesteads had been destroyed, and their cattle of all kinds had disappeared. If they had been left to themselves very many of the country people of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State must have perished; but with the assistance of the British government they were able to commence agriculture and cattle breeding again.

Of course they had a very hard struggle before them, but they faced the position so bravely that ten years later the traces of the tremendous conflict they had gone through could hardly be observed. Great Britain did not limit her assistance to the terms of the agreement of peace, but expended very much larger sums than those mentioned in that document in endeavouring to restore prosperity to the country. This was necessary, as unfortunately 1903 was a year of drought, when no crops could be raised, besides which disease destroyed many of the cattle imported. The kindly feeling then exhibited by the new authorities had an excellent effect upon the bulk of the people, and hope for better days was felt.

To promote gold-mining, from which alone a revenue could be expected for some time to come, Chinese labourers were introduced. Bantu were not then to be obtained in sufficient numbers, so Lord Milner hit upon this expedient. They were engaged

for a fixed time under contracts, and were to be sent back to China when the terms of service expired. At one time there were over fifty thousand of them working at the mines. But a more undesirable class of labourers could not have been found, and as fortunately a majority of the English people chose to regard them as slaves, while by every one in South Africa except by the mine-owners they were objected to, their further introduction was quickly stopped, and those already here were sent back as soon as their contracts would admit of it. In 1910 the last of them had gone, and Bantu labourers were again solely depended upon to do the rough work of mining.

After a brief interval, so brief that complete order was hardly restored, came an act of unexampled generosity: the grant by Great Britain of full parliamentary government with a responsible ministry to both the new crown colonies. This was indeed provided for in the conditions of peace, but no time was fixed, and only the most liberal interpretation of the clause could have brought it into effect at so early a date as 1906. It was certainly the wisest thing that could be done. It placed the leaders of the men recently in arms against Great Britain in political power, as had been foreseen, for General Botha became prime minister of the Transvaal, but it turned them into firm adherents of connection with the widespread British realm.

It was now the general opinion that even more liberty was enjoyed than would have been the case under the proposal made at Vereeniging to come

under British protection, and the revenue derived from the goldfields was not lost, as it would have been under that scheme of settlement. There were indeed some fractious individuals—in what country in the world are there none?—who remained discontented, but they formed a small minority, and were not so much opposed to British sovereignty as to the policy of those of their own people who were willing to work cordially with the English colonists for the common good of all.

So matters went on in the Transvaal and in the Orange Free State, without the occurrence of anything requiring special notice, until 1910, when an event of supreme importance to South Africa that will be related in the next chapter took place.

XXXIV.

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1910 TO 1916.

THE period of depression that followed the war had not entirely passed away when the minds of men throughout South Africa turned towards the desirability of closer union between the colonies over which the British flag was flying. The interests of these colonies were the same, and they were inhabited by closely related people, so that there was no reason why they should not become a single state now that the grant of responsible government to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State made voluntary union possible. Instead of pursuing four different policies with regard to the Bantu, as had previously been the case, a single system, dealing with those people kindly and justly, but firmly, could be carried out, and as this was, and would long remain, the most important question to be dealt with everywhere in South Africa, the advantage of union of the European governments would be great.

The labour of devoted missionaries during nearly a century, coupled with the exertions of the ruling authorities and of the white people generally, had

effected great improvement in the condition of a large number of the Bantu, but had not by any means eradicated their desire to be free of European control. The Bambata rebellion in Natal and the Ethiopian movement—or attempt to form independent church communities—elsewhere were plain manifestations of this feeling. The Bantu were multiplying rapidly, and in all parts were pressing upon the ground occupied by their white neighbours. No other oversea possession of Great Britain had so difficult a question as this to deal with, and a stronger government than any of those then existing was needed for the purpose.

But this was only one, though far the most pressing one, of the many reasons that caused the people of the four colonies to desire to be united as a single community. It was evident also that one strong government would command greater respect abroad than several weak administrations jarring with, and sometimes opposing, each other.

After some preliminary arrangements, in 1908 the different parliaments appointed delegates, who met first at Durban and then at Capetown, and after much discussion agreed upon the form of the new constitution. It differed from that of either Canada or Australia, inasmuch as it was not a federation of provinces, leaving to each a local government, but actual union, like that between England and Scotland, that it was intended to bring about. There was indeed to be a council in each of the existing colonies, thenceforth to be termed provinces, provided for, but it was wholly subservient to the general parliament,

was in fact little more than a magnified divisional council such as then existed in the Cape Colony.

The constitution thus formed was submitted to each of the four parliaments early in 1909, and was approved of by those of the Cape Colony, Transvaal, and Orange Free State. In Natal, where a section of the people, fearing the loss of English predominance, would have preferred federation to unification, it was submitted to a plebiscite, and was adopted by a majority of votes. It was then brought before the British parliament, and being approved of, it received the signature of the king, and on the 31st of May 1910—the eighth anniversary of the conclusion of peace between Great Britain and the former republics—it came into effect.

Under this constitution there is a governor-general, who is appointed by the king, and who is also high commissioner for those parts of South Africa not included in the Union. Lord Gladstone was the first to fill this office and Lord Buxton the second.

There is a house of assembly, consisting of one hundred and twenty-one members—51 from the Cape province, 36 from the Transvaal, 17 from Natal, and 17 from the Orange Free State. They are elected for five years, each province retaining its old franchise, so that in the Cape province coloured people can still vote, but only Europeans can be elected. There is provision for a periodical rearrangement of the electoral districts, as the population may increase in some localities and diminish in others.

As a check upon hasty legislation, more than for any other purpose, there is an upper house, termed the senate, consisting of forty members. How it is to be chosen in future has not yet been decided. In 1910 eight members were elected by each of the four parliaments then existing, and eight were nominated by the governor-general in council, to hold their seats for ten years. Four of the nominated members were men specially qualified to look after the interests of the Bantu, by their intimate acquaintance with the habits and wishes of those people. The senate has the power of delaying, but not of preventing legislation, for in cases of disagreement between it and the assembly, after it has twice rejected any measure the question is decided by a majority of votes in a joint sitting of both houses.

Each member of parliament receives £400 per annum and is entitled to travel free on the railways. The English and Dutch languages have equal rights in parliament, as well as in the public offices and courts of law.

It was a difficult matter to decide where the capital of the Union was to be, as each of three of the provinces laid claim to it. It became necessary to make a compromise, and so Pretoria is the administrative capital, and there magnificent public offices have been built. Capetown is the legislative capital, where only a new wing was needed to make the parliament house suitable for the accommodation of the larger number of members, and at Bloemfontein the supreme court of appeal holds

its sessions. This is generally admitted not to be a satisfactory state of things, but it was the best arrangement that could be made in 1909.

The first session of the Union parliament was opened in Capetown by his royal highness the Duke of Connaught, who came to South Africa for the special purpose, on the 4th of December 1910. The ministry contained men whose names were of world-wide reputation. General Louis Botha was, and is still, prime minister, General (now Lieutenant-General in the British army) J. C. Smuts was minister for the interior, and Mr. J. W. Sauer (since deceased) was minister for railways and telegraphs. The cabinet consisted of ten ministers. Several changes caused by death, resignation, or disagreement in policy have since taken place, but practically the ministry is still the same. Mr. F. W. Reitz became president of the senate.

A large portion of the time since 1910 has been devoted by the Union parliament to bringing into uniformity various laws of the former colonies on several subjects in which they differed, and, of course, to financial matters. Railway construction and other internal improvements have also occupied much attention, and a great deal has been done to promote agriculture. At least three other measures deserve to be specially mentioned. One of these is the creation of an army by the Defence Force Act of 1912, which makes it compulsory on all healthy European males, with few exceptions, between sixteen and sixty-one years of age, to render military service in any part of South Africa



Photo]

GENERAL BOTHA.

[Topical

when required. It provides for a permanent standing force of five regiments of mounted riflemen, with artillery attached, and requires men twenty-one years of age to commence a course of training, to last four years, unless they volunteer to do so when younger. They are formed into classes of those to be first called out and of first and second reserves, and are distributed in certain proportions among different branches of the service. In 1914 over forty thousand young men were placed on active service in the field, without any difficulty or delay, enabling Great Britain to withdraw every imperial soldier from the country, and providing an ample force to garrison the towns on the coast and to undertake the conquest of German South-West Africa. For the first time in our history on a large scale English and Dutch speaking men lived together in the same camp, drilled together, formed close friendships, lay side by side in the hospitals, and, as the casualty lists showed, shed their blood together for the same cause. This is hopeful indeed for the future of South Africa.

Another measure is an attempt to solve the Bantu difficulty, or at least one element in it, by defining certain areas in which it shall not be lawful for Europeans to purchase or own land, and other areas in which the same law shall apply to blacks. But whether segregation is possible or not has yet to be proved, and under any circumstances there will be great difficulty in carrying it out.

The creation in 1916 of three universities—two of them teaching—to take the place of the old

purely examining university of the Cape of Good Hope, is also a measure of importance. They may not all be urgently needed, but there was no other way of satisfying rival interests. The South African college has now acquired the dignity of being termed the University of Capetown, the Victoria college has become the University of Stellenbosch, and the South African University will be domiciled at Pretoria.

The population of the Union in 1913 consisted of :

	Europeans.	Bantu.	Other.
Cape province	583,227	1,551,854	482,763
Transvaal province	470,175	1,327,731	49,694
Natal province	98,439	969,830	156,009
Orange Free State	187,138	366,950	30,196
	<u>1,338,979</u>	<u>4,216,365</u>	<u>718,662</u>

The last column covers the Indians in Natal, the Malays in the Cape province, and the mixed breeds, Hottentots, and progeny of slaves wherever living.

The area of the Union is 479,114 square miles, equal to a square 692 miles each way. Of this great extent of surface, the Cape province covers 276,565 square miles, Transvaal 111,196 square miles, Natal 36,173 square miles, and the Orange Free State 55,180 square miles.

The Union government took over the public debts of the four provinces, which amounted altogether in round numbers to £110,000,000. Chiefly owing to war expenses, that amount has since greatly increased, and now, in June 1916, it stands at £142,851,000, which is still being added to.

The greater portion of this sum, however, is invested in railways, telegraphs, harbours, and other public works, which bring in a fair return for the capital expended in their construction, and which are necessary for the proper development of the country.

On the 1st of January 1916 there were in the Union 8,874 miles of railway belonging to government open for traffic, besides a line for military purposes, 88 miles in length, from Upington to Kalkfontein, and one, 20 miles in length, from Walvis Bay to the mouth of the Swakop river. These lines, with the stations and rolling stock, had cost £88,494,328. In the Cape province there were 3,677 miles with a gauge of 42 inches and 287 miles with a gauge of 24 inches; in Transvaal 2,465 miles of the former and 279 of the latter; in the Orange Free State 1,265 miles of the former; and in Natal 997 miles of the former and 156 of the latter. In addition to the above the government controlled 50 miles leased from the Natal-Zululand Railway Company, and there were 496 miles owned by companies, making altogether 9,528 miles open in the Union.

On harbours £12,326,915 had been expended.

There were about 15,000 miles of telegraph, with nearly 50,000 miles of wire, in the Union.

The war which broke out in 1914 had such a disturbing effect upon South Africa that any statistics of trade since 1913 would be misleading. The figures given here are those for the year ending 31st of December 1913, and represent the normal

condition of the Union. The exports of that year were :

Gold	£37,374,553
Diamonds	11,389,807
Coal	1,390,908
Copper	507,856
Tin	436,550
Silver	102,471
Wool	5,719,288
Ostrich feathers	2,953,587
Hides and skins	2,008,857
Mohair	876,255
Wattle bark	309,329
Maize	65,169
Fruit	51,858
Buchu	32,071
Whale oil	122,692
Animals... ..	38,106
Wine	11,515
Other articles	74,678
	<hr/>
	£63,465,550

Of the exports £59,492,629 went to Great Britain and £3,972,921 to foreign countries.

In the same year the imports from the British dominions were valued at £25,566,314 and from foreign countries at £12,842,284.

The importance attained by Durban is shown by no less than £12,252,845 worth of goods being received from abroad at that port.

Through Delagoa Bay the imports for the Union were valued at £5,329,114. The balance of exports over imports amounted to £25,056,952, which covered the interest on the public debt, £4,911,948, and paid the dividends on mining shares owned abroad.

The revenue of the Union in 1913 was £15,805,076.

XXXV.

RHODESIA SOUTH OF THE ZAMBESI.

THE vast territory between the Zambesi river on the north, the Union of South Africa on the south, the Portuguese possessions on the east, and the Betsuanaland Protectorate on the west, is called Rhodesia, after the man through whose ability and energy it exists as a British possession. It came to be very thinly inhabited in exactly the same manner as the country south of the Limpopo river before 1836. When Moselekatse was driven to the north by the emigrant farmers he commenced to destroy the tribes there just as he had destroyed the Betsuana, and Lobengula, his son and successor, continued the murderous practice. Large areas were utterly wasted, and the remnants of the tribes retreated to the hills, where they made their kraals among rocks in places difficult of access. These situations, if they could not be defended, offered facilities for escape when the Matabele bands approached in their yearly raids. By those terrible invaders the lives of the Makalaka and Mashona were held in no more esteem than the lives of so many antelopes. The ravagers built

military kraals in the best situations, and at Bulawayo, the principal of these, the chief himself resided. This was the condition of the country down to the year 1890.

According to modern ideas it is outrageous to enter a country occupied by an inferior race and take possession of anything in it by the right of the strong hand, but it is perfectly legitimate and moral to induce a chief to attach a mark to a document, the full purport of which he is incapable of comprehending, and thus securing under the name of a concession whatever is desired. On the 30th of November 1888 Messrs. Rudd, Maguire, and Thompson, after considerable negotiation, obtained the mark of Lobengula to a document giving them the right to search for and extract minerals in the territory under his control. Other concessions were obtained by different individuals, and ultimately all were united, when their proprietors became the British South Africa Company.

To enable this great association to carry out its projects a charter was applied for, which was granted by the imperial government on the 29th of October 1889. By it a Company was created with a capital of one million pounds sterling, and with a board of eight directors, three appointed by the crown and five elected by the shareholders. Power was given to it to appoint and remove officers, except judges and magistrates, within the sphere of its operations, and to issue ordinances for common purposes. Judges and magistrates were to be appointed by the high commissioner, who was also to proclaim important

laws, in both instances on the recommendation of the Company. Mr. Cecil John Rhodes, the leading spirit in the enterprise, was appointed the managing director.

The Company's first object was to take possession of some commanding positions in the country, and for this purpose to send in a strong armed force. Dr. Leander Starr Jameson was directed to proceed to Bulawayo to arrange matters. He had been there before, in 1888, when he had cured Lobengula of an attack of gout, and he had thus acquired much influence. The chief gave his consent to a body of Europeans entering Mashonaland, but it was evident that the Matabele army—especially the young regiments—could not be trusted to let the expedition pass onward unmolested. The leaders of the pioneer force therefore resolved to take a circuitous route, so as to avoid the neighbourhood of the principal military kraals and to do away as much as possible with the danger of a collision.

The pioneer party left the Cape Colony in March 1890, and on the 12th of September reached the spot where now the town of Salisbury stands. Dr. Jameson then explored the country to the eastward, and ascertained that with little difficulty a railroad could be constructed from Salisbury to Fontesville on the Pungwe river, a stream that is navigable for large lighters from that place to Port Beira, an excellent harbour at the mouth.

Forts Tuli, Victoria, Charter, and Salisbury—forming a line of posts from south to north—were built and occupied by the Company's police, the pioneers,

consisting of one hundred and ninety-two young men, dispersed in search of gold-bearing reefs, and numerous small parties joined them from the Cape Colony and the two republics. But as these parties did not take with them a sufficient quantity of food or medical requisites, and as the summer of 1890-91 was exceptionally wet, they suffered great discomfort, and many died of fever brought on by exposure and want.

The occupation of Mashonaland by white people in this manner was not at all to Lobengula's liking. He had anticipated that a few men would have gone there to look for gold, and here they were in hundreds, occupying strong posts and acting as if they were the real masters of the country. Still he did not wish to quarrel with them, for he appreciated the value of his subsidies. He chose rather to create a rival interest to theirs, and without any conception of the consequences of what he was doing, he granted to Mr. Edward Lippert a concession to dispose of farms, townships, and pasture lands within the sphere of operations of the British South Africa Company, the agreement to hold good for one hundred years.

When this important concession was purchased by the Chartered Company, whose capital was now doubled, the sovereign power in Mashonaland in name as well as in reality was claimed. That territory was thenceforth regarded as embracing the whole plateau from the Portuguese border on the east to the Shashi streamlet, which flows in a southerly direction to the Sabi river, and the Umnyati, a tributary of the Zambesi, on the west. These streams

were thereafter commonly termed the boundary, west of which Europeans were not permitted to search for gold and Lobengula's right to do as he pleased was neither disputed nor interfered with. East of it his rights were regarded by the Company as altogether extinguished, though neither he nor his army acquiesced in this view of the matter.

The Company now considered its hold upon Mashonaland so secure that it could disband the greater number of its police and trust for defence to volunteers and burghers. The European population was increasing, and as there were ample supplies of every kind in the country there was hardly any sickness in the summer of 1891-92. On the 20th of February 1892 the telegraph was opened from Capetown to Salisbury. Farming was tested with good results, and the limits of the part that is healthy for Europeans were soon ascertained. Many appliances of modern times, including even printing presses, were introduced. In July 1892 the first building lots were sold by auction in the villages of Salisbury, Victoria, and Umtali, when high prices were realised. Prospecting for gold was extensively carried on, and mines worked in ages long gone by were reopened and found to contain quartz that would pay for crushing, though until the heavy machinery required for that process could be brought in by rail it was not possible to do more than make experiments.

Meantime some farmers in the South African Republic obtained a concession of land from a petty chief in the country, and attempted to move in and

form a settlement on their own account, but were met at the Limpopo by a strong force of police, who required them either to turn back or to proceed on their journey as subjects of the Chartered Company. *Some of them accepted the Company's terms* and moved on, the others drew back, as President Kruger disowned their action and they were without support.

Nothing further of much interest occurred until April 1893, when the telegraph wire was cut by the people of a Mashona kraal near Fort Victoria, and a piece of considerable length was carried away. Dr. Jameson, the administrator for the Chartered Company, imposed a fine upon the offenders, which was paid by them with cattle stolen from the Matabele. As soon as this became known Lobengula was informed that his cattle would be restored to him, but his indignation towards the Mashona was too great to be appeased, and he directed a division of his army to punish them. Messengers were sent to tell the Europeans that they need not be alarmed, for no harm would be done to them. But when, on the 9th of July, Mashona fugitives came panting into Victoria with *information that their relatives were being murdered*, when the ferocious Matabele warriors pursued their victims into the township and stabbed to death servants before the eyes of their masters, English blood was unequal to the task of submission. Accordingly protection was given within the fort to as many Mashona as requested shelter.

When the raid commenced Dr. Jameson was at Salisbury, but as soon as the wire conveyed the

intelligence to him he left for Victoria. Upon his arrival he found that the European prospectors and farmers had abandoned the open country, and that the Matabele were still destroying Mashona kraals in the neighbourhood. He therefore sent for the indunas, with whom on the 18th he had a short conference. He informed them that within an hour they must retire towards Bulawayo, or he would drive them away. The indunas would make no promise, but said they could not control their young men, though in point of fact they withdrew most of their force, and when a couple of hours later Captain Lendy with a small party of mounted men was sent out to drive away any who were not retreating, he found on the Victoria commonage only about three hundred Matabele, who were besieging a hill upon which some Mashona were trying to defend themselves. Between these and Captain Lendy's party a collision occurred. The Matabele were driven away, and were followed about nine miles, losing nine or ten men in the pursuit.

It was then ascertained that the European inhabitants of the country had not been altogether unmo-
lested, as a farmhouse had been pillaged, and some hundreds of cattle of different kinds had been driven off. No European, however, had been harmed in person.

A peaceful settlement of this matter was impossible. On the one hand Lobengula dared not punish his warriors for what they had done and could not give security against a repetition of the offence, and on the other the white men in the territory with a

single voice declared that they could not continue their ordinary pursuits if they were to remain exposed to Matabele raids.

But neither party was prepared for immediate war. In June Lobengula had sent a strong division of his army across the Zambesi against the Barotse chief Lewanika, so that he was for the time being crippled. The British South Africa Company had no horses and no troops even for the protection of its magazine of arms at Tuli. But both parties recognised that a contest was inevitable, and without loss of time began to make preparations for it.

The day that Lobengula's people returned from Fort Victoria and reported what had occurred the chief sent messengers to recall his army from the Barotse country, and he refused thereafter to receive his monthly subsidy of £100 from the Company. When a demand was made upon him for compensation for the damage done to the farmhouse and for the cattle taken from the white people, he declined to give it until the Mashona who were protected by the Europeans were surrendered to him with their families and all their belongings. He and his indunas displayed the utmost insensibility to any argument that the Mashona and Makalaka had rights of person and property, and they could not be brought to acknowledge that those miserable creatures were in that respect in any way different from the chief's cattle.

The high commissioner was apprehensive that if open war was commenced between the Chartered Company and the Matabele it might not be possible

to prevent it spreading to the British Protectorate, and he therefore exerted himself to the utmost to restore concord. The Company was prevented from pressing the claim for compensation, and was limited to the defence of its occupied territory while he was endeavouring to negotiate with Lobengula. If the chief could have guaranteed that the Mashona beyond a recognised boundary would not again be molested, the imperial authorities would have been satisfied. But Lobengula could not do that, nor could he even long restrain his army from attacking the white people, as the young regiments were clamouring for war.

In one instance only the high commissioner acted in a manner that must have irritated Lobengula. Some guns and ammunition were on the way inland to the chief, and by Sir Henry Loch's order they were detained at Palapye. A letter was sent to Lobengula to acquaint him that they would be allowed to go on as soon as all cause of trouble was removed, and expressing a desire for peace, but informing him distinctly that the Mashona protected at Fort Victoria would not be surrendered.

Towards a missionary family and the white traders at and near Bulawayo Lobengula acted in a manner deserving the highest commendation. He informed them that he might not be able to protect them after the return of the regiments from beyond the Zambesi, and advised them therefore to leave the country. Not a European who could be regarded as having a claim to his protection received the slightest harm. Some he assisted to remove, and those who chose to remain he treated with all possible kindness,

Personally the chief was anxious for peace, but as head of the Matabele he was unable to modify his claim that the Mashona should be left to the will of his warriors. The Chartered Company was equally unable to permit his bands to ravage and murder within the limits of its operations. No issue could be clearer.

Accordingly on both sides preparations for the inevitable struggle were hurried on. The forts Victoria and Salisbury were made impregnable against any native force, and Charter and Tuli were provided with garrisons. The Company purchased a large number of horses, and enrolled a body of the hardiest young men in South Africa. These engaged to serve throughout the war without money payment, but were to be armed and maintained, and upon the conclusion of peace each was to receive a farm three thousand morgen in extent, twenty gold reef claims, and an equal share in half the cattle captured, the other half to be retained by the Company. By the beginning of October this force was in readiness, but could not advance upon Bulawayo without the consent of the high commissioner.

On the 30th of September a patrol sent out from Victoria to examine the country around ascertained that a Matabele army of six or seven thousand men was encamped in a bushy spot only twenty-five miles north-west of the fort, and two of the European scouts were fired upon. The Matabele were in a position where it would be difficult to attack them, but as the white people had abandoned the open

country and Fort Victoria was impregnable, they could not do any harm where they were.

Five days later, on the 5th of October, a patrol of three men of the Betshuanaland border police was fired upon by a party of about thirty Matabele on the southern bank of the Shashi river, near Macloutsie, within the Protectorate and beyond the Chartered Company's territory. The policemen returned the fire, and upon some others riding up the Matabele retired. It was subsequently ascertained that they were scouts of an army seven or eight thousand strong, under Gambo, a son-in-law of Lobengula. This affray made it evident to the high commissioner that the Matabele were incapable of distinguishing between the Chartered Company's forces and those of the imperial government, and brought all hope of a peaceful settlement to an end. It also showed that Lobengula, reserving only a body-guard, had massed his army in two great divisions, to act on the east and on the south. That part of his force which had returned from the Barotse country had been attacked by small-pox, and many of the warriors had died. It had therefore been put in quarantine, but was now released and in the field, though the disease had not entirely disappeared.

Intelligence that the imperial police had been fired upon in territory under imperial protection reached Capetown by telegraph the same day, and the high commissioner at once gave Dr. Jameson permission to send his forces forward. There was no time to be lost, for in five or six weeks the rainy season might be expected to set in.

The plan of the campaign was that two columns should advance directly upon Bulawayo from different directions. The first was under Major Patrick William Forbes as commander in chief, with Major Allan Wilson as next in rank. On the 17th of October this column marched from the Ironmine hill, at the source of the Tokwe river. It was composed of between six and seven hundred Europeans, nearly three-fifths of whom were mounted, and it had five maxim and five other field guns of great destructive power. It was provided with a sufficient number of waggons to carry its stores and to form lagers, and it was accompanied by five or six hundred blacks, who were needed to tend the cattle, assist in scouting, cut bushes for strengthening lagers, and do other work of the kind. It kept as much as possible in open country, so that the Matabele army following it might not have an opportunity to attack it by surprise.

The southern column consisted of Betshuanaland border police and British South Africa Company's men in equal numbers, only four hundred and fifty in all, but nearly every man was mounted. Lieutenant-Colonel Goold-Adams was in command. The column was splendidly equipped with maxims and other guns, and had a sufficient wagon train. It was accompanied by seventeen or eighteen hundred Bamangwato under the chief Khama.

On the 18th of October an unfortunate incident occurred. Three Matabele indunas, with a European trader as their protector, who were sent by Lobengula to confer with the high commissioner, though they

had no authority to make the concessions necessary for peace, arrived at Colonel Goold-Adams' camp at Tati. The European, without giving any information as to the character of his companions, went to get some refreshment, and during his absence the indunas were arrested on suspicion of being spies. Two of them, without comprehending that a little patience would ensure their release, broke away from confinement, and were shot down when attempting to escape. It was a deplorable affair, but it can only be regarded as an accident. The third induna, who was the highest of them all in rank, was afterwards found to be an envoy only in name, as he had no proposals of a practical nature to make.

The column under Major Forbes was accompanied by Dr. Jameson, Sir John Willoughby, and Bishop Knight-Bruce. It destroyed the Matabele military kraals along its line of march, and had frequent skirmishes with parties of the enemy, but took such precautions that it could not be attacked by a large force except when in lager. On two occasions only it had encounters worthy of the name of battles, but on the last of these the power of Lobengula was completely shattered.

A little before daylight on the morning of the 25th of October the column was in lager on the headwaters of the Shangani river when it was attacked by a Matabele army about five thousand strong. Three times within about four hours bands of the savage warriors advanced upon the lager, but on each occasion they were driven back with heavy loss by the machine guns.

After the fight at Shangani the column continued to advance, and was closely followed by the defeated Matabele. As soon as intelligence of the battle and its results reached Lobengula he sent nearly the whole of his body-guard, including the Imbezu and Ingubo regiments, the very choicest of his warriors, to reinforce his army. The Imbezu and Ingubo, pure Zulus, believed that they alone could destroy the advancing whites, and were eager to display their superiority to the mongrel regiments.

A little after noon on the 1st of November the lager, which was being formed near the source of the Imbembesi river, was suddenly attacked by the Matabele army, that had managed to approach under cover of a thick forest. The Imbezu and the Ingubo were in front, and excited the admiration of the Europeans by their splendid bravery and coolness. But they could not get through the storm of bullets poured upon them from the maxim and other machine guns, and in less than an hour the engagement—which proved to be a decisive one—was over. The two gallant regiments had lost half their number in killed and wounded, and some others had also suffered severely.

Fugitives from the battle of Imbembesi conveyed to Lobengula tidings that all was lost, when by his orders his principal kraal was set on fire, and with the whole of his people he fled northward towards the Zambesi. On the 3rd of November Major Forbes had reached a point about eight miles distant from Bulawayo when he heard a tremendous report and saw a column of smoke shoot up to the sky. It

was Lobengula's magazine, which the fire had reached and caused to explode. On the following day—4th of November 1893—the Chartered Company's force arrived at the still smoking kraal, and found in its neighbourhood only two individuals alive, two white men, traders, whom the chief had protected to the last, and who were still unharmed in property and in person.

The column under Colonel Goold-Adams advanced more slowly, and met with no opposition except on one occasion. On the 2nd of November the rear of the waggon train was attacked by a few hundred men of Gambo's army, and an action followed which ended in the defeat of the Matabele. Three days later Khama and his people abandoned the expedition, and set out to return to Palapye. The Europeans continued to advance, and shortly afterwards learned that Gambo, having heard of the defeat at Imbembesi of an army superior to his own, had retreated northward with his regiments. Being apprehensive, however, that they might meet with resistance in a range of hills through which they were obliged to pass, they marched slowly and took precautions against surprise, so that they only reached Bulawayo on the 15th of November.

Various messages were sent to Lobengula assuring him of personal safety if he would surrender, but as these had no effect, Dr. Jameson resolved to send a party to capture him, and so bring hostilities to an end. As soon therefore as the southern column reached Bulawayo, Major Forbes with two hundred and ten of the Chartered Company's men and ninety

of the Betshuanaland border police, well provided with maxims, set out in pursuit. The rainy season had now commenced, and the difficulty of traversing the country was greatly increased. The horses soon became unfit for much exertion, and it was necessary to send the greater number of the men back to Bulawayo, causing considerable delay before reinforcements could arrive. A great many Matabele were dispersed over the country along the line of march, but they offered no resistance, and it was evident that if the chief could be captured they would at once lay down their arms and submit.

On the 3rd of December Major Forbes' force was on the left bank of the Shangani river, and it was ascertained that Lobengula's waggons, in which he was travelling, had crossed the preceding day. The chief was known to be ill, and it was believed that there were not many soldiers with him prepared to fight. Major Wilson, with a picked body of men mounted on the best horses of the patrol, was therefore sent on with directions to follow the spoor, but under any circumstances to return before dark. The main body of the patrol formed a lager on the bank of the stream.

Instead of returning before dark Major Wilson remained beyond the Shangani that night, and at daylight on the morning of the 4th rode up to the chief's waggons. The men who were with Lobengula showed fight, and the little band of Europeans was attacked and several of the horses were killed. Some might have escaped if they had chosen to ride away, but no one thought of abandoning his comrades,

and so they stood side by side till their ammunition was all expended, and then, with heaps of Matabele dead around them, the last of the brave thirty-four met their fate as became gallant men.

While this tragedy was being enacted on the eastern side of the Shangani, Major Forbes was attacked on the western bank, but succeeded in beating off his assailants. The river meantime had come down in flood, and communication between the banks was cut off. The firing in the action with Major Wilson's party was distinctly heard, but it was not possible to give assistance, and without being certain whether any had escaped or not, on the 5th of December Major Forbes was obliged to retire towards Bulawayo. The return march was attended with much suffering, but without further mishap.

An occurrence must here be related which is the only disgraceful event of the war. Lobengula had sent several messages to say he intended giving himself up, but had taken no steps to make his assertions good. That he ever intended to surrender to an armed force is in the highest degree improbable, but that he would have been willing to meet Dr. Jameson and other white men for the purpose of arranging terms by which he might retain his position as chief in a modified form is tolerably certain. He had a thousand sovereigns in his waggon when he fled from Bulawayo, and when ill and hard pressed by his pursuers he sent messengers with this money as a peace offering to the English commander, hoping to be granted terms. On the way his messengers fell in with two scouts

of the Betshuanaland border police, to whom they delivered their message and the money, and these scoundrels concealed the matter and kept the gold. Whether Wilson's party would have been destroyed if the message had been conveyed to Major Forbes can be only conjecture, but the probabilities are that a satisfactory arrangement would have been made in time to prevent that lamentable occurrence. After all was over the matter was discovered, and the two policemen were tried and sentenced to fourteen years' imprisonment with hard labour, surely a light punishment for a crime of such magnitude.

On the 22nd of November Babyane and four other indunas came in to inquire what terms of peace would be granted, and they were followed two days later by fourteen others, whose object was to obtain the like information. They were told that if they would surrender their arms they might return to their kraals and make gardens without being molested. The military huts were, however, destroyed. On the 23rd of January 1894 Lobengula died of fever and gout about forty miles south of the Zambesi, and his death removed the only barrier to a pacification of the country. Before that time the greater number of his people had accepted British rule, and expressed themselves satisfied with the change; though, of course, at heart they were far from being so. During the campaign nineteen Europeans, besides Wilson's party, lost their lives from all causes.

In this manner Matabeleland, the vast healthy plain in the centre of the continent, from four to six thousand feet above the level of the sea, was acquired

by the British South Africa Company, and with Mashonaland took the name Rhodesia. Salisbury remained the seat of government, but on the 14th of November the high commissioner issued a proclamation constituting Matabeleland a subordinate district, and appointing a magistrate to reside at Bulawayo.

Two townships were laid out: one at Bulawayo, and the other at Gwelo, the centre of what is believed to be a rich mining territory, some distance beyond. A few building sites were sold at Bulawayo privately before the 30th of July 1894, and on that and the two succeeding days three hundred and fifty-nine plots of ground were disposed of there by auction, and realised on an average rather over £104 each. On the 1st of August sixty-three building lots were sold by auction at Gwelo, and realised rather over £63 each. No town in South Africa, except Johannesburg, ever made such rapid progress in building as Bulawayo in the first two years of its existence.

Courts of justice, churches, schools, and telegraph offices took the place of military kraals, and the lives and property of black men, as well as of white, became secure in a region where, just before, the midnight executioner and the ruthless despoiler were the savage agents of a despotic chief.

The astonishing progress which the country was making was checked in 1895 by a severe drought and by the ravages of swarms of locusts, followed by an outbreak of rinderpest in a most destructive form among the cattle. The disbanded Matabele



STATUE OF RHODES AT BULAWAYO.

warriors, weary of the monotony of life under a European government, and longing for excitement of some kind, were under any circumstances unreliable subjects; and when the priests or ministers of the mighty spirit that dwelt in a cave announced that the white men were sorcerers and the cause of the disasters, they accepted the statement as true. For various reasons they did not regard themselves as beaten in the war of 1893. They had not been punished in the way they had been accustomed to deal with defeated enemies, and could not understand why a conqueror should spare his opponents, except on the assumption that he was afraid of them. Much discontent also was caused by the manner in which the captured cattle had been disposed of.

Towards the close of 1895 the country was denuded of the mounted police force for the purpose related in the chapter on the South African Republic, and when tidings were received that Dr. Jameson, the conqueror of Lobengula, was himself conquered and a prisoner, the greater part of the Matabele tribe rose in rebellion. Many of the miners, prospectors, and farmers were fortunate enough to be able to make their way to the towns, but some hundreds of men, women, and children were cruelly murdered.

In every instance in which the Europeans met them in battle the insurgents were defeated, but a good many white men were killed while fighting. A large section of the Mashona, in the belief that the Matabele would be the victors, also rose in arms, proving how

slender the tie of gratitude is with these people. Before December 1896 most of the chiefs had accepted the terms of peace which were offered, and which left considerable power in their hands, but parts of the territory remained for some months longer in a disturbed condition. Since that time the Bantu in Rhodesia have been peaceable, and some of them are showing an inclination to improve their condition. There has been a considerable influx from the territory north of the Zambesi, and about half of those working in the mines are foreigners by birth.

To open up the country railroads were necessary, and nowhere else in South Africa were they constructed more rapidly. Very shortly two great trunk lines were completed, one joining the territory to the southern coast ports and, crossing the Zambesi at the Victoria Falls, penetrating Central Africa, the other connecting that line with Beira on the eastern coast. There are now, in 1916, 1,762 miles of railway open for traffic.

Rhodesia suffered from the depression general in South Africa after the war of 1899-1902, but it was the first of the different communities to show indications of returning prosperity. A good class of settlers was attracted to it, who set themselves to develop both its agricultural and mineral resources. The war now taxing the energies of the British people everywhere is affecting Rhodesia seriously, for fully one-tenth of her adult male European residents are serving in the field, and consequently industrial progress is retarded. Gold mining, how-

ever, is being prosecuted vigorously, as the following figures will show: produced in 1913 to the value of £2,903,268, in 1914 £3,580,209, in 1915 £3,823,168. The mining industry differs from that of the Witwatersrand, in being in the hands of small companies scattered over the whole country.

Other metals exported from Rhodesia in 1915 were copper to the value of £224,314, chrome to the value of £175,792, asbestos £32,190, and silver £17,144. Of vegetable productions maize was the principal, of which 340,772 bags of 200 pounds each were exported. Cattle breeding is extensively carried on by Europeans, who owned in 1915 395,000 head.

The area of Rhodesia south of the Zambesi is 143,830 square miles, or a square with a side 380 miles long, and the population consists of 24,000 Europeans, 750,000 Bantu, and 3,000 Asiatics and mixed breeds.

XXXVI.

BASUTOLAND, THE BETSHUANALAND PROTECTORATE, AND SWAZILAND.

BASUTOLAND, though lying in the very centre of the Union of South Africa, is a Bantu reserve quite independent of it except for a customs union. When it was taken over as a British possession, an agent was appointed by the high commissioner, who, with a few magistrates and some police, guided rather than governed the tribe. Moshesh died soon afterwards, and his principal heir, Letsie by name, had none of the old chief's ability. Molapo and Masupha, two other sons, were at the head of considerable sections of the tribe. All were unwilling to part with any real authority over the people, and gave just sufficient obedience to the British officials to secure protection, but carefully avoided conceding more.

In 1871 the territory was attached to the Cape Colony, which thus became responsible for the preservation of order within it. The system of administration continued as before. Bantu law was recognised, except in a few of its worst features, but it was intended gradually to assimilate it to the law

of the colony. Sufficient hut-tax was easily collected to cover the cost of administration and to leave a small amount for public works, besides providing for liberal allowances to the chiefs and for the maintenance of schools.

In a short time the tribe recovered from its losses in property, and increased in number as only Bantu can in a period of peace. Europeans believed that the British officials were gaining control over the people, and that the power of the chiefs was waning, but it was soon to be proved how little foundation there was for such a belief. In 1877 a wave of disturbance began to pass along the Bantu tribes connected with the Cape Colony, and when it subsided the government resolved upon a general disarmament. As soon as the measure was applied to Basutoland, the people rose in rebellion. Some clans, indeed, professed to be loyal, but only because others with whom they were at feud were on the opposite side. The colony spent a vast amount of money in trying to reduce the rebels to submission, but failed in the attempt, and the end was that in 1884 Basutoland was transferred back to the imperial government.

The country since that date has been legally under the control of his Majesty's high commissioner for South Africa, and is under the direction of a British administrator, with magistrates to assist him. These officers have some moral influence, though the people obey only when it pleases them. Practically the government is carried on through the chiefs. Upon Letsie's death he was succeeded as paramount chief by his son Lerothodi, a man of considerable ability.

He again was succeeded by his son Letsie II, who died in 1914, leaving no son, and was followed by his brother Griffith, the present paramount chief, who is a Christian of the Roman catholic faith. The people, who have profited greatly by the teaching of missionaries of the Paris evangelical society, are the most industrious Bantu in South Africa, and are making good progress towards a civilised mode of life.

Basutoland has an area of 10,293 square miles, equal to a square block of land with a side a little over one hundred and one miles in length. Its lower valleys are exceedingly fertile, but much of its surface is mountainous and unfit for agriculture. Its population has increased so rapidly that it now contains fully 350,000 Bantu, but only 900 Europeans. The white people are officials, missionaries, and traders, with their families. No others are permitted to settle in the country.

THE BETSHUANALAND PROTECTORATE.

The territory between the Molopo river on the south, the Botletle river (or now practically the Zambesi) on the north, the Union and Rhodesia on the east, and the late German protectorate on the west, is under the protection of Great Britain, which means that all white people living in it are under the jurisdiction of magistrates appointed by the high commissioner, and that the relationship of the Bantu tribes to each other is controlled by the same authority, though the government of the chiefs over their own people is not often interfered with. Much the greater portion of this territory is without surface

water, and is very thinly inhabited by Bushmen, Masarwa of mixed Betschuana and Bushman blood, and Betschuana who were formerly held by the tribes with fixed residences at the fountains in a condition of the most abject slavery.

The principal compact tribes in the territory are the Bangwaketse, the Bakwena, the Bakatla, and the Bamangwato, the last under the far-famed Christian chief Khama, now a very old man. All of these tribes suffered greatly from Moselekatse, and indeed narrowly escaped complete destruction. The nature of the country to the westward of their principal kraals was such, however, that they were able to take refuge in it without fear of pursuit by the Matabele, who were unacquainted with the places where underground water could be found. Still, they lost all their property, and the greater number of them perished of hunger.

The principal kraal of the Bangwaketse is Kanye, and close by is the place where Makaba defeated the great Mantati horde that laid waste the southern portion of what is now the Transvaal province of the Union. The horde was at the time in a famishing condition, and was encamped in two sections some distance apart, so that Makaba was able to fall upon and defeat one division before the other could come to its aid. This Makaba, who is the legendary hero of the tribe, was afterwards killed in battle by the Makololo under Sebetoane, then moving northward to the Zambesi. The best of the Bangwaketse warriors were slain at the same time. It was only after Moselekatse was driven to the north by the

emigrant farmers that the Bangwaketse were able to rally and settle down, but since that time they have lived unmolested, and have grown strong again.

Next to the north are the Bakwena, whose principal kraal is named *Molopolole*. This is the tribe with which the reverend Dr. Livingstone lived when *Setsheli*, who collected its fragments together and brought them out of the desert, was its chief. *Setsheli* acted generally with prudence, but on one occasion he forced war on the Transvaal farmers, and for many years there was strife between him and the *Bakatla* under the chiefs *Khamanyane* and his son *Lintshwe*. Still he guided his people so prudently that the Bakwena tribe grew and prospered.

The *Bakatla* are recent immigrants from the country to the eastward. *Setsheli* gave *Khamanyane* ground to live upon at *Motshudi*, and accepted him as a vassal, but as soon as he gathered strength he made war upon the Bakwena. A little later he died, but his son *Lintshwe* continued the strife until his independence was acknowledged. This chief, *Lintshwe*, who is now the head of the tribe, is a convert to Christianity, and keeps his people, who are prosperous, in good order.

The *Bamangwato* are farther to the north. *Moselekatse* committed dreadful havoc with this tribe, but spared the heir to the chieftainship, whom he made a soldier in one of his regiments. As soon as it was safe to do so, the remnant of the tribe came out of the desert, and under the leadership of a man named *Sekhomi*, who was a member of the ruling house, went to reside at *Shoshong*, a place which

could be easily defended, though it was poorly supplied with water and otherwise an uninviting locality. Years passed away, and Matsheng, the legitimate chief of the Bamangwato, still remained a Matabele soldier. At last, through the influence of the reverend Dr. Moffat with Moselekatse, he was released, and was received with great joy as their ruler by the people at Shoshong. But he had acquired Matabele habits and tried to govern in the Matabele way, so his subjects became dissatisfied, and at length there was a revolution, when he was obliged to seek the protection of the Bakwena chief Setsheli, and Sekhomi became again the head of the Bamangwato.

It was not possible for the tribe to grow powerful at a place like Shoshong, yet it dared not move away through fear of the Matabele. It managed to exist, and that was all.

Sekhomi's eldest son, Khama by name, grew up to be a man of great ability, but between him and his father and his brother Khamane a feeling of estrangement arose. Khama, who had embraced the Christian religion, refused to comply with the ancient customs, and this was regarded by Sekhomi as rebellion. The young man, with a large party attached to him, then moved far away to the north-west, and settled on the banks of the Botletle river, but sickness carried off many of his followers there. With the remainder he returned, overthrew his father and his brother, and made himself chief at Shoshong. Khamane fled to the South African Republic, where a location was given to him.

Khama proved an exceptionally able ruler, and by his skilful dealing with the British authorities secured the recognition by the imperial government of his claim to the enormous tract of country stretching from below Shoshong to the Botletle river. As soon as a strong detachment of European police was stationed between him and the Matabele he removed from Shoshong to Palapye, and still later to Serowe, where there is no want of water and ground for gardens. He then permitted Khama to occupy Shoshong.

The Bakalahari, Masarwa, and Bushmen who roam over the waste parts of the protectorate are among the most miserable inhabitants of this earth. The former are Betshuana by blood, but long service to pitiless masters took all spirit out of them and made them intensely stupid. Since there have been European officials in the country, the lot of these poor creatures has been ameliorated, and their lives are now secure. In well-frequented places they are able to hold property, and even in the desert they are beginning to realise that their former masters have no longer any right to deal with them according to inclination.

At the principal kraals in the protectorate missionaries of the London society have been stationed for many years, and large numbers of the people have embraced the Christian religion.

The railroad from Capetown to the Zambesi passes near Kanye, Molopolole, and Serowe, thus bringing the most thickly settled part of the territory into connection with seaports. Three hundred and

ninety-four miles of its length, from Ramathlabama to Ramakwabane, are within the protectorate.

The territory is divided into two districts, over each of which an officer presides who receives his instructions from the high commissioner. All Europeans in it and all others who are not subjects of the chiefs, who commit offences, are tried by these magistrates. The chiefs govern their own people without any interference, except in very serious cases of crime, but their relationship to each other is subject to control, and they are required to collect money towards the maintenance of the white officials.

In 1895, 6, and 7 there was a very severe drought, so that no crops could be raised. At the same time the rinderpest destroyed nearly all the horned cattle. The result was great distress, but the protecting power came to the aid of the people by importing sufficient maize to prevent starvation and by employing many hundreds of young men in the construction of railroads.

The protectorate is within the South African customs union. Its area is in round numbers 275,000 square miles, or equal to a square with a side of 525 miles, and its population consists of about one thousand Europeans, 175,000 Bantu, and 20,000 Masarwa and Bushmen.

SWAZILAND.

A tract of land enclosed on the north, west, and south by the Union, and on the east by the Portuguese territory, is a protectorate in which the European

residents are ruled by a British official, and the Swazis are governed by their own chief under the supervision of an English commissioner.

The Swazis are closely akin to the Zulus, and were formed into a military tribe by an energetic chief named Sopusu, who was the only adversary that Tshaka was unable entirely to destroy. The tribe was greatly reduced in number, and was compelled to pay tribute to the Zulu chief, but was able to preserve a separate existence in its mountains. Sopusu was succeeded by his son Swazi, who managed to free himself from allegiance to Panda, and whose name the tribe then assumed. Swazi was succeeded by his son Umbandini, a good-natured but very weak and simple man, who was easily persuaded by Europeans to grant concessions of all kinds until there was nothing more left to part with. As long as his rebel and rival brother Umbelini lived he was, indeed, entirely subservient to white men.

The South African Republic was always on good terms with the Swazis, and indeed regarded them as allies under its protection, but in 1881 was obliged to acknowledge their independence in the convention of Pretoria. From that date until the close of 1906 various plans were adopted by Great Britain for maintaining order among the European residents in Swaziland, but the concessions granted by Umbandini—many of which had been acquired by the government of the South African Republic—prevented any of them from being successful. In 1906 the present system of dealing with the country

and people was introduced, and things have gone on smoothly since. His Majesty's high commissioner in South Africa has the supervision of all matters connected with the protectorate, and appoints the local officials.

The area of Swaziland is only 6,536 square miles, or a square block 81 miles each way, and the population consists of 200 Europeans and 90,000 Bantu.

Thus there are in the whole of British Africa south of the Zambesi about 1,365,079 Europeans, 5,581,365 Bantu, and 741,662 Asiatics, Hottentots, descendants of slaves, and mixed breeds. The natural rate of increase of the Bantu has been marvellous in the past, but is likely to be less rapid in the future, owing to the altered conditions of life of many of them, the greater cares and wants that are now felt, and the spread during recent years of chest diseases along the eastern coast and of syphilis among the Betshuana.

XXXVII.

PORTUGUESE SOUTH AFRICA.

WHEN the Portuguese at the close of the fifteenth century made their appearance in the Indian sea, they found stations on the African coast as far south as Sofala occupied by Arabs who carried on an extensive trade with Hindostan, Persia, and the adjacent countries. The people among whom the Arabs lived were not subject to them, except on the islands, but tolerated their presence and left them generally undisturbed on account of the benefits derived from trade. They formed many independent communities, generally intensely jealous of each other, and they had greatly deteriorated in blood owing to their ancestors having taken Bantu women as wives, so that they were easily reduced to subjection by the Europeans.

Sofala was at that time a place of great reputation throughout the east, on account of the gold that was exported through it. This gold was collected by Bantu in places some distance from the coast, and was then obtained by the Arabs in barter. It is not possible to ascertain what quantity was sent

away yearly, but it was probably much greater in the fifteenth century than at a later date, because just when the Portuguese arrived the Makaranga tribe, that occupied the country in which the mines were situated, began to break into fragments bitterly hostile to each other. The paramount chief of this tribe had the title of Monomotapa, a word that by some means became misunderstood by Europeans, and was afterwards used as the name of the whole country from the lower Zambesi to Cape Agulhas. The ruins of buildings constructed in Mashonaland by some remote race of gold-seekers were known to the Arabs and Bantu, but no traditions extended back to their origin.

Sofala has not a good harbour ; but, owing to its reputation, the king of Portugal resolved to take possession of it, and in September 1505 an expedition under Pedro da Nhaya arrived there with that object. The Arabs at first offered no opposition, and a fort was built before hostilities broke out, when the sheikh was killed, and his people became vassals of the Europeans. The place proved exceedingly unhealthy, but it was maintained from that date onward as a trading station. The mongrel Arabs were provided with goods, and went inland bartering gold and ivory, with which they returned to the Portuguese fort. Supplies were received from the magazines at Mozambique by means of small vessels manned by blacks under European officers, and the gold and ivory were sent to that station, which was the headquarters of the Portuguese on the East African coast.

For more than a quarter of a century Sofala remained the only post occupied by white people in the country. Then two outstations were formed on the southern bank of the Zambesi: one, named Sena, about a hundred and forty miles from the mouth of the river, the other, named Tete, a little over three hundred miles from the sea. Each was a trading station, to and from which merchandise was conveyed up and down the stream in boats.

In 1544 a man named Lourenço Marques ascertained that ivory was to be had from Bantu on the shores of Delagoa Bay, and thereafter a small vessel was sent yearly from Mozambique and remained for a few weeks trading for that article. But no fort or durable building of any kind was erected there except by the Dutch, before 1787.

After the middle of the sixteenth century also Inhambane was visited occasionally by trading vessels from Mozambique, though permanent occupation commenced only in 1730.

Colonisation was not even attempted. The forts were guarded by a few soldiers, and the officers were almost the only traders. Whether soldiers or civilians, the Portuguese in East Africa degenerated rapidly. A European female was very rarely seen, and nearly every white man consorted with Bantu women. Fever, when it did not kill them outright, deprived them of energy, and there was nothing to stimulate them to exertion. Cut off from all society but that of barbarians, often, until towards the close of the sixteenth century, without any religious ministrations, sunk in sloth, and suffering from excessive

heat and deadly malaria, no lives led by Europeans anywhere could be more miserable than theirs.

The gold obtained in commerce was of trifling value, but it was believed that if the mines were in the hands of white men great wealth could be drawn from them. Accordingly, in 1569 a splendidly equipped force of a thousand men, under an experienced officer named Francisco Barreto, was sent from Lisbon to effect the conquest. This expedition ascended the Zambesi to the junction of the Mazoe, and then attempted to proceed up the valley of the last-named stream. In several hotly contested actions with the natives it was victorious; but fever, loss of all the transport cattle, the nature of the country, and the wiliness of the enemy, soon brought about its destruction. Very few indeed escaped to return to Portugal. A little later another attempt was made, and an army went inland from Sofala, but effected nothing.

In 1560 some missionaries of the Society of Jesus tried to establish themselves in South-Eastern Africa. One of them, by name Gonçalgo da Silveira, was murdered by the monomotapa, and the others were obliged to withdraw, but successors resumed the work. About 1580 the Dominicans entered the territory, and from that date until 1775 they had numerous stations scattered among the people. Their converts were told by thousands, yet within a single generation after the removal of the European teachers hardly a trace of Christianity was visible.

In 1592 the garrisons of Tete and Sena were exterminated by an invading horde, and when an attempt to recover those places was made by a body of troops

from Mozambique, it failed disastrously. An arrangement, however, was made with the blacks by which the stations were reoccupied purely as trading posts.

When at the highest point of their prosperity the Portuguese possessed, south of the Zambesi, only the forts that have been named and a few trading stations inland, where individuals were permitted to reside and carry on barter, upon payment to the chiefs of heavy taxes under the name of presents. In 1609, by taking the part of one of the rival claimants to the dignity of monomotapa, the Portuguese government appeared to be in a fair way of securing a firm footing, a prospect which was soon destroyed, however, by the incompetency of its officials. After this many Portuguese took part in tribal wars, and there was even an instance of a powerful chief being deposed and replaced by another through the instrumentality of a few missionaries and traders, but the government never obtained actual control over any large body of Bantu in the territory beyond gunshot of the forts.

After the destruction of the Portuguese power in the eastern seas by the Dutch, the stations on the East African coast have no history worth recording until our own times. So low had they sunk that at the beginning of the nineteenth century there were only twelve hundred and seventy-seven professing Christians in the whole territory south of the Zambesi, and these included Asiatics, mixed breeds, and blacks, as well as the Europeans of all ages and both sexes. The only occupied places were Lourenço Marques in Delagoa Bay, Inhambane, Sofala, Sena, and Tete,

but there were a few Europeans and Asiatics scattered about among the Bantu. The old trading and mission stations in the interior were so completely lost that even their sites were forgotten.

The wars that followed the establishment of the Zulu power by Tshaka drove two bodies of fugitives northward along the coast, both of whom created fearful havoc. First came the Angoni, slaughtering all before them until they reached the border of the lake Nyassa, where they are living to-day. Following them came the followers of Manikusa, now called the Matshangana, who remained as lords in the belt of land between the central plateau and the sea, from the Zambesi to Delagoa Bay. In 1833 they captured the garrison of Lourenço Marques, and put every man to death. In 1834 they destroyed Inhambane, and killed all the inhabitants except ten. In 1836 they took Sofala, and left no Portuguese living there. Next they pillaged Sena, but some of the inhabitants took refuge on islands in the river, and were allowed to return upon payment of tribute. Towards the other Bantu they acted as wolves do towards sheep, for none were able to resist them.

When the first fury of the conquest of the country by Manikusa was over, the Portuguese stations were reoccupied by feeble garrisons of convicts and blacks, who existed there on sufferance.

After 1838, when the emigrant farmers from the Cape Colony began to settle on the highlands of the interior between the Vaal and Limpopo rivers, Delagoa Bay acquired a value it never had before. It was the nearest port to the newly occupied territory,

and efforts were repeatedly made to open a road to it. These did not succeed for many years, owing to the prevalence of fever near the coast and to the intermediate belt of land being infested with the tsetse fly, but the position of the bay made it certain that in time all the difficulties of establishing communication through it between the South African Republic and the outer world would be overcome.

In 1861 an event took place which greatly benefited the Portuguese. This was the death of Manikusa, chief of the Matshangana, whose name was a watchword of terror in the country. Two of his sons fought with each other for the chieftainship, and the Portuguese, by aiding Umzila, who conquered his opponent, obtained a cession of territory, and what was of more importance, a declaration of vassalage and a friendly neighbour.

In July 1869 a commercial treaty was concluded between the governments of Portugal and of the South African Republic, and in it a boundary line—the one now existing—was laid down. This treaty was viewed unfavourably by Great Britain, and that country thereupon put forward a claim to the southern and eastern shore of Delagoa Bay, based on certain documents obtained from Bantu chiefs by Captain Owen, of the royal navy, in 1823. The Portuguese government refused to acknowledge this claim, and it was referred to the arbitration of the president of the French republic, who in July 1875 decided against Great Britain.

In March 1887 a Company was formed in London to construct a railway from Lourenço Marques to

the border of the South African Republic, under a concession from the Portuguese government. The line when completed was seized by the Portuguese authorities, owing to a clause of the concession not having been carried out, and the amount of compensation to be paid to the shareholders was not settled until 1899. From the border to Pretoria the line was continued by the Netherlands South Africa Company, and in July 1895 was opened for traffic. A large proportion of the commerce of the republic then found its way to Delagoa Bay, and with the development of the goldfields the traffic became almost as much as the line could carry.

Lourenço Marques then became an important town, and has continued to grow and prosper ever since. Great steamers began to frequent the bay, and as no expensive harbour works were needed, as at Capetown, East London, and Durban, the shipping and landing charges were relatively small. At present ships of all sizes lie as safely as in a dock along a quay of great length, on which there are all modern appliances for discharging and receiving cargo.

The town is now the capital of the whole province of Mozambique, and in it the governor-general resides and the legislative council meets. But it differs from all the towns of British South Africa, inasmuch as five men live in it for every woman, because very few people wish to make it their permanent home. Its population, according to a recent census, consisted in round numbers of 3,000 Portuguese, of whom 500 were females, 1,600 other

Europeans, of whom 340 were females, 1,700 Asiatics, of whom only 70 were females, and 3,500 Bantu labourers, of whom 50 were females. Nearly 50,000 Bantu labourers, engaged in different parts of the Portuguese territory, are forwarded every year through Lourenço Marques to work in the gold-mines at the Witwatersrand. There is not much commerce with the surrounding territory, the existence of Lourenço Marques as an important town being due almost entirely to the transit through it of passengers and merchandise to and from the interior. Yet it is to-day much the most important place in the Portuguese possessions in South-Eastern Africa.

Next to it comes Beira, a town unknown before 1890, and which sprang into being as the ocean terminus of a railroad from Rhodesia. Beira is at the mouth of the Pungwe river, not far north of Sofala. It has a good harbour, capacious, with considerable depth of water, and is easy of access. The Arabs had once a small settlement there, but the Portuguese never occupied the place in olden times, and when the Asiatics retired it fell into such utter decay that for more than three centuries it was completely forgotten.

When the pioneer expedition of the British South Africa Company was on the way from the Cape Colony to Salisbury in September 1890, Messrs. Colquhoun and Selous, two of its officers, turned out of the road to visit the chief Umtasa at Manika, who was induced by them to place himself under British protection and to grant a concession of

mineral and other rights in his country. This chief was claimed by the Portuguese as a subject, and some little time afterwards several Portuguese officials visited his kraal. There, on the 14th of November, they were arrested by Major Forbes, of the British South Africa Company, and were sent to Salisbury as prisoners.

There was great excitement in Portugal when intelligence of the events at Umtasa's kraal reached that country. Bands of students pressed forward as volunteers to defend the honour of their flag, and were sent with all haste to Beira. Upon the arrival of the first party at that port, they, with some negroes from Angola, were directed to occupy a recently erected trading station named Andrada, about twenty English miles from Umtasa's kraal. They arrived at that station on the 5th of May 1891. Not far distant was a camp of the British South Africa Company's police, fifty-three in number, commanded by Captain Heyman. On the 11th of May a Portuguese force, consisting of about a hundred Europeans and three or four hundred Angola blacks, was sent out to make a reconnaissance, and at two in the afternoon fell in with the English pickets, who retired upon the camp. The Portuguese followed, and an action was brought on, which resulted in their total defeat, with a heavy loss in killed and wounded. There were no casualties on the British side.

The whole Portuguese force then fled precipitately to the sea coast, abandoning Andrada, which the British Chartered Company's men occupied on the

following day. They found there some stores, of which they took possession as lawful spoil of war, but the most valuable part of the booty consisted of eleven machine guns that had been left behind.

Negotiations between the two governments in Europe were shortly afterwards completed, and in June 1891 a treaty was signed at Lisbon in which a boundary between the British and Portuguese possessions was defined, the same as exists at present. The treaty provided further that in the event of either of the powers proposing to part with any territory belonging to it south of the Zambesi the other should have a preferential right to purchase the territory in question or any portion of it. A very important clause provided for the immediate survey and speedy construction of a railroad from the British territory to Beira, and for encouraging commerce by that route.

And now, for the first time, the Portuguese territory in South Africa was defined on all sides, and was secured from invasion by Bantu tribes beyond the border.

In accordance with the terms of the treaty, a company was formed and a railway was constructed connecting Beira by the line through Rhodesia with the great northern trunk road, so that unbroken communication was secured between the mouth of the Pungwe river and all the ports on the southern coast.

Beira, which is built on a tongue of sand projecting into the estuary of the Pungwe, is the healthiest site

on that part of the coast. After the construction of the railway the town advanced with rapid strides, and soon became a place of considerable importance. The population at the close of 1913 consisted of 778 male and 309 female Europeans, 582 male and 53 female Asiatics, 5,207 male and 1,420 female Bantu labourers, and 185 male and 176 female mixed breeds.

The whole of Portuguese South Africa between the Zambesi and Sabi rivers, except the district of which Tete is the centre, is now ruled by the Mozambique Company. This Company was formed in 1888 as a mining corporation, the acquisition of the goldfields of Manika being the inducement to the shareholders to subscribe the capital. In February 1891, however, the Company obtained a charter, which conferred upon it extensive privileges. It has a monopoly of all mineral and commercial rights, which it may lease in detail to associations or individuals; it is under an obligation to introduce a limited number of colonists, and it has taxing and governing powers subject to the supreme authorities at Lisbon.

The chief official of the Mozambique Company in the territory between the Zambesi and Sabi rivers has the title of governor, and resides at Beira. The country is divided into districts, over each of which a commissioner, subordinate to the governor, presides. The officers who administer justice are appointed by the supreme authorities in Lisbon, and are not subject to the authority or superintendence of the Company, but to the governor-general of Mozambique.

The Company has carried out its agreement with regard to the introduction of European settlers, and has given liberal assistance to those who were desirous of becoming farmers. In consequence of this, remarkable progress has been made, though gold-mining has only produced about £24,000 yearly. The sugar cane has been introduced, and has been found to thrive exceedingly well along the banks of the rivers. In 1913 23,000 tons of sugar were exported, and there is a good prospect of a great development of this industry. Ten tons of cotton, 2,600 tons of maize, 1,100 tons of oil seeds, and 3,800 tons of mangrove bark were also exported in that year.

A census on the 31st of December 1913 showed the population of the territory under the administration of the Mozambique Company to consist of 1,401 male and 471 female Europeans, 1,033 male and 62 female Asiatics, 131,488 male and 140,073 female Bantu, and 779 male and 705 female mixed breeds.

Sena and Sofala have not recovered their old importance, small as that was, and are now insignificant places compared with Beira. At Sofala the ocean has recently so encroached upon the land that the ancient fort has quite disappeared.

The tract of land between the Limpopo and Manisa rivers from the border of the Union to the sea is held by another Company under a concession from the government in Lisbon granted in November 1893.

Inhambane, the port of the territory between the Limpopo and the Sabi, has made some progress of

late years, though, as it is mainly dependent upon trade with the Bantu, it is far less important than Lourenço Marques or Beira. The village consists of a church and a few houses and shops.

There remains the territory of which Tete is the seat of government, between the Zambesi and the Anglo-Portuguese border west of the Mozambique Company's district. It is occupied entirely by Bantu, except the village, which contains a church and from twenty to thirty stone houses of European pattern. It is protected by a small garrison of black troops with white officers, who occupy a fort overlooking the river. The European residents, officials included, do not number more than twenty-five or thirty, for the commerce of the place is small.

The government of Tete is military in form and subordinate to Mozambique. The Jesuits have established a mission here, and also at a station a few miles distant. There are extensive coalfields in the neighbourhood, and it is possible that, owing to them, the village may some day become a thriving place. The banks of the Zambesi are nowhere perfectly healthy for Europeans, but there is less fever at Tete than at any place farther down the stream, and the Portuguese residents, who are acclimatised, do not trouble themselves about it.

Throughout the whole territory from the Zambesi to Lourenço Marques difficulties in controlling the Bantu were experienced until recently ; but Portugal has opened her eyes to the fact that it is necessary to employ other and better forces than convicts and uncivilised negroes, such as were formerly engaged, and

she has succeeded in establishing her authority firmly. Towards the close of 1895 the great chief Gungunhana, son and successor of Umzila, assumed an attitude which compelled the government to bring him to account by force of arms. He was captured and banished in January 1896, and his defeat secured the peace of the country. With his downfall the last of the great military tribes that had their origin in the time of Tshaka disappeared, to the great relief, not only of the Europeans, but of all the other Bantu in South Africa.

Lines of splendid steamships now connect Lourenço Marques, Inhambane, and Beira with Europe by way of the Red sea, and with all the British ports along the southern coast. The commerce of the territory has made rapid progress, and the prospects of Portuguese South Africa are brighter to-day than at any previous time since Pedro da Nhaya built the first fort on the river bank of Sofala.

XXXVIII.

(LATE) GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

ALONG the western coast of South Africa, between the Kunene river on the north and the Orange river on the south, and extending eastward to the twentieth meridian from Greenwich, with an arm thrust out north of Betshuanaland, is a great tract of land, some 325,000 square miles in extent, that until the nineteenth century was far advanced was regarded as little better than a desert. Instead of rising in a series of steps to an elevated plain, as on the eastern side of the continent, there is here a narrow belt along the Atlantic shore sloping upward to the escarpment of the interior plateau, which is almost on a level with the Kalahari desert and Betshuanaland.

The coast belt is a waste of sand blown about by the wind, so that where a hill stands one week there may be a hollow the next, and where there is usually less than an inch of rainfall in a year. In a few limited localities, however, it is possible for human beings to live there. The only harbours on the coast are Walvis Bay, a sheet of deep water between the

mainland and a long sandspit curving round and then running parallel with it, and Angra Pequena (called by the Germans Luderitzbucht), a little inlet farther south, where Bartholomeu Dias landed in 1487, and which he named Angra dos Ilheos. No fresh water is found at either of these places, so that what is needed for drinking must be condensed from the ocean.

The habitable part of the country is the elevated land between the coast belt and the Kalahari, so that it has a desert on each side. The part between the tropic and the Orange river is called Great Namaqualand. Before the German occupation it was thinly peopled by Hottentots, who were divided into a number of little clans independent of each other, and who maintained themselves chiefly by herding a few cows and sheep that needed extensive areas to pasture on. The surface is from three to six thousand feet above the level of the sea, and is broken up by mountain ranges and hills and sandy plains. The rainfall is only six to eight inches in a year, and even this is confined to a few heavy storms. The country is drained by a nullah—for there is seldom flowing water in it,—running from north to south into the Orange river.

Proceeding northward, the country improves, and the rainfall increases. At Windhoek, a little north of the tropic, there is an average yearly fall of fourteen inches, and at Grootfontein, in $19\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ south latitude, as much as twenty-four inches falls. Cattle breeding can be carried on here with success, and even agriculture is possible in some limited localities.

This part of the territory is termed Hereroland or Damaraland, and is occupied by the Herero tribe of Bantu and the people called by Europeans Berg Damaras, who are Bantu by blood, but speak a dialect of the *Hottentot language* and live after the manner of Bushmen. Still farther north, approaching the Kunene river, is Ovamboland, whose inhabitants are Bantu, forming several tribes independent of each other, but all called Ovambo by Europeans.

Between the Herero tribe and the Hottentots war had been carried on ever since the former entered the country, sometimes one party, sometimes the other, getting the upper hand for a short time. In 1791, when Europeans first became acquainted with them, the Swakop river was, roughly speaking, the dividing line between them, and so it is to-day. In 1814 the London society commenced mission work in the country, and later the Wesleyans followed, but both were replaced by Rhenish missionaries, who made Great Namaqualand and Hereroland their special field of labour.

In 1840 the Hereros were thoroughly beaten by the Hottentot captain Yonker Afrikaner and his allies, and were reduced to a state of abject servitude. Their principal chief was compelled to tend Afrikaner's cattle, most of which had once been his own property and had been taken from him. For more than twenty years this was the condition of things, but then the Hereros managed to get possession of weapons, and in 1863 the chief and some of his people fled with the cattle they were tending, and took refuge at the Rhenish mission station

Otjimbingue. There they were attacked by the Hottentots, but they defended themselves bravely and beat back their assailants, of whom some two hundred were killed.

This was the commencement of what was afterwards termed the Herero war of independence. Jan, son of Yonker Afrikaner, was the leader on the Hottentot side, but some of the clans of his people refused to assist him, and several able white men, such as Mr. Frederick Green and the Swedish naturalist and author Charles J. Andersson, led his opponents. Hostilities were carried on for seven years, during which time great atrocities were committed by the Hottentots on several occasions. Otjimbingue was more than once attacked, without being taken, but most of the other mission stations were pillaged and destroyed. Many hundreds of Hottentots lost their lives, as did scores of Hereros, till at length the Europeans in the country managed to bring about peace. In September 1870 Jan Yonker Afrikaner agreed to the terms dictated by the reverend Dr. Hahn, which declared the Hereros to be perfectly independent, and assigned Windhoek as his (Jan Yonker's) residence, where a Rhenish missionary would also be stationed. So ended the Herero war of independence, entirely in favour of that party.

A little later a number of farmers from the South African Republic, with their families, made their appearance in Damaraland. They had abandoned their homes because the president was not of the orthodox faith, and withal most incredible suffering

had crossed the Kalahari in search of a country to settle in. This they found at last at Mossamedes, in Portuguese territory, but for several years they remained in Damaraland. Their presence alarmed the Herero chiefs, who, acting by the advice of their European friends, in June 1874 sent to ask protection from the governor of the Cape Colony. This led to the matter being brought before parliament, and the adoption in 1875 of a resolution in favour of annexing the coast as far north as Walvis Bay and making inquiry into the condition of the country generally.

To obtain information Mr. W. C. Palgrave was appointed, and in 1876 he went inland from Walvis Bay and made a tour through the country. He found the Herero chiefs and Hottentot captains willing to come under British protection and be guided by the advice of an English official, but not to relinquish any authority over their own people. The Hereros offered to cede a large tract of good pasture land for the use of Europeans, to raise a revenue for the payment of the white official.

In the following year Mr. Palgrave was sent back to make inquiries into details, but before anything further could be done in the matter, the ninth Kaffir war broke out, and the Sprigg ministry, that then came into power, was disinclined to burden the colony with fresh responsibilities in connection with the tribes beyond the northern border. Sir Bartle Frere, looking ahead to what might happen, desired to proclaim a British protectorate over the whole country, but Lord Carnarvon refused to give his consent, and

would only permit the occupation of Walvis Bay and a small tract of land about it.

In 1880 war between the Hereros and Hottentots was resumed, and so bitter was the feeling between them that the principal Herero chief gave orders that all Hottentots, irrespective of age or sex, who could be found were to be put to death, and from one hundred and fifty to two hundred were actually murdered in cold blood. Attacks and forays on both sides went on after this, without either party gaining a decided advantage, until June 1882, when the southern Hottentot captains agreed to peace, but Jan Yonker and another continued a guerrilla warfare.

At this time a scramble by European powers for unappropriated spots on the earth's surface was commencing, and Germany was looking keenly for places on which to found colonies. She had as yet no foreign possessions, so the hosts of people that left her shores yearly were all lost to her. Yet it was not supposed in British South Africa that she would plant her flag upon the least inviting part of the continent, the Sahara alone excepted, where the only attraction for Europeans was the healthiness of the climate.

But a surprise was in store for those who were allowing things to go on in fancied security. In 1883 a merchant of Bremen named Luderitz established a trading station at Angra Pequena, and on the 1st of May of that year purchased the inlet and a small tract of sand dunes about it from the Hottentot captain of Bethany for two hundred rifles and £100

in money, and in August he completed the purchase of another and much larger tract of sand from the same captain for sixty rifles and £600. He then applied to his government for protection, and communications were opened between the German authorities in Berlin and the foreign office in London on the subject, though nothing was said or written that could lead to the supposition that Germany had any design of taking possession of the whole country.

The secretary of state now signified his consent to the annexation of the coast line by the Cape Colony, provided Great Britain should not be called upon to bear any portion of the expense, and this being agreed to, in July 1884 both houses of the Cape parliament resolved that such annexation was expedient.

Meantime Mr. Palgrave had been sent again to Great Namaqualand and Hereroland to ascertain whether the various chiefs and clans there were still desirous of coming under British sovereignty. He proceeded to various parts of the territory, and received the assurances of the leading chiefs that they were not only desirous, but anxious, to place themselves under British rule as a means of restoring and preserving peace, but he had not concluded his task when he was recalled, as the action of the German government had made his mission useless.

At that time British subjects held concessions from Herero and Namaqua chiefs of greater value than that which Mr. Luderitz had obtained from

the captain of Bethany. The establishments along the coast for catching and drying fish were owned in Capetown, and part of the trade of the country was carried on by Englishmen. On the other hand the missionaries were Germans, except in Ovamboland, where they were Finnish, and part of the little trade was in German hands.

On the 7th of August 1884, by order of the emperor Wilhelm I, Captain Schering, of the corvette *Elizabeth*, hoisted the German flag at Angra Pequena and proclaimed a protectorate over the coast and a belt of land along it twenty geographical miles in width from the Orange river to the 26th degree of south latitude, and a day or two later Captain Von Raven, of the German gunboat *Wolf*, issued at Cape Frio a similar proclamation respecting the coast from the 26th degree of latitude northward to Cape Frio, excepting the British territory at Walvis Bay.

On the 15th of August the German consul in Capetown informed the government of the first of these facts, and soon the full significance of the occurrence—that another and possibly disturbing factor had been introduced into South African affairs—came to be realised.

The twelve guano islands off the coast and Walvis Bay with the little territory around it remained under the British flag and connected with the Cape Colony, but shortly all the remainder of the country from the Orange river in the south to the Portuguese possessions in the north, and from the Atlantic ocean on the west to the twentieth

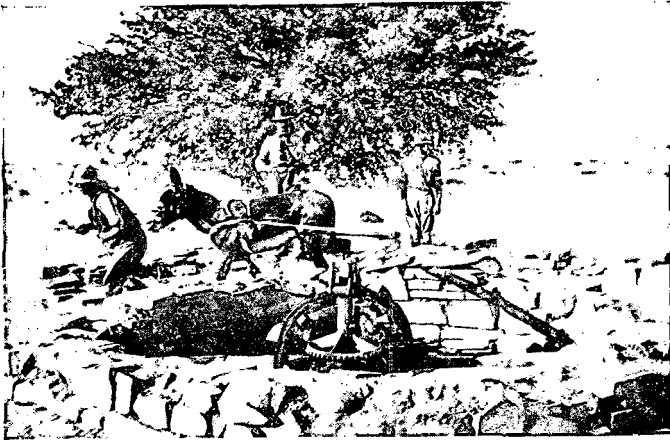
meridian from Greenwich on the east, with an additional tract in the shape of a rectangle on the north-east, which made the Zambesi its border there, became a dependency of the German empire.

With characteristic energy the new African proprietor set to work to make something of the country that to all appearance at the time was hardly worth having. The first seat of the local government was at Otjimbingue, but Windhoek was soon acquired from Jan Yonker, and the authorities then removed to that place. Here money was lavishly expended in the erection of substantial public buildings, and in ornamenting a town that would be worthy of its position as the capital of the first of Germany's oversea colonies. Here, within a quarter of a century was to be seen one of the loftiest wireless telegraph stations in the world, where messages were received from and transmitted to Berlin. Here was a town with big hotels and stores, with churches and newspapers, with a museum and public library and railway station, all lit by electricity, where a few years before nothing more pretentious than Jan Yonker's huts was standing. It was strongly fortified, and was the headquarters of the troops in the country. Around it were located a number of farmers, dams were constructed and fountains were opened, so that patches of land could be irrigated, and all possible encouragement and assistance was given to the settlers.

This was the case in every part of the country where water could be obtained by sinking artesian

wells or opening fountains, and wherever it could be conserved dams or reservoirs of some kind were constructed. By a very large expenditure of money it was found possible to irrigate little plots of ground here and there, but never sufficient to raise the grain and vegetables needed for home consumption.

With cattle rearing it was very different, for all kinds of stock thrive well. In many parts the



WELL AT UKAMAS, SHOWING METHOD OF RAISING WATER.

farms needed to be fifteen or twenty thousand acres in extent to support a family, but in others five thousand or even less would suffice. Foreign stock of the best breeds—horses, horned cattle, asses, camels, sheep, goats, and pigs—were imported, and for their propagation the country was found to be eminently suitable. There can be very little doubt that this will be the permanent industry of the future,

Copper-mining from the first occupied the attention of the German authorities. It had long been known that rich deposits of this metal were to be found at Otavi, in Hereroland, but it was supposed that its distance from the sea would make it too costly to remove it. The Germans carefully inspected the locality, found another mine at a place called Tsumeb, a little farther away, constructed a railroad to connect both these mines with Swakopmund, where they could ship the ore, and then commenced working the deposits with a good profit.

They were certainly very far from being idle. But for years they were unable to devote their full energy to opening up the country, owing to wars with the Hottentots and the Hereros, who resented their methods of *protection*. In 1893 the war with the Hottentots, who were under the leadership of an able captain named Hendrik Witbooi, commenced. It was carried on after the guerrilla manner by the Hottentots, who moved about in the mountains where no European force could follow them, and made their appearance where and when they were least expected. The war lasted nearly ten years, and was followed in 1904 by hostilities with the Ovaherero.

Most fearful atrocities were committed by these barbarians, who murdered German men, women, and children indiscriminately, but the retaliations of the white soldiers were hardly less reprehensible. There are many honourable exceptions, but as a general rule the German, particularly if he is a

Prussian, does not permit feelings of humanity to stay his hand in striking a foe in any way or with any weapon, and in this instance full play was given to his passions. Herero men were shot, women and children were driven into the desert without food and left to die of starvation. Some fled across the Kalahari and took refuge in British territory, but more than half of the tribe perished. The war lasted nearly five years, and as many as 19,000 German soldiers were employed in it. It and the war with the Hottentots cost the lives of 1,487 men, besides 907 wounded who recovered, and an expenditure in money of £30,000,000.

The discovery early in 1908 of diamonds beneath the sand in the neighbourhood of Angra Pequena gave great impetus to the settlement. The gems were mostly very small, but they were in immense numbers, and their collection proved exceedingly profitable. Every atom of food consumed on the fields had to be imported, every drop of water used had to be condensed from the sea, so that only companies with considerable capital could engage in the undertaking, but very shortly the desert waste presented a busy scene. The revenue was so swollen by the taxes on diamonds that it soon came to equal the expenditure for ordinary—not military—purposes, a substantially built town sprang into existence at Angra Pequena, and the exports rose to large figures.

In 1913 diamonds were exported to the value of nearly £3,000,000, copper to the value of nearly £400,000, and tin to the value of £31,600. The

European civil population consisted then of 8,328 men, 4,683 women, and 1,625 children. There was also a regular military force of nearly 2,000 men in the country, and not only were the able-bodied civilians liable to be called out for purposes of war, but coloured men also.

There were approximately 15,000 Hottentots, 18,000 Berg Damaras, and 20,000 Hereros left. With the Ovambo in the extreme north the Germans never had much to do, and their land had not been exploited. They were supposed to number about 80,000 souls. How many people there were in the strip of land along the upper Zambesi or how many Bushmen were wandering about in waste places cannot be stated even approximately.

The government was far more bureaucratic than that of any British colony. The governor, appointed by the kaiser in Berlin, was practically almost absolute. There was indeed a council, but half the members were nominated by the governor, and it had no power of initiating measures. Great Namaqualand and Hereroland were divided into fifteen districts, each under an official subject to the governor. According to our ideas, there was too much control and direction, too little left to individual initiative, more regard than necessary paid to military formality; but to the German mind this did not seem objectionable.

Owing to the Kalahari desert being on its eastern border, there was no commerce overland between the German and British possessions in South Africa, but

steamers were continually plying between Table Bay, Angra Pequena, and Swakopmund, and a good deal of agricultural produce found a ready sale there for money.

For military purposes forts had been built in various places and lines of observation posts established, which were connected with each other by telegraphs and telephones. There were 1,297 miles



OBSERVATION POST.

of railway in the country, a large portion of which was designed for strategic purposes in case of war with Great Britain. To the German mind this was not acting in a hostile manner, but merely using necessary precautions against possible danger. On the 4th of August 1914, when war actually did break out, this was the condition of things in German South-West Africa.

To enable the imperial troops to be withdrawn for service in Europe, the Union government immediately proposed to take upon itself the full burden of defence of the country, including the naval station in Simon's Bay, which offer was accepted by Great Britain. The authorities in England considered it expedient also to effect the conquest of German South-West Africa, and the Union ministry undertook that task. A special session of parliament was convened to meet on the 9th of September, to provide the necessary funds, and preparations for the undertaking were made without delay. The Germans were challenging an attack, as on two occasions raiding parties entered British territory from Nakob, on their south-eastern border, and they sent troops to Raman's drift, on the Orange river, to occupy that door of communication with the Cape province. It is now known that their object was to attract disaffected individuals in the Union to join them, but this was not suspected at the time.

To check them a strong body of South African troops, with horses and stores of all kinds, was sent by sea to Port Nolloth, where they arrived early in September. It took some time to make the necessary arrangements, when the troops were forwarded by the Copper Company's railway to the nearest point of the line to Raman's drift, and from that place the fourth regiment of mounted riflemen marched in two days through the desert country to the drift, defeated the enemy there, and on the 15th of September obtained possession of the post.

The remainder of the column followed as quickly as possible, and a strong detachment was sent forward in pursuit of the Germans. Colonel Grant, of the mounted rifles, who was in command of the detachment, followed the enemy to a place named Sandfontein, where he found he had been drawn into a trap and was surrounded by a greatly superior force. He defended himself stubbornly until the two field guns he had with him were made useless by the opposing artillery, he himself was wounded, and all hope of successful resistance was gone, when he was obliged to surrender unconditionally, 26th of September 1914. It was the greatest disaster in the course of the war, for not only were the casualties heavy, but the remainder of the column was paralysed by the blow and retired from Raman's drift.

Another column left Table Bay a few days after the one just mentioned, and on the 19th of September landed at Angra Pequena, which the Germans did not attempt to defend. The column took possession of the town, but did not follow the retreating German troops, who destroyed the railway line behind them as they retired towards the interior.

A third column was on the way to Swakopmund when information reached Sir Duncan Mackenzie, who commanded it, that a rebellion had broken out in the Union, and that until it was suppressed further operations against German South-West Africa could not be undertaken. He therefore joined the column at Angra Pequena, where he assumed the chief command, but did nothing more

than hold that town and repair the railway line for some distance with materials forwarded from Capetown.

As the Germans feared an attack by a man-of-war upon Swakopmund, on the 17th of August they evacuated that town and removed as much of the loose property there as could be taken away. But as no attack was made they soon returned, and then took possession of the Union port of Walvis Bay, which was not far off to the southward.

When parliament assembled in Capetown General Botha asked for approval of his project of operations against the German territory and for the money needed for the purpose, on the ground that as the British empire was at war the Union, which formed part of it, was at war also, and it was the duty of its people to do all they possibly could to assist against the enemy. He was warmly supported by General Smuts, but was opposed by General Hertzog, whose motion of disapproval, however, was lost in the house of assembly by ninety-two votes against twelve.

Parliament by an overwhelming majority in both houses approved of General Botha's proposals, but now a big difficulty arose. There was a party in the Transvaal province and Orange Free State that was opposed to his policy of common action with the English section of the community, because they feared the loss of their nationality. They wished to remain, like the French in Canada, a separate people, and dreaded absorption like that which took place after the conquest of New Netherlands by the English in the seventeenth century.

There were a few—fortunately a very few—who hoped to recover independence by alliance with the Germans, and there were a good many who were indisposed to fight what they regarded as England's battles, not theirs. They certainly did not realise what the consequences to themselves would be in the event of Germany being the victor in her struggle for the dominance of the world. They rose in what they termed an armed protest, but which was actual rebellion.

General Beyers, who was in chief command of the Union forces, resigned his post as soon as the decision of parliament was known, and this of course prevented immediate action. The prime minister, General Botha, announced his intention of taking the field in person, but before anything further could be done Colonel Maritz, who was in command of a column directed to enter German territory by way of Nakob, betrayed his trust, was the means of causing a portion of his force to be made prisoners, and with the remainder openly joined the enemy. General Beyers and Christian de Wet, the famous guerrilla leader in the war of 1899-1902, also took up arms on the rebel side, and the insurrection assumed formidable proportions. On the 12th of October martial law was proclaimed throughout the Union.

A sufficient force, comprising both Dutch and English speakers, was speedily assembled, and operations against the rebels were undertaken. Some of them fought stubbornly, but many were captured and others lost heart. General Botha

issued a proclamation offering an amnesty to all the rank and file who would surrender before the 21st of November, and this had the effect of causing many of them to give themselves up. On the 1st of December De Wet was captured, and a few days later Beyers was drowned when attempting to escape across the Vaal river, so that on the 10th of that month General Botha thought he could safely announce that the rebellion was practically suppressed. This turned out to be premature, however, for until the middle of February 1915 the insurgents with their German allies not only occupied a considerable area of Union territory, but attacked Union forces and made prisoners at several places, notably at Nous in Little Namaqualand, from which post they compelled a strong garrison to retire. But in February 1915 some six hundred of them surrendered, and Maritz, their ablest leader, fled to Angola, when the disturbance was finally quelled. The government inflicted the lightest of punishments upon the insurgents, and only one individual—Captain Fourie, who was tried by court martial—suffered the death penalty. His conduct had been similar to that of Colonel Maritz.

Arrangements for the invasion of the German territory were then completed. Already a strong force had been sent by sea from Capetown to Walvis Bay, and on its approach the enemy had abandoned that place, so that it landed without opposition. A reconnoitring party that went to make observations at Swakopmund found that town deserted also, not

only by the German troops but by the civil inhabitants, and the public property much damaged, so it was taken in possession, 14th of January 1915. This column then made preparations for an advance along the railway eastward as soon as reinforcements should arrive with General Botha, who was to assume the chief command.

Meantime General Mackenzie had occupied positions along the line connecting Angra Pequena with the interior, and had repaired the damage to the railway through the sand belt, so that he also was only waiting the order to advance. The Germans had adopted the habits of Bushmen, by laying concealed mines and poisoning the water in places that they abandoned, so that the greatest care had to be taken when moving about.

From the southern side two columns advanced. One of them crossed the Orange at Raman's drift, and the other at Schuit drift, a long way farther up. From the south-eastern side there were also two columns of invasion, one by Nakob, whose object was to get possession of the military railway that terminated near this place, and the other by Rietfontein, almost due east of Angra Pequena. The last of these had to traverse a desert country, where in one part of the route no water was to be had for a hundred and twenty miles, but it overcame this difficulty by using motor-cars, by which supplies for men and horses were forwarded. The other three southern columns had also to undergo many hardships and privations in marching through a dry and desolate country, where water was obtainable

only at long intervals. General Smuts was in chief command of the southern forces, and upon him rested the duty of making the arrangements.

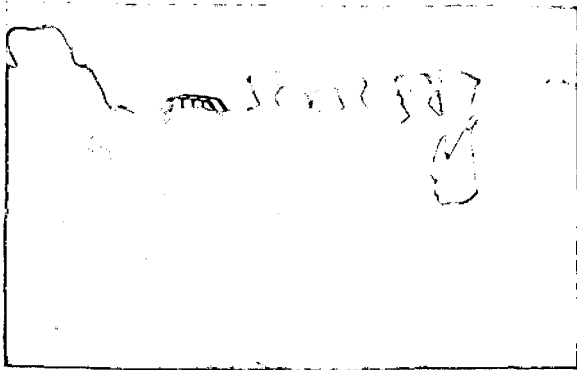
To facilitate the attacks on the eastern side a railway was laid down from Kenhart to Upington on the Orange river. The country was flat, so there were no obstacles, and the rails were laid at a rate of over two miles a day. This was of very great service, and it has since been continued from Upington to Kalkfontein on the German line, so that now one can go by train from any part of the Union to any part of what was German South-West Africa. But there was not time to construct the eighty-eight miles onward from Upington before the final advance was made.

The invading columns were opposed, though not so undauntedly as they had anticipated, and on the fall of Nabas, the strongest military post in the south-eastern part of the territory, which was taken by storm on the 7th of March, the Germans retreated to the central railway. They were greatly outnumbered by the Union forces, which were advancing against them from different directions, and so they adopted the plan of falling back always after skirmishes and putting as many obstacles as possible in the way of pursuers. While the southern and eastern columns were closing in on the central railway, General Mackenzie was advancing from the west. His supplies were forwarded by sea from Capetown to Angra Pequena, and then by the railway that ran eastward to Seeheim, where it joined the central line running to the north.



THE HON. LIEUTENANT-GENERAL J. C. SMUTS.

With his cavalry he rode north-eastward from Aus, and reached the central line before the other columns. He found the Germans had got past him, so instead of intercepting them as he had hoped to do, he followed them up, and at Gibeon, about a hundred and twenty miles north of Seeheim, he overtook them. There they made a stand, and on the 26th of April a sharp engagement took place, in which they were defeated with a loss



GERMAN RESERVIST PRISONERS.

of eight killed, thirty wounded, and one hundred and sixty-six made prisoners. Having an unbroken railway behind them, the remainder managed to escape to the north, but they left six guns and a large quantity of war material behind, which fell into the hands of the Union troops. Mackenzie's casualty list was a heavy one, but he had the satisfaction of knowing that the battle of Gibeon had completed the conquest of Great Namaqualand.

On the 11th of February General Botha reached Swakopmund, and took command of the forces there. The sea was open, owing to Admiral Sturdee's destruction on the 8th of December 1914 of the German squadron at the Falkland islands which was on its way to South Africa, and steamers could safely convey troops and stores from Cape-town to Walvis Bay. Strong reinforcements of men and horses were sent on, and arrived at their destina-



BLOWN-UP BRIDGE AT EPAKO.

tion a few days after the general. Among them was the first regiment of Rhodesian volunteers, that had offered its services to assist the Union.

It took some time to make the necessary arrangements for an advance, so that it was the 20th of March before the nearest posts occupied by the Germans to the eastward could be attacked. On that day three stations were taken and over two hundred prisoners were made. The enemy when

retreating destroyed the railway behind, and it could only be relaid slowly, as the material was received from Capetown, so General Botha abandoned it, and marched up the bed of the Swakop nearly to Otjimbingue. Then he turned to the north, and on the 5th of May occupied Karibib, the junction of the line from the south with that from Swakopmund to Tsumeb. The retreating Germans were already beyond that place. They had allowed many of their reserve men to return to their farms, and had left Windhoek, their capital, to the mercy of the invaders.

From Karibib a strong detachment of cavalry was sent to Windhoek, which General Botha accompanied in a motor-car. No resistance of any kind was offered, and on the 12th of May the town was surrendered by the municipal authorities, when a garrison of Union troops was stationed in it. Martial law was proclaimed, but the civil residents were not disturbed.

The general then returned to Karibib, and shortly the pursuit of the retreating Germans was commenced. It was an easy matter for them to move on by rail, but it was a very different matter for the Union forces to follow them. General Botha adopted a plan somewhat similar to that of the Zulus in their early wars, only his line was far more extended than theirs. His infantry formed the centre, corresponding to the Zulu breast. His cavalry formed the horns, but they rode far out and ahead of each of the infantry wings. Only men capable of enduring great hardships and of existing with very little food,

and that of the coarsest kind, could have gone on as these men did day after day until, when the end of the railway was almost reached, they rounded in on the Germans and brought them to bay.

There was now no way of escape, and on the 9th of July 1915 the German governor Dr. Seitz, and the military commander Francke were obliged to surrender with 3,947 officers and men, thirty-seven pieces of artillery, twenty-two machine guns, and all the stores that they had not destroyed. Very liberal terms of capitulation were accorded to them. The Union prisoners who were at Tsumeb, and who had been scantily fed and often harshly treated, were of course immediately released. Some of them, with Colonel Grant, had been nearly ten months in confinement.

So ended German rule in South-West Africa. A strong garrison of Union troops was left in the country. British officials took the places of those appointed by the kaiser, and Generals Botha and Smuts with most of their men returned to their ordinary duties. Very shortly, however, a large proportion of the young men went to Europe to serve the cause of civilisation there, and the others, under the leadership of General Smuts, while this is being written (June 1916), are fighting in another part of the African continent for the honour of the Union and the liberty of many nations.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF EVENTS

A. D.

- 1487. Discovery of the Cape of Good Hope by Dias.
- 1497. Doubling of the African continent by Vasco da Gama.
- 1503. Discovery of Table Bay by Antonio de Saldanha.
- 1505. Occupation of Sofala by the Portuguese.
- 1510. Defeat of Portuguese by Hottentots near Table Valley.
- 1569. Disastrous expedition under Francisca Barreto against Bantu of South Africa.
- 1570 1600. Terrible destruction caused by Bantu invaders from the country beyond the Zambesi.
- 1591. First visit of English ships to Table Bay.
- 1595. First voyage of the Dutch to India.
- 1602. Formation of the Dutch East India Company.
- 1652. Commencement of the Dutch settlement in South Africa.
- 1655. Introduction of the vine.
- 1657. Discovery of the Berg river.
- 1658. Introduction of slaves.
- 1659. First Hottentot war.
- 1660. Discovery of the Elephant river.
- 1672. Purchase of territory from Hottentot chiefs.
- 1673. Commencement of second Hottentot war.
- 1679. Foundation of Stellenbosch.
- 1685. Discovery of the copper mines of Namaqualand.
- 1688. Arrival of the first Huguenot settlers.
- 1700. First occupation of land on the second plateau.
- 1713. First outbreak of small-pox.
- 1722. Great loss of life by gale in Table Bay.

A. D.

1737. Wreck of another fleet in Table Bay.
1742. First use of Simon's Bay in winter months.
1746. Foundation of Swellendam.
1752. Exploration of the country eastward to the Kei.
1755. Second outbreak of small-pox.
1761. Exploration of southern part of Great Namaqualand.
1767. Third outbreak of small-pox.
1779. Commencement of first Kaffir war.
1781. Arrival of French troops to defend the Cape Colony against the English.
1786. Foundation of Graaff-Reinet.
1789. Commencement of second Kaffir war.
1792. Commencement of the Moravian mission.
1795. Surrender of the Cape Colony to the English.
1799. Commencement of the London Society's mission.
- Commencement of third Kaffir war.
1801. Exploration of the southern part of Betsuanaland.
1803. Restoration of the Cape Colony to the Dutch.
1806. Second surrender of the Cape Colony to the English.
1809. Subjection of all Hottentot inhabitants to colonial laws.
1812. Fourth Kaffir war.
1815. Slachter's Nek insurrection.
1818. Commencement of fifth Kaffir war.
1820. Arrival of large body of British settlers.
1822. Commencement of Zulu wars of extermination.
1824. Erection of first lighthouse on South African coast.
1830. Settlement of the Matabele in the valley of the Marikwa.
1834. Emancipation of the slaves in the Cape Colony.
1835. Sixth Kaffir war.
1836. Beginning of great emigration from the Cape Colony.
1837. Flight of the Matabele to the country north of the Limpopo.
1838. Dreadful massacres of Europeans by Zulus.
1840. Subjection of the Zulu tribe to the emigrant farmers.
1842. Occupation of Natal by a British military force.
1843. Creation by the British government of Griqua and Basuto treaty states.

A.D.

1844. Creation of Pondo treaty state.
1846. Commencement of seventh Kaffir war.
1847. Creation of the province of British Kaffraria.
1848. Proclamation of British sovereignty over the territory between the Orange and Vaal rivers.
1850. Commencement of eighth Kaffir war.
1851. Commencement of first Basuto war.
1852. Acknowledgment by Great Britain of the independence of the South African Republic.
1854. Abandonment by Great Britain of the Orange River Sovereignty.
- Establishment of the Orange Free State.
- Introduction of a representative legislature in the Cape Colony.
1858. Second Basuto war (first with the Orange Free State).
1865. Commencement of third Basuto war.
- Annexation of British Kaffraria to the Cape Colony.
1867. Commencement of fourth Basuto war.
1868. Annexation of Basutoland to the British Empire.
1869. Discovery of diamonds in South Africa.
1871. Creation of the province of Griqualand West.
1872. Introduction of responsible government in the Cape Colony.
1877. Annexation of the South African Republic to the British Empire.
- Commencement of ninth Kaffir war.
1879. British conquest of Zululand.
1880. Annexation of Griqualand West to the Cape Colony.
- Commencement of fifth Basuto war.
1881. Recovery of independence by the South African Republic.
1884. Commencement of the German Protectorate of the western coast belt north of the Orange river.
1885. Creation of the province of British Betschuanaland.
1886. Opening of extensive gold-fields in the South African Republic.
1887. Annexation of Zululand to the British Empire.
1889. Grant of a charter to the British South Africa Company.
1893. Introduction of responsible government in Natal.
- Defeat of the Matabele by the British South Africa Company.

A.D.

1894. Annexation of Pondoland to the Cape Colony.
1895. Annexation of British Betschuanaland to the Cape Colony.
1896. Year of troubles. Insurrection at Johannesburg. Invasion of the South African Republic by the British South Africa Company's forces under Dr. Jameson. Terrible loss of life and property by explosion of dynamite at Johannesburg. Insurrection in Rhodesia. Great distress in many localities from drought and ravages of locusts. Almost complete destruction of cattle by rinderpest in a vast extent of territory. Foundering at sea of a passenger steamer from the Cape to England, and loss of all on board except three individuals.
- 1899 (11th of October). Commencement of war between Great Britain and the two republics.
- 1902 (31st of May). Restoration of peace by the Treaty of Vereeniging. The former republics become British colonies.
- 1903 to 1909. Years of great depression throughout South Africa.
1910. Formation of the Union of South Africa.
- 1914 and 1915. Conquest of German South-West Africa by forces of the Union.

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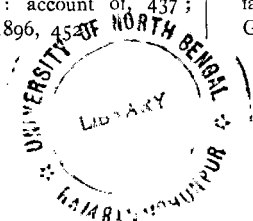
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