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SOUTH AFRICA

THIRD EDITION

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HANDBOOK

TO

SOUTH AFRICA

SOUTH AFRICA:

INCLUDING

CAPE COLONY, NATAL, THE DIAMOND FIELDS, TRANSVAAL,
ORANGE FREE STATE, DELAGOA BAY, &c.

ALSO A GAZETTEER.

A FEW OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.

EASTERN PROVINCE HERALD.—'Messrs. S. W. Silver & Co. have frequently published small pamphlets descriptive of the British colonies, but the "Handbook" before us is superior to anything of the kind we have seen. The map has been expressly prepared for this work, and seems to be correct so far as we can judge. The author acknowledges the assistance of gentlemen whose names are a sufficient guarantee of the correctness of the information given, which is both varied and extensive. The chapters on scenery and climate, natural history and forests, fruits and flowers, are well deserving of attention. The remarks on ostrich farming are interesting, and the authorities quoted trustworthy. As a whole the "Handbook for South Africa" is got up in a highly creditable manner, and contains a large amount of valuable information. The well-arranged index is a great assistance when reference is required. The colony is indebted to Messrs. Silver & Co. for the publication of this work, which will be of great service to intending immigrants. A work of this kind was wanted, and the Handbook will in some measure supply a desideratum long felt.'

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FIELD.—'This publication is one of considerable value. It affords much general and local information about South Africa, as well as forming a handy book of reference, for which latter purpose it is well qualified by the capital method of arrangement observed throughout, and by the addition of a gazetteer and index.'

ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS.—'It should be consulted by all who seek information concerning the British Colonies and the Dutch Republics in that region of the world. Abundant details are supplied of their history, topography, geology, and mineralogy, climate, botany, and zoology; of the character and condition of their native races, their colonial population, agriculture, forests, pastoral resources, mining, trade, and other industries; of their land laws and sales, their tariffs, prices, and wages, and of their government affairs. The volume is furnished with a good map.'

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MAP OF THE
BRITISH COLONIES
AND ADJACENT TERRITORIES.
IN SOUTH AFRICA.
Constructed for S. W. Silver & Co's Handbook
by W. J. Turner.
1880
English Miles
Railways in operation — Railways projected — Post Roads
CAPE COLONY.
Western Division.
1 CAPE (Seat of G)
2 BEAUFORT
3 BEAUFORT WEST
4 CAMPBELL
5 CARNUPA
6 CLANWILLIAM
7 FRASERBURG
8 GEORGE
9 KENHARA
10 MALMESBURY
11 MOSSEL BAY
12 NAMAQUA LAND
13 OUTSHOORN
14 PAARL
15 PIQUETBERG
16 PRINCE ALBERT
17 RIVERSDALE
18 ROBERTSON
19 STELLENBOSCH
20 SWELLENDAM
21 TULBAGH
22 VICTORIA WEST
23 WORCESTER
Eastern Division.
24 ALBANY
25 ALBERT
26 ALEXANDRIA
27 ALMA NORTH
28 BATHURST
29 BEDFORD
30 CRADOCK
31 CRADOCK
32 FORT BEAUFORT
33 GRAAF-REYNET
34 HOPE TOWN
35 KUMAGA FORT
36 MIDDLEBURG
37 MURRAYSBURG
38 PEDDIE
39 PORT ELIZABETH
40 QUEEN'S TOWN
41 RICHMOND
42 SOMERSET
43 STOCKENSTROM
44 UITENHAAR
45 VICTORIA EAST
46 EAST LONDON
47 KING WILLIAM TOWN
48 WODEHOUSE
NATAL (Counties of)
I PIETER-MARITZBURG
II D'URBAN
III KLIP RIVER
IV WEENEN
V UMVOTI
VI VICTORIA
VII UPPER UMKOMANZI
VIII ALEXANDRA
IX ALFRED
X NEWCASTLE
Sketch to show the relative position of South Africa to
THE BRITISH ISLANDS, THE MEDITERRANEAN, THE SUEZ CANAL,
ADEN, ZANZIBAR, AND THE MAURITIUS.
EUROPE
ASIA
AFRICA
Atlantic Ocean
Indian Ocean
Pacific Ocean
Delagoa Bay
Orange R.
Great Namaqua Land
Great Bushman Land
Middle Land
Kalahari Desert
Agulhas Bank
Port Nolloth
Cape Town
Table Bay
Algoa Bay
Port Elizabeth
East London
Durban
Pietermaritzburg
Natal
Transvaal
Basutoland
Griqualand West
Griqualand East
Kaffraria
Zululand
Tongaland
Amatongaland
Gazaland
Manica
Matabele Land
Mashona Land
Damaraland
Ovampo Land
Benguela
Angra Pequena
Walvisch B.
Sandwich B.
Kelly's Bird I.
Spencer B.
Ichaboe I.
Elizabeth B.
Van Reenen's Gov
Angra Juniel
C. Voltas
Hondeklip B.
Kookeveld R.
Groene R.
Saldanha B.
Table Bay & Cape Town
Simon's B.
C. of Good Hope
Cape Agulhas
Algoa B.
Mossel Bay
Knysna
Plettenberg B.
Mouth of Great Fish River
Mouth of Great Kei River
St. Lucia B.
Inhambane
C. Corrientes
C. Lady Grey
St. Sebastian
Lourenco I.
Inhambane Riv.
Delagoa I.
Limpopo R.
Zambesi R.
Kuruman
Griquatown
Philippolis
Aliwal North
Colesberg
Cradock
Graaf-Reynet
Beaufort West
Prince Albert
Worcester
Paarl
Malmesbury
Clanwilliam
Namaqua Land
Kamiesberg
Hantam Mts.
Roggeveld Mts.
Nieuwveld Mts.
Sneeuwberg
Winterberg
Stormberg
Drakensberg
Quathlamba Mts.
Maluti Mts.
Lebombo Mts.
Zoutpansberg
Waterberg
Magaliesberg
Witwatersberg
Langeberg
Outeniqua Mts.
Zwartberg
Hex River Mts.
Cedarberg
Kamiesberg
Orange Free State
Transvaal
Basutoland
Griqualand West
Griqualand East
Kaffraria
Zululand
Tongaland
Amatongaland
Gazaland
Manica
Matabele Land
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Zoutpansberg
Waterberg
Magaliesberg
Witwatersberg
Langeberg
Outeniqua Mts.
Zwartberg
Hex River Mts.
Cedarberg
Kamiesberg

1459



S. W. SILVER & CO.'S

HANDBOOK

TO

SOUTH AFRICA

INCLUDING

THE CAPE COLONY, NATAL, THE DIAMOND FIELDS,
THE TRANSVAAL, ORANGE FREE STATE, ETC.

ALSO

A GAZETTEER AND MAP.

THIRD EDITION,

REVISED AND CORRECTED TO PRESENT DATE.

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PREFACE

TO

THE THIRD EDITION.

THE continued popularity of this Handbook has rendered the production of a Third Edition necessary. The work has been revised throughout, and important changes and additions have been made in order to secure accuracy and to bring all information up to the latest date.

The Map also has been revised with care, and corrected to the present time.

July 1, 1880.

PREFACE

TO

THE SECOND EDITION.

THE 1875 EDITION of this Handbook, having been received with favour by the public, has been exhausted, rendering another edition necessary. The work as now issued will be found to have many important additions, comprising chapters on new subjects as well as extended information under former heads. Recent annexation to the Cape of large native districts has rendered necessary a revision of some of the territorial and geographical statements. A full account is given of the newly added districts themselves, the facts having been obtained from the best sources. The chapter on Natal has been re-written and considerably enlarged, and this is the case also with the chapters on the Free State, the Transvaal and the Gold Fields. The Handbook may now, indeed, be considered to fairly represent not only the Cape Colony, but the whole of South Africa. The statistical returns given in the Cape census for 1875 and the latest Cape Blue Book have, as far as possible, been embodied in the work, thus securing accuracy and bringing information up to the latest date.

The work has been enriched by etchings representing prominent localities and characteristic industries.

PREFACE

TO

THE FIRST EDITION.

A HANDBOOK TO SOUTH AFRICA, containing full information respecting some of the oldest settlements of the British Crown, has long been a *desideratum*, and has recently become something more in consequence of the rapid commercial and social progress of these now flourishing colonies, and of the corresponding increase in their trade and communication with Europe.

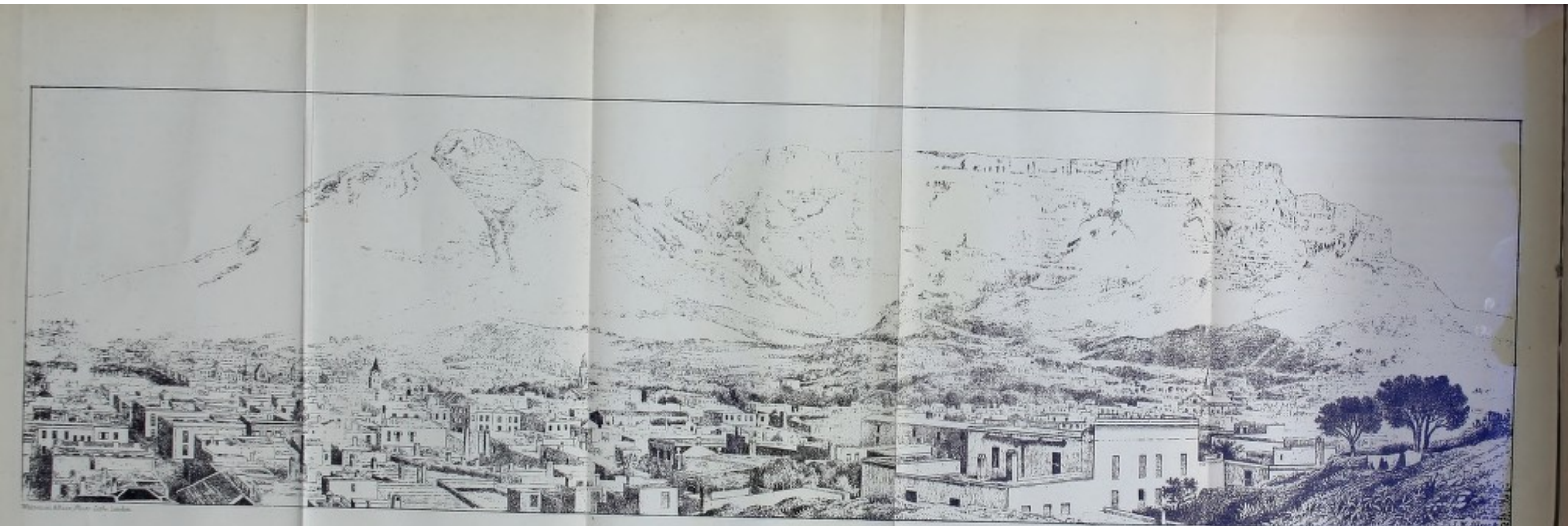
No apology can, therefore, be necessary for this volume, but it may be well to explain that the author has attempted more than a cursory description of the country. He has thought it desirable to give a historical sketch of a settlement as old as the seventeenth century, and having features of particular interest, both from the different nationalities which figure in the story, and the long-continued struggles of the settlers with hostile native tribes.

He has also borne in mind that South Africa is a rich and inviting field to the naturalist, the student of physical geography, and the sportsman, and he has therefore given as full an account of the physical features of

the country, its animal and vegetable life, and its climatic variations, as space permitted, the latter being especially dwelt on in reference to their influence on European invalids afflicted with pulmonary disorders. He has endeavoured, indeed, to make the volume serviceable, not only to commercial men, but to those who desire condensed information on a country which has heretofore been less under the eye of the British public than any colony of the Empire.

In accomplishing his task the author has been especially assisted by Henry Hall, Esq., R.E.D.; Dr. J. C. Brown, late Colonial Botanist; the Hon. Mr. Porter, late Attorney-General; J. V. Vipan, Esq., and T. B. Glanville, Esq., gentlemen whose knowledge of the subjects on which they have contributed valuable information is well known to all Cape colonists.

It may be well to call attention to the Gazetteer in the Appendix, which will give the reader every information on the various divisions and localities in South Africa. The Map at the commencement of the volume has been recently constructed, and includes the latest geographical additions to South Africa, the various diamond settlements on the banks of the Vaal, and the routes of the projected railways.



CAPE TOWN AND TABLE MOUNTAIN.

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HANDBOOK

TO

SOUTH AFRICA.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE history and present position of Her Majesty's possessions in South Africa are perhaps less known to Englishmen generally than that of any portion of the British Empire. The semi-foreign character of the population, laws, and institutions of the older settlements, the number of natives as compared with Europeans—we must add perhaps the slow rate of progress, commercially and socially, but recently quickened, have conspired to make South Africa almost as much a *terra incognita* as the interior of the continent. Countries with certainly not more producing power, but which have been more fortunate in attracting the capital and labour of Europe, have fairly thrown it into the shade.

Semi-foreign character of the Colony.

This probationary period of African history is, however, fast passing away. The discovery of diamonds to the north of the Orange River, enriching as it has done every part of the country—since the colonists themselves have on the whole been the most successful diggers—the rise of new industries in the colony itself, such as the copper-mining in Namaqualand, and the ostrich-farming in various parts of the country; the revival of old ones consequent on the increased population, and the new openings for trade in the interior, together with the discovery of gold in the Transvaal, and of extensive coal fields in more than one part of Cape Colony, are forcing both the Cape Colony and Natal not only into notice but

General review.

into a commanding position amongst the members of the colonial sisterhood. Indeed, the statistics of the country prove that no colony of the empire has made more progress during the last decade than the Cape and its satellites beyond the frontier. Sir George Grey's famous prophecy that South Africa would one day become a great country is in course of fulfilment. Fourteen years ago one steamer per month between Southampton and Table Bay sufficed for the needs of the colony; in 1879 two steamers per week could barely cope with the increased trade. Since 1868 the revenue and imports of the colony have trebled in value; and if we include diamonds and gold, the exports have increased in a nearly equal ratio. The activity of the Government in promoting reproductive public works and improving the internal communications of the country happily corresponds to this increasing wealth and prosperity. The Cape has all but completed four main lines of railway, and Natal is constructing a fifth. Inland telegraphs are being extended, and public works, in the shape of roads, bridges, and mountain passes, are being pushed with vigour by the local engineers. Emigration agents are employed by the Cape and Natal to forward skilled labour of all kinds to these colonies for the service of the Government and of private firms; and it may be added that European enterprise and capital are steadily making their influence felt throughout the country.

Main divisions.

South Africa may be said to comprise all territory from the northernmost point of the Transvaal, in 22° south latitude, to Cape Agulhas, latitude 34° 49′, at the extremity of the Cape peninsula. It includes

(1) British Colonies under the dominion of the British Crown.

(2) The Orange Free State, an independent Dutch Republic.

(3) Countries inhabited by and still in possession of native tribes, of which Pondoland, between the Cape and Natal, Zululand, to the north of the latter country, Damara and Ovampoland, on the west coast and to the north of Great Namaqualand, form the chief portions.

(4) Portuguese territories on the East Coast between Delagoa Bay and Quillimane.

The British South African Provinces are: the Cape Colony, including Griqualand West, with its Diamond Fields; Basutoland and the Transkeian districts; Natal, on the East Coast; and the Transvaal.

Inter-communion with Natal,

The increasing trade of the last few years has done much to promote friendly intercourse between the Cape Colonists and Natalians, who hold possession of the coast, and the Dutch settlers northwards of the Orange River. These latter communities, which were formed by the migration of the Dutch Boers at the close of the Kaffir war of 1835–6, remained for a long time isolated in feeling as well as position from the Cape Colonists, and a portion of them are, indeed, to a considerable extent still so. But the opening up of the Northern trade, consequent on the successful prosecution of the diamond industry, has done much to break down political and social divisions. Recent events justify the hope that ere long a Federation of the South African Governments and dependencies similar to the Dominion of Canada may be established.

and with the Trans-Orange territory.

Already the Cape Colony and Natal are so associated with the Trans-Orange territories in commercial and social relationships, and the whole life of the country, if we may so say, has flowed so persistently northwards, that the time has passed when a Handbook of South Africa can deal exclusively with the older settlements. It is nevertheless true that from the Cape Colony, with its mixed European population, the communities to which reference has been made have sprung, and to give a proper idea of their rise, progress, and present position we must go back to the history and fortunes of the first settlement on the Cape peninsula.

Colony in 1806 contrasted with its present condition.

When Sir David Baird's cannon dispersed the Dutch army which had assembled on the shores of Table Bay at the foot of the Blaauberg, the colony comprised four divisions; the whole population, exclusive of the Kaffirs, consisted of 21,000 whites, 26,000 slaves, and 14,500 Hottentots, a little over 61,000 in all. The revenue was under 100,000*l*. In 1875 the area of the Cape Colony was near upon 300,000 square miles, the population more than one million, the revenue in excess of a million and a half per annum, and the exports and imports close

upon eleven millions. Seventy years ago, in the days of Governor Janssens, a famous Dutch official, old Piet Retief, threw away on the beach two wagon-loads of wool as unsaleable; in 1872 the value of this commodity exported was 3,275,150*l*. At the earlier time the territory to the north of the Orange River was a vast wilderness, covered with game, and traversed by native tribes, who marched on the banks of the Vaal all unconscious of the glittering gems and mines of wealth which slumbered under their feet; now one Dutch republic and two additional English dependencies, including a busy and wealthy community of diamond-diggers, consume and export almost as much of value in commodities as the Cape Colony itself. Natal has shared the commercial prosperity of the Cape. Though more distant from England, its greater nearness to the Trans-Orange settlements and the enterprise and energy of its merchants have enabled it successfully to compete with the Eastern and Western Provinces of the older colony.

Causes contributory to its rapid growth

The spirit of enterprise and exploration inherent in European colonists, the inevitable, or, at all events, the invariable, tendency on the part of the settlers to encroach upon lands previously possessed by the natives, the disposition of the Dutch to *trek* northwards for a home, where they could dwell in undisturbed possession of the soil, must be credited with these results.

Future prospects.

There can be little doubt that still greater successes will yet be achieved. The South African Colonies have a more magnificent back country than perhaps any other British possession. The rich lands of the Transvaal and Free State, the well-watered plains still farther north, are, comparatively speaking, unpeopled. Before twenty years have passed away capital and labour will do wonders for the country immediately to the north of the Orange River, the settlements will be pushed forward to the valley of the Zambezi, and unhealthy swamps will be cleared and fertilised.

In order, therefore, to understand the present position of the South African Settlements, and estimate their chances of future expansion, we must trace their rise and progress, commercially and socially, from the original settlement.

CAPE COLONY.

Discovery and History.

Portuguese Settlement. A.D. 1486 to 1651.

CAPE COLONY

Earliest historic associations.

FEW mere strips of territory can rival in historic interest that of the Cape peninsula. Its celebrated Table Mountain, appearing, as it often does, like a huge solitary rock in the midst of the ocean, must have been seen by the adventurous Phœnicians who, according to Herodotus, circumnavigated the continent of Africa more than six hundred years before Christ; but its real discovery and earliest authentic history are associated with that intrepid band of navigators which made the name of Portugal famous towards the close of the fifteenth century.

Discovery by Bartholomew Diaz in 1486.

In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz was placed in command of a small squadron, fitted out by John II. of Portugal, for the purpose of exploring the East Coast of Africa. Two years before, another Portuguese captain, Diego Cam, and Behem, of Nuremberg, had reached 22° south latitude, on the Western Coast of the continent, and planted a cross on Cape Padrone, or Cape "Cross," near Walvisch Bay; and some few years previously Pedrao Cavalhao had penetrated as far south on the other side of Africa as Sofala, working his way from Abyssinia. Bartholomew Diaz, in pursuance of his instructions, having first landed and erected a cross on Sierra Parda, in 24° south latitude, a few miles south of the present Sandwich Harbour, and landed also at Cape Voltas, south of the Orange River, near Alexander Bay, both

CAPE COLONY

on the Western Coast, sailed round the south point, doubling the Cape in the first instance accidentally, having been driven by stress of weather out of sight of land. But he landed on September 14, 1486, and planted a cross on St. Croix Island, in Algoa Bay, penetrating as far as the Great Fish River, which he named, after one of his own captains (destined himself subsequently to command a fleet in those same waters), Rio del Infante. A mutiny on board his ships compelled him to abandon the idea of farther explorations and to turn homewards. It was in so doing that he sighted the Cape, to which he gave the name of Cabo Tormentoso, or Stormy Cape, a designation certainly warranted by his experience of it; but John II. changed the name to one of brighter omen—Cabo de bona Esperanza, the Cape of Good Hope—which it has ever since borne.

Mutiny on board his ships.

Bartholomew Diaz subsequently sailed with Cabral to the West Indies, but finally perished off the Cape in a ship belonging to a fleet under Pedro Alvarez.

Vasco da Gama. Discovery of Natal, 1497.

On July 4, 1497, the great navigator Vasco da Gama sailed from Lisbon in command of a small squadron of three ships, manned by sixty sailors, bent on discovering a new route to India *viâ* the Cape of Good Hope. On November 19 he doubled the Cape, and on Christmas Day discovered the Coast of Natal, subsequently exploring the East Coast as far as Melinda, including Delagoa Bay, Quillimane, and Mozambique.

Like Bartholomew Diaz, Vasco da Gama experienced not a little hardship and danger arising from the perils and privations of the deep, and still more from the mutinous conduct of his men, of many of whom it might be said, as of some of the followers of the great Columbus, that their whole courage seemed to lie in insubordination, for however bold in their resistance to authority, they were soon discouraged in the presence of danger. But, like that greater commander in his more memorable expedition, Vasco was able to meet and overcome these difficulties by tact and firmness.

Early attempts at settlement by the Portuguese.

The Cape of Good Hope seems to have been regarded by the Portuguese as chiefly valuable as a house of call for vessels on their way to and from India, and their attempts to form settlements on the great African continent were at best but few and fitful. Still, early in the

sixteenth century, we read of settlements in Angola and on Robben Island, &c., and as years passed on the number of these settlements increased; but it is not until we come to the Dutch occupation that we reach what may properly be called the first period in the history of Cape Colony.

Dutch Occupation.

A.D. 1652 to 1806.

Dutch and English expeditions.

The Dutch were not slow to see the great advantage of the position of the Cape peninsula, not simply as a shipping station, but as the home for a thriving and populous settlement. But others beside them had long before this been inclined to dispute with Portugal the exclusive right to the Cape territory. As early as 1591 an English fleet, under the command of Captain James Lancaster (since famous as an arctic navigator) anchored in Table Bay; and in 1620 formal possession of the Cape of Good Hope was taken by Captains Shillinge and Fitzherbert, in the name of his Majesty, James I. It was in 1595 that the first Dutch fleet, under Jan de Molenaar, consisting of four ships, anchored in Table Bay—the voyage out and home lasting just two years and four months. But nothing more seems to have come of either of these expeditions.

Dutch East India Company.

The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602 (three years after that of our own country), and for fifty years each Dutchman on his way to and from India was doomed to gaze with envious eyes on the fair Portuguese possessions.

Landing of Jan Van Riebeek.

At last, in 1652, Jan Van Riebeek landed in Table Bay, with a small party of colonists, empowered to form a settlement at the Cape of Good Hope. A fort was commenced on the Zoete, or Sweet River, which forms the nucleus of the present castle.

The Riebeek settlers.

The country was at that time inhabited by a people called Quaiquæ, to whom the Dutch gave the name of Hottentots. The Riebeek settlers were but poorly furnished in the first instance, and underwent great hardships. For many years their territory extended only a very few miles round the present site of Cape Town, but they gradually extended their borders. Partly by force, and partly by contracts so devised that all the advantage

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should be on one side, they deprived the natives by degrees of more and more of their country, and never scrupled to make slaves of them when they had the power. Besides the Dutch, the community included Germans, Flemings, Portuguese, and adventurers from other European countries.

Items of early colonial history.

We must not linger over these earlier years of the Dutch occupation, but will extract a few choice morsels from Mr. Hall's admirable table of chronological events attached to his 'Manual of South African Geography,' as samples which will tell more of the general condition and customs of the people than many pages of mere description :—

'June 6, 1652.—First child born in the Fort of Good Hope.'

'October 2. — Herman Van Vogelaar, Volunteer, sentenced to one hundred blows from the butt of his musket, for wishing the purser at the devil for serving out penguins instead of beef and pork.

'January 23, 1653.—This night it appeared as if the lions would take the fort by storm.

'April 24, 1654.—This day there was found in the mountain a dead bosman-neken, called in Batavia an ourang-outang, as large as a small calf, with long hairy arms and legs of a dark grey colour, which our people ate from hunger, for there is little nourishment in the pot-herbs.

'Young girls sent from orphan houses in Amsterdam to Cape.

'January 8, 1655.—The chaplain's wife gives birth to a second son. All the other ladies are also soon likely to follow her example.

'March 15, 1657.—Jan Wouters, assistant, sentenced, for blasphemous injuries against the characters of females at the Cape, including the commander's wife, to beg pardon on his bare knees, to be bored through the tongue, to forfeit his wages, and to be banished three years.' It is added in explanation that he was mercifully dealt with in not having a heavier sentence passed upon him, on account of his wife's pregnancy, her hope of increasing the population of the colony evidently being set over against the 'blasphemous injuries' inflicted by her husband on other ladies.

'March 26, 1658.—First cargo of slaves from Guinea arrived at the Cape.'

First war between colonists and natives.

'1659.—First war between colonists and natives, caused by cattle stolen by the latter from near Liesbeek River.

'May 7, 1662.—Commander Jan Van Riebeek embarks with his family for Batavia. Ten years since the formation of the settlement.'

Van Wagenaar successor to Jan Van Riebeek.

August 10.—His successor, Van Wagenaar, prays the Council of Seventeen to send him, by next ships, a little coarse window-glass and lead, to glaze the windows of the fort, now only covered with some coarse cotton, and a few common paintings, to cover the ugly bare walls of our front hall, as well as two or three of our desolate dwellings. Next year he asks for two bells 'to enliven the farmers in this lonely place.' The date on the bell, which still rings the hours in the castle, is 1697. This must have been long after poor Van Wagenaar had ceased to pray the great Council of the Seventeen.

In 1665 an unsuccessful attempt was made to capture, by surprise, an English man-of-war, the 'King Charles,' which had anchored in Table Bay.

In 1666 Antony Jans and Antony Arents sentenced, for stealing a cabbage, to be flogged, to work in irons on Robben Island for three years, and forfeit four months' wages. Certainly these sentences do not 'lean to mercy's side.' Nor could even the graces of civilised society be cultivated without cost, for the following year Governor Van Quaalbergen was dismissed the company's service, for exchanging civilities with a French governor, homeward-bound, and not allowing him to 'float on his own fins.'

These are the sort of trifles of which human life is made, and which, therefore, belong more truly to human *history* than much that seems to be of greater dignity and moment.

But there is one event which ought not to be passed over quite so lightly.

Arrival of French Huguenots, 1685–8.

During the years 1685–8 the colony at Cape Town was largely reinforced by French emigrants, mostly Huguenots, driven from their own country by the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, of whom as many as three hundred men, women, and children—steady, industrious, intelligent, conscientious—settled down in the neigh-

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bourhood of the Paarl and Stellenbosch. They introduced a new and most valuable social element into colonial life; and they added largely to its industrial resources by the introduction of the vine, the culture of which is becoming almost every year a matter of greater importance to the Cape community. The famous Constantia Vineyards were first planted by S. Van der Stell about 1688.

By 1714 they began to be celebrated for their luscious wines, and in 1794 paid an annual tribute to the Government of sixty half-aums of wine at twenty-five rix-dollars each.

Gradually the vineyards spread along what is now the line of the Wellington Railway to the foot of the Hottentot Holland Mountains, and afterwards through the mountain passes, brightening the landscape, and supporting, as they continue to do, a very considerable population.

First Moravian mission established by Schmidt.

In 1739 the first Moravian mission was established by Schmidt on the site of the present Genadendal. It was looked upon with great distrust and jealousy by the Dutch authorities. Schmidt was forbidden to baptize his Hottentot converts, and, after four years of incessant and harassing opposition, compelled to leave the Cape. So determined was the hostility of the Government, that a parish clerk, for having been associated with him, was deprived of his appointment and ordered to Batavia. Fifty years later this mission was renewed under fairer auspices.

Destructive gale.

On May 20, 1737, occurred a terrible gale, during which seven richly-laden East Indiamen, homeward-bound, were wrecked on the shore of Table Bay. Out of 714 men belonging to these ships' crews 207 souls perished, and the loss of merchandise was very great. One East Indiaman, riding at anchor at the time, was saved owing to the presence of mind of the head steersman, who weighted the anchor with three large iron cannons, by which they were able to withstand the gale. On returning home he was rewarded with a ship of his own to command. The storm occurred on the day before that in which the ships were to have sailed, so that all their captains were on shore at the time to receive their papers.

Dutch military

In a curious old book published in Germany in 1784 many interesting details are given of the social life and

manners of the period. According to Mr. O. F. Muntzel, the author, military life at the Castle must have gone on from day to day like some elaborate piece of Dutch clock-work. Everything was arranged, down to the minutest detail, to take place to the minute with faultless regularity. On account of the tremendously stormy winds, he informs us, no open clock can be used at the Cape, but in the Castle there was an accurately manufactured sun-dial, and in the guard-house two soldiers, called 'Rondegangers,' whose sole duty it was to watch an hour-glass, and take turns to reverse it when the sand had run out. Then they had to ascend a small tower placed over the Castle-gate, and with a cudgel strike a bell weighing six hundredweight as many blows as may denote the hour. At four o'clock in the morning the guard turns out, and different officials have to be called, each in the proper rotation. As soon as the guard under arms are relieved, the two trumpeters sound a morning call by a flourish of their trumpets. When these have finished, the drummer belonging to the guard-house steps out, as well as the one selected for the day, and they sound the reveille. In the meantime the adjutant and sergeants arrive, and by this time it is so light that a written paper can be read. The guard are now called to arms, and the adjutant, accompanied by seven of the patrol, goes to Government House, in order to fetch the key of the gate, which is carried by one soldier and protected by the other six with pikes. When the adjutant returns only the little door in the gate is opened; the corporal and two men go out, see if all outside is right, let down the bar, leave one man by it as sentry, and then return with the other to report. Hereupon the main guard present arms, the gate is opened, the drummer beats a roll upon his drum, the sentry at the bar fixes it above and places himself at his post outside the Castle-gate, and the man up in the tower tolls the bell, whilst the adjutant and his seven attendants take the key to Government House and give it over.

life at the Castle.

At six o'clock and again at seven some more clockwork has to be gone through; and when the 'rondeganger' has struck nine o'clock he rings the bell, as a sign that the Senate will now assemble, either for matters of justice or political consultations, and all who are sum-

Legal and other arrangements.

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moned before it or who have any complaint to make must appear. On Saturdays all matters concerning the matrimonial state come before it. Those who are engaged and wish to be married must, before the banns are published, present themselves in person, and be examined as to whether there are any hindrances in the shape of near relationship, blood-kindred, or anything else. If not, their names are entered in a register, and a matrimonial *permit* is handed them.

Again at eleven o'clock the signal was given for mechanics, workpeople, and slaves to take their hour of rest; clerks and officials were also permitted to lay aside the pen and go home.

At twelve, one, two, four, six—more clockwork, until at seven, with many elaborate manœuvres, everything was wound up for the night, and the 'rondegangers' kept watch while the Castle slept.

Such elaborate *playing at soldiers* may have served to relieve, where it did not aggravate, the monotony of colonial life, but was worse than useless as a precautionary measure against any real dangers menacing the Cape settlement. In spite of all their drill the soldiers were wretchedly inefficient, and the Castle would almost at any time have been at the mercy of an attacking force.

But if such were the ideas at Cape Castle one ceases to wonder at the mingled weakness and tyranny of the system of policy that too often characterised the Government; the childish and vexatious restrictions, the needless interferences with trade and agriculture, all tending to discourage industry and enterprise and to irritate the minds of the settlers.

Social customs, periodical festivals, &c. &c.

But we have more genial pictures of social life in the colony at this period. It seems to have been the custom (and here regularity of observance was certainly an advantage) for the Governor to give two great entertainments every year—one in February, as a farewell to the first East Indian homeward-bound fleet which was ready to leave, when the admiral, vice-admiral, commander, and all the ships' captains were magnificently entertained. The other was held on October 20, when the Burgher force had gone through their annual military evolutions. There were games, music, and dancing,

a vast consumption of gunpowder; no lack of wine, beer, pastry, cakes, and every kind of refreshment. There seems, in fact, to have been an abundance of everything except moderation. Drunkenness was provided for in the programme almost as a matter of course on these auspicious occasions. It must be conceded that if these grave Dutchmen took their pleasure sadly, they took it, as far as could be, decorously. It was arranged that some companies should keep the feast one day, the others the next, so that the whole garrison might not be disabled together. By this arrangement all were enabled to get quietly and comfortably intoxicated in turn to their hearts' content, as often as the great Carnival of the Cape came round.

Administration of justice.

The punishments inflicted upon criminals and others were not without a certain grim humour, as may be judged from the examples already cited; but they were oftentimes arbitrary and brutal in the extreme. It was the custom for prisoners awaiting their trial to be confined in a dark hole, with their feet in the stocks, or secured by an iron chain, for four, five, or six weeks before they underwent their preliminary trial or first examination. 'This,' as the chronicler before quoted naïvely remarks, 'often had an excellent effect—they became through it so docile and so mild that they confessed all that was in their hearts.' No wonder, poor fellows, if they sometimes confessed a great deal more.

One graphic account is given of the execution of a poor wretch named Barbier, who seems to have been guilty of intrigue and falsehood, and who doubtless deserved some punishment. But he was taken to the place of execution, and, after a short prayer from the Reformed Church minister, was stripped naked by the executioner's assistant, and bound upon a double wooden cross, used for those who were condemned to be broken on the wheel. First, his right hand was struck off with an axe, then his head, and afterwards he was drawn and quartered. The entrails were buried under the gallows. The head and hand were nailed upon a pole, and this was placed upon the highway leading from the Castle to the Plattelands. The four quarters were sent far into the inhabited districts, and there securely nailed upon posts.

'After this mournful and tragical spectacle,' adds the

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chronicler, 'all was again peaceful and quiet through the whole Cape of Good Hope, and with truth one could say that no one in this place found his happiness in looking forward to better times, but rather possessed it in a peaceful enjoyable present.'

Severe military punishment.

An ordinary punishment for a military offence, such as sleeping on guard, which, in the drowsy summer months, with the south-east wind blowing, often required no common resolution to prevent, was for the culprit to be placed between three halberds (or triangle), so that he could not move himself, and, in this position, to be beaten by two persons with thin Spanish reeds or canes half a finger thick. These flagellators were relieved from time to time by soldiers of the main guard, so that each criminal had to bear about eight or ten reliefs, selected two and two from among his comrades, who, it is to be hoped, were merciful in their administration. After this he had to march backwards and forwards as he was best able, before the guard-house, bearing five muskets on his shoulders, and was confined to barracks for six, eight, or twelve weeks.

This inhuman punishment was afterwards reduced to running the gauntlet ten or twelve times, which was considered a remarkably mild measure.

Abuses remedied.

Towards the close of the Dutch occupation many of the more flagrant abuses were remedied, and incompetent and tyrannical governors superseded, but to the very last far too much power was entrusted to them. As a general rule, it may be said of the local Government that it attempted too much, and as the inevitable result accomplished too little. It was weak but meddlesome. It attempted to teach everybody his business; interfered in all sorts of matters, commercial, social, and political, that had much better have been left to themselves, while matters of far greater moment were neglected which belonged legitimately to its own province. Thus, so late as 1780, when an English fleet, under Commander Johnstone, was threatening the Cape, and the only defence of the Dutch for the time being lay in the French fleet, under Admiral Suffren, at St. Jago, leisure was found for such vexatious trifling as the following deed of burghership granted to J. H. Gous, tailor, formerly a soldier: 'He is graciously allowed to

practise his craft as a tailor, but shall not be allowed to abandon the same or adopt any other mode of living, but, when it may be deemed necessary, to go back into his old capacity and pay, and be transported hence if thought fit.'

Native policy.

To this mischievous and mistaken policy may be attributed, indirectly, many of the barbarities that took place in connection with the native population. Too weak to discharge its own proper functions, the Government was obliged to delegate its power too largely to the farmers themselves, and, as was almost inevitable, this power was abused in many cases; in some instances shamelessly abused, though never, so far as we have been able to discover, to such an extent as to justify the language employed by a recent writer, who charges the colonial commanders of the olden time with the 'commission of cruelties more horrible than any perpetrated by Cortes in Mexico or Pizarro in Peru.' Where the reality is unquestionably so bad it is needless to indulge in exaggeration. The abuses inseparable from a state of slavery existed, and were sometimes aggravated by special causes. And the settlers were, doubtless, often irritated almost beyond endurance by the robbery of their cattle, by the wanton injury done to their property, and by the treachery of the natives. With the power of punishment almost absolutely in their own hands, justice was morally sure sometimes to give place to vengeance; and while we cannot justify their conduct, our own hands are not, unfortunately, so clean in the matter as to qualify us to pronounce a very weighty condemnation on them.

Boundary between Hottentots and Kaffirs.

The Gamtoos River formed the boundary between the Hottentots and Kaffir races, and was early adopted by the Dutch as their eastern boundary. But with the growth of the colony they began to push their territory in this direction past this river, and so came into collision with the Kaffirs. In 1780 they extended their frontier to the Great Fish River.

Governor Janssens.

While meddling in so many matters of trivial importance the Government sometimes displayed a singular want of enterprise and foresight in affairs of greater moment. Thus in 1782 the burghers were forbidden to build a bridge over Berg River, on the ground of the

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injury it would do to the pontoon-keepers. And some years later Governor Janssens replied to a memorial presented to him by the capital post-town of the colony on the decadence of the country in these remarkable words: 'With regard to your inclination to strengthen the Cape with a new settlement, we must, to our sorrow, but with all sincerity, declare that we cannot perceive any means whereby more people could find a subsistence here, whether by farming or otherwise, partly because those who reside in the Cape or in the Table Valley (except a few gardeners and tradesmen, such as blacksmiths, waggonmakers, shoemakers, and tailors), chiefly subsist by tap-houses, or by lodging ship passengers. Their numbers have, besides, so much increased that, when we contemplate the number of children growing up, we frequently ask ourselves, not only how they could find other means of subsistence, but also what it is to end in at last, and what they can lay hands on to procure their bread,' &c.

It is impossible to read the predictions of this humane, painstaking Governor, so anxious to do what was best and wisest for the colony, but so utterly unable to discern the signs of the times, without feeling that it was time that the 'old order' should give place to the 'new.' It sounds, indeed, almost like a dirge on that which was already decaying and waxing old, and ready soon to vanish away.

The transfer of power from the Dutch to the English may be said to have commenced before this time, but was effected by degrees and very slowly. In fact, it took as many as twenty years from the first authorised interposition of England before the colony passed once and for all under British power.

Rebellion against Dutch.

In 1795 the colonists of Graaf-Reynet and Swellendam, teased partly into insurrection by the mingled weakness and arbitrariness of the Cape Government, and acting partly it may be under the contagion of the revolutionary principles which then prevailed in Europe, rebelled against the Dutch dominion, expelled the landdrosts of both these districts, and declared a free republic at Swellendam. The British Government thereupon sent a fleet to support the authority of the Prince of Orange and take possession of the colony in his name. Admiral

Colony becomes a British possession

Elphinstone and General Craig were placed in command, and on the capitulation of the Cape the latter was appointed first English Governor. A new spirit was infused into the conduct of public affairs. Batteries were erected on Devil's Hill and Craig's Tower, and Fort Frederic built in Algoa Bay. The first native regiment of Hottentots was also raised by General Craig. He was succeeded in 1797 by Earl Macartney, who proclaimed the colonial boundary to be the Great Fish River, Tarka, Bamboesberg, and Zuurbergen, to the Plettenberg Baaken, and along the south edge of Bushmanland to the Kamiesberg, and along the Buffel's River to the Atlantic. Lord Macartney had to contend with not a little jealousy and opposition on the part of the Dutch colonists during what may be called the British Protectorate. On one occasion the burgher senate actually refused the Governor the use of the Town Hall to celebrate the King's birthday. Sir G. Young was appointed Governor in 1800, and the following year, at the Peace of Amiens, it was agreed that the Cape should be restored to the Batavian republic. In accordance with this treaty it was evacuated by the English, and passed once more into the possession of Holland, General Janssens, whose dismal prognostications of the future we have quoted, being appointed Governor.

The first English Governor.

Governor Janssens may be said, in that remarkable state-document, to have written without knowing it, the epitaph of the Dutch rule in Cape Colony, for on the renewal of hostilities England determined to take possession. Her fleet is signalled off Cape Town on January 4, 1806. The battle of Blaawberg is fought on the 8th, and on the 10th the town capitulates to the English forces under Sir David Baird. The final capitulation of General Janssens took place on the 27th January, from which day the British ensign has, we believe, never ceased to float from Cape Castle, though it was not until the Treaty of Paris (1815) that the Cape of Good Hope was formally and definitely ceded by the King of the Netherlands.

The battle of Blaawberg.

Establishment and Consolidation of British Power.

A.D. 1806 to 1874.

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General condition of colony.

We commence our brief history of this period with a bird's-eye view of the general condition of the colony during the seven years of the first British occupation. For the particulars given we are mainly indebted to Mr. George M. Theal's admirable compendium of South African History and Geography,' a third edition of which was issued in 1877 by the Lovedale Institution Press.

Cape Town.

Cape Town, at the commencement of the present century, contained between 1,100 and 1,200 houses, inhabited by about 5,500 whites and free people of colour, and 10,000 slaves. Besides the Castle, forts, and barracks, its principal buildings were the Government House, the Reformed Dutch Church, the Lutheran Church, the Town Hall, the Hall of the Court of Justice, a theatre, and a large building used as a Government slave-pen. Many of the residents in the town were persons who had estates in the country, and who through their slaves retailed their farm-produce; others were in the Government service; some were petty traders; and some gained a living by hiring out their slaves as artificers and labourers. The free people of colour were mostly fishermen. Food was extremely cheap and plentiful, but fire-wood very dear, as nearly all the large forest trees in the vicinity of the town had long since disappeared. The births were to the deaths as 25 to 11, the rate of mortality being less than three in a hundred annually.

Area and population.

The boundaries of the colony, as proclaimed by Earl Macartney in 1797, have been already given. The area, including the Cape, Stellenbosch, and Drakenstein, Swellendam and Graaf-Reynet districts, was about 120,000 square miles. The entire population is estimated at 61,500, or little more than one soul for every two square miles of ground. Now the area is nearly 300,000 square miles, and the population is about a million and a half.

Settlers and farms.

The farms originally granted to the early settlers were *freehold*, consisting of 120 acres each. The other farms

were held on rental, at a uniform rate of 4*l.* 16*s.* per annum, irrespective of locality, quality of soil, &c. These were in number somewhat under 2,000, nominally of the same size as the freehold farms, but owing to encroachment and other irregularities,—frequently much larger. Indeed, Mr. Theal computes that on an average throughout the whole colony the farms contained four times the quantity of land allowed by Government. The lease was renewable from year to year on payment of the rent, so that the tenure virtually amounted to a lease held in perpetuity. All farm-buildings erected, fruit trees or vineyards, &c., planted, were called 'opstal,' and were saleable like any other kind of property. The produce consisted chiefly of fruit, grain, vegetables, and wine, but the cultivation of the ground was carried on in a very slovenly manner, chiefly by slave-labour, and with implements of the most rude and primitive description. Lord Macartney, during his brief administration, made most praiseworthy efforts to introduce a better system of farming, but without much effect in those early days. Still, something was done, for during the short period of the English occupation, about seven years, although no new tax was imposed upon the people, and many of the old ones were considerably modified, the revenue was increased nearly threefold from what it had been under the last years of the Netherlands East India Company. This, of course, was owing, not so much to improved farming as to improved administration; the change from the old *régime* to one of sound statesmanship and wise enterprise; but, still, some improvement must have taken place in the agriculture of the country to produce such splendid results under circumstances so unfavourable.

Revenue.

The revenue was derived from wine and spirit licences, which were sold annually to the highest bidder; from auction dues, at the rate of three and a half per cent. on moveable goods, and half that percentage on immoveable property; from transfer dues, on the sale of freehold estates of four per cent. on the purchase-money; from land-rents; import and export duties; duty levied on farm-produce, averaging somewhat under five per cent.; from interest on paper money; stamps, sale of opstals; and port fees, at the rate of sixpence per ton on all ships dropping anchor.

The revenue derived from these sources increased in 1798 to 64,000*l.*, in 1799 to 72,000*l.*, in 1800 to 74,000*l.*, and in 1801 to 90,000*l.*, at which figure it was handed over once more to the Dutch Government.

Administration of justice.

The administration of justice also underwent some modification during the English occupation at the close of the last century, though this was rather in the new spirit infused into the government than in any marked alteration in the mode of procedure. In each of the country districts there was a Court of Landdrost and Heemraden, appointed to decide police cases and civil cases when the amount sued for did not exceed 30*l.* In Cape Town there was a petty court with rather greater power, as civil cases, when the sum sued for did not exceed 40*l.*, were therein adjudicated. The Supreme Court, or High Court of Justice, consisted of seven burghers, chosen from the most respectable inhabitants of the town. In the time of the rule of the Company a majority of its members was always secured from among the officers of the Government. At that time the members received no salaries, but were permitted to take presents from one or both of the parties who had suits before the court. Lord Macartney placed them in a more independent position, by attaching salaries to the office. The proceedings of this court were always carried on with closed doors; no oral pleading was admitted, no confronting the accused with the witnesses, the deposition of each being singly taken down before two commissioners on oath, and afterwards read to the court; and all persons, excepting the parties concerned, were excluded from the chamber. Two irreproachable and concurring witnesses were required to substantiate a fact against a delinquent. One witness of good character produced on the part of a person accused of felony was considered of equal weight with two produced against him; and even after sentence had been passed, until the moment of execution, the condemned was allowed to bring forward evidence in his favour. The extreme penalty of the law was never carried out when judgment rested on mere circumstantial evidence, however strong, until confession of guilt had been made. Such confession, under the old Government, was sometimes obtained by torture; but this was no longer in practice. Of 110 persons

capitally convicted during the English occupation only 33 were executed, principally owing to the want of confession. The Fiscal, who acted as Attorney-General and secretary of this court, was supposed to possess legal knowledge. He pointed out the law, upon which the court passed judgment by a majority. From this court there was an appeal, during the Company's rule, in the first instance to the Supreme Court of Batavia, and then to the Supreme Court of Holland, and during the English occupation, in the first instance to a court composed of the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, and then to the King in Council.

Abuses of power by Fiscal.

A monstrous abuse was the power possessed by the Fiscal, in his capacity of police magistrate, of compounding crimes for pecuniary penalties, of which he was himself entitled to one-third. Under the English rule the sum which he could thus demand was limited to 40*l.*

The regulation, which has been before referred to, under which all matrimonial engagements had to be investigated and sanctioned by the Petty Court of Cape Town, in the presence of the parties concerned, before they could be carried into effect, became increasingly oppressive as the boundaries of the colony were extended, and so distances increased. The consent of parents or guardians was necessary in all cases where the parties were under twenty-five years of age, and great was the trouble and expense to which colonists residing on the remote frontier were put to by these vexatious restrictions.

The Orphan Chamber.

Far more beneficent in its operation was the Orphan Chamber, instituted to look after the interests of orphan children. As early as 1654 young girls, as we have seen, were sent from the orphan houses in Amsterdam to the Cape; and throughout the whole period of the Dutch possession, the paternal government of the Cape, if it was a little too paternal in some directions, seems to have been unusually alive to its duties in this respect.

Defective education.

The provision made for education was, however, exceedingly defective. At the commencement of the English occupation there was not one good school in the colony. Soldiers were permitted, on application to the Governor, to engage themselves, under certain restric-

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tions, as tutors in the families of the farmers, for a year at a time. The year's engagement might be, and frequently was, renewed, on a fresh application to the Governor, and in this way suitable men were sometimes passed on from farmer to farmer for years together. Such a schoolmaster, besides food and drink, received tea, coffee, and tobacco, and the first year, monthly, fourteen Dutch gulden, the second year sixteen, and the third year eighteen gulden. But this arrangement was made more with a view to the support of the soldiers (who were let out as overseers on similar terms) than to the education of the children. The matters to be taught were, as might be expected, very rudimentary. 'The Lord's Prayer, commandments, creeds, prayers for morning and evening, grace before and after meals, and the catechism.' No books were allowed to be used except those authorised in Holland, and all schoolmasters were required to signify their assent to the articles of the Synod of Dordrecht. Private tutors of somewhat more pretension were employed in the town, and by some of the farmers of a better class; but in many of the country districts the settlers must frequently have looked with envy on the Mission Schools established by Dr. Vanderkemp and others for the natives, and wished that it were possible to have secured similar advantages for their own children.

'Government Gazette' established.

Towards the close of the English occupation (in the year 1800) the 'Government Gazette' was established, previously to which time there was not a single newspaper nor so much as a book-store in the colony. At Dr. Vanderkemp's institution there was a printing press, with which the first book (a spelling-book for use in the Mission schools) was printed in South Africa. The nucleus of a public library existed, Mr. Dessin having, in 1761, bequeathed nearly 5,000 valuable works to the Reformed Dutch Church in Cape Town for this purpose, but it was seldom made use of.

Social condition.

'In Cape Town and its neighbourhood,' writes Mr. Theal, 'the ordinary comforts and conveniences of life were obtainable, and were enjoyed by most of the whites; but on the loan farms in the interior, comfort, as it is understood now-a-days, was an unknown word. The hovels in which the graziers lived seldom contained more

than two rooms, and frequently only one. They were destitute of the most ordinary furniture. The great waggon-chest, which served for a table as well as a receptacle for clothing, a couple of camp-stools, and a kartel or two (wooden frames with a network of strips of raw hide stretched across them), were the only household goods possessed by many. Crockery-ware, so liable to be broken in long land journeys, they could not reasonably be expected to have had; but it is difficult to account for their being without such common and useful articles as knives and forks. A great portion of their clothing was made of the skins of animals; their blankets, like those of the natives, were karosses of skin. They lived in this manner, not from necessity, but through choice and custom. Many of them were very wealthy in flocks and herds; but having become accustomed to a nomad life, they considered as a superfluity everything that could not be easily removed in a waggon from place to place without damage. A gun, ammunition, and a waggon were the only products of mechanical skill that were absolutely indispensable to a grazier; with these he could provide himself with every other necessary. Some cotton goods for shirts and clothing for females, hats, coffee, and sugar were almost the only other articles he ever thought of purchasing. Those who were stationary and cultivated the land lived more comfortably, and had some of the conveniences of civilised life about them; they were called corn farmers.

'Poverty, in that sense of the word which implies a lack of the means of sustaining life, was unknown throughout the colony. Every white person had food in abundance,' and might have had all the comforts of life, if their use had been known or their want felt. The people of the interior were rude, ignorant, and sometimes cruel. The last of these qualities was the effect partly of their holding human beings in slavery, and partly from their having had for a long period the native races of the country at their mercy, without any check from the Government.' One most striking feature in the character even of some of the most ignorant and degraded of the boers was the strong religious feeling preserved under circumstances so unfavourable. This may have been derived in part from the stock from which they sprang, and was doubt-

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less owing in part, to the infusion of the Huguenot element towards the close of the previous century. We question, however, whether Mr. Theal be quite correct in saying that the French refugees 'had by this time become so intermixed with the other settlers as to have lost their identity, retaining none of that sprightliness which the Gaul possesses in so eminent a degree,' as even in our own day the Gallic element may be distinctly traced in the community.

Such, however, were the materials with which Great Britain had to work, and such the materials out of which, in spite of all mistakes and shortcomings, she has built up the great fabric of colonial empire in South Africa. It remains to trace, so far as our necessarily restricted limits enable us to do, the process by which all this has been accomplished.

Imperial representatives.

Great Britain was certainly fortunate in the choice of her colonial representatives, both during the occupation which preceded the Peace of Amiens, and during the earliest and perhaps most eventful years which marked her resumption of authority there. With the practical sagacity on which they are apt to pride themselves, and which has so frequently characterised the dealings of Englishmen under like circumstances, they did not attempt sudden and startling changes, but quietly accepted the position, with all its disadvantages, and tried to make the best of it.

British policy.

By a few judicious modifications in the procedure of the Court of Justice, Lord Macartney, as we have seen, gradually lessened its abuses, still retaining much of the old legal machinery. The same wise policy was pursued after the restoration. The old constitution was accepted, and the changes that subsequently ensued were as the natural outgrowth of the new elements at work in colonial affairs.

Until the general peace a large military force was of necessity maintained, and a corps of Hottentot infantry was formed, afterwards called the Cape Mounted Rifles.

Last cargo of slaves.

The year 1807 was memorable for the landing of the last cargo of slaves at Cape Town. The following year the foreign slave-trade was abolished by the British

Parliament. Slaves were still sold in the colony, and the price of course rose immediately, though this tendency to increase in price was partly counteracted by the circumstance that the Cape was selected as one of the stations to which slavers captured at sea by British cruisers were brought for condemnation. The negroes taken in these vessels were apprenticed for a term of fourteen years to colonists applying for them.

Hottentots.

The state of the Hottentots at this time was little better than one of slavery. On November 1, 1809, a proclamation was issued by the Governor, the Earl of Caledon, some of the provisions of which, however humane in their intention, must have been most oppressive in their action. It was enacted that 'every Hottentot in the colony should have a fixed place of abode in some one of the districts; that an entry of the same should be made in the office of the fiscal, or of the respective landdrosts, and that no one should be allowed to change his place of abode from one district to another without a certificate from the fiscal or the landdrost of the district from which he wished to remove, which certificate he was bound to exhibit to the fiscal or to the landdrost of the district where he intended to settle, for the purpose of being registered; and every Hottentot neglecting this order was to be considered a vagabond, and treated accordingly. Every Hottentot going about the country, either on the service of his master or on other lawful business, was compelled to be provided with a pass, either from his commanding officer, if in the military service, or the master under whom he served, or the landdrost of the district in which he lived, under penalty of being considered and treated as a vagabond; and every white resident in the country was required to demand a pass from every Hottentot that happened to come to his place, and in case of his not being provided with one, to deliver him up to a field-cornet, landdrost, or fiscal, in order that such an officer might act, after due enquiry, as he should feel incumbent to do.' It almost seems as if, now that by the action of the British Parliament they were prohibited from importing slaves, the people were determined to take it out of the poor Hottentots. Such, however, was certainly not the intention of Lord Caledon in issuing the proclamation from which we have

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quoted. His design was rather to protect the natives. Within the limits of his own district the Hottentot was permitted by this law to choose his own employer; his wages were secured to him by a written contract, which was required to be made before a landdrost or a field-cornet, and without which it was made illegal to engage him for a longer period than a month; ill-treatment was prohibited, and his children could no longer be detained in service without a special contract. But the means of obtaining legal redress for injuries, were placed beyond his reach by the law itself, which would not suffer him to leave his employer's premises without a pass, and placed so many restrictions in his way that it would scarcely have been possible to put the law in force against an oppressive master.

If the Hottentot wished to retain some vestige of liberty, almost the only refuge then existing for him was one or other of the Mission stations which had sprung up in connection with the Moravian, Dutch, London, Wesleyan, and other European Missionary Societies. But these were looked upon with considerable jealousy by the authorities. The boundaries of the new stations were purposely so circumscribed that it was impossible for a large number of persons to maintain themselves, so that in some districts the Mission station was little more than a convenient receptacle for the sick and disabled, while the young and able-bodied were compelled to serve the farmers at fixed wages. A measure, too, was passed by which no Hottentot could take up his residence at a Mission station without the express permission of the landdrost of his district. In spite, however, of opposition and misrepresentation these faithful men pursued their work, not always perhaps wisely, but in such a way as to win the confidence of the natives, and ultimately to command the respect of right-thinking men among the colonists.

Earthquake 1809.

On December 4, 1809, there was a severe shock of earthquake in Cape Town, or rather several distinct shocks, which produced great consternation, and caused considerable damage to many of the houses. On June 2, 1811, there was a shock, resembling a violent concussion of the air, and again, on the 19th of the same month, a quaking or tremor of the earth. No life was lost and

no great damage done to property, but the excitement was immense. Our authority, Mr. Theal, is not, however, quite correct in describing this as the 'first recorded earthquake in Cape Town.' We have authentic records of earthquakes there on September 5 and 7, 1739, and again in July 1766, though on neither occasion does anything very serious seem to have taken place. There was a slight shock on February 26, 1844, and since then, once and again, slight shocks have been either felt or fancied. But if we may judge from the past, nervous colonists need not be apprehensive of anything very alarming in the future.

In 1810 the last of the Hottentot chiefs who exercised power in the Cape Colony was overthrown by means which it would be folly to attempt to justify. He was the head of a clan living in a kind of independence on the Little Gamtoos River. For resisting what he believed to be an unjust claim he was tried before the Supreme Court, and sentenced to penal servitude in chains for life. Some years afterwards he managed to escape into Kaffirland, where he remained for a time in safety, but his paternal feelings overcoming his apprehensions of danger, in 1819 he returned to the colony, was re-captured and sent as a convict to New South Wales, where he died in 1830.

Wrongs of the Hottentots.

Complaint had frequently been made by some of the missionaries to the Government of the wrongs suffered by the Hottentots under their task-masters, amounting in some cases to downright murder. In 1811 Circuit Courts were established, presided over by two members of the Supreme Court, who visited each district in rotation once a year. Their first duty was to investigate the charges brought against the boers. As many as seventy or eighty cases came on for trial; and though in no case was the charge of wilful murder substantiated, several were convicted of aggravated assaults, and were punished by fines and imprisonment, in addition to being compelled to pay the costs of prosecution. Though only a few convictions had taken place there was hardly a family on the frontier who had not a connection or a friend implicated. It was an unheard-of thing that a European should thus be punished for an assault on a native, and they seem to have been indig-

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nant that the Government should have deigned even to notice accusations brought against them by missionaries.

Up to this time there seems to have been little or no national jealousy shown towards the English, the Dutch generally appreciating the mild and generous policy pursued by the Earl of Caledon; but some animosity was certainly awakened in their minds by the conduct of these Circuit Courts, which was not allayed by the proclamation of Lord Caledon's successor, recommending the study of the English language.

First Kaffir war.

In 1811–12 occurred the first of the six Kaffir wars, which have perhaps done more than anything else to compel the attention of Englishmen to South African affairs.

Almost immediately after the return of British rule at the Cape it became evident that something must be done to protect the settlers. Not only did the Kaffirs in the Zuurveld, now Lower Albany or Bathurst, persist in occupying territory which had been declared neutral, but their depredations on the boers became so serious that it was found necessary to legalise their being shot when caught in the act of stealing. Colonel Collins was appointed Commissioner, with instructions to investigate and report upon Eastern frontier affairs. In his report to the Governor, dated August 6, 1809, he recommended that the Kaffirs should be forcibly expelled from the colony, and that the Zuurveld should be occupied by white settlers, to each of whom a farm of 120 acres should be given. This was perhaps hardly in accordance with the agreement with Ngqika, but necessity has no law. In accordance with this recommendation a force consisting of English troops, the Hottentot regiment formed by Sir David Baird, some further Hottentot levies from the Missionary Institution of Bethelsdorp, near Algoa Bay, and a body of burghers, was placed under command of Colonel Graham, and took the field in December 1811. Unfortunately, on the 28th inst., Landdrost Stockenstroom, who had command of the left division, left his camp, with about forty men, for the purpose of seeking an interview with Colonel Graham. On his way he fell in accidentally with a large body of Kaffirs; and hoping to be able to persuade them to retire without bloodshed, rode boldly in amongst them and dismounted with his men. This chivalrous conduct succeeded; but suddenly, while engaged in friendly

intercourse with the Kaffirs, intelligence was received that the other two divisions of the British forces (under Landdrost Cuyler and Captain Fraser) had commenced hostilities. To the Kaffirs this looked like treachery, and they forthwith attacked the little party. Resistance was useless. Those who could leaped to their horses and escaped, but the Landdrost himself and thirteen others fell victims to their fury. This unfortunate circumstance so incensed his brother commanders that no quarter was shown to any of the Kaffirs who resisted. No prisoners were taken, and it was war-to-the-knife until their defeated forces were driven across the Great Fish River, now the boundary between Bathurst and Peddie.

Study of English language proclaimed.

In 1812 the study of the English language was recommended by proclamation. The Cape was visited by its old enemy, the small-pox, and persons not vaccinated were prohibited from appearing in public. The Vaccine Institution had been formed in the previous December, and steps taken for ridding the colony, so far as might be, from this grievous pest, which, among the native population especially, had often been frightfully destructive.

Labour difficulty.

Since the suppression of the slave-trade the labour difficulty had been making itself felt increasingly almost every year. This led to a measure as unjustifiable as any that had been condemned under the Dutch rule. Sir John Cradock issued a proclamation empowering each landdrost in his respective district to seize upon any Hottentot child, of the age of eight years, whose parents had been in his service at the period of his birth, and apprentice him to whomsoever he pleased for a term of ten years, thus overriding all natural and parental rights, and placing in the hands of the officers of the Government an enormous amount of patronage. But all this failed to conciliate the boers, who seem to have resented any interference between them and their supposed right in the life and death of the natives.

Rebellion of Boers.

In 1815 a rebellion occurred among some of the more turbulent of them, which resulted in the execution of five of their number at Slagter's Nek. One Frederick Bezuidenhout, when summoned before the Circuit Court on the customary charge of ill-treating a Hot-

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tentot, failed to appear. A warrant was issued for his apprehension, and a small party of soldiers told off to assist the officer of the court in the execution of his duty. On the arrival of this force at Bezuidenhout's house he refused to surrender, and threatened to shoot the first man who should dare to lay hands upon him. As the troops advanced he fired, but fortunately missed his aim; and then, with his servant, fled into a jungle. After an hour's search the fugitives were discovered in a cave, armed with rifles; and as Bezuidenhout still refused to surrender, and again discharged his rifle, though ineffectually, upon the troops, he was, at last, fired upon and mortally wounded. This led to a serious attempt, on the part of this ill-fated man's relatives and friends, to drive the British out of the country, and they even sought to enlist the co-operation of Ngqika for the purpose. The Kaffir chief, however, was too wary, and showed himself indeed far more sensible than his would-be allies. The authorities, acting on private information which they had received, were able to nip what might have proved a dangerous rebellion in the bud. They arrested the leaders of the movement, and did everything they could to prevent needless bloodshed, but the insurgents themselves were determined to push matters to extremities; and after two or three reverses, were surrounded in a deep kloof in the Winterberg, which divides Cradock from Fort Beaufort and Bedford, by a detachment of the Cape Corps and cut to pieces. Some sixty or seventy prisoners were made, of whom thirty-nine were put upon their trial for high treason. Of these the majority were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment and banishment, five only being condemned to death—Hendrick Prinslo, Cornelius Faber, Abraham Bothma, Stephanus Bothma, and Theunis de Klerk. Every effort was made by the friends of these unhappy men to save them from the last penalty of the law, but the authorities felt that an example must be made, and the sentence was carried out. There can be no doubt that some such lesson was needed; but while cowed into submission the sense of grievance was deepened in the hearts of many, and bore fruit in later years.

Cape ceded to England.

In 1815 the Cape of Good Hope was definitely ceded to England by the Treaty of Paris. A great reduction

was made in the garrison of the colony, and considerable commercial embarrassment caused by the sudden withdrawal of so many customers; but that the nine or ten years of British rule had not been without effect may be judged by one fact—that even during this year of commercial depression 9,623 lbs. of wool were exported from the colony. It will be remembered how, in Governor Janssens' time, two waggon-loads had to be thrown away on the beach as unsaleable.

Inducements to settlers.

After the ejection of the Kaffirs from Zuurveld, in 1812, military posts were established to protect the frontier, and all sorts of inducements held forth to white people to colonise the vacant territory. The name of Grahamstown was conferred upon the district, in honour of Colonel Graham, who had successfully led the expedition. Farms of as many as 4,000 acres were offered to settlers; but such was the general feeling of insecurity, in spite of all that troops and burgher commandos could do, that even such munificent offers as this could not tempt many.

Treaty with Ngqika.

In 1817 Lord Charles Somerset entered into a treaty with the Kaffir chief, Ngqika, under a mistaken notion that he was in a position to act for all the other Amaxosa chiefs, that any kraal to which stolen cattle could be traced should be held legally accountable for compensation. In accordance with this understanding Major Fraser (who had been engaged in the former expedition against the Kaffirs) was sent, with some 400 or 500 men, to recover some stolen cattle that had been traced to one of Ndlambe's kraals. On that chief refusing to make compensation Major Fraser seized indiscriminately all the herds he could lay his hands on and returned to the colony. As Ndlambe did not dare to attack the English he entered into a confederation of his fellow-chieftains to attack Ngqika for having entered into such a treaty with Lord Somerset. A great battle was fought on the Debe flats, in what is now the King William's Town district, in which Ngqika was utterly routed and compelled to flee to the mountains. The Colonial Government felt bound to come to his assistance, and to reinstate and strengthen him in his position. So in December 1818 Lieutenant-Colonel Brereton invaded Kaffirland at the head of 3,000 or 4,000 troops, with Ngqika, and defeated the enemy

War with Ngqika's tribe.

Second Kaffir war.

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with great slaughter. As many as 23,000 head of cattle were seized, of which 9,000 were given to Ngqika, and the remainder devoted to the compensation of boers from whom cattle had been stolen, and to the defrayal of the expenses of the expedition. But this did not end matters. In a few weeks the defeated tribes of Kaffirs rallied, and invaded the colony in great numbers, penetrating as far as Uitenhage. So sudden was the movement, and so ably planned, that for a time it seemed as if they would sweep everything before them. Several small posts were captured, military parties cut off, and the Zuurveld absolutely cleared of the boers. Its leading spirit was a remarkable man, who passed for a prophet among his own people, a man of rare energy and enthusiasm, whose influence was unbounded. He encouraged his followers by predicting that they would be aided supernaturally, and that their enemies would be driven into the sea before them.

Attack on Grahamstown.

On the 22nd of April this prophet-chieftain, Makanna (or Lynx), led an attack on Grahamstown. The garrison contained only some 350 European troops, and part of the Cape Corps. He had previously sent a sort of ironical message to the commander, Colonel Wiltshire, telling him to expect him to breakfast on that morning. The attack commenced soon after sunrise, and their superiority in numbers was so enormous that, in spite of the bravery of the garrison, at one time the issue appeared to be doubtful. But the troops fought under cover, and the Kaffirs only rushed on destruction. At the very time when it seemed as if the fierce onset of the assailants must carry everything before it a reinforcement of Hottentot troops arrived, and several large field-pieces were brought to bear upon the enemy with terrible effect, till at last they fled in disorder. Still, such was the enthusiasm and such the courage of the Kaffirs, that the aspect of things seemed sufficiently serious, and it was determined to follow up this blow by one more decisive still. Every available colonist was pressed into the service, and an overwhelming force sent into Kaffirland. The power of the allied chiefs was effectually broken, and about 30,000 head of cattle captured. Makanna, Ndlambe, and others of the Kaffir chiefs were outlawed and large rewards offered for their apprehension. It says something for these people that

none could be found to claim this reward. At the close of this second Kaffir war the country between Koonap Kat, now the boundary between Fort Beaufort and Bedford, and the Great Fish River was added to the colony, and that between Keiskamma and Fish River declared to be neutral territory. Military posts were also established at Fort Beaufort and Fort Wiltshire.

Afrikander converted.

About this time the Hottentot robber, Afrikander, was converted to Christianity by the missionary Moffat. The first stone of the Exchange was laid, and the Commissariat farm established on the site of the present town of Somerset East. The Post-office revenue for the year was 987*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*

Arrival of British settlers.

We come now to what was one of the most important events at this period of the colony's history—the importation of a little army of settlers from Great Britain. All previous attempts to promote the colonisation of the Zuurveld had failed, because it had been found impossible to protect the scattered farms against the bands of marauding Kaffirs. But the climate was healthy, the soil fertile, the position in almost every other respect inviting. There seemed to be no doubt that, if only settlers could be found in sufficient numbers to protect themselves, a prosperous and thriving community might be formed. It happened, too, that for some years past there had been much distress, chiefly among the agricultural classes in England; and the Home Government of the day, not having the fear of political economists and doctrinaire politicians before its eyes, acted with a degree of common sense which one is sometimes tempted to envy in these more enlightened days. They persuaded Parliament to vote 50,000*l.* in order to send some of the able-bodied surplus population from the old country, where they were so much in the way, to the eastern frontier of Cape Colony, where they were so much wanted. Nearly 90,000 applications were sent in, from which about 5,000 had to be selected—farmers, tradesmen, half-pay officers, sailors, fishermen, cotton-spinners, artisans of all kinds, and day-labourers. Every pains was taken properly to organise the expedition. The intending emigrants were formed into parties of from ten to one hundred families, and each party had to elect a head or representative, through whom all business was

50,000*l.* voted by Imperial Government.

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transacted. They were shipped in Government transports, every head of a family being required to deposit 10*l.* with the Emigration Commissioner, of which two-thirds were returned to him on his arrival in the colony.

Family grants.

To each family a grant of 100 acres of land was made; and every party of 100 families had the privilege of selecting a clergyman of their own, or a minister of any Christian denomination, whose stipend was to be paid by Government. On landing at Algoa Bay, on April 20, 1820, they found transport-waggons ready to convey them to their respective destinations, and were provided with regular rations at the expense of Government till they could raise food for themselves. In addition, farming implements and other necessaries were sent to Algoa Bay, and there offered to the settlers at cost price. Surely never before did emigrants find so smooth a path opened for them into a new country. It reads more like a page out of some imaginary history of Arcadia than like the more prosaic record of actual fact. One cannot help regretting that the substantial success of this grand experiment did not encourage our legislators to repeat it from time to time, especially when we remember that even on this occasion there were more than ten times the number of applicants than provision could be made for.

Origin of the settlement of 1820.

Such, however, was the origin of the settlement of 1820. These British settlers proved themselves to be the life of the eastern districts of the Cape. They had not left England for their new homes under the influence of heroic circumstance, and knew nothing of the sustaining force of an enthusiasm begotten by large sacrifices for principle or conscience. But they were Englishmen; and finding themselves cast upon their own efforts for the simplest necessaries of life, they took heartily to work. They built themselves houses and dug themselves gardens. Most of them had come from towns, and had been trained to some in-door handicraft; but when they were turned out upon the land, in a wild country, where even villages were rare and small, they took kindly to the spade and the plough, herded cattle, and hunted the bush for deer.

Struggles of British settlers.

In the first years of the settlement it was hard to gain a livelihood. The times and the seasons were not understood; agriculture at its best is uncertain; to the strangers, new to the

work as well as to the place and the skies, the fates granted no indulgence; floods, unknown blights and pests destroyed cultured land and crop, and the Government had to support with measured rations the people who had been dropped on the *veld* with but little forethought and less preparation. They struggled through this rough apprenticeship, however, and took root in the soil to which they had been transplanted. By-and-by, Albany, where they were first placed, became too narrow for them. Spreading themselves out from their 'party' locations along the coast, they reared homesteads and planted townships in all directions, and, not forsaking spade and plough, they reared flocks, grew wool, went 'smousing,' and made themselves merchants. It did not take the settlers of 1820 many years to show that they were equal to the work of laying the foundations of progressive national institutions in Eastern South Africa. As the boundaries of the colony were extended from river to river, they followed and occupied, sending into the regions beyond the trader and the missionary. After ten years of peace, as will be told hereafter, war broke out, and the settlement became the scene of bloodshed and devastation. Three times within thirty years of their landing the settlers had to fight for life and home, and as in work so in war they acquitted themselves like men. At the close of each struggle new territory was added to the colony, and the settlers or their sons were always ready to range themselves along the border and hold land on military tenure. When they left the ships at Elizabeth, then a poor seaside hamlet of a score or two of huts, there were but two or three towns in the eastern part of the colony. Graaf-Reynet, Uitenhage, and a military station or two, besides the port, were the only places where a few dozen houses were gathered together. To-day—but little more than fifty years since 1820—the eastern districts number their towns by the score; and from Port Elizabeth, which values its trade at five millions sterling a year, to Aliwal North, which takes toll upon the Orange, there is not a town which does not owe the vigour of its life to the settlement of not two generations ago. Grahamstown is the stronghold of the original settlers, and is always identified with

them; but the old blood, if in new veins, is to be found flourishing in Queenstown, King Williamstown, East London, Cradock, Somerset, Bedford, Alice, as well as in the Settlers' City, or in Bathurst and Salem, the most ancient of locations. It was a fortunate thing for the emigrants that they brought with them men of force and character, who were able to advise, act, and lead at critical times, and whose influence at all times was salutary. It seems almost always to be the case, alike in new countries as in old, but more especially in new, that the great interests of society are represented and served by individuals. The settlement of 1820 certainly is no exception to this rule. Its religious life will always be associated with the name and memory of William Shaw, as its political life will be with the spirit and labours of Robert Godlonton, while its trade and enterprise will ever be indebted to the energy and shrewdness of George Wood. In 1870, the jubilee year of the settlement, a memorial festival was observed in Grahamstown, which was attended by the representatives of 1820. The survivors of the landing were present, as well as the children of the settlers to the third and fourth generation. The names of Shaw, Godlonton, Wood, Cock, Ayliff, Walker, Cawood, Shepstone, Chase, Collet, Trollip, Dugmore, and other names, were honoured with a worthy recognition, as representing the forces of religion, industry, courage, and intelligence which had wrought together in turning the fifty years of the settlement to account. There can be no history of the Cape Colony which does not give one of its fullest and brightest chapters to the story of the 'British Settlers of 1820.'

Wm. Shaw, Robt. Godlonton, G. Wood.

Jubilee of settlers.

This year the Royal Observatory, near Cape Town, was established by the English Board of Admiralty, and Port Elizabeth founded, as has been named. Owing to an outbreak of cholera at Mauritius considerable alarm prevailed at Cape Town, and all vessels arriving were put in quarantine.

Royal Observatory founded.

In 1822—ten years after the proclamation recommending the study of the English language—a proclamation was issued to the effect that the English language should definitely supersede the Dutch throughout the colony in all official acts from 1825, in judicial proceed-

English language supersedes Dutch.

ings from 1827, and in all documents issued from the Colonial Secretary's office from 1828.

Disasters.

In this year great damage was done by floods and storms to the crops of the Albany settlers in the eastern part of the colony, and many even of the newly-erected houses were destroyed. In spite of the fair start that had been given them, many were reduced to such distress that relief-committees had to be formed, by means of which 10,000*l.* were subscribed (3,000*l.* in the colony and 7,000*l.* in England and India). This produced the erroneous impression on some minds that the much-vaunted emigration scheme had proved a failure. This certainly was not the case, for although many blunders were committed at first, owing to the settlers' ignorance of farming and want of experience in the conditions of the climate, &c.; and although they were particularly unfortunate during the earlier years of their experiment in the damage suffered by floods and by wheat-rust, these things righted themselves after a while.

In 1824 the first lighthouse (that at Green Point) was erected on the coast of South Africa, and the first Cape newspaper (the *South African Commercial Advertiser*) published. The population of Cape Colony at this time was 48,699 whites, 1,989 free blacks, 1,770 negro apprentices, and 23,198 slaves, making a total of 85,656.

First newspaper established.

The publication of the first newspaper marks an era, not only in the literary and social but in the political history of the colony, since it brought matters between that somewhat arrogant Governor, Lord Charles Somerset and the colonists to a crisis. He had before this rendered himself obnoxious in many ways, but especially by a most absurdly tyrannical proclamation issued on May 24, 1822, prohibiting all persons from convening or attending public meetings of any kind or for any object without first having obtained the sanction of the Governor or Landdrost of their district. This law remained in the Colonial Statute Book till 1848, but we believe no other Governor after Lord Somerset was foolish enough to attempt enforcing it.

The *South African Commercial Advertiser* was a weekly newspaper, published both in Dutch and English, by a Mr. Greig, in Cape Town, under the joint editorship of Messrs. Fairbairn and Pringle. Two months later

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appeared also a periodical, under the same editorship, of a literary character, which was called the *South African Journal*, and published every second month. Also the *Zuid Afrikaansche Tijdschrift*, edited by the Rev. Mr. Faure, and published month by month alternately with the *Journal*.

Censorship of the press.

On May 4, Lord Charles Somerset, taking offence at the freedom with which public affairs were discussed in the columns of the *Advertiser*, directed the Fiscal to assume the censorship over it. Messrs. Fairbairn and Pringle refused to edit the paper under these conditions, and Mr. Greig announced next morning that its publication would be discontinued until the decision of his Majesty's Government on the subject could be ascertained. Lord Somerset's reply to this was an order to Mr. Greig to leave the colony within a month. A few days after the *South African Journal* shared the same fate. Public feeling was aroused, but the Governor would not allow any public meetings to be held, and seems actually to have supposed that by this high-handed policy he could put down all opposition. He simply compelled the aggrieved colonists to appeal forthwith to the very highest authority, and a memorial was drawn up to the King in Council, petitioning for the privilege of a free press.

As soon as he heard that this decisive step had been taken the Governor was anxious to compromise matters. The order for Mr. Greig's banishment was revoked, and one of the editors, Mr. Pringle, sent for, with the hope of persuading him quietly to continue the editing of the journal. This, however, he declined to do, unless under proper guarantees, which the Governor declined to give. The publication of the *Advertiser* was therefore suspended till August 1825, when authority to resume it was received from the Home Government. This was done under a licence from the Governor in Council. This time Mr. Fairbairn was sole editor, Mr. Pringle having left the colony.

Another of the arbitrary acts of Lord Charles Somerset was the suppression of the South African Literary Society, apparently for no other reason than that Messrs. Fairbairn and Pringle, and Dr. Philip, who had also incurred his animosity, were members of it.

On March 10, 1827, the *South African Commercial*

Advertiser was again suppressed, on this occasion for simply copying an article from the *Times* on Lord Somerset's administration. This time Mr. Fairbairn went to England to lay the matter properly before the Home Government, and returned in 1828, to resume the editorship of his paper, having succeeded in securing for the colony the inestimable boon of a free press.

Condition of the Hottentots.

It was about this time that public attention in England was so forcibly drawn to the condition of the Hottentots, mainly by the publication of 'Researches in South Africa,' by the Rev. Dr. Philip, of the London Missionary Society, that the Home Government were compelled to interfere on their behalf. They were in a condition of virtual slavery, without, however, any of the corresponding obligations which actual ownership entails on the part of the master. The Colonial Government claimed and exercised the right of forcibly enlisting them into the Cape regiments, or compelling them to do any public work at the most trifling remuneration. Those not in Government employ were, by virtue of Lord Caledon's proclamation—that part of which has been already given—at the mercy of the magistrates and farmers. True, in case of ill-treatment the law provided for an appeal to the neighbouring magistrate. But if his master refused a pass, it was scarcely possible for the complainant to reach the magistrate's residence without being arrested on the way and punished as a vagabond. If he escaped this peril and reached the magistrate's office, he would be lodged in the common prison with felons for one, two, three weeks or more, till that official was at leisure to investigate the charge. Then, if he failed to substantiate the charge, or if the ill-treatment, though proved, did not seem bad enough to the magistrate to warrant inflicting a punishment on the master, the poor Hottentot was severely flogged.

Action of the Home Government anticipated.

Some of the leading philanthropists in England—Lord Brougham, Sir J. Macintosh, Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, and others—took up the cause of these ill-used men. Sir T. F. Buxton (then Mr. Buxton) gave notice of a motion on the subject; but, so strong was the public feeling, that the Government thought it wiser to anticipate all discussion, and the Secretary of State for Colonies announced the willingness of the Imperial

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Government to grant all that was desired. This was done by an Order of Council, confirming a proclamation issued by Governor-General Bourke on July 17, 1828, known as the Fiftieth Ordinance, by which all free persons of colour were put on the same footing as Europeans. Many of the colonists were very indignant with Dr. Philip and the other missionaries, and with the philanthropists at home, asserting that the natives were lazy, treacherous, and utterly untrustworthy, and could only be kept in order by a strong hand. But it was impossible to justify the treatment complained of, as was felt even by many of those on whom the labour difficulty had pressed most heavily. Accordingly, just as the Home Government thought it wise to anticipate Mr. Buxton's motion, so the authorities at the Cape thought it wise to anticipate the action of the Home Government by the proclamation of July 17; and all that the Colonial Office had to do was to confirm what the Cape authorities had already done, and just to tie their hands for the future, so that they should not be able afterwards to undo their own work, under the pressure of those who felt (so strongly does use blind men's eyes to the most monstrous inconsistencies) that their 'rights' were being interfered with.

No sane man now doubts either the justice of or the necessity for the measure which was, at the time, in a manner forced upon the Cape community; though, so far as the Hottentots themselves are concerned, no legislation could save them from what seems to be the almost inevitable fate of inferior races when brought into contact with stronger natures, whose vices they can but whose civilisation they cannot assimilate.

Renewed Kaffir difficulty.

But about this time the old Kaffir difficulty began to make itself felt once more. Indeed, strictly speaking, there seems to have been no time at which it was not felt by the border-settlers. The old reprisal-system had been relaxed by General Bourke, because so strongly distasteful to the Kaffirs and so liable to abuse on the part of the colonists. And Maqoma, the 'right-hand son' of Ngqika, had been permitted to re-occupy the valleys of the Kat River. It was felt that some compensation was due to Ngqika for the loss he had sustained owing to his fidelity to the British power; and General Bourke

seems also to have thought that, after the power of the British arms had been so amply vindicated, a policy of conciliation might be safely tried. Accordingly fairs were established for trade with them; they were encouraged to enter into the service of the colonists; and the old laws relating to stolen cattle were very much modified. But the result did not answer his expectations. To them this conciliatory policy seemed only a sign of weakness. They were certainly more friendly with the new settlers (who had now surmounted their first difficulties) than with the old Dutch boers, but cattle-stealing was more rife than ever, and it soon became evident that some other policy must be pursued. Sir Lowry Cole, who had been appointed Governor of the Cape, September 14, 1828, determined to enforce once more the old reprisal system, and to found a settlement in the valley of the Kat River. For this purpose it was necessary that Maqoma should be ejected. Though he owed his position there to the British, he had proved one of their most frequent plunderers and one of their most troublesome neighbours. On one occasion, only two years after his establishment in the valley of the Kat River, and before the commando-reprisal system had been suspended, owing to incessant and wholesale thefts of stock, Major Somerset received orders to form a combined military and burgher commando, with which he was to seize the cattle of the chief. The expedition was well planned and very efficiently carried out, and resulted in the capture of 7,000 head of cattle, with which he retreated to Fort Beaufort, without loss or damage to a single man. Those whose cattle had been stolen were compensated, and the remainder returned to Maqoma. This was all very well, but such high-handed proceedings, though not inconsistent with rude ideas of justice, were particularly galling to a proud and high-spirited people.

Policy of Sir Lowry Cole.

It was decided, however, that Maqoma should be driven out, and the command of the expedition was entrusted to Colonel Somerset (who five or six years before had mulcted him for the stolen cattle). This was in May 1829. Maqoma did not wait for an encounter, but retired to the country about the Chumie, now the boundary between Victoria East and King William's Town, and carried his grievance with him. Six months

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later his father, the old chief Ngqika, died, leaving his '*great son*,' Sandili, a minor, a circumstance that greatly increased Maqoma's power, as he now became chief of one tribe, as the '*right-hand son*' of his father, and regent of another during his brother's minority.

Hottentot Settlement in the Valley of the Kat River.

The beautiful Kat River valley was now free for the proposed Hottentot settlement. The plan adopted was to form a number of villages, each divided into plots of from four to six acres in extent, upon which a family was to be placed. Five years were allowed to the settlers in which to erect cottages and bring the ground under cultivation, when, if they had done so, a grant of a plot was to be made in freehold, and if not, the ground was to revert to Government. The plan was drawn up by Captain Stockenstrom, well known as an earnest friend of the natives, to whom indeed had been entrusted the framing of the Fiftieth Ordinance, and who was now Commissioner-General of Frontier Affairs. The settlement was to consist of Hottentots and free persons of colour. So large was the number of applications that in the course of a few years 4,000 persons (the majority of whom had just emerged from virtual slavery) were located at the Kat River. Most of them were without any means, and all had the vices common to men in a state of bondage; but canals were made, the land brought under cultivation, and a success achieved far greater than might have been looked for. This was partly owing to the fact that two missionaries accompanied the settlers; one the Rev. W. R. Thomson, supported by the Government, and the other the Rev. J. Read, sent thither by the London Missionary Society. For many years the district was remarkably free from crime, neither police nor magistrate being required; and, had circumstances continued as favourable as at the outset, there can be no doubt that the highest expectations of the promoters of this great scheme would have been more than realised. It was considered necessary to supply the settlers with firearms to defend themselves against the only too probable attacks of the Kaffirs. Some of the colonists protested strongly against arming an ignorant, half-civilised, and for aught they knew to the contrary disaffected population; and it certainly did seem a rather dangerous experiment. But the liberated

Hottentots proved worthy of the trust reposed in them, and turned out, indeed, so far from being a new source of danger to be valuable auxiliaries, when the colony (as shortly happened) really required their help.

Third great Kaffir war of 1835.

We come now to one of the saddest pages in the troubled history of our colonial life—the great Kaffir War of 1835. All along the frontier the fire had long been smouldering, and on many occasions the conduct of the Cape Government was such as alternately to tempt and to provoke hostilities. Seldom perhaps have men been placed in more difficult circumstances; having to deal on the one hand with a savage race, who almost exalted treachery into a virtue, and on the other with a Home Government far from the scene of action, who would persist in judging everything according to a European standard.

The time has not come, perhaps it never may, when the story of these wars can be dispassionately and accurately told. That a sense of wrong at the encroachments of strangers upon lands and privileges possessed and enjoyed for a long period, and a desire to revenge acts, often wholly unjustifiably committed by the colonists in the heat of a panic, had something to do with the Kaffir risings can be questioned as little as that the Kaffirs were treacherous in peace as they were often cruel and relentless in war, and never considered any treaties or pledges or any honourable satisfaction of their claims as involving any corresponding obligation on their part to respect the property of the colonists.

Commencement of hostilities.

Space will not permit of our going into all the minutiæ of Kaffir intrigues and Cape politics. Suffice it to say that there were not wanting provocations on the one side and on the other. Attacks were made upon the commando reprisal parties, in resisting one of which a chief of high rank, brother to Maqoma, was killed. This was on December 11, 1834, and proved to be the spark which set the whole frontier in a blaze. Farms were attacked and cattle carried off. And on the 22nd a horde of about 10,000 fighting-men spread themselves over the whole country, pillaging and burning the farm-houses, murdering all who dared resist, and carrying off all the booty they could lay their hands on. In one week forty farmers were murdered,

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450 farm-houses burnt, 4,000 horses, 100,000 head of cattle, and 150,000 sheep carried off.

Consternation in Cape Town.

Fortunately this lust for booty delayed their march, and so gave breathing-time to the alarmed colonists. Late on the night of December 31 the news reached Cape Town. Immediately every available soldier was despatched to the front, and every available burgher placed under arms. Unfortunately the garrison at the Cape, and indeed the entire military forces in the colony, had of late years been considerably reduced. In 1834 there were only about 750 men on the frontier, and a small reserve at Cape Town. But they made the best of what materials they had. Colonel (afterwards Sir Harry) Smith left the Castle the same night, and arrived in Grahamstown six days afterwards.

No violence hitherto had been offered to the missionaries; but as several traders had been cruelly murdered, it was deemed safer for them to abandon their stations while the fury lasted: this they did, and succeeded at the same time in saving the lives of some of the traders who took refuge with them. The poor unfortunate settlers of Albany were swept from their homes and lands, with a loss of forty-four lives, and were received, helpless and homeless, at Algoa Bay, as poor as when they landed there nearly fifteen years before.

Meanwhile, the Kaffir chiefs seem to have been almost terrified at their own success. One of them, at all events, Tyali, had made overtures for peace, though on terms which could not be granted. Sir Benjamin D'Urban, the Governor, arrived on the frontier on January 20, and as soon as the burgher commandos could be brought up planned an invasion of the enemy's country. Fort Wiltshire was shortly afterwards abandoned by the British troops, and burnt by Kaffirs, and Kaffir Drift post abandoned and burnt in like manner. Among the hostile chiefs was one Hintsa, whose territory the Governor entered with a small but brave military force. Here they were joined by a number of Fingoes, consisting of broken tribes dispersed by the conquest of Tshaka, and held in cruel bondage by the Amaxosa. These the Governor released, and subsequently located them on the eastern bank of the Great Fish River. In the meanwhile Hintsa, unable to hold out against British

Tyali's overtures for peace declined.

troops, sues for peace, which is concluded, on condition of his delivering 50,000 head of cattle and 1,000 horses, giving his assistance in bringing the Rarabe chiefs to submission, giving over for punishment the murderers of two British traders, and making compensation of 300 head of good cattle to each of the widows. On May 2 the British troops commenced their homeward march, accompanied by 16,000 of the liberated Fingoes, and on the 15th arrived at their destination (now in the district of Peddie), where a settlement was formed, which afterwards became of great importance to the colony.

Conditions of peace concluded with Hintsa.

Two hostages were delivered over by Hintsa as security for the observance of the treaty (the chief's own son and brother), and he himself volunteered to accompany the military party under the command of Colonel Smith which was despatched by the Governor to receive the cattle, &c. But on the way Hintsa endeavoured to escape, having previously issued secret instructions that the cattle were to be driven beyond reach. While hiding in a thicket on the banks of a small stream he was shot dead by a colonist who had pursued him. This was on May 21. The son, Sarili (who was held by the British as one of their hostages), was at once liberated by the Governor and raised to the chieftainship, and with him the treaty of peace was concluded.

Supposed treachery and death of Hintsa.

The other tribes, westward of the Kei, were also attacked and defeated with great slaughter, and compelled to sue for peace, which was proclaimed at Fort Wiltshire on September 17. They gave up all right to the country, which was proclaimed by the Governor a British province, and they consented to hold their lands under tenure from the British sovereign. Colonel Smith was appointed as Chief Commissioner for the Kaffir tribes in the new province. A site was selected for the seat of government, and named, after the reigning prince, King William's Town, the district being called after his spouse, the Province of Queen Adelaide. Commerce with the Kaffirs in everything except intoxicating liquors and munitions of war was to be encouraged, and missionaries were invited to settle among them, free grants of land being offered for mission stations. It seemed as if now, at last, things were in a fair way of settling themselves—as if this disastrous and wasteful

Peace concluded with the other tribes.

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war might be the last of the sad series. There can be little doubt that the conditions of sound and lasting peace were for the first time in the history of the colony in a fair way of being realised, when the bright prospect was overclouded by the interposition of the Home Government.

Certain humane but short-sighted persons in the colony were so impressed with the wrongs reported to have been inflicted on the Kaffirs in the past, that it seemed impossible for them to take a dispassionate view of the exigencies of the present and of the future. Most unfortunately for all concerned, they seem to have had the ear of the then Secretary of State for the Colonies, Lord Glenelg, a most estimable man in private life, of refined mind and amiable disposition, but no statesman, as his administration of affairs in Canada, no less than at the Cape, abundantly proved. Public opinion in England, moreover, was strongly excited by accounts, some of them no doubt exaggerated, of the barbarities practised. At all events, in a dispatch dated December 26, 1835, his lordship proceeds to condemn nearly all that had been done in no very measured terms. He writes to Sir B. D'Urban in the following strain :—

Unfortunate interposition of the Home Government.

'In the conduct which was pursued towards the Kaffir nation by the colonists and the public authorities of the colony, through a long series of years, the Kaffirs had ample justification of the late war; they had to resent, and endeavoured justly, though impotently, to avenge a series of encroachments; they had a perfect right to hazard the experiment, however hopeless, of extorting by force that redress which they could not expect otherwise to obtain; and the claim of sovereignty over the new province must be renounced. It rests upon a conquest resulting from a war in which, as far as I am at present enabled to judge, the original justice is on the side of the conquered, not of the victorious party.'

Extract from Lord Glenelg's dispatch.

And so everything that the war had accomplished had to be undone, and the seed of inevitable difficulties sown in the future. This reversal of a sound and hopeful policy was only less disastrous to the colony than it was to the Kaffirs themselves.

Truly the tender mercies of the weak,
As of the wicked, are but cruel.

Difficult question of slavery.

We must now retrace our steps for a few years, to touch upon another event that excited strong feeling in the colony, and which, indeed, belongs to our national rather than to our colonial history. Ever since the abolition of the slave-trade, in 1808, it had been evident to all far-seeing men that the abolition of slavery itself, at least throughout the British dominions, was only a question of time. Not a few otherwise liberal and enlightened men looked forward to the event with feelings little short of dismay. In February 1830 an Order in Council was issued, appointing guardians for the protection of the slaves, and regulating the punishments which it should be lawful to inflict upon them. This was strenuously resisted by the slaveholders, who in fact assembled in a body and refused to submit to it—why it is difficult to imagine, unless they saw in this measure the beginning of the end, for its provisions were certainly just and moderate enough in themselves, and such as they might rather have welcomed than resented, had slavery indeed been all that they were so anxious to represent it. However, on representing to the Secretary of State for the Colonies how great the excitement caused by the regulation was, Sir Lowry Cole received instructions not to enforce it.

Emancipation of slaves throughout the British dominions.

In August 1833, however, in spite of the outcry on the part of those whose whole interest seemed to be bound up in the evil system, Mr. Buxton's Bill for the emancipation of slaves throughout the British dominions became law. It provided that all slaves should be declared free on December 1, 1834, but that their masters should be entitled to retain them as apprentices four years longer. 20,000,000*l.* was voted by the Imperial Parliament to compensate the slaveholders, who estimated the value of their slaves at 50,000,000*l.* Appraisers were appointed by the Government to estimate the amount of compensation due in each case, and two-fifths of the estimated value of the slaves was paid. Those in Cape Colony (all of whom were assumed to be legal property) were numbered at 35,745, and their appraised value 3,000,000*l.*, or about 85*l.* each. The amount of compensation paid was 1,200,000*l.*

It is difficult to imagine how so many of the slaveholders, as is reported, could have been ruined by such a measure, unless they were already in a state of insol-

vency or their slave-property heavily mortgaged, as though few of the freed men elected to remain in the employ of the same masters, the great bulk of them were able and willing to work as hard as they had done before on fair wages, which the compensation-money ought to have enabled the masters to give. Whether the old and almost universal vices of slavery, theft and lying, will ever be eradicated from the freed population, is a difficult problem to determine, but in nearly every other respect emancipation has proved almost as great a gain to the slaveholder as to the slave.

Consequent migration of Dutch boers.

It was, however, impossible to reconcile many of the Dutch boers to the measure. They were dissatisfied with that as with other proceedings of the British Government. We cannot see that they had much cause for complaint. But they did the best thing, perhaps, which they could under the circumstances, that which at all events proved of ultimate benefit to the country—they betook themselves to 'fresh fields and pastures new.' From the divisions of Albany, Somerset, Uitenhage, Graaf-Reynet, Cradock, and Colesberg some thousands of them moved northwards, beyond the limits of the British rule, leaving behind them some of the finest sheep-walks in the colony, and at the same time forming new and important settlements in South Africa. Their subsequent career connects itself with the history of Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal Republic.

General summary of the period.

Mr. Theal summarises the general history and progress of the colony during this period as follows:—

'In 1829 the South African College was established, an institution that has since done much good. It was placed on a sound footing by an ordinance issued in 1837. In 1830 the village of Colesberg was founded. In the same year a good road was completed over the Hottentot Holland Mountains, through Sir Lowry's Pass, and the next year the road through Houw Hoek was finished. In 1831 the South African Fire and Life Assurance Company was established, an institution which resulted in the formation of similar companies in different parts of the colony. In 1834 a Charter of Justice was issued by the King in Council. It provided for the establishment of a Supreme Court for the colony, to consist of a Chief Justice and two puisne judges. Criminal

cases were to be decided therein by a jury of nine, the concurrence of all of whom was necessary to convict. In civil cases, when the amount in dispute was over 500*l.*, an appeal to the Privy Council was allowed. Circuit Courts were to be held twice a year in each district, and were to be presided over by one of the judges of the Supreme Court. The old Orphan Chamber was abolished, and the duties hitherto performed by it were entrusted to the Master of the Supreme Court. In 1836 the sub-district of Clanwilliam was made an independent division, and in this year an important ordinance was issued, by which municipal boards were established in towns and villages. In 1837 the sub-district of Cradock was raised to the rank of a division, and the division of Colesberg was formed. The establishment of the Cape of Good Hope Bank at this time was the commencement of extensive banking operations throughout the colony. It was in 1837 that a Legislative Council was created by order of the King in Council. It consisted of five officers of Government appointed by the Crown, and five persons unconnected with the Government but nominated by the Crown. Thus, in reality, the people had now no greater voice in their government than they had before, but a restraint was placed upon the exercise of arbitrary power by any future governor.'

New system of education.

From 1839–41 a new system of education was inaugurated. It was based upon a plan which had been drawn up by no less a person than Sir John Herschel, who had resided some four or five years at the Cape, for the purpose of pursuing his astronomical investigations. Hitherto the colony, especially in its more remote districts, had been almost entirely dependent for elementary education on travelling tutors, frequently men who had failed in other occupations, very rarely indeed men who were at all properly qualified for their work. These, however, with the exception of a very few schools originated by private enterprise, were all that the colonists in general had to depend upon. Previous efforts to bring about a more satisfactory state of things had failed, partly owing to the want of suitable plans, partly to the want of concerted action on the part of those most interested, and partly, no doubt, to the great difficulties arising from the scattered nature of the population. The

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scheme of Sir John Herschel seemed to meet the necessities of the case, although it has since been very materially altered and improved.

Fourth great Kaffir war.

In 1846–8 occurred the fourth great Kaffir war, known to the colonists as *the War of the Axe*. Distasteful as was the policy of concession insisted on by Lord Glenelg to many of the colonists who certainly could not have been charged with indifference to the rights and interests of the natives, it had been loyally tried—tried quite as fairly as could have been reasonably expected under the circumstances, perhaps more so. But it had not succeeded. Whether or no the Kaffirs at all understood or appreciated the motives which dictated a policy of forbearance, it is certain they took every advantage of it, until, at last, their depredations became so daring that the colonists had no alternative between abandoning the country altogether or proving at any cost that Justice did not 'bear the sword in vain.'

Its trivial occasion.

The 'War of the Axe' was brought about by a comparatively trivial circumstance. An old Kaffir thief was sent from Fort Beaufort, manacled to a Hottentot criminal, to be tried at Grahamstown for stealing an axe. On the way the small guard attending them was attacked and driven off by a large party of his own people. Having some difficulty in unfastening the handcuffs by which he was secured to his fellow-prisoner, they cut off the arm of the Hottentot, and left him to bleed to death. On news of this outrage being received at the Cape the Governor demanded the surrender of the murderers. Tola refused even to surrender the rescued man, and Sir Peregrine Maitland formally declared war against them on March 31, 1846. On April 11 the troops from Fort Beaufort took the field; but, owing to a foolish undervaluing of the enemy, at the commencement of the war there were several grave disasters. A column sent forward to take possession of the Amatolas was vigorously attacked by the Kaffirs at Burns' Hill, and forced to retreat, with the loss of sixty-three baggage-waggons. Post Victoria had to be abandoned and burnt, and Fort Peddie was attacked by the enemy, who, though repulsed, succeeded in capturing numbers of the Fingoes' cattle.

The Kaffirs were elated almost to madness by these unlooked-for successes at the very outset of the campaign. They boldly invaded the colony and seized much booty; but a terrible retribution awaited them. On June 7 occurred the celebrated battle of the Gwanga, a few miles from Fort Peddie. The assembled chiefs were attacked by General Somerset, and 300 left dead upon the field, with a loss on the side of the British of only one killed and three wounded. After this the Amaxosas and the Abatembu were attacked in their strongholds and defeated, and one after another the principal chiefs surrendered. A few still resisted; and, owing to the extent of the territory covered, the war, though reduced in its proportions, was costly and protracted. It was not until December 19, 1847, that Pato, the last of the chiefs who held out against General Somerset, was compelled to yield, as much by hunger as by force of arms. 'I am no longer a man, but a baboon,' he said, 'for I have been living among the monkeys.'

Progress and conclusion of the war.

It was now clear, even to the former advocates of Lord Glenelg's system, that a firmer and more decisive policy was necessary in dealing with the natives. The war had lasted for twenty-one months; had been much more costly to the Home Government than that which preceded it; and the colonists also had suffered severely, both in life and property. Sir Harry Smith was appointed as Governor and Commander-in-Chief. On December 14 he landed at Port Elizabeth, and had an interview with Macomo; after which he proceeded to the frontier, and issued a proclamation extending the colony to the Orange River on the north, and to the Keiskamma on the east—from the sea to the junction of the Chumie, and along the Chumie to its source. The territory thus claimed formed the division of Victoria East, and farms were offered to European settlers. British sovereignty was also proclaimed over the country lying between the new colonial boundary and the Kei River; but this was reserved for occupation by the Kaffirs, and called British Kaffraria. During the war most of the mission stations had to be abandoned, but on peace being concluded the missionaries were invited to return.

Extension of territory resulting.

Formation of the divisions of Victoria East and British Kaffraria.

The year 1849 was signalised by a war of a very different character, in which the contending parties were

Anti-convict agitation.

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the Colonists and the Home Government. It seems to have been the result partly of a misunderstanding on both sides, and partly, no doubt, of a conflict of opinions and interest. Early in the year news was received that the Imperial Government contemplated forming a penal settlement at Cape Town, and on April 3 a great anti-convict meeting was held. It seems pretty certain that the proposal did not originate with Lord Grey. Years before some of the most influential popular leaders at the Cape had urged the employment of British convicts in the building of the new breakwater at Table Bay, and nothing was to have been done on the present occasion without the concurrence of the colonists themselves. But the authorities at home seem to have taken that concurrence a little too much for granted, for, without waiting for a proper understanding, they despatched a large number of Irish convicts in the ship 'Neptune.' They were not, as was represented at the Cape, the refuse of the English gaols, but consisted chiefly of political offenders, among them the notorious Mitchell, many of them misguided men, who, with a fresh start in life, under new conditions, might have done better than they had done in the past. Of this, however, the colonists were probably ignorant, and could scarcely, perhaps, be expected to enter into the difficulties of the old country in dealing with her criminal population. They knew something of what other colonies had suffered by being thus made depositaries of the moral refuse of England, and they had determined to resist, in the most peremptory manner, the landing of a single felon in the colony. An Anti-Convict Association was formed, the members of which pledged themselves to adopt whatever measures might be considered necessary by the Executive in view of an emergency. On September 19 the 'Neptune' arrived in Simon's Bay, and an order was at once issued by the association forbidding the inhabitants to supply food or any other necessary to the convict-ship, or even to the garrison or Government officers, until the Order in Council making Cape Colony a penal settlement should be cancelled. A few traders who ventured to disregard the orders of this *imperium in imperio* soon found that the popular feeling was too strong to be trifled with, for a riot ensued, in

Arrival of 'Neptune' in Simon's Bay and opposition of the colonists to the landing of the convicts.

which they were threatened with personal violence and their property destroyed. In the meanwhile shops were closed and business suspended; and, unless the Governor had been prepared to resort to military measures (which he wisely resolved not to do), no alternative was left him between starvation for all the Government officials and the convicts and submission to the demand of the colonists. He chose the latter; and, having pledged the Imperial Government, so far as he could, the embargo was removed by the colonists, though it was not until the actual receipt of the Order in Council formally revoking that which gave so much umbrage, on February 13, 1850, and the departure of the 'Neptune' the following week, that the Anti-Convict Association was dissolved, and the public feeling pacified. To the colonists this 'spirited policy' was fully justified by the result; but at home it was felt that an attitude somewhat less defiant would have equally answered their purpose, and been far more becoming towards a Government which had only just expended large treasure in the protection of their colony.

Cape L'Agulhas lighthouse completed.

In 1849 the lighthouse on Cape L'Agulhas, the most southern point of the African continent, was completed, a work that had long been urgently needed.

During the years 1847–9 as many as 2,959 emigrants arrived in the colony at public expense.

New Constitution.

For some years past, with the growth of the colony in numbers and intelligence, and with the extension of trade and public works, the demand had been arising for some more popular system of government. On April 23, 1850, a great public meeting was held in Cape Town, and a petition drawn up to Her Majesty the Queen asking for representative government. This demand was readily complied with, and the draft of a new Constitution was framed and sent to the colony for discussion and consideration. It provided for two Chambers, the members of both of which were to be elected by the people, and, as subsequently modified, is boasted of by the colonists as being as liberal as the Constitution of any other dependency of Great Britain. The principal alterations proposed in the colony were to increase the qualifications both of voters and of members of the Upper Chamber. These modifications

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were accepted, and the new Constitution formally ratified by an Order of Council on March 11, 1853.

Changes introduced.

Hitherto nearly the whole power of government had resided in a Legislative Council composed entirely of state nominees. Theoretically this left the people scarcely any voice in the management of their affairs; practically, as has been seen in the matter of the convict-battle, they were able, when occasion demanded, to make their power felt, but this was now constitutionally provided for. The House of Assembly was to consist of forty-six members, elected by twenty-two divisions, the Legislative Council of fifteen members, and to be presided over by the Chief Justice. No member of either Chamber, elected by popular vote, was to hold any office of trust or emolument under the Crown. The first Colonial Parliament was convened by Sir George Cathcart, on June 30, 1854.

First Colonial Parliament.

In a brief historic survey like this, it is not possible to refer at any length to the political history of the country. There have not been wanting those in the Cape Colony who have sneered at the representative element in the Government and asserted that the old nominee Chamber was sufficient for its political necessities. There could not be a greater mistake. Nowhere is the connection between the material and political development of a country more manifest than in the colonies. Occasionally, no doubt, there has been too great a disposition to imitate the government of the mother country in all particulars, and to transplant institutions which needed time for growth. But even then it may be doubted whether the mere desire for imitation has led to the mistake. It is perfectly obvious that the practical experience of the colonists must be brought largely into play when the Government has more especially in charge the material as well as the social progress of the country. That form of government which gives the readiest expression to this is sure, sooner or later, to be adopted. Hence the early introduction of representative and even responsible government into British colonies. It must not be supposed, however, that the colonies on this account desire to be separated from the empire. On the contrary, they value all the more a wisely-exerted Imperial authority

Effect upon the colony.

which regulates their domestic policy without absolutely controlling or dictating it. The influence of the British Crown is to the colonies exactly what it is to the British Constitution.

Proposal of Sir P. Wodehouse to abolish both the Chambers.

There is no doubt that the old Legislative Chamber in the Cape had done its work by the time the Constitution was granted, though it may not be so much beyond question whether the change was not in some respects a greater one than was required at the time, and whether particularly the suffrage was not too widely extended.

However this may be, the country could not or would not accept any retrograde measure. When the Parliament became too powerful for an irresponsible executive and came into frequent collision with the Government, Sir P. Wodehouse proposed to abolish both the Chambers, and to substitute in their stead a Council largely composed of Government nominees. In 1869 he dissolved the House of Assembly, and appealed to the country on this issue. The response was unmistakeable. The country was not then prepared for responsible government, but it gave an emphatic negative to the Government proposals.

Nevertheless, the Cape Colony gratefully remembers the enterprise and ability of some of its pre-parliamentary administrators. The name of Mr. Montagu, Colonial Secretary, will always be associated with the utilising of convict-labour in the long-needed opening of mountain passes and the construction of roads into the interior.

History of the Cape Parliament.

The history of the Cape Parliament from the time of the gift of the Constitution to the 'crowning of the edifice'—to be hereafter referred to—will certainly not suffer by comparison with that of any other colonial legislature. Its measures were no doubt some of them both imperfect and injudicious, but taken as a whole they undoubtedly promoted the interests of the country.

Its most difficult tasks were—

1. Legislating for the native tribes, so as on the one side not to lose sight of their progress and improvement, as an important part of the population, and on the other to protect the lives and property of the settlers against the evil-disposed.

2. Assisting the natural development of the country,

by the erection of roads, bridges, and the promotion of public works.

3. The satisfaction of local and social claims and interests in a large but sparsely-peopled country.

4. The education, mental, social, and political, of the people.

Estimate of work done.

That the Cape Parliament has fully succeeded in these difficult tasks would be too much to affirm. Its native legislation has often been fitful and imprudent. Its policy of material advancement has been hindered both by seasons of commercial depression and the want of enterprise exhibited by many of its members. Its efforts to meet local wants have been hampered by local jealousies and heartburnings. Agitations for 'removal' of the seat of government, or separation of the Eastern and Western Provinces, or the establishment of alternate parliaments, have, as in all other colonies of considerable size, greatly interfered with the progress of public business and the impartial consideration of measures designed for the public good. It is not worth while to determine who is responsible for these contests. Whether those who fought to obtain privileges or those who fought to keep them were most in fault, it must suffice to say that they are almost inevitable where the divisions and interests of a country are greatly isolated, and the streams of traffic from the coast to the interior flow far apart from each other.

Public works and other important measures.

Notwithstanding these drawbacks the Cape Parliament can give a fair account of its stewardship. The public peace has been for the most part kept under its reign, and crime restricted to as narrow boundaries as in other countries. The Table Bay Breakwater and Harbour Works, the Cape Town and Wellington and Wynberg Railways, mountain roads and passes, of which the Katberg is a fair specimen; railways, bridges, harbours, and telegraphs, east and west, now under construction, bear testimony to its growing interest in the material advancement of the country. Its measures for the ordinary and higher education of the people have been well conceived and executed; and, last but not least, its debates and debaters—though of course varying in merit and capacity—have certainly been equal to those of any other colony. The names of Messrs. Rawson and

Southey, colonial secretaries; of William Porter, Saul Solomon, John Charles Molteno, John Fairburn, Z. Ziervogel, Sir Christopher Brand, R. Godlonton, G. Wood, Dr. White, and others that might be mentioned, have been honourably associated with its history from the commencement, while younger men have largely contributed to its debates in recent years.

Loss of H.M.S. 'Birkenhead.'

On February 26, 1852, an event occurred which belongs rather to national than to colonial history—the sudden and total loss of Her Majesty's ship 'Birkenhead,' off Danger Point, in which nine officers and 349 men perished so nobly—standing to their arms when the ship went down, in order that the women and children and sick might have the first chance of safety. Never did British soldiers meet a nobler death, or win a prouder fame, than when the huge vessel sank in the boiling surf, carrying 446 souls with her.

Fifth Kaffir war.

The peace concluded with the Kaffir chiefs, at the close of 1847, seemed at the time to promise well. Not only did the chiefs themselves agree to the terms offered, but expressed themselves perfectly satisfied, and even thankful for the moderation shown by their conquerors. But scarcely had two years passed by when it became evident that another struggle would be needed. The troops were withdrawn from the frontier too rapidly on the conclusion of peace, and the garrison reduced below what would have been prudent for some years to come.

Prophecies of Umlangene.

In the early part of 1850 it was known that great excitement prevailed in Kaffirland through the prophecies of an impostor named Umlangene. For some time past he had been inciting the Kaffirs to rebellion, as secretly as possible, assuring them of supernatural aid in driving the white man into the sea.

Previous establishment of four military villages.

Shortly after the close of the previous war grants of land had been made to old soldiers, and four military villages established, as a security against future outbreaks, in the division of Victoria East. The names of the villages were Johannesberg, Woburn, Auckland, and Ely. Their total population did not amount to more than 321, of whom a very small proportion were women and children. The only other precaution that seems to have been taken was the unfortunate enrolment of a body of Kaffir police. Both these facts have to be borne

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in mind in following the opening scenes of what turned out to be the bloodiest page in the whole history of the Cape Colony.

Precautionary measures.

Immediately on receiving intelligence of the mischief fomenting in Kaffirland, Sir Harry Smith hastened to the frontier, and summoned a meeting of the subject chieftains. Sandili, the most powerful, refused to obey, though assured of personal safety. He was accordingly deposed, and shortly afterwards outlawed, together with his brother, Anta. A large force under the command of Colonel Mackinnon was despatched in search of the outlaws, but was intercepted and attacked by Sandili himself in such force that, after losing several men, Colonel Mackinnon was glad enough to be able to take refuge in Fort White.

Kaffir attack on the four military villages.

This was on the 24th of December. On the very next day the four military villages of which mention has been made were attacked. Some unintentional provocation seems to have been caused by some of the soldiers violating the grave of one of the Kaffir chiefs in search of treasure, and in ignorance of native customs. But the utter extermination of the male inhabitants was at once decided on by the Kaffirs. Woburn was first attacked. The settlers were not even aware that war was threatened, and received and entertained their Kaffir neighbours, with whom they had lived on terms of friendship, as guests. Suddenly, at a given signal, the visitors drew their weapons and murdered the whole of the villagers present, some sixteen in number, and burnt their houses. The sight of the flames of Woburn alarmed the inhabitants of Johannesberg and gave them time to escape, with the exception of three men, who were overtaken and murdered.

The settlers at Auckland were not so fortunate, the greater part of them falling victims to a similar act of treachery to that practised at Woburn. The entire number massacred in the three villages was forty-seven. All their property was destroyed, but the women and children suffered to escape uninjured. The Governor himself was also besieged in Fort Cox, and had to fight his way, at the head of 250 Cape Mounted Riflemen, through the enemy before he could succeed in reaching King William's Town.

The power of the enemy was much increased by the desertion of almost the whole body of the Kaffir police, with their arms and equipments.

Desertion of Kaffir police.

But a still more serious defection took place. To the amazement and indignation of the colonists, in the midst of their extremity large numbers of Hottentots rose in rebellion against the British power. They certainly had no pretext whatever for discontent. Whatever the wrongs of the past may have been, for many years they had enjoyed equal rights with their white fellow-subjects. But some of them seem to have distrusted the power put into the hands of the colonists by the new constitution. At all events, at Kat River, Shiloh, and Theopolis large numbers went over to the enemy, together with many deserters from the Cape Mounted Rifle Regiment. Among these last was a man of the name of Uithaalder, who was chosen as a leader of the rebels, and seems to have contemplated the establishment of an independent Hottentot nation. Many acts of great cruelty were perpetrated under his leadership.

More serious defection of Hottentots.

Nearly all that could be done under such an accumulation of difficulties was for the Governor to concentrate what forces he had at his disposal, and await reinforcements from England. Thus for a long time the eastern portion of the colony may almost be said to have been at the mercy of the insurgents, who, however, were not suffered to continue their depredations without heavy chastisement being inflicted on them, from time to time, as opportunity served.

Extremity of the colony.

A whole year had now elapsed since the outbreak of hostilities, and Christmas 1851 was observed throughout the colony as a day of solemn humiliation and prayer before God. But by this time adequate forces had been brought to the front, and the defeat and chastisement both of the Kaffir and Hottentot rebels was now only a question of time. Before the new year was many days old some of the former began to sue for peace, and the latter to regret the step they had taken. The Governor refused to conclude peace on any other terms than unconditional surrender, and so the war still continued, with varied fortunes, till the 31st of March, when Sir Harry Smith was superseded by Sir George Cathcart.

Christmas 1851 observed as a Day of Humiliation.

One of the first acts of General Cathcart was to

Organisation of

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mounted police.

organise a force of armed and mounted police, which have since proved themselves admirably adapted both to restore and to preserve the peace. In a very short time 600 men were enrolled, each providing himself with everything, and ready to move in any direction where his services might be required, at a moment's notice.

Appeal to the public spirit of the colony.

In July he made a very necessary appeal to the public spirit of the Eastern district for men and money to enable him to invade the revolted territory. This appeal (under a threat of the withdrawal of the troops) was responded to much more readily than a former appeal of Sir Harry Smith's; but it required several months of tedious fighting before the chiefs defeated in the open field could be dislodged from their several strongholds and brought to final subjection.

Conclusion of the war.

It was not until March 23, 1853, that martial law was revoked, and this last and most sanguinary of the Kaffir wars brought to a conclusion, at a cost of upwards of two million pounds sterling to Great Britain, with the lives of four or five hundred soldiers, including many able and distinguished men.

British Kaffraria erected into a Crown Colony.

Most of the conquered chiefs were mercifully dealt with, but the lands of the rebel Hottentots were forfeited and families of European origin located there. The armed and mounted police kept guard over the frontier, and British Kaffraria was subsequently erected into a Crown Colony. Large sums were expended in public works, and many efforts made to facilitate trade and intercourse with the Kaffirs, and to improve their condition in various ways. 40,000*l.* a-year was placed at the disposal of Sir George Grey for this purpose by the British Government.

Extraordinary national suicide of the Amaxosa.

In 1857, when the Cape was almost stripped of troops because of the Indian mutiny, occurred one of the most extraordinary instances of self-immolation which the history of any nation affords. The Amaxosa, unwarned by all they had suffered from similar delusions in the past, suffered themselves to be persuaded by a madman or impostor, of the name of Mhlakaza, into an act of almost incredible folly, which wellnigh resulted in the entire extinction of their nation. He foretold that on a certain day all the dead warriors and

great men of old were to rise from their graves, and all the living to be endowed with strength and beauty. Immense herds of the finest cattle were to come forth out of a cave, and wide fields of corn to spring up, and the white man to wither like a leaf. And the one condition of this great Kaffir millennium was faith—faith that was to prove itself by the utter sacrifice of everything that they possessed, except the arms of the warriors. The cattle were to be killed, the grain destroyed, and their fields suffered to remain unsown. The one exception of the arms seems to show that there was method in the madness of this Mhlakaza, if madness it was. He was supported by the predictions of a girl who also pretended to have communications with the spirit world; and also by the chief Maqoma, who assured the people that he too had received communications from the unseen world, and that all that the prophet said would surely come to pass.

Efforts of Government to avert the calamity.

Incredible as it may appear, the Amaxosa not only believed but were willing to prove their faith by their works. Corn and cattle were destroyed. In vain did the Government try to dispel the illusion by sending agents among them. The very interference of Government seemed to confirm them in their extraordinary belief, till at last the whole nation was on the verge of starvation. Nearly 50,000 perished—one-third of the entire nation. The colonists did what could be done to provide food for the famished thousands who invaded their homes, not as conquerors but as beggars; but many ghastly tales are told of the dire extremities to which many were driven. The Amaxosa never fully recovered from this act of national suicide, but the earnest and praiseworthy efforts of the missionaries to win them to a truer and better faith, even where they have not resulted in the conversion of large numbers to Christianity, have had the effect to some extent of delivering them from their old superstitions. Schools are established, and hundreds of native young men engaged in teaching. But the one great hindrance to all hope of further progress among them is alcohol, which they eagerly purchase of the white man, and in which since 1865 there has been free trade.

50,000 perished.

Missionary efforts.

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Copper Mining Mania.

It was in 1854 that what is known as the 'Copper Mining Mania' prevailed in Cape Town. In the old days of the Dutch occupation it was known that copper existed in the colony, and in more recent times one or two attempts were made to work mines, but with no great result; but in 1853 Mr. John Owen Smith brought out skilled miners from Cornwall, with the necessary plant and machinery, and commenced mining operations at Kodas, on the south bank of the Orange River, about sixty miles from its mouth. As soon as this was known great excitement prevailed throughout the colony. Companies were formed, and mines opened in likely and unlikely places, and much loss and disappointment ensued. Some of the mining speculations proved fairly, if not largely, remunerative, and for many years to come copper ore is likely to form an important item in the colonial export.

Year of storms: 100,000 sheep destroyed.

The year 1856 will long be remembered for the extraordinarily heavy falls of rain which took place on the Stormberg mountains, near Burghersdorp, causing the death of 100,000 sheep. The same year Murray's bequest of 5,000*l.* to the South African College became available. On March 31, 1859, the first sod of the Cape Town and Wellington Railway was turned by Governor Sir G. Grey. This railway was completed and opened throughout on November 4, 1863. In 1859 Governor Sir G. Grey was recalled to England, and a petition for his re-appointment, with 2,272 signatures, was forwarded by the same mail. He returned reinstated in July the following year, just in time to do the honours on the occasion of Prince Alfred's visit.

Cape Town and Wellington Railway opened.

Prince Alfred's visit.

Advantage was taken of Prince Alfred's presence in the colony to open the works at Table Bay Breakwater, to inaugurate the new Library and Museum, and to lay the foundation of the Sailors' Home, &c. The first of these works, the formation of a harbour of refuge in Table Bay, had long been needed. The shipping record of the colony is full of disasters on that perilous coast; and the safe completion of the breakwater will go far to compensate the Cape from any loss arising from the diversion of commerce to the Eastern seas through the opening of the Suez Canal. Other public works—roads, railways, telegraphs, bridges, &c.—might be noticed, but

the enterprise of the colony in this direction has supplied more matter than we can find space for in the present brief chronicle.

Location of 2,000 German settlers.

Large tracts of land, depopulated through the folly of the Amaxosa, in British Kaffraria, were subsequently peopled by European settlers, among whom were many men belonging to the German Legion, who had served with the English army in the Crimea. But in 1858 the Governor announced his intention of granting 200 farms, and in that and the following year more than 2,000 hardy peasants from Northern Germany were located in the district. They were sober, steady, industrious, and much better educated than the same class in England, and have proved a valuable addition to the colony. In 1865, after no little Parliamentary conflict of opinion, the Province of British Kaffraria was finally incorporated in the colony under the name of two new electoral divisions—King William's Town and East London. The same measure constituted also Piquetberg, Little Namaqualand, Victoria West, Riversdale, Oudtshoorn, Richmond, Aliwal North, and Queenstown into electoral divisions, and increased the number of the Legislative Council from fifteen to twenty-one. Other modifications were found to be necessary in the new Constitution, chiefly in the direction of responsible government, to avoid the almost inevitable conflict of opinion between an Executive appointed entirely by the Crown and a Parliament elected by the people. But it was not until after a great deal of political friction that the machinery of the state was reduced into fairly working order. By a Bill, which received the Royal assent only in 1872, the Governor now selects the heads of departments from among the leading members of the most powerful party for the time being in Parliament. Without asserting that even now the amended Constitution is absolutely faultless, it may be said that the future prosperity of the colony, so far as it can be affected by political causes, rests henceforth with the colonists themselves and their representatives.

British Kaffraria incorporated.

Excellence of the amended Constitution.

Diamond discovery.

A great event in the history of Cape Colony (though it can scarcely be said as yet to have passed into the domain of history) is the discovery of diamonds. In 1867 a Dutch farmer, residing in the division of Hope

Town, was struck with the brilliancy of a pebble that one of his neighbours' children was playing with. He was allowed to take it away with him, and some time after showed it as a curiosity, without at all suspecting what it was, to a trader, Mr. O'Reilly, whom he chanced to meet. Mr. O'Reilly was so struck with it that he sent it to Dr. Atherstone, of Grahamstown, and subsequently to M. Héritte, of Cape Town, to be tested. It proved to be a real diamond, and was afterwards sold to the Governor, Sir P. E. Wodehouse, for 500*l.* Search in the same locality led to the discovery of another diamond, and a third was picked up on the banks of the Vaal River, where the largest deposits have since been found. Several gems were found during the following year, and by 1869 people from all parts of the world began to flock in large numbers to the diamond-fields. The most valuable gem, though not the largest, known as yet to have been discovered, has been called the 'Star of South Africa,' which was obtained of a native sorcerer, and realised 11,000*l.* The weight of this magnificent brilliant, when uncut, was 83 carats. Different diggers seem to have met, as might have been expected, with very different fortunes; but there can be no doubt that the discovery of diamonds forms a red-letter day in the history of Cape Colony. For many years previously there had been great commercial depression. Both money and employment were scarce, and landed property, in some districts, almost unsaleable. Since the discovery the colony has received a fresh infusion of life and spirit. Labour and property have immensely increased in value. In three years the foreign imports were doubled, and during the last five years more general progress has been made than in the preceding twenty years. Without predicting for the colony a future as bright as her own diamonds, we may fairly say, that, subject to such mutations as are inevitable in human affairs, she has every prospect of becoming one of the most prosperous colonies of the Empire.

First diamond sold for 500*l.*

'Star of South Africa' sold for 11,000*l.*

Important effect of the discovery in the interest of the colony.

General outlook.

The firmness of the revenue, and the tokens of expanding enterprise and trade apparent on all sides, warranted the conclusion announced by the late Governor, Sir H. Barkly, that the prosperity now enjoyed is not temporary, but that the country will continue to

present a field for industry, and to offer a career to men of ability and energy, not inferior to that of any dependency of the British Crown.

First responsible Ministry and promising programme.

The first responsible Ministry was called to power with the great advantage of a substantial surplus and a largely increased and increasing revenue. But this advantage tested the ability and disposition of the Ministry more even than an opposite state of things. 'To take occasion by the hand' and broaden the bounds of enterprise and commercial activity in a young country requires no ordinary gifts. So far, it must be said in all fairness that the Ministry entered on its work with courage and determination. The proposals submitted to Parliament in the sessions of 1873–4 showed that the Government saw its opportunity, and determined to use it. A programme which included the construction of 800 miles of railroad, a system of immigration, and a scheme for irrigation, besides proposals for new bridges and roads, cannot be regarded as spiritless.

The then Premier, the first the colony possessed, was the Hon. John Charles Molteno, a thoroughly representative colonist, of sterling sense, who has for many years successfully followed and shared the fortunes of the country. He has the advantage also of having to a large extent secured the confidence of the various nationalities which compose the population.

Happy omens.

Amongst the happy omens of the new *régime* is the increasing disposition of English, Dutch, and Germans, Easterns and Westerns, to work heartily together for the common good of the country. As the country increases in prosperity, and education spreads, the colonists show more and more disposition to cast aside old divisions and jealousies, and to discover sources of strength instead of weakness in the differing nationalities and interests represented in the population and the Parliament. Many of the natives too, more especially the Fingoes and the Basutos, are rapidly acquiring property and taking their place amongst the population who consume and spend as well as cultivate the soil.

Subsequent events of importance are: (1) the extension of the electric telegraph to Kimberley, on the Diamond Fields, and other extensions, by which the wires in the colony are now together equal in length to

2,713 miles; (2) the annexation of Basutoland and the Transkeian districts to the colony, and the carrying up of the Atlantic boundary as far north as Walvisch Bay; (3) the proposal of the Earl of Carnarvon to promote the confederation of the Colonies and States of South Africa by a conference of delegates. This third event requires a more lengthy statement.

Sixth Kaffir war.

The peace of the colony, which had continued undisturbed for nearly a quarter of a century, and which many colonists had begun to regard as secure from all further disturbance, was fated to be again broken before the completion of the twenty-five years. In September 1877 the hereditary enmity between the Gcalekas and the Fingoes broke into open hostilities, for which accusations against the latter of cattle stealing were made the pretext. As the Fingoes were living under the protection of the Colonial Government, interference on their behalf became necessary. Hostile critics at home forget the fact, but fact it is, nevertheless, that this, the sixth Kaffir war, was commenced in no spirit of earth-hunger or hatred of the natives, but simply to preserve the peace between two native tribes. The colony unfortunately found itself ill prepared for the emergency. It is true that at the first the Gcalekas were driven beyond the Bashee, and the affair thought to be at an end, but the inefficiency of the Government measures allowed the enemy to collect in force again, and a body of them succeeded without difficulty in crossing into the Gaika location within the colony towards the end of December, rousing that tribe, and so prolonging the conflict for many months. Divided counsels on the part of the civil and military authorities rendered the bravery and self-sacrifice of the colonial volunteers and regulars almost useless for a time, but at last the Governor, Sir Bartle Frere, took the bull by the horns, and calling in the aid of the imperial troops and placing the united forces under one command, the Gcalekas, with their rebel Gaika and Tambookie allies, were effectually broken up and defeated.

Origin of the war.

Cost of the war.

This outbreak cost the colony somewhere about 800,000*l.*, and the lives of sixty whites and 140 Fingoes and loyal Kaffirs. It was also the indirect cause of furnishing the colony with one of the luxuries of respon-

sible government—a ministerial crisis, resulting in the dismissal of the Molteno cabinet and the formation of the Gordon Sprigg ministry in February 1878.

Ministerial crisis. The new Ministry.

Mr. Gordon Sprigg's two years' tenure of office have been signalised by several patriotic and courageous measures, the chief of which are the organisation of the defences of the colony and the disarmament of the native tribes. Public works have been vigorously prosecuted, and a large and well-considered scheme of agricultural immigration inaugurated. Meanwhile the trade and revenue of the colony, the development of which was temporarily interrupted by the Gcaleka outbreak and by a series of unusually dry seasons, have more than recovered their former position and bid fair for a period of considerable prosperity.

Ministerial proposals for session of 1880.

The ministerial programme for the ensuing Parliamentary session includes proposals for extending the railways towards the Orange Free State and the Diamond Fields, and a conference of delegates of all the South African colonies on confederation.

Submarine cable.

The year just ended will be long remembered as having witnessed during its later months the laying of the telegraphic cable from Aden to Zanzibar and Natal, thus connecting the Cape and its South African sisters with England and the world. This great work was completed on Christmas Day 1879, and within an hour or two of noon on that day messages were interchanged by London, Cape Town, Pietermaritzburg, and Pretoria.

*List of the Governors of the Colony from the Settlement of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope.**

UNDER THE DUTCH DOMINION.

Johan Antony van Riebeeck . .	appointed	April 8, 1652.
Zacharias Wagenaar	,,	May 9, 1662.
Cornelius van Qualbey . . .	,,	Oct. 24, 1666.
Jacob Borghorst	,,	June 18, 1668.
Peter Hackuis	,,	June 2, 1670.
Coenraad van Breitenbach . . .	,,	Dec. 1, 1671.
Albert van Breugel	,,	March 23, 1672.

* From 'General Directory for 1872.' Saul Solomon & Co., Cape Town.

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Ysbrand Goske	appointed	Oct. 2, 1672.
Johan Bax van Herentals	,,	Jan. 2, 1676.
Hendrik Crudax	,,	June 29, 1678.
Simon van der Stell	,,	Oct. 14, 1678.
William Adriaan van der Stell	,,	Feb. 11, 1699.
Johan Cornelis d'Abling	,,	June 3, 1707.
Louis van Assenbury	,,	Feb. 1, 1708.
Willem Helot	,,	Dec. 28, 1711.
Mauritz Pasquess de Chavonnes	,,	March 28, 1714.
Jan de la Fonteine (acting)	,,	Sept. 8, 1724.
Pict Gysbert Noodt	,,	Feb. 25, 1727.
Jan de la Fonteine (acting)	,,	April 24, 1728.
Ditto (effective)	,,	March 8, 1730.
Adriaan van Kervel	,,	Nov. 14, 1736.
Daniel van den Heugkell	,,	Sept. 20, 1737.
Hendrik Swellengrebel	,,	April 14, 1739.
Ryk Tulbagh	,,	March 30, 1751.
Joachim van Plettenburg	,,	Aug. 12, 1771.
Pieter Baron van Rheede van Oadtshoorn (died on his passage to the colony on board the ship 'Asia')	,,	Jan. 23, 1773.
Cornelis Jacobus van de Graaff	,,	Feb. 12, 1785.
Johannes Isaac Rhenius	,,	June 29, 1791.
Abraham Jos. Sluysken (Lt.-Governor)	,,	Sept. 2, 1793.

UNDER THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

J. H. Craig	appointed	Sept. 1, 1795.
Earl of Macartney	,,	May 23, 1797.
Sir Francis Dundas (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	Nov. 22, 1798.
Sir George Young	,,	Dec. 18, 1799.
Sir Francis Dundas (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	April 20, 1801.

UNDER THE BATAVIAN GOVERNMENT.

Jan William Janssens	appointed	March 1, 1803.

UNDER THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

Sir David Baird	appointed	Jan. 10, 1807.
Hon. H. G. Grey (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	Jan. 17, 1807.
Du Pré, Earl of Caledon	,,	May 22, 1807.
Hon. H. G. Grey (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	July 5, 1811.
Sir John Francis Cradock	,,	Sept. 5, 1811.
Hon. Robert Meade (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	Dec. 3, 1813.
Lord Charles Henry Somerset	,,	April 6, 1814.
Sir Rufane Shawe Donkin (acting)	,,	Jan. 13, 1820.
Lord Charles Henry Somerset	,,	Dec. 1, 1821.
Richard Bourke (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	Feb. 8, 1826.
Hon. Sir Galbraith Lowry Cole	,,	Sept. 9, 1828.
Lt.-Col. T. F. Wade (Act. Gov.)	,,	Aug. 10, 1833.
Sir Benjamin D'Urban	,,	Jan. 16, 1834.

Sir A. Stockenstrom, Bt. (Lt.-Gov. E.P.)	appointed	July 28, 1836.
Sir George T. Napier, K.C.B. . .	,,	Jan. 22, 1838.
Col. J. Hare (Lt.-Gov. E.P.) . .	,,	Aug. 31, 1839.
Sir Peregrine Maitland . . .	,,	March 18, 1844.
Rt. Hon. Sir Henry Pottinger, Bt. .	,,	Jan. 27, 1847.
Sir Henry E. F. Young (Lt.-Gov.) .	,,	April 28, 1847.
Sir Harry G. W. Smith, Bt., G.C.B. .	,,	Dec. 1, 1847.
Hon. Sir George Cathcart . . .	,,	March 31, 1852.
C. H. Darling, Esq. (Lt.-Gov.) . .	,,	March 31, 1852.
Sir George Grey, K.C.B. . . .	,,	Dec. 5, 1854.
Lt.-General Jackson (Lt.-Gov.) . .	,,	Dec. 30, 1853.
Lt.-General R. W. Wynyard (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	Aug. 20, 1859.
Sir P. E. Wodehouse, K.C.B. . .	,,	Nov. 2, 1861.
Sir Percy Douglas (Lt.-Gov.) . .	,,	Dec. 2, 1863.
Lt.-General Hay (Lt.-Gov.) . .	,,	Nov. 7, 1868.
Sir Henry Barkly, K.C.B. . . .	,,	Aug. 19, 1870.
Lt.-General Sir A. T. Cunynghame, K.C.B. (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	March 9, 1874.
Sir H. Bartle E. Frere, Bt., G.C.B. .	,,	Feb. 27, 1877.
M.-General Hon. F. A. Thesiger, C.B. (Lt.-Gov.)	,,	March 5, 1878.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

General Description of Surface of South Africa.

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Definition.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY is the description of the earth in its whole material organisation, as a mass of matter whose external crust exists in various mechanical conditions, modified by both internal and external causes; as the seat of organic life, vegetable and animal; and as subject to various changes, modifying both conditions of organic existence. It also involves a description of atmospheric peculiarities, and also those of the oceans and seas surrounding the land.

Limits of subject.

Of late years the importance of physical geography has become fully recognised, from the labours of Berghaus, Humboldt, Somerville, and other eminent authorities, and should be carefully separated from mere political or commercial geography, as formerly taught in our schools.

It does not deal with the artificial boundaries of nations, which are often determined from political rather than physical causes, although we find men taking both their character and even their physical attributes from the nature of the localities in which they dwell. Thus, in South Africa we find the sterile and nearly waterless wastes of the Northern plains of the Cape Colony and the Kalihari desert inhabited by the miserably stunted tribes of the Bosjesmen and Korannas; while farther East, amongst the fertile hills and grassy plains of Kaffraria and Zululand, dwell the Kaffir tribes, presenting finely developed forms and perfect models of human activity and strength, each type, no doubt, gradually influenced by the physical geography of the region in which it dwells, and its food-producing powers.

Basins of Drainage, Mountain Ranges, &c.

River Systems.

The physical features of the region forming the southern extremity of the continent of Africa may be

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most clearly comprehended by a short description of the river systems which drain it, and the mountain ranges forming the ridges or watershed lines from which those rivers descend. Thus considered, it will be found that South Africa, from its southern extremity, Cape Agulhas, lat. 34° 49′ S., lon. 20° to 40° E., to the parallel of the mouths of the Zambesi, lat. 18° S., is divided into the following natural systems or basins of drainage: (1) The narrow fringe of coast region drained generally by rivers of short course, and separated from the interior by mountain ranges, nearly continuous from Ovampo land, on the remote north-west, round the Cape Colony, to the north of Delagoa Bay as far as is known; the different river-basins often separated by subsidiary ranges of hills and highlands, locally called 'rands,' which may be considered offshoots of the primary ranges. (2) The great basin of the Orange or Gariep River, draining the north and west sides of the highest range of mountains, and the immense tract of desert country north of it nearly to Lake Ngami (the watershed line being a few miles to the southward of the lake), Betchouana land, and the southern slopes of the Magaliesbergen, a superficial extent of nearly 450,000 square miles. (3) The river system of the Limpopo or Oori River, draining the north face of the Magaliesbergen, the eastern parts of the Kalihari desert, and the south-east slopes of the Maloppo mountains, to the shores of the Indian Ocean. (4) The Cuanene basin, which drains the north edge of Ovampoland and the Kalihari desert. This region is but little known, and a certain degree of obscurity prevails as to whether some of its watercourses do not anastomose with the Zambesi River system. (5) The latter is of too extensive a nature to be entered on in a treatise on South African geography, as any attempt to describe it would lead us on north of the equator. Suffice it to mention here that the rivers rising north of the Maloppo Mountains, in what is popularly known as Moselikatze's Country, all run to the north into the Zambesi, the northern watershed of which is conterminous with that of the Nile and Congo.

Mountain ranges.

It is probable that the mountain ranges of South Africa are continuous, both on the East and West Coast,

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with those high lands which fringe the coast of Africa from Abyssinia to the Gulf of Guinea. A study of the river systems which have been described will much facilitate the acquisition of a correct knowledge of the mountains and watershed lines.*

In Damara and Ovampo land, to the north-west, is found, at an average distance of 100 to 120 miles from the coast, and in many places much nearer to it, a broad band of high table-land, studded with rugged and apparently unconnected peaks and barren hills, between which and the sea lie extensive sandy plains, from which issue to the north and east sluggish periodical streams, which either are wholly evaporated or absorbed on their course, or eventually find their way into the Cuanene or the dry watercourses of the Kalihari. This barren and rugged range loses itself to the north in the high and fertile plains of Ovampoland, growing large crops of maize and Kaffir corn, while on the east they sink into the elevated plateau of the Kalihari desert; on the south they continue down the coast region of Great Namaqualand as far south as the Orange River, and south of it as far as the Koper Bergen and Great Kamiesberg, where the high terrace of Bushmanland—seemingly a perfect flat, although upwards of 3,000 feet above the sea—eventually connects these mountains with the Hantam, Roggeveld, Nieuwveld, Sneeuwberg, Zuurberg, Stormberg, and other principal ranges of the Cape Colony; and so north-east to the Quathlamba of Natal (the Drachensbergen of the Free State), and perhaps stretch right away in the same direction to Kilimandjoro and the snowy peaks north-east of Zanzibar, from which descend the waters of the eastern branches of the Nile.

The Maluti of Basutuland and Magaliesbergen are offshoots at nearly right angles to the main ranges, the latter separating the river system of the Orange from that of the Limpopo River. The average height of this main range, which is sometimes called the Backbone of Africa, may be estimated at 5,000 feet,* although in a few localities where two or three culminating knots or groups of high lands occur, it attains a height perhaps

* In all descriptions of mountains and rivers we generally commence on the west, or left hand, and travel round South Africa to the right.

of 10,000 feet, but never actually reaches the perpetual snow-line, a physical feature which has a serious climatic influence on South African rivers and fountains. In the Sneeuw Bergen the lofty peak of the Compass Berg (7,800 ft.) forms such a point, sending to the north-east the ranges of the Rhenosterberg, Bamboes Berg, Stormberg, and Quathlamba, and to the south-east the Zwagers Hoek mountains, Great Winterberg, Amatola, and Matuana mountains. Again, at the north-west angle of the Natal Colony another point of great elevation is found in the 'Mont aux Sources' (10,000 ft. ?), from which ramify the Maluti mountains and the Wittebergen; farther to the north, again, near the heads of the Vaal River, occurs a large elevated plateau, from which ramify, running nearly east and west, the ranges of the Magaliesberg, Chouanye, and other parallel chains, forming the watershed between the Orange River and Limpopo River systems. In the mountain ranges of the West Coast the Winterhoek Peak (6,840 ft.) above Tulbagh forms a striking culminating point visible from Cape Town.

Subsidiary ranges.

Running parallel to the mountain system which we call the Backbone of Africa, and more especially in the Cape Colony, are many subsidiary ranges, forming, as it were, retaining walls or buttresses to the elevated terraces or plateaux which rise in regular steps from the coast to the interior. These secondary chains of mountains, from 4,000 to 6,000 feet in elevation, may be considered as commencing south of Olifants River, on the West Coast. They run from thence round the coast, terminating between St. Francis's Bay and the mouth of the Great Fish River, where they gradually sink down to the sea-level. The distance between the coast and the range nearest to it varies from eight to forty miles. These ranges enclose the elevated plateaux of the Great Karroo, the Cold and Warm Bokkeveld, Kannaland, Olifant River valleys, east and west; the Lange Kloof plateaux, varying in elevation from 1,000 to 5,000 feet above the coast regions. North of the great mountain range first described are scattered numerous groups of isolated hills of various fantastic shapes, some hundreds of feet higher than the plains on which they stand, while in the Coast region groups of hills often occur standing in advance, as it were, of the

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continuous ranges, such as the Piquetberg, Riebecks, Casteel, the Paarl, and Cape Promontory mountains. The features of the mountains of South Africa are varied in their outline, and present generally a scarped and precipitous face to the coast, sloping more gently to the interior. In many places, where the summits are composed of sandstones more or less friable, the outline is varied and picturesque in the extreme, especially in the Quathlamba range of Natal. The tabular form, as familiarly exemplified in Table Mountain, over Table Bay, is also very prevalent, and is often capped with igneous rocks, although not in this instance. But in the granitic region north of Olifant River West, and extending into Great Namaqualand, the gneiss and granite rocks present bare and rather rounded summits. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Orange River valley, and near its mouth, the hills appear of the most fantastic shapes, as if subjected to violent igneous action. As a general remark, the coast side of all these ranges is always the best wooded. We have given elsewhere the heights of the principal South African peaks which have been accurately fixed.

Mountain summits.

Deserts, Karroos, Vleis, &c.

Deserts of South Africa.

It is necessary here to say a few words on those physical features which give a distinguishing stamp to this part of the earth's surface. The deserts of South Africa, if we may call them such, are not, like the Saharas of the northern portion of the continent, sandy wastes shifting their surface under the breath of every gust of wind, or cold inhospitable plains like the Gobi of Central Asia; on the contrary, they are generally composed of shallow beds of the richest soil, which only want the fertilising power of water to render them, not only as rich but much richer than any other parts of the surface. Hence the importance of adopting a systematic mode of irrigation for these vast plains, which comprise nearly two-thirds of the surface of the Cape Colony, by storing the water up in the kloofs of the mountain ranges which bound them, not merely with extemporised dams, but in reservoirs with scientifically constructed retaining walls, capable of resisting the pressure of the enormous floods

of water that pour down when the thunder-storms of the interior burst over them—floods that in the pre-historic era, when our Karroos were no doubt vast lakes, were sufficient to tear passages through the weak points of the coast range of mountains, and still form the passages of rivers such as the Gamka, the Groote or Gamtoos River, the Great Fish, &c., &c.

Karroos.

Lichtenstein and Pringle describe in eloquent terms the beauty of the Great Karroo after the vivifying effect of a few thunder-storms. In like manner Bushman land after the periodical rains presents the appearance of a vast field of grass; but owing to the formation of the surface the rains that fall soon run off, and the summer sun speedily reduces it to its previous burnt and barren appearance. Dr. Livingstone's theory, which is adopted by all our best authorities, is that our Karroos and other large plains once formed the beds of immense lakes (an opinion strongly corroborated by the fossil remains found there), and of which the fast diminishing Lake Ngami now presents the only remains. We may also note that on the immense though gradual slope from the Nieuwveld Mountains to the Orange River, when the thunder-storms are more violent than usual, hundreds of square miles of the country along the line of the dry watercourses or natural lines of drainage are converted into what are locally called Vleis, or large shallow lakes. The whole of these waters it is supposed were let off by fissures or cracks in the subtending slopes rent by the upheaval of the country. The fissures thus made at the Victoria Falls, discovered by Livingstone, let out the waters of the great Zambesi Lake. The fissure through which the Orange River pours itself at the Falls of Aukrabees probably drained off the waters of the desert of Kalihari and the table-lands of Bushman land. The Warm Bokkeveld valley and Kanna-land, as well as the Great Karroo itself, were evidently lakes at one period, their waters escaping by the fissures of Mitchell's Pass, the Gauritz, and the Hex River valley; and indeed the rugged and fearful kloofs through which their surface-waters still escape show the evident traces of some violent convulsions of nature. The basins of Cradock and Queenstown, evidently old lake-beds, are now drained by the watercourses of the Great Fish and Kei Rivers. A proof of the elevation of the land at a

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comparatively recent geological period is seen in the beds of shells along the coast, varying in thickness from 50 to 500 feet, from which is derived the greater part of the lime for industrial purposes. Indeed many appearances point out that the mountain ranges nearest the coast formerly formed the coast-line of South Africa.

Kalihari desert.

The soil of the Kalihari desert is generally a light-coloured, soft, and pure sand, resting on a bed of tufaceous conglomerate, and probably on a substratum of granite or gneiss. Although destitute of running water, and so called a desert, it is covered with a dense vegetation of bush, and water is generally found by digging a few feet down into the native marked watercourses. Towards the north, indeed, the whole region seems to be covered with a hard sunbaked alluvial deposit, and to have been the bed of an ancient lake. Towards the east the sandstone formations, capped with trap-rock, appear.

Substratum of Karroo.

The substratum of the Great Karroo is a blue shaly rock, comprising part of Mr. Bain's dicynodon strata, covered with thin beds of red argillaceous soil; both rock and clay appear to contain much soluble saline matter, which causes the general brackish nature both of the springs and rivers found in the Karroo. The term 'Karroo' is a Hottentot word, signifying a barren plain, and is a geographical term peculiar to South Africa. Barren, however, as these Karroo plains may appear to the eyes of a stranger, they form the most valuable sheep farms and pasture lands of the Cape Colony, and under the influence of a skilfully-arranged system of irrigation will be found capable of producing both wine and cereal crops to any amount. The market value of Karroo land has actually quintupled within a period of a very few years.

Watershed of South Africa.

Definition.

The term 'watershed' is comparatively a modern word, not always found in our dictionaries; it is derived from the German 'wasserscheiden,' signifying to divide the waters flowing in different directions, or rather the line (not always the top of a hill) dividing them.

The ridges of a house will give the best popular idea

of watershed lines, while the valleys and gutters may be considered the river channels.

Description.

As South Africa must be considered a vast triangle, the two sides of which are bathed by the Atlantic and South Indian Ocean, and as no internal lake exists into which any of its rivers drain, the watershed is a line separating those waters flowing into the Atlantic from those flowing into the Indian Ocean.

Rivers.

The rivers flowing into the Atlantic are the Cuanene, Orange, Olifant River west, and Berg River; into the Indian Ocean, the Breede, Gauritz, Gamtoos, Sunday, Bushman, Great Fish River, Great Kei and Keiskamma, Umzimvoobo, Umzinculu, Umtugela, Limpopo, besides innumerable smaller streams of no importance. The whole of the waters of the Zambesi river, the heads of which approach the West Coast, drain into the Indian Ocean.

General direction of watershed.

Commencing at the Cape of Good Hope, the water-dividing line bisects the peninsula north and south until it reaches Wynberg. Thence it crosses the Cape flats along the high ground dividing the waters of the Eerste and Zout rivers, along the ridge of the Drakenstein mountains to Nieuw Kloof, and along the low neck which separates the waters of the Berg and Breede rivers up the north side of Mitchell's Pass to Karroo Poort, crossing the Karroo along the ridges of the Little Roggeveld, which divide the channels of the Doorn and Groote rivers from these, running into the Touwes and Gamtoos. Thence it passes along the summits of the Nieuwveld Mountains to Waai Poort, and across the high plateau north of the Camdeboo Mountains, rather more than half-way between Richmond and Graaf-Reynet to the Compass Berg, which may be termed the culminating point of this region, for the waters run from its flanks in all directions, forming the Great Fish, Sunday, and Zeekoe rivers, running respectively east, south, and north from it. From thence the watershed follows the summit of the ranges of Rhenoster, Zuurberg, and Bamboesbergen until it reaches the Stormbergen, where it is very well defined. All the waters on the northern slopes of these mountains belong to the Atlantic, and those on the southern to the Indian Ocean system. From the Stormbergen it runs north east, parallel to the coast,

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and about eighty or ninety miles distant from it, dividing the Kaffir from the Bechouana tribes as far as the 'Mont aux Sources,' 10,000 feet; at the head of the Orange River, which forms another culminating point, whence flow to all points of the compass the waters of the Orange, Caledon, Vaal, Tugela, and Umzimvoobo rivers. It still follows the mountain line which here forms the boundary between Natal and the Orange Free State, trends more away from the coast, until it reaches the high central plateau from whence spring the farthest sources of the Vaal and Limpopo rivers. This plateau, which, although a vast plain on one side, falls precipitously towards the coast, is considered to have an elevation of 7,000 feet to 8,000 feet. Hitherto the general direction of the watershed from Cape Point has been nearly parallel to the coast, or north-east. It now, however, changes, and runs east and west as far as Kolobeng, on the east margin of the Kalihari desert, separating the waters running north into the Limpopo from those running south into the Orange River. The mountains now begin to be lost on the elevated plains of the Kalihari desert, over which in a north-west direction the watershed runs a few miles south of Lake Ngami until it reaches the table-land of the Ovampo country. Here again begins the watershed separating our colonial river systems from those running north into the Zambesi. This in a general manner runs nearly due east until it reaches the end of the mountain ranges (Maloppo) north of the Limpopo River, on the southern slopes of which gold has been lately discovered in what is called Moselikatze's Country. Several rivers of small importance descend from the east slopes of this high land and enter the sea between the mouth of the Zambesi and Delagoa Bay, such as the Sofala River, &c. We have not here alluded to the minor lines of watershed existing between the different rivers. They are, however, interesting and worth studying, as conveying the most perfect idea of the surface of a country. On a small scale the watershed between the Great Fish, Kowie, Bushman's, and Kareega rivers may be studied near Grahamstown, the sources of tributaries of all these rivers being found adjacent to each other. The high lands about Gaikas' Kop, and the Amatola also very

beautifully illustrate the dividing lines between the Great Kei basin and those of the Great Fish and Keiskamma rivers. In the Kalihari desert and the country of waters north of it these watersheds become very obscure and puzzling, a heavy thunderstorm often changing the direction of a river, so that one traveller may report a river running eastward, and the next may view it running in a contrary direction. This is especially the case with the River Zouga, which in dry seasons runs west into Lake Ngami; and when that shallow collection of waters is flooded above a certain level the same river runs to the east out of it and loses itself in large salt-pans called Shokatzo.

Rivers.

Very few of the rivers of South Africa on the Western Coast flow constantly in their whole course, and some of them even, especially those of Namaqualand, seldom flow at all, and it is not until we arrive east of the Great Fish River that we find an abundant supply of running waters. The numerous watercourses marked on the map as draining the Karroo and Kalihari are but dry channels, except after heavy thunder-storms, when they may run for a few hours. To the north and north-east it is, however, different. The rivers of Kaffraria and Natal, and on the East Coast, have always an abundant supply of water in their channels, and the Olifants Berg and Breede rivers are also well provided in that respect. The peculiarity of Cape rivers is, that they generally plough their way through the alluvial soil until they reach the hard rock, which causes them to run in a deep channel below the general level of the country and, without artificial means, to be of little use for irrigating purposes. We shall farther on say a few words on such of them as are worthy of any detailed description.

Hydrography, Coast-line, Navigable Rivers, Bays, and Harbours.

Brief review.

We pass on to give a brief description of the coast-line of South Africa, from Walvisch Bay, lat. 22° 50′ S., lon. 14° 38′, on the West Coast, to Delagoa Bay, lat. 26°, lon. 32° 30′, on the East Coast, an extent of more than 2,000 miles. The sea-line is singularly deficient of good harbours, devoid of navigable rivers, and washed a great

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part of the year with a most tempestuous ocean, girdled by a never-ceasing surf, and its projecting capes and headlands bristle with reefs on which many a gallant ship has met its fate. The region is not without its romance, and recalls to mind the old days of marine chivalry when De Gama first doubled the Cape of Storms, and Diaz planted the holy cross on the barren islet in the Bai de Algoa. It reminds us, too, of that myth of the Middle Ages, the Flying Dutchman, and of the spectre of Van der Decken's phantom ship beating to windward off the dread Agulhas Bank; and to this day we see here and there on the barren headlands of the Western desert the shafts of the stone crosses planted by the pious and hardy Portuguese pioneers, some of which are still visible emblems of their daring and their devotion.*

General outline of coast.

The general character of this coast-line may be defined as follows: Travelling from west round to east, from Walvisch Bay to St. Helena Bay, lat. 32° 40′, the coast trends to the south-south-east, and is low and sandy; a chain of hills stretches along it generally at a distance of about thirty miles inland; a perpetual haze, especially in the early part of the day, appears to hang over it, and water is very scarce and vegetation scanty. Some high lands occur on the west shore of St. Helena Bay, and extend to the south of Saldanha Bay, from whence to the Cape peninsula the shore is again sandy. From Table Bay to Cape Agulhas the shore is bold and rocky, and from thence to Algoa Bay huge ranges of mountains run in many places close to the shore. The coast-line, which runs nearly due east from Cape Point, now begins to trend to the north-east, and the aspect of the country improves very much. The shores, however, are studded with sharp reefs of rocks, and a wreck-chart extending back a half-century would tell a fearful tale of loss. North of Natal the coast is flat and marshy, and large forests approach the shore. Innumerable rivers, few of them of any importance, enter the sea between the Great Fish River mouth and Delagoa Bay.

* One of these crosses may be seen in the Cape Town Museum, taken, we believe, from a headland near Angra Pequena.

Its currents.

The Great Cape current is formed by the junction of the Mozambique current and those of the seas south of Madagascar; deflected by the great bank of Agulhas, it passes round the Cape of Good Hope, and there mixes with the South Atlantic current, its mean velocity being two miles an hour, but sometimes as much as 100 miles a day. On the West Coast it runs north-west. The velocity of these currents is more or less influenced by the prevailing winds, which sometimes even make them run in a direction opposite to their prevailing course, and frequently cause great discrepancies in the reckoning of vessels rounding the Cape. Besides these powerful currents there are many local and minor ones, generally setting in close to shore in an opposite direction to the main one, and sometimes being, as on the Zitzikamma coast, dead on shore. These currents are but too often in thick weather the unsuspected cause of many local wrecks.

Banks.

The great Agulhas bank commences near the mouth of the Keiskamma River, and extends south-east to a distance of about sixty miles from the coast, which it approaches again, and may be considered to terminate opposite Saldanha Bay, forming a sort of submarine apex to the immense triangle of the African continent. On its outer edge the average depth is sixty fathoms. It abounds with fishing-grounds; and the sea is generally very rough along it. No other banks or shoals of importance exist along the coast, or indeed any dangerous rocks, at a greater distance than five or six miles, except some in Algoa Bay, which will be hereafter alluded to. But the loss of her Majesty's ship 'Birkenhead,' in 1852, and many others, show that mariners cannot be too cautious in nursing the shore at that distance.

Tides, winds, &c.

The rise of the tide along the coast varies from four to six feet. The prevailing winds are S.E. in the summer months and N.W. in winter, but heavy S.W. gales are also prevalent off Agulhas Bank. A deceptive haziness is often present along the coast in calm weather.

Bays and harbours.

Making Walvisch Bay again our starting-point, we find there secure anchorage, but no fresh water or vegetables, although cattle may be had from the Damara tribes in large quantities. The shore is desolation itself.

Fish abundant.

Fish is abundant, and it formerly was a favourite resort

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for American whalers; hence its name. The climate is tolerably healthy, although a nasty low typhoid fever is prevalent in the hot season. It very seldom rains. Many valuable mines, both of copper and lead, exist in the interior, but difficulties of transport prevent their development. Port Pelican, its west point, is in lat. 22° 50′ S., lon. 14° 26′ E.

Sandwich and other harbours.

Between Walvisch Bay and the mouth of the Orange River, in lat. 25° 40′ S., there are a few small bays and anchorages in Sandwich Harbour, Angra Pequena, Elizabeth Bay, Van Reenen's Cove, Angras Juntas, &c., and between the island of Ichaboe and the mainland the anchorage is very good. Nearly all the little bays or coves are open to the N.W., and dangerous when the swell sets in from that point. Fresh water is very deficient, and the aspect of the whole line of coast most barren and cheerless. Cattle may sometimes be procured at Angra Pequena, and guano formerly existed in large quantities on Ichaboe and Possession Islands, although now nearly exhausted. Not one constantly flowing stream enters the Atlantic between Walvisch Bay and the Orange River, a distance of 400 miles, and rain very seldom falls. Large quantities of fish are taken and cured at Sandwich Harbour, where, we believe, there is a spring of tolerable water. The country along the coast is uninhabited, and visited only occasionally by the Namaqua tribes, who live on the mountains. A good cattle-road leads from Angra Pequena to the Rhenish Mission Station, Bethany, in lat. 26° 40′ S.

Some copper ore exists near Van Reenen's Cove; and Messrs. De Pass, of Cape Town and Leadenhall Street, London, have some very promising specimens of silver lead ore and phosphates from this part of the coast. Beds of natron and nitrate of soda are spoken of. Some years ago three or four hundred vessels were at one time anchored off Ichaboe Island, working the guano deposits.

Guano Island.

Orange River mouth.

The Orange River forms the northern boundary of the Cape Colony, and is the largest river in South Africa. Its course from its head waters in the Maluti Mountains may be roughly estimated at 1,200 miles, while the basin of its drainage cannot be less than 400,000 square miles, extending from near Lake Ngami, in lat. 21° S., to the

Nieuwveld Mountains, in lat. 32°, and from long. 16° 32′ E., that of its mouth, to 30°; and yet, strange to say, its mouth is barred with a hopeless sandbank, which all the rains and snows which fall on the peaks of the Maluti, the Stormbergen, and the Nieuwveld and Roggeveld hills, as well as on the wide plains of the Sovereignty, fail to wash away.

Inside the bar the river can be ascended in small craft from twenty to thirty miles, but the numerous dykes of rock crossing the river form fearful rapids, and bar any farther progress; and, indeed, so dry and rainless are the regions it traverses in the lower part of its course, that it appears a much finer river at Aliwal or near Colesberg, many hundreds of miles from the sea, than near its mouth. When, however, the periodical rains fall in the Maluti or Quathlamba mountains its volume of water is very considerable, and opens a free passage to the sea through its bar for a few days. The country on both its banks near the ocean is, perhaps, one of the most dismal, savage, and barren in the universe. Flowing, as it does, between rugged and almost perpendicular mountains, it is difficult of access, and one may perish of thirst and yet be within a few hundred yards of its waters. When the rivers of the colony are described, this subject shall be more fully entered into, and we may here say that during the last few years, thanks to the labours of R. Moffat, Charles Bell, and other explorers, our knowledge of the lower course of the Orange River and its great waterfalls is vastly increased since the time of its first explorers, the missionary Campbell and the venerable missionary Moffat, and Mr. G. Thompson, of Cape Town, whose account of his journey along it, published in 1824, is especially interesting.

Desolate country.

A few miles south of the Orange River two isolated peaks show the situation of Cape Voltas, on both sides of which small craft can get shelter and anchorage. A sort of temporary importance of late years was given to the above-named bays during the progress of the copper-mining mania in Namaqualand. But they are now little heard of, or even marked on our best maps. More to the south, Port Nolloth, formerly known as Robben or Seal Bay, has been preferred as safer and more commodious, a small island helping to shelter it from the north-west

Peacock and Alexander Bays.

Port Nolloth.

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swell. It has for some time been much used by the Cape Copper Mining Company, of whose railway it forms the coast terminus, and who have erected a commodious pier and landing-place, laid down moorings, &c. Water may be obtained by digging in the sands, but it is brackish; but reservoirs are in course of construction in the interior, with pipes laid on, which will always secure a sufficient supply. The ground is laid out as a town, in building lots, but few are as yet occupied. One or two miles south of Port Nolloth is Port McDougal, where there are some wells of water.

Hondeklip Bay.

We now pass the blocked-up mouths of the Buffalo and Zwartlinjies Rivers, and, three or four miles south of the latter, enter Hondeklip Bay, formerly the chief shipment port for the copper ores from the mines of Namaqualand, but which is now in a great measure superseded by the greater facilities afforded by Port Nolloth. It is a small indentation in a rocky, granitic coast, and affords bad anchorage and no fresh water. The scenery of the locality is wretched and dispiriting in the extreme. The name of Hondeklip, or Dog's Rock, is derived from a large boulder of granite which lies on the high ground to the right as the harbour is entered, and which presents, painted red as it is, or rather was (for it is many years since we have seen it), a prominent landmark as you sail along the coast. Hondeklip contains a few stores and houses, although, from the absence of good water and the insecurity of the anchorage, it never can become a place of any importance.

Roodewal Bay.

Roodewal Bay would be hardly worth noticing here, it being only an inconsiderable indentation in the coast, were it not for its mention so eulogistically by Sir J. Alexander. It is surrounded by high cliffs of red sandstone, hence its Dutch name—Roodewal Bay. Landing is difficult, and water scarce and bad. There is also a small anchorage and landing-place near the mouth of the Spoog or Ghost River, a few miles more to the south. From thence to the mouth of the Olifant River the coast is most desolate, although well adapted for ostrich-farming. One little cove, near the mouth of Groen River, is called Krief or Crawfish Bay. The Olifant River is hopelessly barred with sand and rocks.

Coast suitable for ostrich-farming.

Donkin's and

A few miles south of it we find Donkin's Bay, where

there is tolerable anchorage and shelter. From this little port and Lambert's Bay, about twenty miles south of it, and of a similar nature, a good deal of grain is shipped from the fertile Piquetberg district; but the heavy sands between the mountains and the coast render land transport both difficult and expensive. Lambert's Bays.

From Lambert's Bay the coast makes a horseshoe-like curve, and forms the large bay of St. Helena open to the north-west, into which the Great Berg River disembogues itself. This river can be ascended a few miles in small cutters, and until a few years ago a stray hippopotamus or two still inhabited it near its mouth. St. Helena Bay.

Rounding the rather bold headlands forming the west horn of St. Helena Bay, we at last arrive at the bay *par excellence* of South Africa, namely, that of Saldanha, one of the finest in the world, affording every convenience for vessels of any tonnage. The entrance is narrow, and the land bold on each side; and the many indentations in the shore present so many wharfs, formed as it were by Nature. But this fine bay is seldom visited, although easy of access in all winds. The country around it is but thinly inhabited, and only one or two small trading stations are met with on its shores. As far back as Barrow's time a project was entertained of leading the Berg River into it, and we do not think any serious engineering difficulties would be met with in accomplishing it. The principal, we suspect, would be financial ones. Now in this noble bay all is solitude and desolation. A few fisheries exist, but very imperfectly worked. Between Saldanha and Table Bay a few isolated rocky islands, as Dassen Eyland, are met, which afford shelter for small craft caught in south-east gales, but are out of the track of ordinary vessels; and we at last approach the grand and striking cliffs of the Cape Peninsula, with the old Taffel Berg, crowned with clouds, and which has served as a landmark for the last eighty miles. Saldanha Bay.

Table Bay somewhat resembles St. Helena Bay, but on a smaller scale, open to the north-west, and sheltered from the south-east seas, but certainly not from the winds from the same quarter, which blow off the land for the five summer months with intense fury. The construc- Table Bay.

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tion of a breakwater and docks has, however, entirely changed the character of Table Bay from a most dangerous anchorage to one now of perfect safety, and the engineering works lately completed are most creditable to the colonial authorities, Sir John Coode, and the resident engineer who carried out his designs. The breakwater is not yet quite completed, but the docks, which seem to answer their purpose admirably, have been for some time in active operation. Lighthouses are built on Green and Mouillé Points, and a third on the opposite side of the entrance, on or near the Roman Rock of Robben Island, a rather large island which serves as a sort of breakwater to Table Bay. Table Bay, instead of being, as it was formerly, esteemed one of the most dangerous roadsteads in the world, is now one of the safest and most convenient.

False Bay.

Leaving Table Bay, and proceeding south round the Cape Peninsula, we pass Camps and Hout Bay, formerly deemed of some importance, as the remains of the old forts commanding the anchorages still show. We finally double the Cape of Good Hope itself, where, on its extreme point, 800 feet above the sea level, a lighthouse is erected, but too high, it is said, to be of much use in foggy weather; and we then enter False Bay, a large bay, of which the Cape Peninsula forms the west side, and the lofty Hottentots Holland Mountain, terminated by Cape Hangklip, the east. Within False Bay, again, we find the safe and well-sheltered Simon's Bay and town, Her Majesty's only naval station in South Africa. Here a lighthouse was erected a few years ago on the Roman or Coffin Rock, which lies near the anchorage. Gordon's Bay, in the north-east corner of False Bay, is hardly ever visited. False Bay has some fisheries, and whales are often caught in it. Kalk Bay, a village on its shores, is a favourite resort during the hot season in Cape Town. Between Capes Hangklip and Agulhas, which is the most southern point of the African continent, are some open and exposed bays, such as Walker's and Sandown Bays, which, however, afford shelter in north-west gales, and have one or two little coves, from which farm produce may be shipped, such as Port Durban and Stanford Coves. Danger Point, a well-known landmark, has an ugly rock lying to the east of it, on which

Her Majesty's ship 'Birkenhead' struck a few years ago, with so great a loss of life. The Gunner's Quoin is another well-known landmark, between Danger Point and Cape Agulhas.

On Agulhas Point is a light, not so well situated as it might be, and which it is contemplated to reconstruct in a better position. East of Agulhas is Struys, or Ostrich Bay, where vessels can get shelter in a north-west gale, but they should give a wide berth to it in south-easters. A sandy coast extends from thence to St. Sebastian's Bay, a shallow indentation open to all vessels, from the east to south-west, and where the Breede River enters the Indian Ocean.

Struys Bay.

The Breede River, although quite unimproved, is open to small vessels drawing not more than 8 or 10 feet of water, which can ascend it 30 or 40 miles. As it has generally some water in it, and a perceptible current, perhaps it affords as good a chance of being made useful as any river on the coast, especially by the introduction of steam-launches. Between Breede River and Mossel Bay, to the east, the coast is rocky and exposed, and the scene of many a fearful wreck. In Flesh and Fish Bays shelter may be had against north-westers, but nothing more. The first is so named from the quantity of cattle seen by the Portuguese, who first discovered them.

Breede River.

Mossel Bay is, after Saldanha and Simon's Bay, the safest bay on the coast. Boats can always land with safety. It, however, is open to south-east gales, and many wrecks have taken place near it. It is nevertheless a very important port, as being about half-way between Table and Algoa Bay, and the port evidently most fitted by Nature for the exportation of the produce of the central districts of the Cape Colony, when proper roads are opened up through the mountain passes. It is capable of much improvement, although little money has been as yet expended on it. Between it and the Knysna River occur a couple of little coves, available for shipping produce, called Dutton's Cove and Christiana Harbour. The Knysna, long. 23° E., is a land-locked estuary, where an inconsiderable river runs into the Indian Ocean. Instead of a sandbar we find here a gate of rock, and in many other particulars this little harbour is worthy of much consideration, for here Nature has formed in the

Mossel Bay.

The Knysna.

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rocky entrance those piers we desire to form by art in the Kowie and other places. The tide, entering through a narrow passage, about 160 yards wide, spreads out within a rocky enclosure over a large expanse of flats, preserving, however, a channel deep enough for vessels not drawing more than 12 feet of water. Engineering art, which has failed at the mouths of so many of our rivers, may here take a hint from Nature's operations.

Plettenberg Bay.

Plettenberg Bay presents the usual form of bays on the South Coast, namely, a shallow indentation, quite open to the south-east. Owing to the extensive forests in the neighbourhood, Plettenberg Bay is of some importance for small vessels in the coasting-trade. Landing is easy, and vessels can readily get out if any danger is apprehended from the south-east. Between Plettenberg and St. Francis Bay is a very dangerous and inhospitable coast, the scene of many fatal wrecks. The proximity of the mountain chain to the coast, and the prevailing winds, give rise to dense fogs and mists, and the current about here is supposed to occasionally set dead on shore. At Cape St. Francis the mountain range nearest the coast dies away gradually to the shore, and in the bay we find tolerably safe anchorage about the mouth of the Kromme or Crooked River. From thence to Cape Recife (lat. 34° S., long. 25° 36′ E.), which forms the west point of Algoa Bay, is a very rocky and dangerous coast. Recife is a low rocky point, the reefs of which run two or three miles out to sea. There is a lighthouse erected on it, but before it was thus distinguished it was the scene of many fatal wrecks. A lighthouse is at present in course of erection on Cape St. Francis.

Algoa Bay.

Some seven or eight miles north-by-east of Recife, in the north-west angle of Algoa Bay, stands Port Elizabeth, the second port of the Cape Colony, and which, in spite of many disadvantages, by the Anglo-Saxon energy of its inhabitants has obtained in a very few years a commercial position which in some points of view already surpasses her older sister of Table Bay. Algoa Bay is just one of the small bays of the coast on a larger scale, open to south-east gales, and sheltered from those of the north-west. Some shelter is obtained from the rocky

islets lying within the bay; but although considerable sums have been expended in engineering experiments to improve landing facilities, very little real benefit has as yet ensued. Amateur engineering and the difficulty of dealing with shifting bars of sand, must be credited with these unsatisfactory results. Under these circumstances the Colonial Government remitted the whole question to Sir John Coode, C.E., who has framed a design for harbour works which he has recommended to be executed by different stages, in order that the results of each stage or division may be ascertained as the work proceeds, the engineer regarding this as the proper course to be adopted under the peculiar difficulties of the case, arising from the enormous quantities of fine sand drifting along this part of the coast. Mr. William Shield, C.E., has been appointed resident engineer, and active operations in the first division of the works are now about to be commenced. A lighthouse has been lately erected on one of the Bird Islands, of the utility of which contradictory opinions exist. It was on the St. Croix Islet, in this bay, that Bartholomew Diaz erected a stone cross, when he first rounded the Cape in 1486, but no remains of it now exist.

From Port Padrone, the eastern extremity of Algoa Bay, we pass the Bushman, Kasuga, and Kareega Rivers, all hopelessly barred by sand, although forming pretty basins within, and finally reach the Kowie Mouth, or Port Alfred, the so-much-desired port of Albany, which here forms a little estuary, where the tidal waters, entering by a narrow channel, spread over a flat some acres in extent. But of late years extensive engineering operations have been carried on, and large sums spent, with a partial degree of success, and it is now visited by many vessels of moderate tonnage, which sail to it direct from the port of London.

The Kowie.

Passing round the coast, the next place worthy of remark we find is the port of East London, at the mouth of the Buffalo, which, since the occupation of British Kaffraria, has become a place of great importance, and, with a little improvement, has, undoubtedly, as a port, many important capabilities. Extensive harbour works, designed by Sir J. Coode, are now in operation

East London and Buffalo River.

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there, under the guidance of Mr. Lester, C.E., a practical engineer of much experience. Looking at the map of Africa, a glance will show that when the railway system connecting the coast with the interior is developed East London will be a place of great importance. Between East London and Natal the coast runs nearly in a straight direction from north-east to south-west, very little indented or broken, and presenting a uniform rocky shore. Hundreds of small streams and one or two rather considerable ones are found on the Kaffrarian coast, but none of them of any practical utility. The Umzimvoobo, or St. John's River, has been occasionally entered by small cutters, and we find some rather exposed anchorage at Mazeppa Bay, a few miles north of the Great Kei River. It was on this coast, which for a long time was laid down on our maps nearly a degree too far west, that the 'Grosvenor' was wrecked in 1781, and many other vessels have been lost in the same manner.

Port Natal.

We now reach the Port of Natal, which is the most sheltered and land-locked harbour between Table and Delagoa Bays. It is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles wide inside, and about 600 yards wide at the entrance, where it was formerly, and we believe is yet, obstructed by a bar which modern engineering science, fighting against Nature, has failed to remove, after a vast expenditure of money. The chief town of the colony, D'Urban, is on the shores of the harbour. Of the coast between Natal and Delagoa Bay but little is known. Report speaks highly of St. Lucia Bay, and of late the gold discoveries in the Trans Vaal regions have attracted notice to Delagoa Bay as the nearest accessible port on the coast; but it is notoriously unhealthy. The river disemboguing into Delagoa Bay, supposed formerly to be the Limpopo, but now ascertained to be the Olifant or Krokodil River of the Boers, can be ascended a considerable distance in steam-launches.

General summary.

Here ends our hasty and rough sketch of the harbours of the South African coast, which may be summed up in a few words. Of really safe natural harbours we have but one—Saldanha Bay—and that is destitute of fresh water. Table Bay, thanks to the ability of the engineer, Sir J. Coode, and his executive officer, Mr. Andrews, is now a perfectly safe artificial one. In Algoa

Bay and East London much is yet wanting to make them perfectly safe in all winds; and the rivers, it may be said, for navigable purposes are generally useless. A combination of low tides, not exceeding 4·6 to 5 feet, winds blowing for long periods in the same direction, and cross-currents in all directions, all tend to block up the mouths of the rivers, none of which have at all times sufficient power in their back waters to make an effectual scour sufficient to sweep away the bar heaped up by tidal and other oceanic causes.

The charts of the South African coast have been of late years much improved under the direction of the Admiralty surveyors, and the principal points scientifically fixed by the observations of Sir T. Maclear and others. Until of late years very serious errors existed in the position of even such important points as Cape Recife and Agulhas Point, and which were, no doubt, the cause of many of the wrecks which have occurred on the African coast.

Rivers.

In our description of the coast-line are several remarks on the mouths of the Cape rivers, which need not be repeated now. We proceed to give some general description of the rivers of South Africa which are worthy of a more particular notice, commencing with the most considerable river of South Africa, the Gariep, Groote, or Orange River, which forms the north boundary of the Cape Colony for a distance of 600 miles. In its course it drains a vast area, including, however, a large proportion of arid and uninhabited deserts—the sterile Kalihari to the north, and the dry flats of Little and Great Bushmanland to the south. Its principal head-fountains are situated in the mount of sources (Pufong of Bechouanas), near 29° S. lat. and 30° E. long. In this mountain, situated on the north-west angle of the Natal boundary, and forming a nucleus where the ranges of the Malutis, Wittebergen, and Quathlamba meet, the Orange River and its tributaries,

The Orange River.

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the Caledon and Vaal, take their rise, and run for many hundreds of miles to different points of the compass, to meet, and finally, after their junction, traversing a country perhaps the most barren and inhospitable on the face of the earth, to enter the Atlantic in lat. 28° 30′ S. and long. 16° 30′ E. The upper valleys of the Orange River, called here the Nu or Black Gariep of Hottentots, Sinkou of Basutus, and Icquili of Kaffirs, are very rugged, and nearly unexplored; but it already forms a considerable stream when it emerges from the defiles of the Quathlamba, having received many tributary streams from the mountain ranges on both sides of it. Passing the Wittebergen, it runs through Orange River Poort in a more westerly direction to Aliwal North, near which town the Kraai or Crow River enters it. Thence, making a bend to the north-west, it receives near Bethulie (a French mission station) the Caledon River.

The Caledon River.

The Caledon or the Mogakare of Basutus, which, rising near the Orange, forms a considerable stream of about 220 miles in length, receives in its course the Little Caledon and other streams, often swollen with the melted snows and thunder-storms of the Maluti Mountains. At the junction the united streams form a stream about 350 yards wide, but fordable in many places. In the upper part of its course the country consists of immense mountain ranges (Malutis and Quathlamba) or high plains, like those of the Sovereignty Middenveld, averaging, perhaps, 5,000 feet above the sea-level. The scenery on the river-banks is often beautiful in the extreme, dreary and commonplace as the plains in the immediate neighbourhood may be.

The Orange River.

The Orange River now receives on its left bank the drainage of the districts of Albert and Colesberg, consisting chiefly of mountain streams of little consequence—such as the Brakke, Oorlog's Poort, and Zeekœ Rivers—but dangerous and impetuous after thunder-storms, as none of them are bridged over;* and after a course of about 200 miles to the north-west, the united streams are joined by the Vaal or Ky or Yellow Gariep (Namagare or Likwa of natives), which many

Its junction with the Vaal.

* Four new bridges across the Orange River have been authorised by the Parliament in the course of the past few years. One of these, at Bethulie, was completed and opened in March 1879. Another, at Colesberg, is rapidly approaching completion, and the others, at Hope Town and Aliwal North respectively, are well advanced.

consider to be the principal stream, and indeed, if we judge by the length of its course, it is. The junction of the two main branches of the Orange River takes place near lat. 29° 30′ S., long. 23° 30′, and from this to the sea it traverses a most dreary and barren country, its course hemmed in near the sea by steep and precipitous mountains (the Gariepine Walls of Thompson), and broken by immense walls of rock, forming formidable cataracts, as the high plateaux descend in steps towards the coast; and so badly watered is this region, that a traveller may perish with thirst, and yet see the river flowing a few hundred feet beneath him, inaccessible to human foot.

The region round the junction of the Vaal and Orange River, rather a low and alluvial one, has of late years attracted attention as the bed or deposit of perhaps the richest diamond-field in the world. No doubt the diluvial torrent that ages ago swept over this region has washed down from the siliceous crags of the Quathlamba the diamonds that are now found in such quantities in the diluvial forks of the rivers which drain this interesting region.

But little is known of the country traversed by the Orange River from its junction with the Vaal to the missionary station Pella, a distance of nearly 350 miles. About sixty years ago the missionary Campbell travelled along it; but not taking any observations, he has added but little to a correct geographical delineation of its course. The venerable Robert Moffat, some years ago, was able to make his way from little Namaqualand to Kuruman, and he has laid down its whole course on his manuscript map very correctly. And Mr. George Thompson, now of Leadenhall Street, London, was one of the earliest pioneers in exploring the lower course of this river and the surrounding deserts of Bushmanland, in 1819. Within the last few years, thanks to the labours of Charles Bell, Wiley, and others, the great bend near its mouth, shown on modern maps, has been correctly laid down. The banks of the river throughout are tolerably well wooded with thickets of willow and bastard ebony, cameldoorns, and other large acacias. The total area drained by the Orange River is not less than 400,000 square miles, and its sources may be situated at 8,000 to 10,000 feet above the sea-level.

The Orange River was probably the Vigita Magna of

the old travellers, and received its present name from Col. Gordon, an official of the old Dutch Government, in 1770. It is generally called by the Boers the 'Groote,' or Great river, and has in different parts of its course several native names.

Country metalliferous.

It is probable that much of the country between its mouth and the great fall of Aughrabies is metalliferous, and is deserving of a much closer exploration than it has ever as yet received.

Olifant River West.

The Olifant River West rises in the lofty peaks of the Great Winterhoek Mountains, north of the village of Tulbagh, and runs about eighty miles through a long and narrow valley bounded by two high mountain ranges, on emerging from which it forms a confluence with the periodical streams of Great and Little Doorn, Tanquas, &c., which drain the plateaux of the Bokkeveld, Karroo and Hamtam, rising on the Little Roggeveld Mountains. Near the sea this river often overflows its banks, and has been called the Nile of South Africa by some imaginative writers, although a more uninviting or barren region under ordinary circumstances than that near its mouth can hardly be conceived, yet productive of heavy grain-crops when the rich Karroo mud is carried down and deposited on the river-banks.

The Berg River.

The Berg River rises in Fransche Hoek; its valley is well defined in its upper course, which runs nearly in a northern direction by the picturesque Drachenstein range of mountains, along the foot of which it passes. After it receives the Little Berg River it takes a west or north-western direction, passing near the south extremity of the Piquetberg to St. Helena Bay, where it enters the Atlantic. It is navigable for small cutters for a few miles, and runs through a rich country, producing much corn and wine. Three bridges cross it, one near Wellington, another opposite Paarltown, and a third lately erected on the great northern road to Clanwilliam. The last hippopotamus, or at least supposed to be such, in any of our Western rivers, was killed in the Berg River, near its mouth, a few years ago, and his remains now grace the Cape Town Museum.

The Breede River.

The Breede River, which on the lower part of its course is navigable for vessels of 150 tons, owing to its low banks and ever-flowing waters, bears little resem-

blance in these respects to other South African streams: it rises in the Warm Bokkeveld, and running through an elevated mountain ravine, near Michells, passes by the rising village of Ceres, where the mountains look as if cleft asunder by a gigantic sabre cut, turns to the south-east, passing near Swellendam, where it finally leaves the mountains and enters the South Indian Ocean in St. Sebastian's Bay. It receives the Hex, Zondereinde, and a few inconsiderable streams on both sides. There is no river in South Africa of more utility than this, although in a state of Nature and untouched by the civil engineer. It drains generally a very fertile and valuable tract of country. The towns or villages of Ceres, Worcester, Swellendam, and Malagas, are all situated near the Breede River.

The Gauritz.

The Gauritz River is formed by the united torrents of the Gamka (Lion River), the Dwyka (Rhenoster River), Buffels, Touwes, Olifant River East, and other periodical streams, which receive the thunder-storms of the Great Karroo plains and Zwarteberg and Langeberg mountains; near this only does it assume the name of Gauritz, and above where it passes the Attacquus Kloof Mountains is called the Groote River, which is a commonplace name of the Dutch Boers for any stream of size. The waters of the Karroo make their way through the Zwarteberg mountains by chasms of the most frightful kind, described by Lichtenstein, who says: 'We saw here some of the boldest rocks that are perhaps to be seen in all the world.' The greater part of the country drained by these streams is karroo, fertile only after heavy rains. The Olifant River East forms a lateral junction, running from east to west through a country, which although karroo, gets very fertile owing to its propinquity to the Great Zwarteberg range. The heads of the Gamka are situated in the Nieuwveld Mountains, near the town of Beaufort, and the district drained by this river is called locally the Gouph, a Hottentot word signifying the fat or fertile. The Dwyka rises to the west, in the Roggeveld Mountains.

The Knysna.

The Knysna is, as regards the length of its course, very inconsiderable, yet owing to its convenience as a harbour from which the timber cut in the rich forests of the neighbouring Outeniqua Mountains can be shipped,

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it demands notice. This river, after forming a wide lagoon or lake, is the only one in South Africa that we know of that enters the sea through a port or gate in a rocky part of the coast. With a proper tug and a little dredging it could be easily converted into a convenient and safe harbour for vessels of 200 or 300 tons burthen. The value of the Knysna as a harbour has been fully recognised by Baron Lichtenstein and other old writers. One or two pretty villages have been established on its banks.

The Gamtoos.

The Gamtoos River resembles the Gauritz very much, draining the eastern portion of the Great Karroo, and like it known by other names in its upper course. It is also called the 'Groote River' before it passes through the Winterhoek range, and Buffels River near its sources, which are in the highlands north of the Sneeuwbergen, and it receives the Zout, Kareika, and a few other Karroo torrents. It is a mere periodical stream, which sometimes, however, comes down in a mighty torrent, and causes considerable damage. This change of name in the course of rivers is not peculiar to the Cape Colony; we find it also in Italy. Thus, in Dante we find—

> Benucus then no more
> They call the name, but Mincius, till at last,
> Reaching Governo, into Po he falls.

And again, 'Inferno,' canto XVI.:

> E'en as that river
> Which Acquacheta, higher up,
> They call, ere it descend into the vale
> At Forli by that name no longer known.

Great Fish River.

The upper course of the Great Fish River is formed by a junction of the waters of the Great and Little Brak River, the Spekboom, Doorn, Tarka and Vlekte Poort, and other periodical streams, which drain the basin of the Cradock district; and rising in the northern slopes of the Sneeuwberg and the southern slopes of the Zuurberg and Bamboes Berg ranges, and emerging from the mountains through Esterhuizen Poort, it finds its way to the sea by a very tortuous and circuitous course through a very deep and densely thicketed valley, known by the name of the Fish River Bush, formerly the resort of our larger mammalia, and the theatre too often

of our Kaffir conflicts. It receives on its left bank the waters of the Baviaans, Kat, and Konap rivers, which drain many fine and fertile mountains and valleys on the Winterberg and Katberg ranges. The Fish River seldom runs in the winter season, but sometimes after heavy thunder-storms in the mountains will rise twenty-five or thirty feet in a few hours. It is crossed by a wooden bridge, at Fort Brown, on stone piers, built by the Royal Engineer's Department, 1841–6, by a fine erection near Cradock, and by an iron bridge at Espag's Drift. There is another bridge at its junction with the Konap River, and a new bridge is at present in course of erection at Commetjies Drift, on the high road between Graham's Town and King William's Town. Many more bridges at different points, however, are still required on this important stream, as when it is swollen all inland communication may be for days suspended.

The Kowie.

Of the Kowie little can now be said. Its head-springs are situated on the plateau on which Graham's Town is built, and on which it depends both for its water supply and an outlet for its drainage. In our article on the coast-line we have referred to its advantages as a harbour, which is now being fully developed.

Keis Kamma and Buffalo Rivers.

As we proceed eastward we perceive both the nature of the country and the rivers to improve. The latter are more river-like in their nature than the dry water-courses of the Western Karroo, and run in less deep beds, and hundreds of springs burst out from the mountains. The upper courses of the Keis Kamma and the Buffalo, forming the basin of the Amatola Mountains, are available both for irrigation and water-power. There is nothing remarkable in the course of either of these rivers to demand more especial notice, except that those who delight in the soft murmur of babbling brooks and plashing fountains may be gratified in the Keis Kamma Hoek and forests of the Izeli. To paraphrase the words of Dante—

> Per mille fonti e più si bagna
> Fra Chumie e val Keis Kamma Amatola.
>
> By a thousand springs or more,
> The Amatola Hills are bathed
> Twixt Chumie and Keis Kamma Hoek.

Great Kei.

There is not, in its upper course at least, a more in-

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teresting river in South Africa than the Kei. An Englishman who has spent a few years in this country, west or middle, first begins to hear on the banks of the Klip Plaat, Ox Kraal, or other tributaries of the Kei, the cool refreshing sound of running waters. He will find the little brooks and streamlets, such as the Klip plaat, Indwe, flowing nearly level with the rich country on both their banks, and so both available for irrigation and motive power. The Witte Kei and its branches, the Cacadu and Indwe, present good mill-sites in many parts of their course, while the Klaas Smits and other tributaries pour forth never-ceasing streams, 'babbling of green fields,' to the delighted spectators, too long, alas, accustomed to the miserably salty pools of the Great Brakke and Vlekte Poort, or to the red clay mixture of the Tarka and other heads of the Great Fish River. In the lower part of its course the Kei flows through a very rugged and impracticable country, and, like other South African rivers, is barred or rocked up at its mouth. This river in the lower part of its course forms the boundary between the Cape and the Transkeian Territories, the country comprised between the Great Kei and the Natal Colony.

Of the other South African rivers running into the sea between the Great Kei and Delagoa Bay it suffices to say that of none of them are there sufficient data to give a particular description, and that as we proceed eastward the flow of water increases, yet not one of them may be called navigable. The Umzimvooboo drains an immense and little known tract of country lying along the foot of the Quathlamba and Stormbergen, covered with coarse pasture and devoid of wood, capable perhaps of cultivation by an industrious race, and now occupied by the Griquas, who left their pastures on the river-bank of the Orange River a few years ago, to get out of the reach of their troublesome neighbours, the Boers, and crossed to the coast side of the mountains. This is the region known under the name of 'Noman's Land,' and is now included in the Cape Colony. The Utugela also is a river of some importance, forming the boundary between Natal and Zulu Land, but is quite unnavigable. Of the St. Lucia and Delagoa Bay rivers we can say little with certainty, only that the Manici

The Umzimvooboo.

The Utugela,

River of Arrowsmith's map is certainly the Krokodil or Olifant River of the Transvaal, and by Capt. Owen's, R.N., report is navigable for many miles. Mr. Erskine some few years ago also determined the position of the embouchure of the Limpopo, on the East Coast, which was one of the unsolved problems of African geography. A good account of the Broken Country, in which many of the Natal rivers rise, will be found in Capt. Gardner's travels in the Zulu country. CAPE COLONY St. Lucia, &c., &c.

Although the Limpopo drains a vast expanse of country, it would seem to be utterly useless for the purposes of inland navigation, for its current seems to be quite lost before it approaches the coast.

We dare not approach the subject of the Zambesi, as we feel we should be irresistibly attracted farther and farther north, until we should be probably dabbling in the Nile sources. There begins the geographical region whose expounders are the late lamented Livingstone, Lieut. Cameron, and Stanley. Zambesi River.

Lakes, Salt-Pans, Fountains, Hot Springs, &c.

The only collection of fresh water in South Africa which can be called a lake is Lake Ngami, in lat. 20° 40′ S. and long. 25° E., first reached by Dr. Livingstone and Mr. Oswell in 1846, and from the West Coast by the lamented Andersson, in 1853. This lake, it would seem, varies in size according to the rainfall in the deserts which surround it, but the generally received opinion is that it is gradually drying up. At the period of its discovery, however, it was about fifty miles in length, by an average width of eight or ten. It receives at its north-western extremity the waters of the Tonku River, supposed to be an anastomosing branch of the Zambesi, rising far to the north-west, near the heads of the Cuanene River. On the eastern extremity of the lake issues a similar stream, called the Zouga, which is also connected with the Zambesi. And the surface of the country is so flat that the streams we have mentioned often appear to flow in opposite directions, *i.e.* in and out of the lake. The height Lakes.

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of Lake Ngami above the sea is estimated at 3,713 feet. Its affluents abound in crocodiles.

Vleis.

In the flat table-lands of the interior, after heavy rains, shallow sheets of water, called Vleis, sometimes accumulate, which, from the brackish or salty nature of the soil on evaporation, form large salt-pans. We may particularly notice the extensive Ntetwe and Shokatzo pans east of Lake Ngami; the Commissioners' Salt-pan in Great Bushmanland, first visited by Mr. George Thompson; and a large pan near Port Elizabeth, in the Uitenhage division, which, owing to its situation and accessibility, is perhaps the most valuable in South Africa.* In the dry season many of these spots, where the soil is not saline, can only be distinguished by their greater verdure, and are then favourite grazing-places for cattle. Such is De Beers Vlei, where the waters of the Gamtoos River issue from the East Karroo through the Lange Berg range of mountains.

Fountains.

Fountains are pretty liberally distributed over the surface of South Africa, but many of them, especially in the Karroo country, are of a brackish quality; and it is no small source of disappointment, after riding through a waterless country on a hot day, to find the little clear and crystalline pool of water hidden under a dark blue rock, when tasted, to be of a flavour similar to sulphate of magnesia, or rather of soda; but such is too often the case. But, on the other hand, there are hundreds of fountains existing, especially in the sandstone country, of delicious water, which create a garden or rather an oasis in the surrounding desert. Fountains in the Cape must be very tenderly dealt with, as they are often lost altogether by efforts to enlarge or improve them. There have been several cases in which attempts to improve fountains have resulted in their total loss.

Mineral springs.

Hot or mineral springs occur in the Caledon, Worcester, Aliwal North, and Cradock districts. They are very efficacious in the cure of skin and rheumatic diseases, and in some localities are deemed deserving of Government support in keeping up the buildings enclosing them.

On some parts of the beach on the South Coast there

* For a very good article on the formation of Salt-pans, *vide* 'E. P. Magazine' for July, 1857, by Dr. G. Atherstone, of Grahamstown.

are found abundant fountains of fresh water springing up between high and low water mark, while the country in the neighbourhood may be totally devoid of the same; this of course can be easily explained on geological principles.

Wells.

With some few exceptions, the geological formation of the Cape is such that there is little hope of success in expensive borings for artesian wells; but in some limited areas no doubt Norton's tube wells may be sunk with considerable advantage if the locality be judiciously selected. As an example of what may be done by a judicious storing of water, the site of Graham's Town may be mentioned, which, when it was merely a Boer farm, had in dry seasons to be abandoned for want of water, but now has a constant supply for a population of not less than 8,000 persons, besides horses and cattle. And this is not at all an isolated case. The whole question of the storing of water by means of scientifically constructed dams is one that cannot be too strongly urged on the Cape Government.

Table showing the height of some of the principal Mountains and Plateaux of South Africa.

Of the heights marked thus ? the data are doubtful.

Name	Locality	Height in Ft.	Authority
Cathkin Peak	Natal	10,357	Peterman
Mont aux Sources	Basutuland	10,000?	French Missionaries
Grant's Kop	Natal	9,657	Peterman
Omatako Mountain	Damaraland	8,800	Galton & Andersson
Compassberg	Graaf-Reynet	7,860	
Komsberg	Roggeveld Mountains	8,100?	Barrow, from Col. Gordon
Great Winterberg	Fort Beaufort	7,800	Dr. Atherstone
Seven Weeks' Poort	Swellendam	7,628	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Omhotozu	Damaraland	7,300	Galton & Andersson
Bulbhouder's Bank	Beaufort West	7,300	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Ipoko Mountain	Natal	7,205	Peterman
Lievenberg	Damaraland	7,200	Galton & Andersson
Stormberg range	Queen's Town	7,000	Estimated average height
Highest peak of Winterberg, in the Winterhoek range	Tulbagh	6,840	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Hangklip	Queen's Town	6,800	Col. Tylden
Cangoberg	Oodtshoorn	6,651	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Gaikakop	Victoria East	6,543	Dr. Atherstone

Table showing the height, &c.—continued.

Name	Locality	Height in Ft.	Authority
Hogsback	B. Kaffraria	6,373	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Sneeuwkop, highest peak of Cedar Mountains	Clanwilliam	6,335	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Plateau of Damaraland	Damaraland	6,000	Galton & Andersson
Cockscomb, highest point of Winterhoek mountains	Uitenhage	6,000	Dr. Atherstone; highest point ascended by him, 5,697 feet
Didima	Stockenstrom	5,871	Dr. Atherstone
Highest point of Langeberg range	Swellendam	5,600?	Doubtful
Rehoboth (miss. st.)	Great Namaqualand	5,350	Andersson
Windvogelberg	Queen's Town	5,345	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Anysberg	Swellendam	5,333	,,
Zonder Einde Mountains	Caledon	5,330	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Kolomo	Zambesi River	5,300	Dr. Livingstone
Komsberg	Frazersburg	5,300	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Otjomatunga	Damaraland	5,189	Andersson
Kamiesberg	Little Namaqualand	5,130	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Kamiesberg	Namaqualand	5,130	,,
Kagaberg	Bedford	5,092	Baillie
Sneeuwkop in Hottentots' Holland Mountains	Stellenbosch	5,066	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Langeberg	George	5,014	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Plains of the Free State	Colesberg	5,000	General estimate
Queba Mountains	Near Lake Ngami	4,800	Andersson
Lake Dilolo	Most remote source of the Zambesi River *	4,740	Dr. Livingstone
Awass	Great Namaqualand	4,643	Chapman
Kabiskouw	Little Namaqualand	4,514	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Kolobeng	Bechouanaland	4,500	Dr. Livingstone
Rietberg	Little Namaqualand	4,500	Wiley
Amhub	Great Namaqualand	4,480	Andersson
Bailiesgrave	B. Kaffraria	4,428	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Warmwaterberg	Swellendam	4,421	,,
Vogelklip	Little Namaqualand	4,343	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Vogelklip	Namaqualand	4,343	,,
Barmen (miss. st.)	Damaraland	4,324	Galton & Andersson
Morambala Mountains	Left bank of Zambesi near the coast	4,000	Dr. Livingstone
Site of town of Colesberg	Colesberg	4,000?	General estimate
Twass	Great Namaqualand	3,951	Chapman
Kogelberg	Stellenbosch	3,988	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Bethany (miss. st.)	Great Namaqualand	3,945	Andersson
Colesberg	East Province	3,871	Dr. Holden
Babylon's Tower	Caledon	3,720	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Lake Ngami	North of Kalihari	3,713 2,000	Andersson Dr. Livingstone
Kobis	Kalihari desert	3,706	Andersson
Kolsberg Plateau	,,	3,634	
Plateau of Bushman Flat	Little Namaqualand	3,602	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.

* Watershed between Nile, Congo, and Zambesi river systems.

Table showing the height &c.—continued.

Name	Locality	Height in Ft.	Authority
Lambert's Hoek	Piquetberg	3,590	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Table Mountain	Cape division	3,582	"
Barmen (miss. st.)	Damaraland	3,575	Chapman
Kuruman (miss. st.)	Griqualand	3,529	Dr. Holden
Linyanti	Bechouanaland	3,500	Dr. Livingstone
Plateau of Bushmanland	Cape Colony	3,500	A. G. Bain
Kalihari desert, average height	Kalihari desert	3,500	Andersson
Plains of the Nieuweveld	Colesberg	3,500	General estimate
Zwarteberg	Caledon	3,440	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Motito (miss. st.)	Bechouanaland	3,409	Dr. Holden
Ghanzi	Great Namaqualand plateau	3,352	Chapman
Semalembue	Zambesi River	3,300	Dr. Livingstone
Spring near Mission House	East edge of Kalihari	3,283	
Mount Messum	Damaraland	3,200	Capt. Messum
Springbok Fontein	Little Namaqualand	3,200	Wiley
Lewisberg	Uitenhage	3,192	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Riebeek's Kasteel	Malmesbury	3,109	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Chuanni (miss. st.)	Bechouanaland	3,018	
Plateau of Great Karroo	Cape Colony	3,000	A. G. Bain
Loshong	East edge of Kalihari	2,929	Holden
Top of descent into Sechelis Town	Bechouanaland, "	2,914	
Piquetberg	Piquetberg	2,847	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Bokkeveldsberg	Calvinia	2,809	"
Driver's Hill	Albany	2,775	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Governor's Kop	Albany	2,750	Observed by aneroid barometer
Lotlokani	East edge of Kalihari	2,721	Holden
Nchokotsa	"	2,592	"
Heerenlogementsberg	Clanwilliam	2,381	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Lechulatebie's Town	Lake Ngami	2,260	Chapman
Signal Hill	Albany	2,250	Observed by aneroid barometer
Zuurberg range	Uitenhage	2,000?	
Potteberg	Swellendam	1,920	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Dans Hooghte	Fort Beaufort	1,893	Capt. Bailey, R.E.
Lewisfonteinberg	Hardeveld, Clanwilliam	1,833	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Graham's Town, site of	Albany	1,728	Dr. Atherstone
Capocberg	Malmesbury	1,508	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Mudge Point	Bredasdorp	1,467	"
Kloof Block-house	Near Cape Town	1,465	"
Zumbo	Junction of Zambesi and Loangwa Rivers	1,440	Dr. Livingstone
Patrysberg	Malmesbury	889	Sir T. Maclear, A.R.
Danger Point	Bredasdorp	882	"
Cape Point	Cape division	800	"
Elandsberg	Near coast	619	"
Hill near Cape Agulhas	Bredasdorp	528	"

Table showing the Principal Rivers of South Africa, south of the twentieth degree south latitude, their affluents, length of course, probable area of drainage, &c.

[NOTE.—The rivers are given from north to south and from west to east in the order they occur along the coast. Popular or best known names only given.]

Names of Rivers	Probable length of course of main artery, English miles	Probable area of drainage, square miles	Names of affluents as they occur, descending from the source of main stream		Navigable or not navigable	Towns situated on or near main stream or its branches	Nature of country drained	Remarks
			Right bank	Left bank				
No. 1.—*Rivers disemboguing into the Atlantic.*								
Swakop . . .	250	12,600	None of any importance.	None of any importance.	Not.	..	Near the sea sandy and barren, in the upper part of its course the high table lands of Damaraland and N.W. end of Kalihari.	Has no affluent of any importance.
Kaisep . . .	160	6,000	.. ..	.. ..	Do.	..	Do. Do.	Do. Do.
Here about 400 miles of coast intervenes without any river worth notice.								
Gariep or Orange River.	900	441,000	Cornet Spruit. 1. Caledon river, 2. Vaal river and its affluents. *Right Bank*— Suiker Bosch Rand spruit, Mooi river,	Tees river, Kraai river, Welge river, Stormberg spruit, Braakepoort spruit, Oorlog spruit,	Not, except for boats a few miles above its mouth, which is barred. Extensive rapids in the	Hopetown, Colesberg, Burghersdorp Phillippolis, Aliwal N., Smithfield, Bloemfontein, Wynberg,	Near its source high table lands and fertile country; in the lower part of its course, drains the Halahari	Forms the north boundary of the Cape Colony, rises on the Mount of Sources in the Quathlamba Mountains. Lower part of its course, as

				Schoon spruit, Nonne river, Pogolla river, Hart river. *Left Bank*— Wilge and Leibenberg Vlei river, Rhinosterspruit Valsch river, Great and Little Vet river, Modders and Riet river. 3. Malapo or river of Murruman and its tributaries. 4. Nasop river. 5. Keicop. 6. Great Fish or Borodaile river.	Zeekoe river, Hondeblass river, Ougars river, Kat river, Hartebeest, Zak and Great Fish rivers.	middle part of its course.	Harrismith, Frasersberg, Victoria, Richmond, Doordrecht, Fauresmith, Boshoff.	desert and barren table lands of Bushman land, a perfect desert.	well as its immediate source little known. Probable fall from its head to the sea 7,000 feet.
Buffels or Kousie River.		90	3,600	Schaap.	Komaggas.	Not.	None.	Very rugged and barren.	Copper deposits worked along the upper course of this river, which formed old colonial boundary. Very seldom flows.
Zwartliujus . .		20	600	None.	..	..	..	Do. Do.	
Spaeg . . .		30	150	..	..	..	..		
Groen . . .		70	4.000	..	Zwart Doom.	..	..	Drains Kamies Berg. Country generally very dry and barren region.	
Olifants . . .		150	25,000	Great and Little Doorn, Hantam river, Holle and Kromme river.	Nil.	..	Clanwilliam.	Draining a great portion Karroo country. Fertile where irrigated.	Great Karroo intersected by its tributaries. River rises in Great Winterhoek Mountains.

Table showing the Principal Rivers, &c.—continued.

Names of Rivers	Probable length of course of main artery, English miles	Probable area of drainage, square miles	Names of affluents as they occur, descending from the source of main stream		Navigable or not navigable	Towns situated on or near main stream or its branches	Nature of country drained	Remarks
			Right bank	Left bank				
Lange Vlei . .	30	900	..	..	..	..	Drains Piquetberg district. Fertile in corn.	Forms large lakes near its mouth.
Berg . . .	90	1800	Little Berg and some small affluents, 24 rivers, Matjes river.	Zout river.	Navigable a few miles for cutters of 40 tons burthen.	Tulbagh, Wellington, Paarl, Hopefield.	Very fertile corn and wine country.	Enters the sea at St. Helena Bay, rises in Fransche Hoek Mountains.
Lout . . .	40	600	Nil.	Nil.	Not.	Malmesbury, Durban, Darling.	District fertile in wheat.	Enters sea in Table Bay, rises in Riebeck Castle.
No. 2.—*Rivers discharging into the Indian Ocean.*								
Eerste .	20	100	..	..	..	Stellenbosch.	Do. and wine.	Enters sea in False Bay.
Palmiet . . .	25	100	..	..	..	..	Good sheep country.	
Bot	20	150	..	..	..	Caledon.	Do.	
Ratel . . .	15	..	..	..	..	Bredasdorp, Napier.	Do.	Enters sea near Cape L'Agulbas.
Breede . . .	170	5,800	Zonderend river, Zout river.	Hex river, Cogmans Kloof river, Coomlande river.	Navigable for vessels of 150 tons as high as Malagas.	Villiersdorp, Swellendam, Robertson, Ceres, Malagas, Heidelberg.	Do.	Enters sea in St. Sebastian's Bay.

Kafirkuil . . .	30	600	..	Zoetmeth river, Vette river.	Not.	Riversdale.	Do.	
Gauritz (includes the Gamka.)	300	19,125	Gamka and its affluents, Dwyka, Bloed river, Touwes and affluents forming Groote river. Salsch.	Olifants river and its affluents the Kammanasse and minor streams	..	Beaufort, Oudtshoorn, Lady Smith, Prince Albert.	Drains the Gt. Karoo and Gouph, and receives water off the Zwarteberg and Nieuveld ranges.	The name Gauritz is only known in lower part of its course, the Gamka may be considered that of its upper course. It rises in the Nieuveld mountains near Beaufort.
No river of any size occurs along the coast between the mouth of the Gauritz and the Kromme, although the country is well watered by little streams running out of the Outeniqua Mountains, which here approach the coast. From west to east we may mention—								
Great Brakke . .	..	..	..	..	..	Aliwal S., Georgetown Belvidere Village.		Enters sea in Mossel Bay.
Guyang . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	These rivers drain a tract of forest land lying between mountains and coast.	
Knysna . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..		Enters sea in Plettenberg Bay.
Keurbooms . .	..	..	..	..	Can be entered by small vessels. A fine lagoon within its mouth.			
Kromme . . .	90	1,000	No affluent of any importance.	No affluent of any importance.	Not.	..	Mountainous	Disembogues into St. Frances Bay, rises at end of Langekloof.

Table showing the Principal Rivers, &c.—continued.

Names of Rivers	Probable length of course of main artery, English miles	Probable area of drainage, square miles	Names of affluents as they occur, descending from the source of main stream		Navigable or not navigable	Towns situated on or near main stream or its branches	Nature of country drained	Remarks
			Right bank	Left bank				
Gamtoos, called Grooote above its junction with Kouga.	320	13,150	Buffels river, Zout river, Amos river, Baviaan Kloof river, Kouga river.	Kareiga river, Doorn river, Riet river.	..	Murraysburg.	Great tract of Karroo desert and mountain.	Its highest sources are found on the high plateau between Richmond and Graaf-Rt. in the Uitvluigt.
Bakaans . . .	..	..	..	..	..	PortElizabeth Walmer.	Fertile.	
Zwartkops . .	45	500	Eland's river, Brakke river.	..	..	Uitenhage, Bethelsdorp.	Fertile and mountainous.	Enters sea in Algoa Bay, rises in Winterhoek mountains.
Coega . . .	60	800	..	..	..	..	Barren.	Do.
Sundays . . .	200	8,000	Zwarte river, Camdeboo river, Bull river, Brakke river, Cumqua, Bezuidenhouts river.	Milk river, Little and Great Riet rivers, Vogel river, Shoemaker's river, Witte river, K'Adouw river, Little Sunday river.	..	Graaf-Reynet, Jansenville, Aberdeen, Colchester.	Partly Karroo and fertile mountain valleys forming fine sheep country.	Rises in South fall of the Great Sneeuwbergen.

Bosjesmans	. .	60	1,200	Little Bushman river.	New Year's river Nazar river.	..	..	Rises behind the Zuurberg.
Kareiga	. .	35	560	Assagai river.	..	..	Salem, Sidbury.	Grazing and agricultural country.	Drains part of Lower Albany.
Kowie	. . .	30	360	..	Mansfield.	..	Grahamstown Bathurst. Port Frances.	Do.	Do.
Great Fish River	.	250	12,000	Doom river, Spekboom river, Little Fish river, Bothas Hill river, Ecca river, Koomes river, Kap river.	Little and Great Brakke rivers, Tarka and its affluents, Bavians' river. Koonap and its affluents— Kowie E, Mancazana W, Kaga, Kromme, Waterkloof. Kat river and its affluents— Blinkwater, Mancazana E, Elands river, Klu, Klu. Clusie.	..	Cradock, Somerset, Bedford, Fort Peddie, Fort Beaufort, Middleburg. Riebeck.	Upper part of course in karoo country, lower part very bushy. Good sheep country, many valuable farms.	Drains the Eastern frontier, of which it was formerly the boundary; rises on North side of the Great Sneeuwbergen.

Geology and Mineralogy.

Researches of Bain, Atherstone, Rubidge, &c., &c.

Our knowledge of the geological structure of South Africa, although from the vastness of the subject still necessarily imperfect, yet has had of late years increased light thrown on it mainly through the labours of A. G. Bain (who may be considered the founder of the first reasonable geological theory of South African rocks), Atherstone, Rubidge, Wiley, Dunn, Stow, and other valuable pioneers of science, so that now sufficient data are collected to frame a geological map of the colony which will form a useful nucleus for succeeding observers to fill up the yet existing blanks in, an increased number of sections being yet a desideratum.

Classification of rocks.

The existing series of South African rocks, from Mr. Dunn's map, may be generally classified in the following order, from the surface downwards :—

Name of Rocks	Period	Where Occurring
1. Glacial Conglomerate.	Tertiary	Covering vast tracts N. Kalihari and plains of Sovereignty, and Beaufort West.
2. Ironstone Gravel	,,	Cape Flats, and other scattered localities.
3. Tufaceous Limestone Beds.	,,	Found in scattered patches throughout colony
4. Tertiary Beds, Marls, &c.	,,	Uitenhage and Albany.
5. Enon Conglomerate and Sunday River Beds.	Oolitic	Found in immense beds in the Uitenhage division near Port Elizabeth.
6. Stormberg Beds (Coal-bearing).	Triassic, equivalent to New Sandstone.	Forming the Mountain ranges of the Stormberg, containing fossils.
7. Upper Karroo Beds.	,,	Sandstone rocks, Nieuweld Mountains and country to the north.
8. Lower Karroo Beds.	,,	Southern part of Karroo.

Table of Rocks.—continued.

Name of Rocks	Period	Where Occurring
9. Zuurberg, Zwarteberg and Witteberg Sandstone.	Carboniferous	Zuurberg, Zwarteberg, Roggeveld, and Witteberg Mountains.
10. Bokkeveld Beds.	Upper Devonian	Cold Bokkeveld, Winterhoek Mountains.
11. Old Sandstone, or Table Mountain Sandstone.	Lower Devonian	Table Mountain, Cedar Mountains, Stellenbosch Mountains, without fossils.
12. Malmesbury Beds.	Silurian	West and South Coast, between sea and mountains.
13. Namaqualand Schist.	Metamorphic	Little and Great Namaqualand along course of Orange River.
14. Gneiss	,,	Namaqualand, generally extending far north and west.
15. Granite	,,	Malmesbury, Table Bay, George.
16. Trap Conglomerate.	Igneous (?)	A band extending from N.W. to E. along south edge of Karroo to Gulana River.
17. Greenstone or Dolorite Dykes.	,,	Intersecting Karroo rocks in all directions.

It is necessary to observe that the Cape rocks, like those of England, do not invariably follow the order given; and many of the intermediate rocks are in places wanting. Beginning, as before, with the north-western, we shall say a few words on the Namaqua region, and work our way round to the south and east.

Namaqualand.

Namaqualand, both north and south of the Orange River, famous for its copper deposits, is a region composed of the older rocks, gneiss and schists, with few or no fossils, and occasional protrusions of granite and igneous dykes of trap rocks, and capped and overlaid in many places by newer rocks. These newer rocks consist chiefly of thick deposits of shales, limestones, and sandstones of apparently a contemporaneous formation with

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that of Table Mountain, being without fossils. The gneiss which forms the characteristic surface rock is soft and altered by contact with a subjacent igneous rock. This igneous rock is felspathic in composition, very hard and crystalline, and evidently igneous and intrusive in origin. The felspar rock is frequently thrust up in dyke-like masses through the superincumbent gneiss and in branching veins, thus ramifying through the gneiss above and in corresponding veins; for a short depth in the felspar rock below, the copper ores are most abundant.

Mr. Wiley, who is the principal authority on the geology of this region, was of opinion that the copper deposits would not be found to extend to any great depth, as when they reached the felspar, he considered they would be absorbed into the general mass of that rock, which would be equivalent to the loss of the ore altogether. But in practice this does not seem to be the case, as in the celebrated Ookiep Mine, the property of the Cape Copper Company, a depth of eighty fathoms has been reached; the deposit of rich ore, with an average of 30 per cent. of metal, is extending in all directions, and the area of ore-producing ground appears to enlarge the deeper the shaft is sunk.

In the part of Namaqualand called Bushmanland, and which is a vast table-land about 3,000 feet above the sea, are immense deposits of what Mr. Dunn calls glacial conglomerate; these extend westward into the Sovereignty, and in them in a sort of tufaceous limestone deposit seem to occur the diamond deposits which have made that region so famous. No mines except copper have been as yet worked in Namaqualand, but it has been well ascertained that large deposits of argentiferous lead ores occur in the schist rocks of Namaqualand, north of the Orange River, but the want of transport and proper roads has hitherto prevented their being worked. Granite in the Cape rocks has generally a rounded outline, and nowhere presents needle-like summits.

Damaraland.

From C. J. Andersson we give the following short notices of the geology of the region north of Namaqualand:—'Granite, limestone, and sandstone are characteristic rocks of this region. The first of these

formations runs parallel to the coast, or about north and south, shooting out occasionally to some distance inland. Excepting in the immediate neighbourhood of the coast, it rises in isolated masses, varying in height from 1,000 to 3,000 feet, sometimes in the form of huge boulder heads, but more frequently in peaks contrary to the granitic outline in Southern Namaqualand. Some of the finest specimens of this rock are to be seen in the beautiful cones of Okonyona, Omatako, and on the grand boulders and bluffs of Erongo, Doomsia, Otjonkoma,' &c.

The limestone and sandstone formations run, on the contrary, eastward, flanking the granite, but generally with an east and west bearing; in fact, abutting nearly at right angles on the igneous rocks. The limestone predominates towards the north of the Omarara River, whilst the sandstone flanks it (the limestone) on the east, running nearly parallel with the Omaramba Uá Matako.

The three different sorts of limestone so characteristic of England, and not found in the Cape Colony, viz., the chalk, carboniferous, and oolite, are all to be found here well developed, and may be duly recognised by their distinguishing peculiarities. The carboniferous ranges, escarped ridges, and ranges on lines parallel to each other, are bold, stern, and rugged in aspect, clothed with a dwarf and stunted vegetation, and on the whole forbidding and repulsive, although they improve in appearance as you go either north or south.

The sandstone, again, consists of flat-topped hills with vertical sides. On the shores of Omonbonde the limestone and sandstone form a junction, as it were; but from that point the latter rock is lost to view, the limestone overlapping it continuously east round to south.

The granite and sandstone are strongly impregnated with oxide of iron (in some instances, too, the limestone) which gives a reddish tint to most of these formations. Mr. Andersson, however, never observed any indications of regular mineral deposits in Western Damaraland; but to the south of the Omarara River both iron and copper exist in considerable quantities. Several mines of the latter mineral have been opened and worked, but from the want of means of transport they do not pay in a commercial point of view. Small quantities of gold

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have been found in the copper ore and sandstone; but all the richest mines occur in the mica schist, and not in the quartz rocks.

Western Province.

Mr. A. G. Bain, in his memoir on the 'Geology of the Cape,' considers the whole ground formation of the Western Province to be granite, but though lower yet more recent than the clay slate which rests upon it, and is in many places, as in Table Mountain, interpenetrated by it. This clay slate is wholly non-fossiliferous and of enormous thickness, and always stratified at any high angles, at times almost vertical, as in the Lion's Hill or Robben Island quarries. Above the clay slate, and resting on it unconformably, is a vast deposit of unfossiliferous sandstone and conglomerate, well illustrated in Table Mountain, the Lion's Head, as well as in all the great mountain ranges of the south-west part of the colony. Mr. Bain estimates its thickness at 10,000 to 12,000 feet, and Mr. Dunn classifies it as an equivalent to our Lower Devonian beds on the authority of Mr. Wiley. In the Warm and Cold Bokkevelds (a field well explored by Mr. Bain) are a series of argillaceous schist and coarse red sandstone resting on the formation last mentioned. This deposit abounds in fossils, consisting of trilobites, crinoids, brachiopoda, and other mollusks. Passing farther inland, not very far from the entrance into the Great Karroo, we meet with a dyke-like band of igneous rock (Bain's Claystone Porphyry), which has been traced along an enormous extent of country in a waving line, sometimes double or even three distinct dykes from the mouth of the Gulana River, in British Kaffraria to the Bokkeveld Mountains north of the Karroo, a distance of more than 600 miles. It is very distinctly traced along its whole course by its deep purple colour and oblong almond shape of the conglomerate pebbles imbedded in it.

This porphyritic band is supposed to be of igneous origin, but it everywhere appears to form a boundary between the rocks of a marine and those of a lacustrine origin. The igneous origin of this porphyritic rock is, however, denied by many geologists; and, indeed, it seems hard to imagine that the pebbles which occur in it so frequently could ever have resisted the power of fire and yet remain so perfect. Next come a series of sand-

stone rocks, forming the chains of the Zwartebergen, Langebergen, &c., and so along to the coast, and which are supposed to be equivalents of the carboniferous rocks of Great Britain. They consist of extensive deposits of fossil schists and sandstones geologically higher, though locally lower, extending far into the Karroo, and containing fossils of a similar nature to those already described.

Then come the Karroo beds, or what Mr. Bain calls the reptiliferous strata, covering the whole north portion of the Karroo, and extending to the Orange River and beyond it. That these beds are of lacustrine origin we believe there is no doubt, from the general uniformity and homogeneity of the deposits, the great abundance of fossil wood, and the similarity of the vegetable remains found through the range of these beds, the peculiar character of the reptiles found in these strata and unknown elsewhere, and the general absence of marine exuviæ and presence of fresh-water shells. Professor Owen is of opinion that the extraordinary bidental reptiles alluded to, and their numerous congeners, are probably of the New Sandstone Epoch, and therefore amongst the most ancient of reptiles.

Mr. Bain considers the numerous superficial deposits of calcareous tufa (No. 3) are the detritus of the tertiary deposits, which at a former period everywhere fringed the coast. Many traces of elevated beaches, showing extensive beds of marine shells, occur in many places, which seem, from the remains of pottery found in them, to be raised within historical periods. Some of these exist in the neighbourhood of Camps Bay, and also near the mouth of the Great Fish River, and other places on the coast.

Geology Eastern Province

The quartzose or so-called carboniferous sandstone of the Langeberg range extends into the east, but passes into chloritic schist at De Stade's and Van Stadens River, where mines of galena have been formerly worked, it is to be feared not very profitably.

Extensive beds of workable coal have been discovered at Aberdeen in the division of Graaf-Reynet and in the Stormberg range, and numerous species of carboniferous plants have been found near the Kowie River, and in the talcose schists of the Fish River Valley, near

Cometjies Drift. Large quantities of iron ore exist in Woest's Hill, near Grahamstown, some of which was smelted some years ago and proved to be of very superior quality. Manganese has been lately found in large quantities in the Western Province, North Paarl and Cape Town, and Coblat in the hills of the Transvaal region.

In reference to the beds of claystone porphyry before mentioned, Mr. Bain supposes them to be the products of a vast volcano situated somewhere in the Drachenberg range, whose products spread ruin and desolation over the carboniferous forests for hundreds and thousands of square miles, and were afterwards swept away by the action of water, except what yet remains of the débris in those porphyry dykes and the greenstone tops of the multitudinous hillocks and kopjies in the region towards the north.

The Great Karroo, which extends from the Praamberg in Hantam to the Sundays River in the Graaf Reynet division, may be considered as a great hill-studded elevated plain, bounded on the west by the Cedarberg and Zwartberg; on the south by the Witteberg, Great Zwartberg, and Langeberg, very prominent ranges. The elevated plateaux of Hantam, Roggeveld, Nieuweld, and Sneeuwberg, form its inland boundaries. This immense desert, as geology tells us, was once a great lake, bordered by an umbrageous flora, whose former existence can only now be attested by the petrified monocotyledons buried in its finely laminated slates, and whose waters were crowded with the numerous edentulous animals or the varied family of dicynodons and other saurian reptiles found in no other part of the globe.

Trap dykes reticulate the whole of the reptilian strata in all directions, their erupted matter, on reaching the surface, being generally found capping the highest mountains with huge irregular prismatic columns.

The most curious circumstance connected with these dykes is that the horizontality of the stratified rocks is never on any occasion in the least disturbed by the intrusion of the trap, nor are faults, as in Europe, produced by this cause. The only difference it makes is the indurating or honeycombing the strata through which it passes.

A peculiar feature of the geology of the East Province

is the beds of water-rolled pebbles, called by Dr. G. Atherstone the Enon conglomerate, existing in situations many hundred feet above the present sea-level, but which he considers beyond doubt formed the ancient sea beach when the waves of the ocean bathed the flanks of the Winterhoek and Zuurberg ranges, from which it is now thirty miles distant. Some very interesting papers on the geology of this region will be found in the 'E. P. Magazine,' vol. i., p. 510.

Geology of Griqualand.

Mr. Stow has lately explored this little-known but interesting region north of the Orange River and on the east border of Kalihari Desert. The report will be found in No. 26 of the 'Cape Magazine,' New Series, for August, 1872. The geology of the region visited may be generally described as a vast accumulation of shales, extending from Du Toits Pan to the junction of the Vaal and Orange Rivers, with a few narrow bands of sandstone, intersected by dykes of felspathic rock, from the sides of many of which the shales have been denuded; and thus, in such places, forming low ranges of hills. On the north side of the Orange River, near its junction with the Vaal River, the shales rapidly thin out. They dip slightly towards the north-east, and are here found to lie unconformably on the outer edges of an immense system of very ancient crystalline and metamorphic rocks that at one time, in all probability, formed the north and north-west boundary of the great lacustrine area of the dicynodon formation. These ancient rocks dip at an angle of fifteen to twenty degrees to the north-west, the greatest dip being inwards towards the Randt, and not along the face of it, which may explain the reason why along so extensive a range as Campbell's Randt the springs are so few and insignificant. Iron ores, hematite, and magnetite, abound in this region, the latter in such immense quantities that the compass is perfectly useless, veering round to every point according to the position of the nearest rocks. Near Klip drift masses of the finest ore are frequent, and could fuel be procured the place would become a mine of unsurpassed richness. Fine red ochre is found near Daniel's Kuil, used by the natives as a paint. Near Blink Klip a great variety of steatite is associated with some of these deposits, but the exact place of the deposit is jealously

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concealed by the natives. A great variety of riband jaspers is found, varying in colour from a pale blue to a red, almost approaching vermilion. To give a familiar illustration of the colour, many of their weathered surfaces look like immense masses of polished sealing-wax.

The superficial deposits between Griquatown and the Langeberg vary considerably. Many of the hills are covered with a sandy, yet somewhat clayey, gravel. The greater portion of the surface is covered with a gravelly soil, composed of subangular and water-worn pebbles spread over it. The same remark holds good with regard not only to these accumulations of gravel, but also to all those found to the west of the Campbell Randt, and that is, that although many of the rocks that form some of the constituents of the Vaal River (diamond fields) gravel are found in them, still many of the most characteristic of a diamondiferous deposit, such as garnets, agates, the various zoolites, fossil-wood, &c., and which are so frequent near the river, could not be found, but seem entirely wanting, their place being exclusively supplied with the various jasper, hematite, quartzite, &c.

In some instances the gravel is entirely composed of immense numbers of subangular pieces of quartz. This appears to be strong evidence that the diamond will only be found in the Upper Vaal basin, or on the ancient lines of drainage that had their origin from the same source.

Indications of copper have been found in the Langeberg, much farther to the north; and fragments of galena have been found in some débris near the summit of the mountains, although not *in situ*. A vein of lead ore is known to traverse the rocks that form the continuation of Campbell's Randt, near the spot where they cross the bed of the Orange River.

Mr. Stow is of opinion that the rocks north and south of the Orange River must have formed at one time high elevated ridges right across its present bed. This is most distinctly seen in the quartz ridges near Kheis, which are from 180 to 200 feet in width, and their remains are seen jutting up like marble ruins in the middle of the rapids, which they now form in the river, and then they rise into high Klip Kopjies on the opposite side, stretching away to the south-west as far as the eye can see.

The gravels at Kheis are very similar to those of the Vaal River, but no diamonds have as yet been discovered amongst them, although anxiously searched for.

The gravels of the lower part of the Hart River are very similar to those of the Vaal River and the calcareous conglomerate capping. Some of the ridges near Likatlong contain many pebbles identical with those of the last-named river, but they are not yet ascertained to be diamondiferous. The gravels of the upper portion of the river valley differ very much from those found to be rich in diamonds, which seems to be an indication that they must have originated from a different source.

This seems to imply that the origin of the diamond must be sought for elsewhere than amongst these rocks, probably far to the east, amidst the decaying peaks of the Maluti Mountains.

Kaffraria to Natal.

The Malmesbury clay slate, which forms the littoral line as far west as Cape St. Francis, seems there to be succeeded by a rock of a more recent deposit, if it be true that fossils have been found in the shore rocks east of that locality, which is, however, by some denied. The prevalent rock along the shores from the East Province to Natal is the old sandstone non-fossiliferous rock, quartzite, intersected occasionally with veins of white quartz rock, and often capped with a dense mass of conglomerate, as we see on the shore near the Kareiga River. The mountain ranges of the Stormbergen and Amatola all run parallel to the coast line as far as the head of the Umzimculu River, where they tend more to the north-east, forming the Drachenberg and Quathlamba ranges, dividing Natal from the elevated plains of the Sovereignty. These mountains are a continuance of the Stormberg or coal-bearing sandstones of Dunn's Series (No. 4), and their weather-worn and rugged outline show their rather friable nature. Between these mountains and the shore, in Kaffraria at least, the geological structure of the country appears to be similar to that of the East Province, the rivers generally running in deep beds ploughed through the tertiary formations down to the slates and schistose Karroo rocks, which form their channels.

The geology of Natal does not appear to have been examined as carefully as that of the Cape Colony, and no doubt it possesses many distinguishing features. A

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late writer (the Rev. J. Shooter) thus describes it:— 'The perpendicular sides of the table lands and mountains in the coast division generally present strata of red sandstone, and, like those of the Cape Colony, their horizontalism is striking. In several places the mountains seem to have been worn by water up to the very top of the rocks. One can hardly resist the impression that the widest valleys have been washed out, or at least have once been filled with water. Nearly all the streams flow over beds of gneiss, granite, or traprock, and in their channels abound large boulders of these rocks. All the varieties of quartz are found in the beds of the streams and in the lower hills. As we pass along the beach we may travel a few miles on strata of sandstone, and then intervenes a couple of miles of basalt (trap dyke) or pudding-stone (conglomerate), gneiss, or granite. From the Ilovo River to the *Umpambin yoni*, a distance of perhaps eighteen miles, at an elevation of 300 or 400 feet above the sea, is a continuous mass of greenstone conglomerate, surmounted towards the northern part by Ifumi Hill, a mass of sandstone, some three miles in circumference, and 200 or 300 feet high above the surrounding country. Imbedded in this greenstone are fragments, both angular and worn, of quartz, granite, porphyry, jasper, sienite, varying from the size of a pea to that of a bushel measure. Adjoining this formation on the north, and also in other places in the district, is found slate rock. But little lime, and none of pure quality, has been discovered near the coast, except in the form of shells and corals. Banks of shells occur in many places, many feet above the present level of the sea. Coal occurs in the flanks of the Drachenberg, at Biggarberg, and other places. No metallic mines have been worked, although traces occur of copper, lead, and iron. No fossils, except a few ammonites, have as yet been discovered.' The table formation of the mountain tops often occurs in Natal, and the outline of the Quathlamba is fantastic and irregular in the extreme. A large vein of granite is said to traverse the mountain range from north-east to south-west, causing much local disturbance.

Zululand.

While the rocks of the mountain range separating Zululand from the Transvaal region are probably the

same in their construction as the Cape Colony and Natal, it is probable that in the low coast region extensive tertiary deposits may be found, but very little is accurately known of the geology of this region.

The Sovereignty and Trans Vaal

The Sovereignty Plains have a groundwork of the Upper Karroo Rocks, intersected with the usual dykes of traprock, and studded with isolated hills, capped with greenstone. North of the Vaal River, however, different geological features exist, but we have too little scientific information as to the rocks of that region to enter into any detailed description, however interesting it now has become, owing to the late gold discoveries. The granite rocks, however, appear to protrude themselves to the north in the Malappo Hills, and about the sources of the Shashshi, also an auriferous locality. Copper and cobalt are known to exist in large quantities in the Magaliesbergen, north of the Vaal River, and magnetic iron ore, in large quantities, in other parts of that region; and the gold washings near Leydenberg are still producing that metal, though not in very important quantities.

Concluding observations.

We have already given the order of the several formations of the colony, as given in Mr. Dunn's map. We now give those in Mr. Wyley's statement, which, although not essentially different, goes more into detail.

Tertiary. 150? ft. Marine clays and limestones near Olifant's Hoek, lignite beds and clays, and Tiger Vley sandstone of Cape Flats.

Jurassic Oolite. 400? ft. Sunday River beds, with marine shells, fossil woods, and land plants, Koega beds, Zwarte Kops beds, Bushman River beds.

New Red Sandstone. 300? ft. Enon conglomerate, Bushman River sandstones and conglomerates, Knysna conglomerates.

Coal Measures? Upper, 1,800 ft. Stormberg beds, upper beds of Sneeuwberg, Nieuwveld, and Roggeveld, distinct tiers of sandstone separated by shales, abundance of land plants, beds of coal and graphite (altered coal), reptilian remains, but not abundant.

Coal Measures? Middle, 1,700 ft. Proper Reptilian or Dicynodon beds. Purple, greenish, and grey

shales, with fewer sandstone beds, Reptilian bones, fish teeth, plants.

Coal Measures? Lower, 1,500 ft. Brown sandstone and shales, greenish do., with plants, pretty common, especially on the upper scarp of the Little Roggeveld, Fish River, and at Fort Brown.

Coal Measures. Upper Karroo shale, 1,200 ft. Shales usually dark grey, with few sandstone beds. Karroo plain, Fort Brown Flats, Ecca shales, impressions of land plants.

Trap Conglomerate. 500 to 800 ft. Trappean conglomerate, or hardened trap ash, with numerous rounded and angular fragments of the older rocks, from the smallest grain to 2 ft. diameter. Conformable as a mass to beds above and below, having a rude cleavage nearly at right angles to general bedding.

Carboniferous Shale. Lower Karroo shale, 800 ft. Lower Karroo shales, dark shales usually contorted like the sandstone below them of small thickness, though seen both at Pienaars Kloof and Zuurberg (marine shells, 'Bain').

Carboniferous Limestone. 1,000 ft. Witteberg and Zuurberg, Grahamstown and Winterhoek sandstone. Sandstones of a white and yellowish colour, a few beds of red and yellow shales, plants, lepidodendron, some beds of magnesian limestone near Winterhoek and in Langeberg (Atherstone).

Upper Devonian. 1,100 ft. Dark grey and brown shales, with fossils of a Devonian or Carboniferous limestone type, beds of brown rippled sandstone, with long winged spirifers.

Lower Devonian. 4,000 ft. Table Mountain sandstone and sandstones of the littoral range of mountains generally. Grey sandstones, conglomeratic at base; reddish shaly sandstone below.

Silurian. Unknown. Slates and grits usually of a greenish, grey, or brown colour; beds as usually seen vertical, or at high angles broken through or altered by granite.

Metamorphic. Gneiss, granitic gneiss, and metamorphic schists, limestone, &c.; boulders, with partial stratification like skins of an onion. Namaqualand,

Bushmanland, Kalihari, and great part of interior. Copper, iron, and perhaps lead.

Granite. Granite of Table Mount, Cape, Paarl, Malmesbury, and George Districts. (Minerals — schorl, garnet, kyanite, fluor spar).

Green Stone. Greenstone, syenitic do., basaltic greenstone, amygdaloid, occurring chiefly in beds and dykes in the Middle and Upper Coal Measures, and in the gneiss minerals, calcspar, barytes, asbestos, prehnite, agate, chalcedony. The crystalline felspar trap, associated with the copper of Namaqualand, is more of a greenstone than granitic character. A peculiar felspar trap conglomerate occurs in the Roggeveld Spitz.

Peculiar features of Cape geology.

English geologists will, on first visiting the Cape Colony, be struck by the almost total absence of many important types in the British series of rocks. The cretaceous and oolitic rocks, with a few unimportant exceptions, are nearly all absent, except in the far north-west rocks of Ovampoland, and the carboniferous rocks present a strange want of what they have derived their name from, *i.e.*, coal. Mr. Wyley considers that no place presents a greater parallel to the Cape Devonian Rocks than those in a similar series in the south of Ireland. Lias formations, too, occur in a very limited area in the Uitenhage district, and some of the larger Saurian fossils are found in them. Messrs. Bain and Wyley appear at issue as to the lacustrine origin of the Karroo beds. The hypothesis of Mr. Bain, Mr. Wyley considers most improbable, but considers the shale of these lacustrine beds as equivalent to the corresponding formation of the English coal beds. The Enon conglomerate, Dr. Atherstone's old seabeach, Mr. Wyley considers as undoubtedly oolitic, from its fossil remains, fine fronds of the Zamia, and several species of ferns.

The extent of denudating forces in Cape geology can hardly be estimated; they must have been simply enormous, or where else can the igneous overflowings which now cap the innumerable hills of the north Karroo and plains of the Sovereignty be otherwise disposed of, and whence come the enormous conglomerate deposits which cover an area of thousands of square miles in the Kalihari desert, Bushmanland, and elsewhere through the

country. Even the little areas of the Cape Flats and the Fish River Valley give rise to an interesting question of how their present covering was deposited there. Again, there is another interesting question in the little disturbance caused in the nearly horizontal strata of the Karroo sandstone, by the trap dykes interjected in a state of fusion. Perhaps the Agulhas Bank is formed by the superfluous rubbish swept into the ocean by former enormous watery agencies, which changed the face and form of the African continent. Geology, however, is still in its infancy here, and years of patient observation must be persevered in before we approach a true theory, especially when we see such practised and experienced men as Bain and Wyley disagreeing on such an important point as the lacustrine theory, even although the former is supported by such authorities as Murchison and Owen. However, the researches of every enquiring spirit seem to clear away the rubbish (and we have still a deal of geological rubbish to clear away) for his successor.

An English observer landing in Table Bay cannot do better than carefully examine the nature-presented sections of Table Mountain, especially at the junctions between the clay, slate, and granite on the Green Point Beach, and on the road up the Kloof. The new lines of road through Bain's Kloof, Mostert Hoek, and on many of the newly-constructed lines of road, both on the east and west district, afford interesting sections, especially the Ecca Valley and Pluto's Vale, near Grahamstown; and on the Fish River Bush, near Frazer's Camp, he will find some curiously contorted beds of sandstone in otherwise horizontal strata, very difficult to account for. Bain's porphyritic beds are still a puzzle to geologists as to whether they are aqueous in their origin or igneous; and Namaqualand and the Orange River water-falls, the diamond-fields, salt-pans, &c., are full of geological puzzles as yet not properly explained. We have done the best we could to present a popular view of Cape geology. Many geological observations in the books of modern travellers are perfectly worthless in reference to the Cape; but it is hardly to be expected that mere tourists should form accurate judgments on unusual appearances.

Forests, Fruits, Flowers, &c.

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Forest culture.

We may travel in the Cape Colony hundreds of miles and never see a forest, but forests there are, and forests of no mean extent or trifling value, though costing at present more for their conservation in many places than they yield, and disappearing, in spite of the expenditure incurred on their conservation; and there is apparently no physical hindrance to their being managed in accordance with the most advanced forest science of the day, as is done in Continental Europe, or in accordance with the most improved forest economy and forest administration of India, which has raised the expenditure there, indeed, to the amount of 200,000*l.* per annum, but has raised at the same time the revenue from the forests to 400,000*l.* per annum, besides arresting their extinction and securing their existence, with all the economic and meteorological benefits which must therefrom result.

Vicinity of the Orange River.

Commencing a survey of the colony at its south-western extremity, the mouth of the Orange River, we see little of forest till we reach the Table Mountain Range, in the vicinity of Cape Town. In the vicinity of the Orange River may be found willows, and in Namaqualand, besides the tamarisk, may be found Thorn trees, probably *Acacia horrida*, from five-and-twenty to thirty feet in height, and a few trees of the Melkhout, *Sideroxylon inerme;* and in the bed of the river are numerous islands covered with a dense bush.

District of Clanwilliam.

Farther to the South the only patches of arborescent vegetation to be met with for many a long league are on the Cedar Bergen, a mountain range in the district of Clanwilliam, to the south of Namaqualand, which is indebted to the forests of which these patches are the remains for the name which they bear. They are patches of the Cape Cedar, *Widdringtonia juniperoides;* and this is the only locality in which the tree is found, though another species of the same genus, known as Sapree wood, *W. cupressoides*, is not uncommon in elevated localities throughout the colony.

The Cape Cedar yields a valuable timber, which is more easily wrought than deal, and is much more

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The Cape cedar &c.

beautiful and fragrant. It is close-grained and almost indestructible by damp. Posts fixed in the ground, after thirty years' exposure to alternate damp and drought, have been found, when taken up, not to be decayed beyond the thickness of writing-paper. And we have been told of a thick post fixed in the ground as a fastening-post for cattle, which, from what was known of the history of the farm-steading, must have been placed there one hundred years before. It was apparently as firm in the ground as ever it could have been, and so far as had been observed, no decay had taken place. Unhappily the trees are being destroyed fast. Along river-beds farther to the South are seen, along with the Melkhout, *Sideroxylon inerme*, the Swartbast, *Royena lucida*. To the south of the mountain range, separating Clanwilliam from the Cape district, may be seen growing, near Wellington, a fine specimen of the Doornboom, *Acacia horrida*; and we have been informed that in the vicinity of Ceres, and for some distance into the Bokkeveld, there are in kloofs forest patches of yellow wood, *Podocarpus*, but the information received is too vague to warrant speaking of this with greater precision. The only forests deserving the name, nearest to the remains of the forests formerly clothing the Cedar Bergen, are the forests on the Table Mountain Range, consisting of some above Newlands, on the landward side of Table Mountain, and some at Nord Hoek, on the seaward side of the same range, at the point where it separates False Bay from the ocean.

Forests on the Table Mountain range.

There are on the level ground at the base of Table Mountain, on the landward side, and on the sides of that mountain, both on the landward and on the seaward sides, extensive artificial plantations. Nowhere in the colony can be seen a landscape embracing such extensive woodland scenery, varied with vineyards and cultivated fields, as may be seen from eminences in the neighbourhood of Wynberg, commanding an extensive range of country. But these plantations are not forests as that term is now employed. Of naturally-produced trees the first which here arrests attention is the Silver Tree, *Leucadendron argenteum*, which may be seen a little above the limits of the plantations on the face of Table Moun-

tain, passing over the neck of the Devil's Hill, and in patches extending towards Wynberg Hill, where it covers extensive rising grounds, either excluding all other trees or associating with the Kreupelboom, *Leucospermum conocarpum*, the Sugar Bush, *Protea melifera*, with other species of the same genus, with the Taibosch, *Rhus*, of different species, and with other shrubs affecting a similar habitat.

Trees growing in the kloofs of the mountains.

All of these may be considered arborescent shrubs; but in the kloofs of the mountain are trees such as are more like what are associated with the idea of forest trees; and these are found growing in tangled thickets, which accord more with the popular idea of primeval forests than do what may be called groves of Silver Trees.

In these kloofs grow, among other trees of less importance, the Hard Pear (*Olinia Capensis*), the White Pear (*Pterocelastrus rostratus*), the Assegay wood (*Curtisea faginea*), the Zybast (*Celastrus acuminatus*), the Zwartbast (*Royena lucida*), the Roodels, or Red Alder (*Cunonia Capensis*), the Beukenhout, or Cape Beech (*Myrsine melanophleos*), the Spechout, or Porkwood (*Kiggelaria Capensis*), the Stinkwood (*Oreodaphne bullata*), the Yellowwood (*Podocarpus*), the Olyvienhout, or Olivewood (*Olea verrucosa*), the Black Ironwood (*O. laurifolia*), the White Ironwood (*O. Capensis*, or *O. foveolata*), and the Keurboom (*Virgilia Capensis*).

The Outeniqua forests.

Leaving these forests and the plantations of oak, willow, poplars, cluster-pines, stone-pines, and vineyards with which they are skirted, and following the coastline to the eastward, we meet with nothing like forest till we reach the Outeniqua Mountains, in the district of George, and the continuations of these extending eastward between Long Kloof and the sea. There are remains of ancient forests in the intervening district, and there are wooded kloofs in the Sonderende and the Langebergen, but these are few in number and limited in extent. In the more inland districts of the colony, in the same longitudes, we should look for even such forest-patches in vain. There the Mimosa Doornboom or Karroo Doorn, *Acacia horrida*, may be found, but found only as solitary trees, or in little patches, or in continuous winding lines following watercourses.

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Hall's estimate of their area.

But the Outeniqua forests and the continuations of them, extending through the districts of George and the Knysna into that of Uitenhage, are forests deserving the name. By Hall they are said to cover an area of not less than 2,000 square miles. We are not prepared either to accept or to contradict the statement. In giving evidence before a Select Committee of the Legislative Council on August 21, 1865, the Colonial Botanist said amongst other things, in reply to query 95: "'Will you give us an idea of the changes you would recommend?' With a view to the developing of our timber trade, and so making the forests a more productive source of revenue, I recommend: First, the preparation of a detailed report of each forest, specifying the boundary and extent of each patch or clump, the different kinds of trees growing in each of them, the numbers, either proportional or absolute, of each different kind; the general magnitude they have attained, and the situations they generally occupy, stating what numbers or what proportions are of easy access or of difficult access, or altogether inaccessible, but which may be made accessible at a moderate expense. At present we cannot say what we have. Suppose a demand were to arise for a particular kind of timber, and the purchaser were to say, 'I require Stinkwood; how many cubic feet can you furnish annually?' There is not a man in the colony can tell. 'How many Stinkhout trees of three feet diameter have you?' Not a man in the colony can tell whether there are a thousand or a hundred thousand. 'What is the extent of your forests? are there a hundred square miles or six hundred square miles?' It is the same. We cannot tell any customer what we have. In order to obtain proper reports on this subject it would be perhaps necessary to get surveys made by professional men; but this done, the various forest rangers might furnish accounts of the different clumps at very little expense. I have here a map of the Knysna forests, by the Surveyor-General, with the particulars of their contents, furnished by Mr. Bain. But when we get beyond this, between the Knysna and the Zitzikamma forests, there is a large space of unexplored forest. Of the Zitzikamma I have a similar chart, with annotations furnished by Captain Harrison. But of the intervening forest nobody can tell

Evidence given by the Colonial Botanist before a Select Committee of the Legislative Council.

what is its extent, or what it contains. Nobody has ever been through it, although I believe Mr. Bain has offered to take a pack-ox, and, with six coloured men, cut his way through, and report. And even the Knysna forest is but little known. A gentleman from the Knysna writes to me by last mail that he observes that in the Government returns the property in that district is valued at 77,000*l.*; but he says if the Government would open up the forest, it would be worth, perhaps, 400,000*l.* It is very desirable to have some accurate information on this subject. The reports which I suggest would entail some expense for surveys, but the rangers could provide the particulars as to their contents, &c."

A great deal more than this would be requisite for a satisfactory administration of the management of the forests; and until this is supplied it would be inexpedient to speak definitely of the extent and the value or importance of the forests.

The Knysna forests.

The forests are in large patches, interspersed with and among good grazing-ground and arable land. They commence a little to the north of the village of George, and extend to the eastward, forking somewhat as they approach the lake district, whence they spread into the district of the Knysna. Between the summit of the Outeniqua Mountain and the sea is a dense impenetrable forest of great extent; the general appearance of the country beyond which, from some high land near Plettenberg Bay, is that of an extensive flat intersected by deep river-beds, with patches of forest and grazing-land in the foreground.

Zitzikamma.

To the east of this is the Zitzikamma forest, consisting of patches more or less extensive, scattered over a district measuring some twenty miles long by five in breadth.

Trees abounding in the Knysna forests.

Most of the Knysna woods are of a good durable character, one indication of which may be found in the fact that they are, or were, in increasing demand for railway construction. The woods reckoned the best are those of the Ironwood, two sorts (*Olea*, and possibly *Milletia*), Assegaiwood (*Curtisea Capensis*), Black Stinkwood (*Oreodaphne bullata*), White Stinkwood (*Celtis rhamnifolia*), Upright Yellow-wood (*Podocarpus Thum-*

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bergii), Outeniqua Yellow-wood (*P. elongatus*), Hard Pear (*Olinia Capensis*), Red Pear (*Phoberos Ecklonii*), Kersewood (*Pterocelastris variabilis*), Melkhout (*Mimusops obovata*), White Els (*Platylopus trifoliatus*), Red Els (*Cunionia Capensis*), Kamassie (*Gonioma Kamassi*, or *Celastrus ellipticus*), Roodhout (*Ochna arborea*), White Pear (*Pterocelastrus rostratus*), Klip Els (*Plectronia Mundtiana*), Essenhout (*Eckebergia Capensis*, or *Rhus lævigatus*), Saffron wood (*Elæodendron croceum*), Wild Salee (*Tarchonanthus camphoratus*), Beukenhout (*Myrsine melanophleos*), Keurboom (*Virgilia Capensis*), Wild Chestnut (*Calodendron Capense*), Sycamore (*Sycomorus Capensis*).

Most valuable timber trees in the Zitzikamma.

The most valuable of the timber trees in the Zitzikamma is yielded by Stinkwood (*Oreodaphne*, or *Celtis*), Yellowwood (*Podocarpus*), Essenhout (*Eckebergia*, or *Rhus*), White Els (*Platylopus trifoliata*).

But besides these there are yielded and valued Assegai (*Curtista Capensis*), White Pear (*Petrocelastrus rostratus*), Ironwood (*Olea*, or *Milletia*), Saffraan (*Elæodendron croceum*), Keur (*Virgilia Capensis*), Kersehout (*Pterocelastrus variabilis*), Hard Pear (*Olinia Capensis*), and also Red Els (*Cunonia Capensis*), Michellwood (*Phoberos Mundtii*), Black Ironwood (*Olea laurifolia*), Paardepis (*Hippobromus alata*), Beukenhout (*Myrsine melanophleos*), White-wood (*Niebuhria triphylla*), Vleer (*Chilianthus*, or *Nuxia*), Kamassi (*Gonioma*, or *Celastris*), Roihout (*Ochna arborea*), Klip Els (*Plectronia Mundtiana*), Swartbast (*Royena lucida*), Smallblad (*Hartogia Capensis*), Zy-bast (*Celastrus acuminatus*), Malabar tree (*Sycomorus Capensis*), Onderbosch (*Halleria elliptica*).

Beyond the Zitzikamma the patches of forest are more loosely dispersed, like the drift-cloud ofttimes seen outside the more continuous cloud on the mountain-tops in the colony; some in the electoral division of Uitenhage are those of the Klein and Van Stadans rivers, of the Zuurberg, and of Olifants Hoek. The patches are comparatively small, and they are widely scattered.

Beyond the Zitzikamma.

In those of Klein and Van Stadans rivers are found Melkhout (*Sideroxylon inerme*), Olivewood (*Olea*), Sneezewood (*Ptaeroxylon utile*), Salee (*Tarchonanthus camphoratus*), Taibosch (*Rhus*), Bosganna (*Rhus laevigata*), Oudenhout (*Halleria elliptica*), Skeerhout, Roodenhout (*Ochnea arborea*), Yellowwood (*Podocarpus*), Black

Olive (*Olea laurifolia*), White Olive (*Halleria*, or *Olea*), Hard Pear (*Olinia Capensis*), Paardepis (*Hippobromus alata*), Wild Lemon (*Parkensonia*, or *Grumelia*), Koneyhout, Olyvenhout (*Olea verrucosa*), Red Melkhout (*Mimusops obovata*), Bastard Taibosch.

Information supplied by the Forest Ranger.

By correspondence with the Forest Ranger we learn that the forests in Olifants Hoek extend from the farm Naja, on the road from Port Elizabeth, to the mouth of the Bushman river, a distance of rather more than forty miles; that all the different kinds of trees are found growing more or less abundantly together—no one species being confined to any one locality—and the dispersion and varying numbers are so great that it would be difficult to estimate their comparative or relative proportions. The most abundant he considered to be the Gattyhout and the Safraanhout (*Elæodendron croceum*). Next in number these the Yellow-wood (*Podocarpus*), the Buffels Ball, or Wild Katjepiering (*Gardenia Thunbergia*), the Kaffirboom (*Erythrina Caffra*), and the Bosch Boerboon (*Schotia latifolia*).

He stated that there were also abundance of Sneezehout (*Ptæroxylon utile*), White Ironwood (*Olea*, or *Vepris*), Black Ironwood (*Olea laurifolia*), White Melkhout (*Sideroxylon inerme*), Red Melkhout (*Mimusops obovata*), Lepelhout (*Cassine Capensis*), Camdeboo Stinkwood (*Celtis rhamnifolia*), Kanephout, or Wild Lemon (*Grumelea cymosa*), Essenhout (*Eckebergia Capensis*), Rootjehout (*Ochna arborea*), Hottentot's Boerboon (*Schotia speciosa*), Wilde Pruimen (*Sapindus Pappea*, or *Harpephyllum Caffrum*), White Pear (*Ptrocelastrus rostratus*), Nooijesboom (*Cussonia spicata*), Wild Figtree (*Urostigma Natalensis*).

He added that most of the trees were of easy access, and that he did not think any were altogether inaccessible.

Neighbourhood of Bedford.

In the neighbourhood of Bedford are many hills and kloofs covered with trees of Assegai (*Curtisea Capensis*), Iron wood (*Olea*), and other trees, once Government forests, but now private property.

Forests in the district of Katberg.

Travelling eastward from Bedford, we next meet with forests in the district of Katberg. They exist in patches scattered over a district about four or five miles long—an area of about twenty square miles—or about 800 acres.

They are situated on the mountain range running east and west which separates that district from Winterberg, in kloofs formed by spurs from the mountains.

The most important timber-yielding trees in this district.

The timber-yielding trees in them, we were informed by the Rev. W. R. Thomson, are these—Outeniqua Yellow-wood (*Podocarpus elongatus*), Upright Yellow-wood (*P. Thunbergii*), White Ironwood (*Olea*, or *Vepris*), Black Ironwood (*Olea laurifolia*), Sneezewood (*Ptaeroxylon utile*), White Pear (*Ptrocelastrus rostratus*), Red Pear (*Phoberos Ecklonii*), Kaffir Plum (*Harpephyllum Caffrum*), Wild Chestnut (*Calodendron Capensis*), Safraanhout (*Elæodendron croceum*), Camdeboo Stinkwood (*Celtis rhamnifolius*), Assegaiwood (*Curtisea Capensis*), Essenhout (*Eckbergea*, or *Rhus*), Zuurebesjes (*Dovyalis rhamnoides*), Paardepis (*Hippobromus alata*), Guarrie (*Euclea*), Red Els (*Cunonia Capensis*), and Buffels Ball, or Wild Katjepiering (*Gardenia Thunbergia*).

Mr. Thomson reckoned that there were about four trees per acre of useful timber of all kinds. The Yellow woods, Ironwoods, Sneezewoods, Assegaiwood, and Guarrie were the trees of which there were the greatest number, and together these were about equal in number to the whole of the rest. The tree of which there were fewest was the Essenhout. These and the Yellowwood were generally situated deep in the forest, near the precipitous krantzes, and were said to be difficult of access. The other kinds were more indiscriminately scattered; not many can be said to be easy of access, but very few can be said to be absolutely inaccessible.

At Eland's Post there is what appears to be a continuation of the same or another forest-patch, and thus are we brought to the forests of Kaffraria.

Forests of Kaffraria.

These commence in the Crown reserve, on the eastern side of the Chumie range, and extend in a succession of extensive forest-patches to the vicinity of King William's Town. In that locality one portion of an extensive forest-patch is known as the Pirie Bush; another is known as Baillie's Grave. The range of forest-patches from the Chumie to King William's Town may measure about thirty miles long by about ten wide. The forests are generally situated in kloofs and mountain-sides, and in steep krantzes.

The kinds of trees found in the vicinity of King William's Town to be most abundant are—Outeniqua

Yellow-wood (*Podocarpus elongata*), Upright Yellow-wood (*P. Thunbergii*), Black Ironwood (*Olea laurifolia*), White Ironwood (*Vepris lanceolata*), Melkhout (*Sideroxylon inerme*), White Pear (*Pterocelastrus rostratus*), Red Pear (*Phoberos Ecklonii*), Assegai (*Curtisia faginea*), Wild Chestnut (*Calodendron Capensis*), Boerboom (*Schotia*), Kaffir Plum (*Harpephyllum Caffrum*), Kaffirboom (*Erythrina Caffra*), Olyvenhout (*Olea verrucosa*), Buffel's dorn (*Zizyphus mucronata*), and Camdeboo Stinkwood (*Celtis rhamnifolius*).

But with these are many other trees yielding woods which might be used as timber if brought into the market.

Most important kinds of trees.

In the list given there has been followed an order approximating to the relative importance of the trees growing there, estimating this either by their numbers or by their value as timber-yielding trees. The common Yellow-wood may be said to be the most abundant. The Black Ironwood nearly equals it in number of trees; but these are of much less magnitude, and consequently yield much less timber. The Upright Yellow-wood is scarce compared with either of those trees. The Melkhout is more abundant than the White Ironwood; and the Assegai is more abundant than the Red Pear.

General result.

There are probably few forest countries which can tell of such a variety of forest trees to be found within so limited an area as some of the South African forests, or as the Cape Colony, all of them useful and used for economic purposes.

Explanation of tabulated list.

In the tabulated list prepared by Dr. Pappe, and embodied in his 'Silva Capensis,' are given, in successive columns, the botanical names, the general height, the character of trunk, the characteristics of the wood, the uses to which it is applied, and the name by which it is known in the colony; of three only is it said 'little used,' of one only 'no particular use,' of three only is it said 'fuel;' and of one of these, as of another, it is mentioned that it is manufactured into charcoal.

A more comprehensive list, prepared by the late colonial botanist, supplies much additional information in regard to the natural history and economic uses of these and of other trees found beyond the limits of the colony.

The following Table, showing the principal Timber Trees of South Africa and their properties, &c., has been supplied for this work by Henry Hall, Esq., F.R.G.S.

Dutch and English Common and Botanical Names.	Native Names.	Weight of a Cubic Foot.	Cost of working Fir = 1.	Remarks.
		lbs.		
Assegaiwood, or Cape Lancewood (*Curtisia faginea*)	Oomhlebe	56	1·5	Colour light red, grain like lancewood, very tough and elastic; used for wheel spokes, shafts, waggon rails, shafts of assegais, and turners' work generally.
Cedar Boom (*Widdringtonia Junipernoides*)		41	1·25	A kind of cypress; grows principally on the Cedar Mountains, division of Clanwilliam. Used for floors, roofs, and general building purposes. Grain not unlike Havannah Cedar. Will not bear exposure to weather.
Wild Chestnut (*Calodendron Capense*)		40	1·25	Timber very inferior, and warps much on seasoning.
Doorn Boom (*Acacia Giraffaès A. horrida*)	Mokohala Motvotla	40	1·25	Several varieties of this species afford small timber for spars, fencing, &c., and is also much used for fuel, charcoal, &c. Bark employed in tanning. Several varieties afford gum.
Cape Ebony (*Euclea pseudebœnus*)	Itoomganzi Oomgwali Guarri	60	1·25	Not of any commercial value.
White Els, or Cape Elder (*Platylophus trifoliatus*)		38	1·25	Used for palings, posts, and general farm work.

Table of principal Trees, &c.—continued.

Dutch and English Common and Botanical Names.	Native Names.	Weight of a Cubic Foot.	Cost of working Fir = 1.	Remarks.
		lbs.		
Red Els (*Cunonia Capensis*)		47	1·60	Resembles red birch; is used for farm and waggon-building purposes.
Rock Els				A smaller and harder variety.
Essen Hout, or Cape Ash (*Eckebergia Capensis*)	Oomryamati	48	1·40	A tough and valuable timber, resembling elm, used for common floors, &c.; can be procured up to 18 inches square.
Flat Crownwood			1·30	Grows in Natal to 2 feet diameter. The wood similar to elm, used for naves of wheels and machine work.
Ironwood, black (*Olea laurifolia*)	Tambooti, or Hoaske	64	2·00	Very heavy, grain fine like pear-tree. Used for waggon axles, cogs, spokes, railway sleepers, &c.; is very durable. Can be got in logs up to 18 inches square.
Do. do. white (*Vepris lanceolata*)	Oomzimbiti			Used for same purposes.
Kaffirboom (*Erythrina Caffra*)	Oomsinsi, or Limsootsi	38		Wood soft and light, grain open and porous, splits easily, and used principally for roof shingles, owing to its not being liable to take fire.
Melkhout, Milkwood (*Mimusops obovata*)	Oomtombi	52	1·75	Colour white; used for wheelwork, &c. There is also a darker variety.

Table of principal Trees, &c.—continued.

Dutch and English Common and Botanical Names.	Native Names.	Weight of a Cubic Foot.	Cost of working Fir = 1.	Remarks.
		lbs.		
Red Mangrove				Used in Natal for posts and fencing.
Oliven Hout, Mild Olive (*Olea verrucosa*)	Konka	60	2	Wood of small size, and generally decayed at heart. Used for fancy turning.
Saffaan Haut (*Ilex crocea*)		54		A kind of evergreen oak. The wood is strong and tough; bark used for tanning.
Nies Hout, or Sneezewood (*Pteroxylon utile*)	Oomtata	68	3	A most durable and useful timber, resembling satinwood; very full of a gum or resin like Guiacum; burns like candlewood. Invaluable for beams, lintels, railway sleepers, sills, &c. It is difficult to procure of large scantling.
Stinkwood (*Laurus bullata*)		53	1·6	Resembles dark walnut. Invaluable for furniture and carriage building, gun-stocks, and general carving purposes.
Geel Hout, or Yellow Wood (*Taxus elongata*)	Oom Roba	40	1·35	Is one of the largest trees found in the forests. Is of the yew species. Colour light yellow.
Wilge Boom Willow (*Salix Gariepina*)		38		Grows along watercourses. Wood of little value except for fuel or charcoal.

Fruits.

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Not very numerous.

Of indigenous fruits South Africa has not much to boast. There are not a few names of fruit-bearing trees or shrubs given to Cape productions, with some qualifying designation, but in few cases, if in more than one, are there fruits of the same kind. Resemblance in appearance is generally all that they have in common; and sometimes it is a resemblance in the appearance of the tree alone which has suggested the name.

The Bramble.

The one case of identity referred to is the Bramble. At the Cape there are five species of Rubus, and one of them is a variety of the common Bramble-bush of Europe, known as *R. fruticosus var.* Bergii, the fruit of which is equal in flavour to that in Europe. It is called Braam-bosch in Dutch. It is abundant in mountain ravines in the Cape and Stellenbosch districts, as is also another species, *R. pinnatus*, Willd, which is found also in the Eastern Province. The roots of this species, called also Braam-bosch, are astringent, and are used in decoctions as a remedy for chronic diarrhœa, &c.

The Orange, Apple, Plum, &c.

But, besides the Bramble, we hear at the Cape of the Orange and the Apple, the Plum and the Pomegranate, and the Gooseberry and Cherry; and this in reference, not to fruits under cultivation, but to what the land brings forth of itself without culture or care from man.

The Natal Orange.

The Natal Orange was found by Drege in woods and on hills between the Omtendo and the Omgeni, in Natal. Mr. James Chapman found it in different places, on a journey which he made from Natal to the Zambesi. He writes of the fruit: 'It has a hard rind and sweet odour when ripe. The pulp is eaten, and is of a sweet acid taste, which is not unpleasant. Elephants eat quantities of the fruit, but they pass the poisonous stones undigested.'

Dr. Moffat, formerly of the Kuruman mission, has made mention of it in correspondence with his friends, and specimens of the fruit were supplied to the late Colonial Botanist by Mr. Birt of Peeltown. What Mr. Birt mentions is in accordance with what he was

told by Dr. Livingstone was done by the natives on the other side of the Zambesi. And Mr. Chapman, to whom had been submitted the account given by Mr. Birt, wrote, in returning the notes: 'It is evidently the same plant that I meant. I can give no additional information, saving that it is found in the rocky parts of the eastern portion of the continent of South Africa, from Natal to the Zambesi. About midway between the lake and that river I have found a smaller kind of similar fruit on a larger tree; but as I did not take particular notice, it may be the same. Many ladies in Natal like to put an unripe fruit into their wardrobes, because as they ripen they impart a delightful odour to the clothes. In Natal it is the principal food of the baboons, who break the hard capsules by throwing them down on the rocks. They are plentiful on the Zambesi. The fruit is the size of a large orange, and becomes yellow when ripe, and answers to all the description given.'

The Natal orange is cultivated in several of the gardens about Uitenhage for the fruit, the pulp of which is considered delicious.

The Kei Apple and other fruit belonging to the order of Bixads.

The Kei Apple is the fruit of the *Aberia Caffra*, Hk., a shrub or small tree found in the eastern districts of the colony and in Kaffirland. The flowers bearing stamens and those bearing pistils grow on different trees, the latter only bearing fruit. It is a shrub which answers admirably for hedgerows. The fruit is edible; it is not an apple, but it is like a small yellowish apple, and when made into a preserve a little of this imparts to pumpkin or the rind of the water-melon, when cooked together, the flavour of stewed apples, or of the fruit in an apple-pie. It belongs to the order of Bixads, of which the Annatto tree is the type.

To the same order belong the *Zuurebesjies*, a name given to the fruit of *Dovyalis rhamnoides*, Burch., and *D. rotundifolia*, Thunb., the latter of which is said to be delicious, making a very fine preserve. But the name Zuurebesjies is also given to a number of other berries, each of which has also a distinguishing name.

Hottentot Cherry, &c.

Aasvogel Besjes, or Hottentot Cherry, is the fruit of the *Maurocenia Capensis*, Sond., a shrub growing in the ravines of Table Mountain, Hottentot Holland, and elsewhere.

Kruysbesjies are the fruit of the *Grewia occidentalis*.

Koo-boo-besjies, a rose-red stone-fruit of the size of a large pea, and edible and sweet to the taste, are the fruit of the *Mystroxylon Kubu*, E. & Z., a tree common in the forests of Olifants Hoek, Tzitzikamma, Krakakama, &c.

Jackalsbesjies, which are edible, are the fruit of the Melkhout, *Sideroxylon inerme*, Lin., a tree common in the Cape, Swellendam, George, and Uitenhage districts.

Guarribesjies, a well-known fruit, eaten by the natives as the fruit of the Guarriwood, *Euclea undulata*, Thbg.

Biedouw-besjies are the fruit of the *Osteospermum pisiferum*, Lin., one of the Compositæ, so named from the form of the fruit and the hardness of the seed. The fruit, though small, is eaten by the natives. It is of a sweet taste and palatable. They are also known as Bush-tick-berries.

Skildpad-besjies, though somewhat astringent in taste, are eaten by Hottentots and children. They are the fruit of the *Mundtia spinosa*, D.C., a decoction of the tops of the branches of which is used in atrophy, phthisis, &c., and that apparently with good effect. It grows abundantly on the downs.

The Wild Plum.

The Kaamsbesjies Wilde Pruimen, or Wild Plum, is the fruit of *Pappea Capensis*, E & Z., a tree pretty common in Kaffirland and in the districts of Uitenhage and Albany. It has some resemblance to the plum, is savoury, and furnishes a vinous beverage and excellent vinegar. Its kernel contains an oil which, though edible, is somewhat purgative; it is recommended as an external application for ringworm and similar diseases, and it may be used as a substitute for Macassar oil.

The Kaffir Plum.

The Kaffir Plum, or Zuure-pruim, an edible fruit, about an inch long, is the fruit of the *Harpephyllum Caffrum*, Bernh., a tree found in the forests of Albany, Uitenhage, and Kaffraria.

The Wild Almond.

The Wilde Amandel, Wild Almond, is the fruit of *Brabeium Stellatifolium*, R. Br. It is a stone-fruit, clothed with a velvety coat, and has received its popular name from its striking resemblance to an almond. After having been soaked for some days in water it is eaten by the natives, but it is injurious, if not poisonous,

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when quite fresh. The kernel roasted is used as a substitute for coffee.

The Wild Chestnut, Medlar, Apricot, Fig, &c.

The Wilde Kastanie, or Wild Chestnut, is the fruit of the *Calodendron Capense*; the Wild Medlar is that of *Vangueria infausta*; the Stamfrucht appears to be the same; the Wild Jambos is the fruit of *Eugenia Zeyeri*. Wilde Abrikos, or Wild Apricot, is that of *Royena angustifolia*. The Wild Fig is the fruit of *Urostigma Natalense*, Bush Fig that of *Sycomorus Capensis*, Hottentot Fig that of the *Mesembryanthemum*.

The Wild Lemon.

The Wild Lemon appears to be a name given both to *Parkinsonia Africana* and to *Grumelia Capensis*. The Wild Pomegranate, or Wilde Graanat, is a name given both to *Burchelia Capensis* and to *Osyris compressus*.

The vine.

The vine is said to grow wild, but it is questioned.

Various species of gourd.

With regard to the growth of various species of gourd there is no question, but in regard to this it may be questioned whether, according to the popular use of the term, this should be reckoned a fruit or a vegetable. Leaving this to be determined by the reader, it may be stated that they are to be found of all sizes, from that of a pea upwards, of different shapes, different colours, and different tastes. One of them, *Citrullus vulgaris*, is sometimes found the size of an apple, sometimes the size of a child's head. When edible or sweet, this is called water-melon, or Kaffir water-melon; when bitter, it is called wild water-melon, or bitter apple, and the pulp of this may be used like that of Colocynth.

The Wild Katjepiering.

Amongst fruits mention may be made of that of the Buffelsbal, or Wild Katjepiering, *Gardenia Thunbergii*. This is somewhat pear-shaped, but it is so hard and woody that it could not be eaten if this were otherwise desirable.

Pears.

Hard Pear is the fruit of *Olinia cymosa*; Red Pear, is that of *Phoberos Ecklonii*, White Pear is that of *Pterocelastrus rostratus*.

The Cape Gooseberry.

The Cape Gooseberry is the fruit of *Physalis pubescens*, a species of winter cherry.

The Kukamakranka.

There are some fruits which have not as yet got names from any of the languages of Europe. One of these is the Kukamakranka; it is the *Gethillis spiralis*. It is an elongated, club-shaped, orange-coloured fruit, with a peculiar fragrance, which, though disagreeable to some

persons, is highly prized by others. It is said to be known to every child in the colony; and this may have been observed: one never has occasion to speak of it there in the presence of children but their faces are lit up with smiles. When it is infused in spirits it imparts its pleasant odour to the liquor, and so infused it is employed medicinally in flatulence and in cholic.

The Naras, Anana, &c.

Another of these is the Naras, the fruit of *Acanthosiccos horrida*. But this is found considerably beyond the bounds of the colony, where we find also the Anana, or Custard Apple, the Monkey Bread, Crem-o-tat Tree, or Baobab, *Adansonia digitata*, and other fruits deserving of attention, but not demanding it here.

At the Cape, of sub-tropical fruits and fruits of European culture many are under cultivation and thrive well.

Grape-vines and other culture.

Wherever the grape-vine flourishes in the open air there is a genial climate, comfortable and pleasant to the European, for extreme cold is destructive to it; warmth is requisite to its fruiting; and when the heat is great it goes to wood.

At the Cape the grape—for the extensive culture of which, if not for its introduction into South Africa, we are indebted to the revocation of the Edict of Nantes—flourishes and fruits as it does only in Persia, the South of France, Portugal, and Spain. And this may be taken as the medium indication of the temperature and climate. It does not grow everywhere, but there are extensive districts on which, from the climate and the soil, a vine might be planted on every square fathom of ground, with every probability of fruit and wine being produced in abundance. For an account of the different kinds of grape, see 'Productions.'

The Peach, Nectarine, Almond, &c.

Along with the vine there grow and flourish numerous fruits requiring a similar climate. Amongst these may be enumerated the Peach, the Nectarine, the Almond, the Fig, the Apricot, the Melon, the Water-melon, the Loquat, the Pomegranate, the Lemon, the Orange, the Narchey or Mandarin Orange, the Seville or Bitter Orange, the Citron and the Lime, the Quince, the Tomato, and the Mulberry.

The Banana,

With fruits requiring a climate similar to that in which the vine flourishes are others requiring a tempera-

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ture somewhat higher. Growing under culture amongst these may be mentioned the Banana, the Rose-apple, the Guava, the Granadilla, and the Shaddock.

Rose-apple, Guava, &c.

As illustrative of these being indicative of the extreme heat, it may be mentioned that the Pineapple, which flourishes in Natal, can only fruit satisfactorily, if at all, under glass at the Cape.

The Pine-apple.

With fruits requiring a climate such as is suitable to those which have been mentioned there are many which flourish under a lower temperature, such as the Chestnut, the Walnut, the Plum, the Pear, the Apple, the Strawberry, growing in the colony, and yielding delicious fruit.

The Chestnut, Walnut, Strawberry, &c.

And as illustrative of these being indicative of the lower line, it may be mentioned that the attempt to cultivate the Raspberry has been made with only partial success. The Cherry fruits only in the cold Bockeveld; and the Gooseberry fruits only in a few of the cooler districts of the colony and it may be said in very few of these.

Flowers.

Aloes.

One of the first plants which arrests the attention of a stranger from Europe on landing in Table Bay is the American Aloe. This plant, though naturalized at the Cape, is not indigenous, but the true Aloe is, and this also soon commands attention. Several species grow in South Africa, and the inspissated juice is an article of commerce exported in large quantities from the colony. They are often called, in contradistinction to the other, the Flowering Aloes, but the designation is unhappy, as both flower, and the so-called American Aloe is not an Aloe at all, but an Agave. The flower of the Aloe is brilliant in colour; that of the other is of a greenish hue, and less striking.

Crassula, &c.

There are at the Cape not a few flowering plants like the Aloe in leaf, and some not unlike the Aloe in flower. Amongst the latter what are most likely to engage the attention of one to whom the rich flowers of the Cape are new, are plants belonging to the same order as the Houseleek: the Crassulaceæ. They have fleshy stems and leaves, but the latter are roundish and not tapering,

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like those of the Aloes. The flowers are often showy; crimson, white, or yellow, or of some intermediate colour. But while the Aloe has always six stamens, in these they vary in number, being generally as many, or twice as many, as the petals, and these are in some four, in some five, and in some from six to nine in number.

Rochea, Cotyledon, Kalanchoe, &c.

Amongst them there are upwards of a hundred species of Crassula, of which nearly forty have been introduced into and cultivated in Britain, and several species of Rochea, in both of which genera the number of stamens is five, the same as the number of the divisions in the calyx and corolla; and upwards of thirty species of Cotyledon, or Navel Wort; a few species of Kalanchoe, and a species of Bryophyllum, in all of which the number of stamens is double that of the divisions of the calyx, which in the Navel Wort is five, in the Kalanchoe four; this is also the case with the Bryophyllum, which is found in Delagoa Bay, and has this remarkable property: a leaf laid on moist soil often produces young plants at all the notches, whence it has got the name, it being derived from *bruo*, to sprout, and *phyllum*, a leaf.

Remarkable property in Bryophyllum.

Mesembryanthemums.

Thick-leaved, like the plants described, are the Mesembryanthemums, or Fig Marigolds, of which there are upwards of three hundred species growing at the Cape, most of which, including the Ice-plant, have been introduced into and cultivated in England. The species named, like some others, having little transparent pellicles containing pure liquid scattered over the leaves, giving them the appearance of being sprinkled over with ice, has procured for it the name it bears.

Most of these have brilliant red, yellow, or white flowers, with very few exceptions, opening only in the heat of the sunshine, whence they get the name given to them by botanists, which is derived from *mesembrya*, midday, and *anthemum*, a flower. In them the petals are numerous, as are also the stamens, and the leaves are somewhat boat-shaped. In one respect they present a phenomenon similar to that of the so-called Rose of Jericho: the fruit-capsules are tightly closed in dry weather, but they open naturally after rain. If thrown into water, and left till thoroughly soaked, an old capsule will open out its capillary valves, radiating from a centre like a star, and it will close them again when dry. The

process may be repeated several times without destroying this remarkable property.

Other genera belonging to same order.

Besides these Fig Marigolds, there are several genera belonging to the same order, distinguishable from these by having no petals; and nearly allied to them is the Prickly Pear, which has been naturalised at the Cape, but is not indigenous. The cottony spots on the leaves of this cover the insect, the dried body of which is the cochineal of commerce.

Other flowers more closely resembling the Aloe.

Returning from this digression, occasioned by the resemblance of flowers of some of the Crassulaceæ to those of the Aloe, to the consideration of flowers more closely resembling these, not only in general appearance, but in structure, we find that there are many such, and those of different genera, growing at the Cape. We can make mention only of a few. First amongst these, as one likely to be soon recognised by a British florist, we

The Tritomanthe.

may place the Tritomanthe, with densely spiked pendulous flowers of orange colour, on long erect flower-stems, springing from the centre of a number of keeled leaves, terminating in a bayonet-like three-cornered point. It is from this peculiarity it has received its name, which is composed of *treis*, three, and *temno*, to cut. It was originally called Tritonia; but this name having been given also to a genus of insect, the designation we have given has been substituted.

Veltheimia.

Somewhat similar to the Tritomanthe is the Veltheimia, with bright orange or red flowers on a flower-stalk springing from a nest of broad wavy leaves, and having the stamens included within the flower, while in the former they protrude beyond it. This flower is named after an amateur German botanist. There are three species of it; the green-leaved species, *V. viridifolia*, is that which is most commonly met with.

Lachenalia.

Not less striking is the *Lachenalia*, of which some five-and-twenty species have been introduced into Britain. The flowers are bright-coloured, yellow, purple, pink, or mottled, and the flower-stalk springs from two broad leaves at the root. The perianth consists of six erect pieces, united only at the base, while in those previously described it is only six-toothed. The name was given in honour of a Swiss gentleman, author of several tracts on medicine and on botany, published at Basle.

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Conformed to the same type as the Lachenalia is the Squill and the Hyacinth. The so-called Cape Squill, named by Sparmann *Scilla corymbosa*, by others *Hyacinthus corymbosa*, is a minute but bright-looking plant, very common near Sea Point on Table Bay, where, in the months of April and May, it may be found covering the ground with its blossoms.

Scilla corymbosa.

Nearly allied to these are the *Eriospermum* and the *Uropetalum*, with green, greenish, or whitish flowers, but the latter alone finds a place in the same sub-order. The name is given from *ura*, a tail, and *petalon*, a petal, in allusion to the manner in which the divisions of the flower are lengthened out. The name of the other is derived from *erion*, wool, and *spermum*, seed, and it is given in allusion to a cotton-like covering of the seed. They are curious little plants, with deformed or unusually shaped leaves.

Eriospermum and Uropetalum.

More nearly allied to them is the Ornithogalum, or Star of Bethlehem, one species of which, *O. Squilla*, yields the squill employed in medicine. Of these there are several species found at the Cape. Another species, called the Maagermann, is a striking object in some districts.

Ornithogalum.

More remarkable than these are the Massonia and the Eucomus, the former presenting a dense umbel of white or lilac-coloured flowers on a stalk proceeding from between two leaves lying flat on the ground; the latter green flowers ranged in a close spike proceeding from between two or more broad leaves, and having a crown of leaf-like bracts, under which the flowers appear.

Massonia, Eucomus, &c.

All of these belong to the same order, the Lilyworts, or Asphodelaceæ.

To the same order belongs the *Agapanthus*, or African Lily, with its umbel of blue lily-like flowers, one species of which is very common on the sides of Table Mountain. The name is from *agapao*, to love, and *anthos*, a flower—the flower beloved.

Agapanthus.

Another order of beautiful and attractive bulbous-rooted plants is the order of Amaryllids; but having indicated as we have done how plants may be distinguished, even when closely resembling each other in general appearance, we must satisfy ourselves with little more than naming some of the more common genera.

Amaryllids.

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Most striking amongst these are the Belladonna Lily and the Candelabra Flower, or Brunsvigea, which is common on the Cape Flats in the summer months. More exquisitely beautiful perhaps than these is the Guernsey Lily, which is indigenous on Table Mountain, where it may be found covering the rocks with its lovely blossoms in the month of March; and with it is associated through similarity of flower the *Crinum aquaticum*, a handsome lily, with large rose-coloured flowers; the Berg Lily, *Vallota purpurea*, with bright purple flowers; the *Cyrtanthus Smithii*, with large white flowers, each segment marked with a rose-coloured band, and other species with crimson and rose-coloured flowers; the *Strumaria* and the *Gethyllis*, or Kukumakranka, the flowers of which are white and delicate, withering soon when appearing on the hard dry road, without a leaf to protect it, these having previously appeared and withered, as is also often the case with the Hæmanthus, which appears not unfrequently like a painter's brush made of flowers springing out of the ground; the leaves are broad and flat.

Crinum aquaticum.

Vallota purpurea, &c.

It is to this order that the so-called American Aloe belongs.

Nearly allied to the order of Amaryllids are the orders of Hypoxids and Bloodroots, or Hæmadoraceæ. The latter are represented by the Paardekapock, *Lanaria plumosa*, growing in the Swellendam district, with a woolly stem and flowers, which are white and woolly on the outer surface and purple on the inner; the Wachendorfia, with tuberous roots, leafy, downy stem, and dull yellowish flowers; and the Dilatris, with downy or viscid flowers, and the juice red as blood.

Hypoxids and Hæmadoraceæ.

The *Hypoxis stellata* has lustrous white flowers, with a dark brown velvety centre, shaded with changeable tints of green. *Curculigo plicata*, belonging to the same order, abounds on dry hills, flowering in the winter months. The flowers are yellow, and spring immediately from the ground, what seems a flower-stalk being in reality the tube of the flower. In the same order has been placed the smallest of the South African bulbous plants, the *Pauridia hypoxidioides*, which abounds near Sea Point and Green Point and in some parts of the Camp Ground in the months of April and May.

The name is derived from *pauridios*, very small. It is a minute plant. CAPE COLONY

Different from these, and finding an alliance with the Lilyworts, are the Melanths. Of these, together with other genera of the plants included in the order, and several species of the same genera, there is the *Melanthium junceus*, a tall plant, with rush-like leaves and long spikes of white flowers; and the *Wurmbea purpurea*, very common about Groenekloof, and cultivated in gardens, a small plant, with simple leafy stems and spiked simple sessile dark purple-coloured flowers. Melanths.

But we have not yet got through the numerous Cape bulbs, which wait impatiently for a word of recognition, and by their beauty invite consideration. There are the Irids, including the Ixias, Watsonias, Gladioli, Tritonias, and Babianas, which are confined to 'no one district, soil, or elevation, but abound from one end of the colony to the other, covering the ground in the months of September and October with a sheet of blossoms that resembles nothing so much as a shower of gaudy butterflies.' Of these there are upwards of twenty genera; we shrink from attempting to distinguish them one from another, and all of them are so common that selection seems impossible. All have but three stamens and a three-celled ovary. The style is petal-like in the Iris, the Moræa, and the Vieusseuxia. It is multifid, and has the margin bordered with long, slender projections in the Galaxia and the Ferraria. It is trifid, but with the segments again subdivided or bifid in the Oveida, Anematheca, Trichonema, and Watsonia. It has the style simple trifid in the other genera, Witsenia, Hesperantha, Geissorrhiza, Sparaxis, Gladiolus, Tritonia, Babiana, Ixia, Diasia, Antholyza, Aristea, and Sisyrinchium. We feel as if it were like dissecting children who have charmed us with their beauty, their playfulness, and their love to speak only of such characteristics as these, but we cannot help ourselves. Irids.

Distinct and different from the Cape bulbs are the Orchids, but they have become associated with them in thought if not in scientific classification, and even in this they are not far dissevered. Of these, says Lindley, 'in the majority the structure is what Linnæus called Gynandrous; that is to say, the stamens, and style, and

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stigma are blended together into one solid body named a column; in two, however, of the natural orders of which the Orchidal alliance consists the stamens are perfectly free. If we neglect the conditions of the seeds, we then may find a variety of approaches to other orders, as, for example, to the Irids, in which Gladiolus seems an imitation of the structure of an Orchis, or to Sisyrinchium, to which some Orchids offer some analogy; or to the Hypoxids, of which other Orchids have much the same aspect. One of these orders, the Burmanniads, are remarkable also for their perfect symmetry among hundreds of species whose prevailing character is want of symmetry.'

Travers is the name by which many of the Orchids are known at the Cape. Amongst those most frequently met with in the vicinity of Table Mountain are the *Satyrium;* the Muttercap, *Disperis capensis;* the Pride of Table Mountain, *Disa grandiflora;* and the *Disa melaleuca.* There are at least five-and-twenty genera, and of these we know not how many species of South African Orchids, the more remarkable of which are found in the Eastern Province and towards Natal.

Burmanniads.

Of the Burmanniads there is said to be a representative at the Cape, *Burmannia capensis*, which is described as a nearly leafless plant, with three-flowered scapes, a three-winged corolla, and semicircular wings.

Associated by name with the Lilies is what is known as the Pig Lily, but known in Britain by the more dignified name of the Lily of the Nile. It belongs to the same order as the British plant called Lords and Ladies, *Arum maculatum.* It has been called an *Arum Calla Æthiopica* and *Zandedeschia Æthiopica*, but it now amongst botanists bears the name of *Reichardia.*

Arum maculatum.

The Strelitzia.

Another plant associated with the Lilies, but belonging to a different order, is the Strelitzia, with its flower of brilliant colours, shaped like the gaping bill of a bird, from which protrudes a tongue like a griffin's sting. Of this there are several species found in the districts of George and Swellendam, and some farther to the east. It belongs to the order of which the Plantain and the Banana are the type.

Cape Heaths.

But Cape bulbs are not the only flower-bearing plants associated by name with the Cape of Good Hope. Not

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less celebrated and admired are the Cape Heaths. Of these Heaths, which have a world-wide fame, Dr. Harvey writes: 'Of this beautiful genus between 300 and 400 species are described, the majority of them natives of South Africa, where, strange to say, they have no colonial name.' Equalling in beauty many which are tended with care in the greenhouse elsewhere, at the Cape they are admitted to be beautiful; but they are the heath of the desert, and though pre-eminent among their neighbours, they are equally with them flowers of the heath.

300 to 400 species.

Interspersed among other heath-plants are numerous Heliophilas, some of which are annuals, but many of them suffruticose perennials, all of them natives of South Africa exclusively. They belong to the order of Cruciferæ. The flowers are yellow, white, rosy, or sky-blue. Upwards of sixty species have been described by Dr. Sonder in 'Flora Capensis.' The name is compounded of *helios*, the sun, and *phileo*, to love. They grow in sunny places, and seem to luxuriate in the sunshine.

Still more numerous are the Pelargoniums and Geranium-like plants. Of these 174 species are described in the same work. All of them are beautiful. The only Dutch name we have heard given to them is *Turk's nagel*, or Turk's nails, and this seemed to be applied to different species indiscriminately.

Pelargoniums.

There are several species of flowering shrubs or suffruticose plants belonging to the order of Daphnads. Amongst others the Struthiola, with axillary white flowers, deliciously scented in the evening; the Gnidea, with glomerate flowers, yellow, pink, blue, or white, and sometimes scented like the Struthiola, and the Passerina, with pink, white, or greenish flowers, some species having them large and handsome, others having them appear only as insignificant blossoms.

Daphnads.

Associated with these, but belonging to a different order, of which each of them has been proposed as a type, are the Penea and the Sarcocolla, the former having flowers surrounded by coloured bracts, the latter bright pink flowers surrounded by bracts which often exude a gummy secretion.

The Penea and Sarcocolla.

And with these again may be associated the Buchu-yielding plants, including the Diosma, Barosma, Aga-

Buchu-yielding plants.

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thosma, and Adenandra, the last-mentioned showing large and handsome flowers.

Bruniads, &c.

The mention of these calls up reminiscences of the Bruniads, shrubs with minute, linear, heath-like imbricate leaves, spirally disposed, and small white flowers in dense globose heads. And these call up by association thoughts of the Silver Tree, *Leucadendron argenteum*, more remarkable for the silver-like hue of its leaves than the beauty of its flowers, but connected as a Protead with the Sugar Bush, *Protea melifera*, with its large and beautiful coloured flower, and other species of the same; and the Kreupelboom, *Leucospermum conocarpum*, with its yellow flowers; and the Kaffir Chesnut, *Brabeium stellatum*, with its axillary spikes of white sweet-scented flowers.

Erythrina Caffra or Kaffirboom.

Brought, thus, to speak of flower-bearing trees, it is impossible to avoid making mention of the Kaffirboom, *Erythrina Caffra*, with its splendid clusters of scarlet flowers; and this calls up a host of papilionaceous shrubs and suffruticose plants.

Prominent amongst these are the following:—Cyclopeas, with yellow flowers; Podalyrias, with purple flowers; Leparias, with yellow flowers; Indigofers, with flowers red, purple, and white; Sutherlandias, with scarlet flowers; Lessertias, with flowers purple, pink, or rosy-white in colour; Dolichos, with flowers purple or green; Virgilias, with purple flowers; Calpurnias, with yellow flowers; and Borbonias, Crotolarias, Psoralias, and a host of others.

Leguminoseæ.

Of leguminoseæ, or pod-bearing plants, there are in all upwards of eighty genera, and of some of these, from five-and-twenty to upwards of a hundred species are classified and described by Dr. Harvey, in 'Flora Capensis.' With these may be associated the Polygalas, or Milkworts, of which there are about forty species there classified and described; and belonging to the same order the Skildpad Besjes, *Mundtia spinosa*, and the Muraltias, of which there are between fifty and sixty species indigenous in South Africa.

Loranthus.

Rivalling the Kaffirboom in beauty, some would say surpassing it, are trees, some of them themselves unattractive, adorned with the parasitical Loranthus, with its bright-coloured flowers, yellow, orange, or scarlet.

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Of these eleven species grow at the Cape. The name is compounded of *lorum*, a lash of leather, and *anthos*, a flower. Belonging to the same order is the Mistletoe, of which there are ten species in South Africa, one of them, *Viscum capense*, not unlike the Mistletoe of Europe, *V. album*. The name *viscum* is derived from *viscus*, birdlime, which is prepared from the bark of the last-named species.

Helichrysum.

The so-called *Siebenjahriges*, or Cape Everlasting Flowers, are chiefly, but by no means exclusively, species of *Helichrysum*, which species are nearly a hundred and forty in number. The name, compounded of *helios*, the sun, and *chrysos*, gold, is one beautifully applicable to such species as *H. fulgens*, but they are of various colours, white, rosy, brown-coloured, or yellow. With them are associated a dozen species of Helipterum, which differs from them in having the pappus feathery, while in them it is bristle-shaped; the name is a contracted expression for a Helichrysum with a feathery pappus. And with both are associated species of the Gnaphalium and other genera of Compositæ. But they are not the only suffruticose representatives of the order.

Asters, &c.

All the Aster or daisy-like plants of Britain are herbaceous. Of these there are at the Cape upwards of a hundred and fifty genera, with species of some numbering from fifty to upwards of a hundred and eighty; many are suffruxes, bushes and arborescent shrubs. Such is the *Rhenoster bosch Elytropappus rhinocerotis*, covering extensive districts; and such is the *Osteospermum*, of which genus there are about forty species. Amongst shrubs there are species of *Othonna*, of which there are about sixty at the Cape.

Mallows and mallow-like plants.

Amongst the Mallows, Marsh Mallows, and mallow-like plants are several bearing beautiful flowers. The Hermannia and Mahernia are more lowly plants, but they also command attention, as does the *Phylica plumosa*, of which genus there are upwards of sixty species; and there are several other genera of the same order. The same may be said of the Shumach, or Rhus, of which there are fifty and more species, and the 'Wagt een Beetjie,' *Asparagus capensis*, of the Barringtonia, the Eugenia, and other representatives of the Myrtle Booms, while more beautiful flowers adorn the Buddleia, the

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Tecoma capensis, and the *Plumbago capensis*; and the *Selago*, the *Agathelpis*, and other genera of the Verbenes bring us back to the heath-plants, of which mention has already been made.

From the consideration of these it may be refreshing to return to some of the lowly flowering herbs, with which, from long acquaintance with them, we are more familiar.

The Oxalis, Anemone, Clematis, &c.

First amongst these may be classed the Oxalis, or wood-sorrel. Of these there are upwards of a hundred different species, all of them lowly but beautiful. They are called in the colony Sauren. The Anemone and the Buttercup have also their representatives at the Cape, and associated with them are the Brand blaaren, or Knowltonia, and the *Clematis*, or Traveller's Joy. The blue Water-lily, *Nymphæa stellata*, the Poppy, *Papaver aculeatum*, and the Fumitory, *Fumaria officinalis*, also all speak of Europe, as do not a few of the Cruciferæ, as the Watercress, *Nasturtium officinale*, the Stock, *Matthiola torulosa*, and many others, including the Shepherd's Purse, the Thale Cress, and Wild Mustard; but with them are associated upwards of sixty species of Heliophila, which have already been spoken of, casting most of them into shade by its brilliant hues.

The Daisy not found.

We meet not at the Cape with the daisy—or day's eye of England, the gowan of Scotland, the Marguerite of France—but we meet with a remembrancer of it in the *Cenia turbinata*, which is common throughout the colony; and we meet with a thousand species of the same order, the Compositæ, or aster-like plants.

The Aster is not wanting. Of this there are about fifty South African species; in most of them the disc is yellow, in some it is purple, and the rays are in different species blue, and pinkish, and white; and with these are numerous other genera closely resembling them in appearance.

Senecio Jacobæa, &c.

The Ragwort, *Senecio Jacobæa*, we meet not, but we meet with its brother the Groundsel, *S. vulgaris*, and upwards of a hundred and eighty species of the same genus. The Golden Samphire is represented by another species of the same plant, *Inula Africana*, and the Fleabane by *Pulicaria capensis*; another plant known

by the same name is represented by *Erigeron canadensis*, a native of North America, now established as a roadside weed in almost all temperate and hot climates, appearing occasionally as such in England, and found in the Eastern districts and at Natal; and the Ploughman's Spikenard, *Conyza squarrosa*, is represented by about ten species of that genera.

Chrysocoma, &c.

Goldilocks, designated by some *Chrysocoma linosyris*, is represented by nine species of South African *Chrysocoma*. The Bur Marigold, *Bidens cernua*, is represented by *B. pilosa*; the Feverfew is represented by eleven species of Matricaria, the Tansy by three species of Tanacetum, the Mugwort and Wormwood by *Artemisia Affra*. The Chrysanthemum, the Oxeye, and the Corn Marigold have also their representatives; the last-mentioned has already penetrated 'the bush' fifty miles beyond the Kei; *Chrysanthemum osmitoides* looks very like the Ox Eye Daisy, or Horse Gowan, and there are three other species of *Chrysanthemum*.

Cineraria, &c.

Of the Cineraria there are about twenty-four Cape species. The Cat's Ear is represented by *Hypochœris glabra*, the Lettuce by two species of *Lactuca*, the Dandelion by *Taraxacum fulvipilis*; the Sow-thistle appears in South Africa, as in Britain, and with it four other species of Sonchus; and of the Hawkweed two species of *Hieraceum* grow at the Cape.

Cape Compositæ.

But in making mention of these representatives of British Compositæ we have not given the names of an eighth of the genera of South African plants belonging to that order. There are in all a hundred and fifty-four genera of Cape Compositæ, and of these there are a thousand different species! But unhappily for the colony there are amongst them the *Xanthium spinosum*, which has been the scourge of many districts.

The Xanthium spinosum.

Violet, Snowdrop, and other English flowers.

The Violet, the Snowdrop, and the Vetch, the St. John's Wort, the Pink, the Catchfly, the Corn Cockle, the Starwort, the Chickweed, the Spurrey, the Silver Weed, the Avens, the Agrimony, the Ladies' Mantle, the Salad Burnet, the Evening Primrose, and the Loose Strife, all find representatives in the same or other species of the genera to which they severally belong, some of them associated with more gaily-coloured

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flowers of the same orders. Umbelliferous plants are also well represented; there are of these nearly four hundred species.

Umbelliferous plants.

Lobelia, &c.

Of the Lobelia there are upwards of five-and-twenty species, and about forty species of plants which have by one botanist and another been described as species of the Harebell and Canterbury Bell, but which subsequent examination has led to their being classified otherwise. The Gentian is represented by the *Chironia* and *Sebæa*; and the Convolvulus has many allied genera.

Heliotrope, &c.

Of the Heliotrope, or Cherry-pie, there are three or four wild species, and with them a good many plants of the same order, representing the Gromwell, the Alkanet, the Forget-me-not, the Hound's Tongue, and the Viper's Bugloss. The Nightshade, the Stramonium, the Dodder, the Germander Speedwell, and other species of Veronica and the Toadflax are all represented, there being associated with these last many genera of the Figworts, including the beautiful Nycterinia.

Labiate plants, &c.

Of the Labiate plants, besides genera peculiar to South Africa, there are representatives of the Mint, the Sage, the Horehound, the Water Horehound, the Motherwort, the Woundwort, the Hemp Nettle, the Bugle, and the Wood Germander.

Of Figworts there are two hundred and fifty species, of Labiate plants a hundred, of Borageworts eighty.

The Pimpernel, or Shepherd's Weather-glass, is also found at the Cape; and species of the genus to which the Sea Pink belongs, the purple corollas of which soon fall, but the coloured calyces remaining, they supply a desirable addition to the nosegay of everlasting flowers. The Marvel of Peru is represented by the Boerhavia; the Love-lies-bleeding is not without its representatives in several species of *Amaranthus*, and the Coxscomb in *Celosia odorata*, while the Periwinkle flourishes luxuriantly. But these European plants, and even their South African representatives, are lost in the multitude of other floral beauties.

Indigenous Grasses and Pasture Herbs.

Their importance.

The important position taken by wool among the exports of South Africa attaches a corresponding import-

ance to the indigenous grasses and pasture herbs upon which the sheep feed.

No one can be long at the Cape, if he takes an interest in farms, without hearing of Sweet Veldt and Sour Veldt and Mixed Veldt. He will hear also of Karroo ground, but it is the former which have their principal characteristics in the grasses and grass-like sedge-plants which they bear.

In the appendix to the 'Report of the Colonial Botanist' for 1864 are three several papers on grasses and herbage found on the sour and the sweet and the mixed Veldts and the Karroo, on pasture herbs and grasses of the districts of Albert and Queenstown, and on grasses adapted to arrest drifting sand; with a fourth on the question whether good or evil preponderates in the results obtained by burning the Veldt, embodying an illustration of the improbability of the pastoral condition of the colony being perpetuated by the practice; and a fifth on the agricultural capabilities of the sour, the sweet, and the mixed Veldts and the Karroo; and on the employment of irrigation, arboriculture, agricultural machinery, and manure, as means of developing these capabilities. And in the appendix to the 'Report of the Colonial Botanist' for 1865 are three letters on the arrest of drifting sands, and on planting the same with trees.

Sweet and Sour Veldt.

It may be stated generally that the terms sweet and sour are applied somewhat vaguely. According to a statement made by some, all that is not sour is sweet, and wherever the cattle seek bones to chew it is sour. From observations made by others it appears that, in general, ground bearing sedges and plants which grow on soil which bear sedges is sour, while ground bearing grasses and plants which grow more luxuriantly on a soil which bears grass is sweet; the Karroo, indicated by the bushes and herbage, rather than by the grasses, which it bears, suggests by its appearance that it may have been a lacustrine deposit.

Grasses.

The South African grasses may not equal the Cape bulbs in brightness and variety of colouring, but many of them are their compeers in elegance of form. Of grasses indigenous to South Africa there are about sixty genera, with from one to twenty species of each. And

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there are more than half that number of genera, with a corresponding diversity of species, of Cyperaceæ or sedge-like plants, distinguishable from the true grasses by having the stems of many angular, while the stems of grasses are cylindrical, and by having the leaves with their sheaths entire, while the grasses have theirs split.

Amongst the grasses which frequently meet the eye of a stranger is the *Stipa Capensis*, a species of Feather grass; *Briza major*, the largest form of the Quaking grass, Shakles, or Fairflax, which, though a native of the South of Europe, is completely naturalised and now universally diffused throughout the colony; *Chloris compressa*, a pretty little grass, with four or five beautiful one-sided spikes of silky flowers growing out horizontally in different directions from the top of the stalk. But the grasses most pleasing to the eye are not always the best for pasture.

Pasture Grasses.

Among the pasture grasses which have been brought under the notice of the writer are the following: Roodezaad gras, *Tristachia leucothrix*, known also as *Monopogon sporobulus*; Lange blaauw gras, *Leucothrix Capensis*; Breede blaauw gras, *Eragrostis cærulea*; Kruis gras, one of the Panic grasses, *Panicum commutatum*; Haas gras, apparently *Aira carophylla*, the silvery hair-grass; Schaap gras, *Lappago occidentalis*; Akervanie, *Andropogon Iwaracanusa*, the creeping fibrous roots of which have a peculiar fragrance, and are known to most of the colonists as a preventive against the destruction of wearing apparel, &c., by moths and other insects; Mugge gras, or Gnat grass, *Adenogramma galioidis*.

Besides these, in a communication made to the writer in relation to grasses found on the Zuurveldt, mention was made of one which, from the description given, seemed to be either *Triticum repens*, Couch grass, or *Agrostis stolonofera*, Bent grass, *Fiorin*, or Quick, or possibly *A. vulgaris*, true Bent grass,—and of what was called the Wild oat, probably an *Avena*, of which six South African species are described, so that this may be indigenous, while it is probable that the other may have been introduced.

Specimens of the Sour copper wire grass, *Erianthos argenteum*, were also sent.

But none of these are spoken of as good pasture

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grasses, and the following have been sent as specimens of grasses which are altogether worthless as pasture: Stink gras, *Andropogon;* Trunk gras, *Melica dendroides.*

Of indigenous grasses which may be usefully employed to arrest drifting sands none are better than the Pyp gras, *Ehrhartia gigantea.*

Other grasses which are more or less spoken of in the colony are the Berg gras, the Naaea, the Kruppel or Krukel gras, and the Gar, the Tua, or Twa gras, but of these the writer has not seen specimens to enable him to identify them.

Bromus.

Attention has been called of late to the adaptation of the *Bromus unioloides* to the soil and climate of South Africa. The writer obtained some seeds from Baron von Mueller, Government Botanist at Melbourne, which he sent to Mrs. Barber, who afterwards wrote: 'The grass-seed that was sent from Australia, *Bromus unioloides,* has turned out to be the same *Bromus* that we have here. It grows upon nearly every homestead on the frontier, but it is not indigenous, so it must have found its way to this country from Australia a good many years ago. We have often wondered where it came from. It is a most useful and valuable grass, but it does not thrive in the "velt," but round about our homesteads, where the soil is rich, and in the neighbourhood of cultivation.'

Amongst the herbs, bushes, and shrubs found on the Zuurveldt are the Kanna bush, *Caroxylon salsola*; Bestje, described as a grass-like rush, very tough, and of no use as fodder; Sieben jahriges, or everlasting flowers, *Helichrysum*; Zuurknollen; Wagenboom, *Protea grandiflora*; Kreupelboom, *Leucospermum conocarpum;* and occasionally a dwarf acacia.

Among the pasture herbs of the Karoo is—and it is the predominent plant—the Schaap bush, one of the Compositæ; but the portion sent was insufficient to enable one to determine the genus; another is the Ganna. With specimens of these there have been sent specimens of the Kleine brak bosche, Karee bosche, Dagga bosche, Roode opslag—apparently either a *Hermannia* or a *Mahernia*—and the T'nante, from eating of which when the seed-pods are on the plant numbers of goats and kids die. It is the *Lessertia annularis.*

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The Magow.

Another plant poisonous to cattle but eaten by them is the Magow, or Makouw, a shrub or bush growing in the country south of the Victoria Falls, between Tsamasètchu and Motlomoganyani. It is said to be fatal to oxen, but harmless to some other cattle. It is more probable that at certain seasons it is eaten by oxen with poisonous effect, and that at other times it is not eaten, or eaten sparingly, and, it may be, along with counteracting food. It grows in the valleys characteristic of the district and in depressions of the surface underneath which water is retained at a little depth. It is the dread of travellers in those parts in spring. At this season the Bushmen are in the habit of firing the grass, that the new herbage may attract the game. This plant is the first to spring up, and it attains its growth before the grass is long enough to be grazed by cattle, and then it is eaten by cattle for want of better food. But when the grass has grown the danger is past, as then the cattle eat only the grass, eschewing the Magow.

There has also been sent a specimen of pasture herb which, though not poisonous, is said to be worthless. It is the Wilde rooi gras; this, though grass-like and called a grass, is a Trefoil or Clover, *Trifolium angustifolium*, the narrow-leaved trefoil. Its appearance may readily lead to its being mistaken for a grass, but the leaflets, though elongated and grass-like, will be found upon examination to constitute a trifoliate leaf, while its reddish flower is not like that of the grasses, nor its fruit like that which is seen on them.

South African Plants remarkable for their Appearance and Structure.

Not a few of the plants of South Africa have arrested the attention of the curious, and commanded the attention of scientific students of the vegetable kingdom by the singularity of their general appearance or of something connected with them, though there was nothing attractive either in the colouring and shape of their flowers or in the flavour of their fruit.

Thus is it with some which may be described generally as cactus-like plants. What are frequently mistaken in

the colony for cacti belong to a very different order. They are Euphorbiæ, or Spurge-plants, and they may be known at once by puncturing or scratching the skin, when a white milk-like juice will appear, which is not the case with the cactus; and while the flower of the cactus is like that of the prickly pear, the flower of this is almost inconspicuous and peculiar. The sap of the Euphorbiæ may be utilised as a substitute for indiarubber in making waterproof cloth, and in insulating electric conductors. It has been employed in the manufacture of gas for lighting houses, and it may yet be extensively used in the manufacture of ebonite, vulcanite, and other materials now obtained from vulcanising indiarubber.

Euphorbiæ.

Not unlike in appearance to some of the species of Euphorbiæ, or Spurge-plants, known in the colony as Melkboshes, is the Stapelia, or Carrion flower. Of these there are upwards of seventy species found in the colony of the Cape. They are succulent and cactus-like, but they bear near the root a star-shaped, lurid-coloured, and sometimes offensively-scented flower, from which latter circumstance it has received in some parts of the colony a characteristic designation, as elsewhere it is known as the Carrion flower.

The Carrion Flower.

But the smell of the Carrion flower is by no means so offensive as that of some of those allied to the Jackal's kost. These are all parasitical, leafless, or scaly fleshy plants, with large flowers and scarcely any stems. The Jackal's kost, called by the Hottentots *Kauimp*, is known to botanists as *Aphyteia Hydora*. It grows parasitically on the roots of one of the succulent Euphorbiæ, in the Bokkeveld, Hantam, near Hex River, and in some other places in which it was found by Thunberg. It has also been found near Worcester; and it was found on a species of Navelwort, *Cotyledon orbiculata*, by Mundt. According to the description given by Dr. Harvey, the stem is about three-quarters of an inch in diameter, simple or once or twice divided, the greater part under ground; the flower is from four to six inches long, externally of a dull brown, areolated irregularly—the segments internally of a fine rose red, which is also the colour of the flesh, and which fades first to a deep blood colour, and finally a reddish brown. The smell is very

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strong, and something resembling that of decayed roast beef, or of some of the fungi.

Tirucalli.

Dr. Pappe mentions that the Euphorbia on which it is found is *E. Tirucalli*, and that it was at first mistaken by Thunberg for a fungus. It bears a fruit which has the form, size, and taste of a potato—this, like that of the earthnut, is subterraneous. He speaks of it as being of a reddish-brown tint—very mealy, and when roasted under embers very palatable. Some animals, and more especially the porcupine, are fond of it. Similar in some respects to this is the *Hypolepis sanguinea*, found near Capetown and Wynberg, *Sarcophyte sanguinea*, as it was named by Sparmann, the *Ichthyosma Weinmannii*, as it was named by Schleidery and the *Mystropetalon*, a plant found at Hoouw Hoek Pass, and at the Caledon baths.

Sarcophyte.

The Sarcophyte grows parasitically on the roots of the Essenhout, *Eckbergia Capensis*, and on a species of Acacia, *Acacia Caffra*, in the district of Albany and Uitenhage. It is described as a much-branched fleshy plant, with innumerable minute flowers; the stem is from nine to ten inches high, one inch or more in diameter, and dull flesh-colour or reddish. The stameniferous flowers and the pistiliferous grow on different plants; the former are purplish in colour; the concrete fruit resembles a mulberry.

The other name given to it, *Ichthyosma*, is given from its smelling strongly of fish.

The Mystropetalon belongs to the same order as this plant, which the Jackal's kost and the Hypolepis do not —the order of Balanophora-like plants—and by Ecklon and Zeyher it was described as Balanophora Capensis; the others belong to the order of Cistusrapes. It also is a parasite. The stem is described as simple, fleshy, densely imbricated with linear spatula-like scales, and ending in a dense spike of flowers. Pistiliferous flowers grow on the lower portion of the spike, stameniferous on the upper; there are three bracts under each flower: one anterior and two lateral. The name is compounded of *mystron*, a spoon, and *petalon*, a petal, and is given in reference to the segments of the flower being spoon-shaped.

There are two species, *M. Polemanni*, Harv., found at

Hoouw Hoek, in which the anterior bract is spatula-shaped, and the pistiliferous flowers tubular; and *M. Thomii*, Harv., found at the Caledon baths, in which that bract is broadly oblong, and the pistiliferous flower subglobose. The flower has the stem about six inches high and three-quarters of an inch in diameter; the bracts are orange-coloured; the anterior one is densely bearded; the flowers are of a deep carmine colour. The latter has a stem from six to eight inches high, and from half to one inch in diameter. The anterior bract is of nearly equal breadth throughout, and is bearded only at the apex and along the prominent keel; it also is of an orange-colour; the flowers are of a dark brownish or dull red.

Melkbosch.

While the designation *Melkbosch* is given to the Euphorbiaceæ, or Spurge-plants, it is applied to any plant having a milk-like sap, amongst which are many belonging to the same order as the Stapelia, or Carrion flower. About thirty genera of these are to be found at the Cape, and of many of them there are several species; amongst others are the *Baviaanstouw*, or Monkey-rope, the Tondelboom, the Gomphocarpus, and the beautiful climbing Microloma,—all of them interesting to the observer of unusual forms.

The Elephant's Trunk.

Still more remarkable for its appearance is the Elephant's Trunk, found in Namaqualand, the *Adenium Namaquanum*, and some similar-looking plants found farther to the North. The Bushman name of this plant is *Hurip*, preceded by a click.

The Elephant's Foot.

A curious-looking plant met with much more frequently than the Elephant's Trunk is the Elephant's Foot, which is also called Hottentot's Bread, *Testudinaria Elephantipes*. It belongs to the same order as the Yam. There are more than one species of it found in the eastern parts of the colony. They may be found, according to their age and species, varying in size from that of the bottom of a wineglass to that of a chair, succulent, tuberous, excrescent-like, perennial growths, divided into compartments like the back of a tortoise, whence the plant has received its generic name of *Testudinaria*. In general it lies an inert and apparently lifeless mass, but annually it shoots forth twining and trailing slender branches, which are much divided, and bear the leaves and flowers.

In this, as in the herb Paris, *Paris quadrifolia*, and some other plants, we find reticulated leaves on a monocotyledonous, endogenous plant, manifesting in combination characteristics of very different classes of plants.

The Tumboa.

The mention of the Elephant's foot suggests the propriety of making mention of the Tumboa, or *Welwitschia mirabilis*, found in the vicinity of Walfish Bay, which looks like two fat hams placed side by side, with a long green streamer stuck into each, and a bunch of red-coloured small pine-cones stuck in between them, combining in itself peculiar characteristics of several plants which are widely separated in scientific classifications of these. A scientific description of the plant by Dr. Hooker is given in the 'Transactions of the Linnean Society,' vol. xxiv. A more popular account of it is appended to the 'Report of the Colonial Botanist' for 1864.

Fruits of remarkable shapes.

In addition to these, a class of plants, remarkable more for the shape of their fruit than for aught else connected with them, may be mentioned; one of these is the Grapple plant, *Uncaria procumbens*. Another is the *Martynia*, an annual, with hairy stems and leaves, and large flowers, with a very offensive odour, and long curved horns proceeding from the capsule, by which it may at once be known. In the Grapple plant, which belongs to the same order with this—the Bignoniads, or Bignoniaceæ—the capsular fruit is like two crabs joined back to back, with hooked claws projecting from the lower surface of each, ready to catch hold of whatever may come against them. They are hard and dry, measuring about two inches across; and woe betide the ox whose lip or tongue may happen to be caught by one of its hooks.

Thorn and prickle plants.

Hooks, thorns, and prickles may be considered to be characteristic of numerous South African plants. A stranger caught by the prickles of the Asparagus soon learns the import of its name, *Wagt een beetji*—wait a-wee—for before he has disentangled himself from these he has been caught by others, and he must wait a little before he can get away; and the ox-horn-like prickles of the Doornboom will tell him that the tales he hears of thickets through which even horses cannot pass are not altogether incredible. The colonists speak not only of the Doornboom, but of the Haaken Doorn, and of the

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Haak en steek Doorn, having both hooked and straight thorns; and Dr. Kirk is said to have playfully classified the thorns seen by him as those which scratch the skin, those which tear the flesh, those which tear the clothes, and those which tear both clothes and flesh.

There is one of these, called the Sickle thorn, of which it is told that it bears a leaf like that of the acacia, but it grows like the briar, sending out from the root or stem long runners or shoots to the height of upwards of two feet, and are armed with enormous thorns, which wherever they catch make a fearful cut. Cattle driven over it come out covered with blood about the nose, and after a little experience neither lash nor shout will induce them to face it. The skin of neither ox nor horse is proof against it; and, cutting to the quick, it will bring up short in a moment a horse engaged in the elephant hunt, causing the hapless rider to fly over its head.

Tree Ferns.

Tree-ferns may also claim some notice here. Of these there are two South African genera, the Cyathea and the Alsophila. The former may be recognised by the sori being at the forking of the veins of the frond, and completely covered; the latter by their being at the base of the veins, and the spor cases are compressed in such a way that the ring is obliquely vertical.

Monkey Bread.

The very great girth of the trunk of the Baobab or Monkey bread, *Adansonia digitata*, makes it more remarkable than does its fruit. It has frequently been seen ninety feet in circumference. The writer has the measurement of one which, the trunk alone, was upwards of 150 feet in circumference, giving an average diameter of fifty feet, though not perfectly round.

The Kaffir brod.

Mention may be made also of the Kaffir brod, the *Encephalartos* or *Zamia*, one of the Cycads; of a species of date, *Phœnix inclinata*, one of the palms; of the Mangrove, *Rhizophora mucronata*, found on the sea-shore near Port Natal; and of the allied tree, *Bruguiera gymnorhiza*, found in the same region.

The Mangrove having been mentioned, this suggests that reference may be made in the same connection to the Screwpine, which is also found in the interior.

The *Kushé* is a large tree, with a smooth dark grey-coloured bark, and dark-coloured oblong leaves; but the

most remarkable characteristic of the tree is a reservoir of water in the heart of the trunk of many.

Tree with trunk reservoir.

Mr. Chapman first saw this tree when he and his company were suffering from thirst. Observing one of his native servants placing forked boughs against a tree and preparing to climb, he asked what he was going to do. 'Look for water,' was the reply. The man having mounted, cried 'Here it is.' The hard wood had decayed, leaving a very deep hole, which was almost closed at the top apparently by the spreading arch of subsequently formed bark. The water filling the well, probably from rain, was thus protected against loss by evaporation. One of the companions of the man cutting then a twig or shoot from the root, cut through the bark of this at two places two feet or thirty inches apart, treated this as boys in Europe treat branches of alder, of which they wish to make whistles, beat and pressed it; and drawing out the wood like drawing a sword from its sheath, he handed up the bark to the man aloft, who, using this as a suction-pipe, soon quenched his thirst, and made way for the others in succession to do the same.

Frequently did Mr. Chapman while travelling avail himself of the supply of water thus retained.

Between the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi and Daka these trees are found in clusters, sometimes ten feet in circumference, and of a much greater height than the other trees of the forest-country around. They generally grow in clumps, in the higher portions of the country.

Fruit pods.

Mention may be made of the Mashashangama, and the Mporotla or Peopisa, remarkable for their fruits. The fruit of the former is a pod, three feet long, containing large broad beans, placed transversely and close together; and not a few other trees remarkable for their pods—square, broad, wood-like in texture—might be mentioned. The capsules of the Mporotla are like long pods—but like with a difference—and they give a singular appearance to the tree, hanging from the branches like so many cucumbers or sausages, or immense dip-candles, three feet in length.

Natural History, Sport, &c.

Vast extent of the subject.

It would require a separate treatise to do anything like justice to this part of our subject, and the very extent of the materials at our disposal will necessitate a somewhat cursory treatment.

In no other part of the world are the larger *mammalia* so abundant; and although, with advancing civilization, the more conspicuous of the wild animals have retreated farther and farther from the southern extremity of the continent, their traces are still to be met with in various parts of the Colony, and what has been called the world's great hunting-ground is sufficiently near its borders to give special interest to the subject. Mr. Hall, to whom we are mainly indebted for the information given under this head, says:—

Distribution of animal life.

'In the beginning of the eighteenth century, the elephant and the rhinoceros browsed on the proteas and heaths which clothed the skirts of Table Mountain; the lion crouched in the reeds of the Liesbeek, and the hippopotamus gambolled in the waters of the Salt River. The hyæna, within the memory of many living, served as a nightly scavenger to our streets, and a resurrectionist to our churchyards; while troops of baboons levied black mail on the vineyards of Table Valley. The splendid blaauwbok, or roan antelope, was found on the hill-sides of Swellendam; the blesbok and quagga grazed on the downs of Caledon; whilst the rude pictures in the Bushmen's caves of Graaf-Reynet, Albany, and Queen's Town show that the giraffe, at no very distant period, was well known to the then savage inhabitants of the Sneeuwberg, the Winterberg, and the Stormberg. All these animals have since retreated far, far away, and, with the exception of the hyæna tribe, the smaller antelopes, and a few ostriches, are rarely to be found within the Colonial boundary. All the larger mammalia are rapidly receding before the march of civilization, the hyæna, jackal, and wild dog alone keeping their ground, and prowling as actively as ever, in the character of ovicides, on our thinly inhabited sheep-farms, or making

the night re-echo with their howls while growling over the garbage cast on the dunghills of a frontier outpost.'

The Lion.

The Lion (*Felis leo*, Linn.).—Times are changed since the early Dutch settlers at the Cape wrote in their journal —'It appeared, this night, as if the lions would take the fort by storm.' The lion-hunter must go far afield for his prey; some few years ago he might still be met with in Bushmanland, lying north of the Beaufort division, and in the most eastern portions of the divisions of Queen's Town and Albert, and, very occasionally, in British Kaffraria, in the Free State, and in thinly settled parts of Natal, the Transvaal Republic, Great Namaqualand, and Bechouanaland. At that time the Bontebok flats, north of the Amatola mountains, now forming part of the Queen's Town division, was a famous hunting ground for lions, and many a grizzly male has fallen there a victim to the rifles of the frontier Nimrods. Such 'big game' are, however, no longer to be met with in these localities. Recent hunters have noticed a curious change produced in the habit of the lion on the borders of civilization. In the far interior, where he roams free and unmolested, his loud roar is heard at nightfall and in the early morning reverberating among the hills; but when guns are plenty, and the constant passing of traders' waggons has disturbed the quiet of his accustomed haunts, he seems to have learned the lesson that safety lies in silence. Though his footprint may frequently be seen near the fountains at Lokaron or Boatlanama, and he will sometimes even venture to carry away an ox from a waggon-span, he rarely or never makes his presence known by his roar, which would only have the effect of frightening off the few timid antelopes upon which all hope of replenishing his larder may depend, or of betraying his whereabouts to his inveterate enemy and persecutor—man.

The Elephant.

The Elephant (*Elephas Africanus*, Blum.).—The African elephant, strange to say (writes Mr. Hall), was never seen in Europe from the time of the Roman Empire until A.D. 1856, but in that year a young one was received into the Jardin des Plantes, in Paris, from Central Africa. When the Dutch first formed this settlement on the shores of Table Bay, elephants abounded in the immediate neighbourhood; and the numerous hills, rivers, and fountains bearing their name throughout the

Colony show how universally they were distributed. Now, however, they are almost extinct in the Cape Colony, and only a few exist in the dense forests lying east of the Knysna and Plettenberg's Bay, and also in the rugged jungles of the Addo bush, between the Zuurberg Mountains and the Sunday River. Traces of their old paths, and heaps of their gigantic bones, are still commonly found in the thickets of the Great Fish River bush. A writer in the 'Cape Monthly Magazine,' in some interesting notes on natural history in South Africa, speaks of the various species of mimosa as forming the favourite food of the elephant, particularly the *Acacia horrida*, flourishing on the damp grounds bordering the rivers. The manner in which they obtain the bark for mastication leads to an observation upon one mode in which the elephant uses his tusks for his own requirement not previously recorded. An examination of the stems of trees that have been deprived of their bark shows them to be scored by deep furrows, made by the elephant stabbing with his tusks against the tree, and then ripping up the bark as high as he can reach. By this proceeding his food hangs in long ribbons, which he quietly munches at his leisure; and the loose ends of the portion left dangling from the skin, being reduced to the condition of tow, are evidence of the patient mastication by which the juices and nutritious matter have been extracted.

Curious habit.

The Rhinoceros (*Rhenoster* of Dutch colonists).— There are still a great many in the north-eastern part of Great Namaqualand, the northern part of the Kalihari and Bechouanaland, and the country along the Limpopo, and they must at one time have been very numerous in the colony. There are certainly three and possibly four distinct species—(1) The *Rhinoceros bicornis* (Linn.), the common black rhinoceros, with two horns of unequal length, once roaming in the immediate vicinity of Cape Town; (2) the *Rhinoceros keitloa* (A. Smith), or black rhinoceros, with two horns of nearly equal length; (3) the *Rhinoceros simus* (Burchell), or common white rhinoceros; and (4?) the *Rhinoceros Oswellii* (Gray), perhaps a second species of white rhinoceros. The two black rhinoceroses browse upon shrubs and dwarf trees while the white species is a grazing animal.

The Rhinoceros.

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The Hippopotamus.

The Hippopotamus (*H. amphibius*, Linn.) is still numerous in all the rivers which intersect the seacoast of Kaffraria, from the Keiskamma to the Zambesi, although probably the march of civilization in British Kaffraria has disturbed them in the waters of that region. Five-and-twenty years ago they were numerous in the Great Fish River, and a few may still be found there. They are more numerous in the lower part of the Orange River, and are said to abound in vast numbers in the Leambye, Chobe, Tonka, and other rivers of the Ngami region.

The Buffalo.

The Buffalo (*Bubalus caffer*, Sparrm.) is no longer to be found within the Colonial boundary, except, perhaps, in the great forest of the Knysna, the Addo bush, and the Fish River thicket. It is seldom seen upon the open plain, but prefers a woody and bushy country, such as the thickets of Damaraland or the wooded hills of the Limpopo and its tributaries.

The Giraffe.

The Giraffe (*Camelopardalis Giraffa*, Gmel.) has long since retired before the tide of Colonial emigration, and is not to be met with south of Kolobeng. A tradition exists among the Hottentots that it was once very numerous in the Amaebi, or Thorn Country, now part of the division of Queen's Town, and its form may be seen deposited in many of the Bushman caves on the eastern frontier. The giraffes brought to Europe come generally from Nubia and Sennaar.

The Cape Leopard.

The Cape Leopard (*Felis pardus*, Linn.) is found throughout the whole length and breadth of Africa, from the Atlas to Cape Agulhas, and occasionally visits even the immediate neighbourhood of Cape Town. Leopards generally haunt deep-wooded ravines and thickets, and climb trees with great facility. They are, therefore, not often seen on the naked flats and karroos of the interior. Young baboons are stated to be a favourite repast of theirs. When wounded they are very dangerous to approach.

Many other of the smaller species of the genus 'felis' are also common in South Africa.

The Cheetah or Hunting Leopard (*Guepарda jubata*, Schreb.) is also found in South Africa, but is not a common species in any known district.

Hyænas do not recede much at the advance of civili-

The Hyænas.

zation, but continue to hang on the outskirts of the cattle-kraals and sheep-farms. This gives to them more practical importance in the eyes of the colonist than that attaching to larger and more formidable wild beasts. Within the Colony both the brown and spotted hyænas come under the general denomination of '*wolf*,' which by their savage greed has become a synonymous term for rapacity and destructiveness. Nevertheless, they are cowardly brutes, and manifest an instinctive dread of man. On bright moonlight nights it is a favourite amusement (and a very useful one) to pick them off as they come prowling in the neighbourhood of the sheep and cattle. The writer in the 'Cape Monthly Magazine' before referred to describes night ambuscades with the relish of a keen sportsman, and adds a horrible detail. 'We also proved the cannibal propensity of the beast, as a hyæna that may have been shot in the evening was sure to be devoured by his companions before morning; and, from our beds, arranged along the camp-fire, we might hear the wretches holding horrible carnival over the dead body of their comrade, laughing the while their discordant laugh with demoniacal glee.' In wet and cold weather they grow very ferocious, and even venture into native huts and carry off young children. At night travellers on horseback, or in bullock-waggons, sometimes become aware of these animals quietly following them to avail themselves of any accident for a meal. There are two South African species, viz. the *Hyæna crocuta* (Erxl.) or tiger-wolf of the colonists; and the *Hyæna brunnea* (Thunb.), or strand-wolf, resembles in appearance a small hyæna, but actually presents characters which indicate a relationship to the dogs and *viverræ*.

Another very remarkable animal is the Cape Hunting Dog (*Lycaon pictus*, Temm.), the *Hyæna venatica* of Burchell, which combines to a great extent the structure of the dog and hyæna.

The aard-wolf (*Proteles cristatus*, Sparrm.) is peculiar to the Cape. It is said, and if true it is a somewhat singular fact in corroboration of the received classification, that the common domestic dog seems to have an instinctive recognition of the affinity, and acknowledges the relationship science has established between him and

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his wild congener. Accompanying the waggons of hunting parties, there is generally a miscellaneous collection of dogs, kept for the purpose of running down or bringing to bay wounded game; and when these are hounded on to chase the 'Wilde Hond' (*L. pictus*), the encounter is alleged to terminate in a friendly and brotherly *reconnaissance*, and after putting mutual interrogations, by means of their olfactory senses, they separate with an air of its being quite a mistake, and without the faintest demonstration of hostilities, though the same dogs evince the greatest animosity towards the common hyæna.

Cousinly greetings.

Jackals.

Jackals (*Canis mesomelas*, Schreb.) are found universally dispersed over the whole of South Africa, acting as useful scavengers, and as convenient game for Colonial sportsmen, especially in the neighbourhood of Cape Town.

The Quagga and Zebras.

Quagga and Zebras.—The quagga and zebras (*wilde paard* of the colonist) belong to the genus *Equus*, and are found in immense herds on the plains of the Vaal River, and as far south, sometimes, as the divisions of Cradock and Graaff-Reinet. There are two distinct species of zebra, of which one (*E. Zebra*, Linn.) inhabits mountainous regions only, while the other (*E. Burchellii*, Gray), like the Quagga (*E. Quagga*, Linn.), is found on open plains. These animals were formerly numerous on the eastern frontier, on the Quagga Flat near Bushman River, and in the neighbourhood of Bathurst, in Lower Albany.

The Antelopes.

Antelopes.—In no other part of the world are so many varieties of the antelope family found as in South Africa, from the stately black-buck down to the diminutive blaauwbok, or pigmy antelope. Not less than twenty-seven species, many of which, however, are found in other parts of the continent, are reckoned south of 20° of south latitude. Of these the largest are the eland (*Boselaphus Oreas*, Pall.), not now found within the limits of Cape Colony, but still met with in the western parts of Natal, and more plentiful in the Zulu country, the Transvaal territory, the Kalihari, Bechouanaland, and the Ngami regions. It was once very common in every part of the Cape Colony, as the numerous localities called by its name testify. The eland together with the koodoo, gemsbok, and springbok, are antelopes

Twenty-seven species reckoned south of 20°.

which can exist almost without water, as long as there is any sap in the herbage. The koodoo (*Strepsiceros Kudu*, Gray) is a noble antelope with magnificent spiral horns. It was found in small numbers, as late as 1848, in the thickets of the Fish River bush, but, we believe, has been since quite extirpated in the Cape Colony, except a few, perhaps, in the Zitzikamma forest. They are found generally, more or less numerous, in all the wooded or bushy regions north of the Orange River, and in the difficult country between the Umzimvoobo and Natal. The sable antelope (*Ægocerus niger*, Harris), first described by Captain Harris, is a very beautiful and rare species, not met with until we reach the banks of the Limpopo, 200 miles north of Kolobeng, and forms one of the greatest prizes a sportsman can secure, even in that region so prolific of game. The roan antelope (*Æ. leucophœus*, Pall.) is also becoming very scarce. A few are still found in Moshesh's country, among the rocks of the Maluti, and from thence along the mountains to the Limpopo regions; it is also called the bastard gemsbok. The pallah (*Æpyceros melampus*, Licht.) is found in Bechouanaland and on the eastern edge of the Kalihari, but seldom south of the Vaal River. It extends, however, west as far as Damaraland. It is also called the roodebok. The steinbok (*C. tragulus*), grysbok (*C. melanotis*), ourebi (*S. scoparius*—bleekbok of colonists), duyker (*C. mergens*), blaauwbok (*C. pygmæus*), rhebok (*P. capreolus*), rietbok (*E. arundinaceus*), roode rietbok (*E. reduncus*), and boschbok (*T. sylvaticus*), are found generally along the coast regions of South Africa. The graceful klipspringer (*N. oreotragus*) inhabits the tops of the most inaccessible kloofs and mountains; the blesbok (*D. albifrons*), the bontebok (*D. pygarga*), the gnu (*C. gnu*), the sassaby (*D. lunata*), the hartebeest (*A. caama*), and the brindled gnu (*C. gorgon*), are all found in troops on the wide-spreading plains which reach from the northern slopes of the Magaliesbergen, and south to the Vaal, and thence across the Orange River to the divisions of Graaf-Reynet, Colesberg, and Cradock.

Districts in which they most abound.

Immense migratory troops of the graceful springbok (*G. euchore*) also cover these plains as well as the northern slopes of the Nieuweveld and Bushmanland, at

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certain seasons of the year, when pasture is scarce in the Kalihari regions. In November 1858 countless troops invaded even the sterile pastures of Little Namaqualand. The curious gemsbok (*O. gazella*), supposed to be the real exponent of the fabulous unicorn, is found within the Colony, in the northern part of the Hope Town division, and along the Orange River, even to the shores of the Atlantic. It is common in Great Namaqualand. A few bonteboks are still preserved in the Bredasdorf and Swellendam divisions on private farms. The waterbok (*K. ellipsiprymnus*) and the lechee (*A. lechee*) are found only in the northern part of Bechouanaland and in the marshy country near Lake Ngami. A female specimen of the latter was, in 1859, to be seen in the Governor's garden in Cape Town, with many others of the antelope tribe.

We append from the 'Cape Monthly Magazine,' of Aug. 1873, a full list of South African antelopes, and a description of their horns.

Table, showing the different Antelopes found in South Africa, and descriptions of their horns and native names.

[Adapted from 'Cape Magazine' for Aug. 1873.]

Antelopes.

1. Koodoo (*Strepsiceros Kudu*, Gray).—Spiral horn. Section rather circular, full grown; there are two complete revolutions; tips white; measuring along the ridge fifty to sixty inches. Common in Transvaal; a few still to be met with in the less thickly inhabited portions of Cape Colony, such as the Fish River and Olifants Hoek Bosch. (Eechlongole of Matabili.)

2. Gemsbok (*Oryx gazella*, Linn.).—Horns stand upward, slightly outward and backward. Section nearly circular, half the length annulated. Thirty-eight to forty inches long. Western portion of Cape Colony, along Orange River, and near Colesberg.

3. Sable Antelope, or Black Buck (*Ægocerus niger*, Harris).—Horns sweep round in graceful curve until the points nearly touch the back, annulated to within six inches of point. Section rather flat. Length, thirty-six to forty inches. Found between Transvaal and Zambesi River. (Not named by natives.)

4. Roan Antelope (*Ægocerus leucophæus*, Pallas). — Bastard Gemsbok of colonists. Length of horns, thirty-six to thirty-eight inches. Section and curve same as No. 3. (Etak of Matabili.)

5. Eland (*Boselaphus Oreas*, Pallas).—Thick spiral horn. Section within a circle upward, slightly outward. North of Orange River and Kalihari Desert. Seldom found within Cape Colony, except on frontier of Natal. (Impoofo of Kaffirs.)

6. Waterbok (*Kobus ellipsiprymnus*, Ogilby).—Horns sweep upward and outward, points turn inward. Length, twenty-eight to thirty-four inches. Kaffraria, Natal, Transvaal, Lake Ngami. (Phitomok of Matabili.)

7. Lesser Waterbok (*Adenota lechee*, Gray).—Leché of Livingstone and Baines. Length of horns, twenty-four to eighteen inches. Section within a circle.

8. Hartebeeste (*Alcelaphus Caama*, Cuv.).—Horns grow upward and slightly outward for two-thirds the length, points lead at right angles backward. Length, twenty-two to twenty-five inches. Free State, Bontebok, Flats on top of Winterberg L. (Caama of Bechouanas.)

9. Bastard Hartebeeste or Sayssaybe (*Damalis lunatus*, H. Smith).—Horns curve upward and outward in lunate form. Length, twelve to fourteen inches. Annulated to within two or three inches of point. North of Transvaal. (Says-sabe of Bechouanas.)

10. Pallah (*Æpyceros Melampus*, Licht.).—Horns bent upward and outward, points upward. Section elliptical. Three-fourths of length annulated. Length, twenty-two to twenty-six inches. North of Transvaal, Kalihari. (Paala of natives.)

11. Bontebok (*Damalis pygarga*, Pallas).—Horns sweep upward and outward, points upward. Length, sixteen to eighteen inches. Annulated to within four or five inches of point. A few are yet preserved in Bredasdorp district, Free State.

12. Blesbok (*Damalis albifrons*, Burchell).—Horns nearly the same as Bontebok. Length, fifteen to sixteen inches. Free State, Transvaal. (Nunni of Bechouanas.)

13. Springbok (*Gazella Euchore*, Licht.).—Horns shaped like a Jew's-harp. Annulated to within three inches of tips. Length, twelve to fifteen inches. Northern portion of Cape Colony, Free State, Bechouanaland. (Isepe of Bechouanas.)

14. Boschbok or Bushbuck (*Tragelaphus Sylvaticus*, Sparrm.).—Spiral horns, grow upward and slightly outward. Length, ten to twelve inches. Northward from Mossel Bay along East Coast and into Natal. Two or three varieties are said to exist. The wounded animal uses horns as a weapon of offence.

15. Rheebok (*Pelea capreola*, Licht.).—Horns straight, pointing upward, annulated for half of their length. Length, nine to ten inches. All over Cape Colony. (Peeli of Matabili.)

16. Rietbok (*Eleotragus arundinaceus*, Shaw).—Horns bent upward and outward, points inclined forward, annulated for two-thirds of length. Length, ten to twelve inches. North-east portion of Cape Colony, Kaffraria, Natal. (Inghalla of Matabili.)

17. Small Rietbok (*Eleotragus reduncus*, Pallas).—Horns stand upright, tips bent over forward, three-quarters length annulated. Same range as other Rietbok.

18. Rooi Rheebok (*E. reduncus*, Pallas—Var.).—Horns bent upward and forward, half the length annulated. Length seven inches. Along East coast of Cape Colony, Kaffraria, and Natal. (Nagor of Matabili.)

19. Oribe (*Scopophorus scoparius*, Schreb.).—Horns stand upright, slightly inclined backward at tips, annulated at base. Length,

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four to five inches. North-east portion of Cape Colony, Fish River Bush. (Subokoo of Matabili.)

20. Duiker (*Cephalophus Mergens*, Licht.).—Horns grow upward and outward, annulated at base. Length, four inches. Same range as last. (Impoon of Matabili.)

21. Steinbok (*Calotragus tragulus*, Afz.).—Horns stand upward and slightly outward, smooth. Length, four to five inches. All over Cape Colony. (Eoolah of Matabili.)

22. Klipspringer (*Nanotragus oreotragus*, Gmel.).—Horns wide apart at base, stand straight up, smooth. Length, three to four inches. All over South Africa.

23. Grysbok (*Calotragus melanotis*, Afz.).—Smooth horns, standing upward, outward, and slightly inclined backward. Length, three to four inches. Along the coast of Cape Colony.

24. Blaauwbok (Bluebuck) or Kleinebok (*Cephalophus pygmæus*, Linn.).—Horns grow upward and slightly outward, two-thirds length annulated. Length, two inches. Along East coast of Colony, along edge of Bush.

25. Rooiche.—Horns same as Bluebok. Found in Transvaal.

26. Gnu or Wildebeest (*Catoblepas Gnu*, Gmel.).—Horns bent forward and downward, points bent at an acute angle upward. Length, twenty-six inches. Free State plains, Transvaal. (Kokoon of Bechouanas.)

27. Brindled Gnu or Bastaard Wildebeest (*Catoblepas Gorgon*, H. Smith).—Horns bent outward, points bent over at acute angles towards each other. Length, eighteen to twenty inches. Transvaal, Free State. (Impatoomo of Matabili, Gnu of Hottentots.)

Buffalo (*Bubalus caffer*, Sparrm.).—Very massive horns, which cannot be easily moved from pith, bending downward and outward, points sweep upward and inward. Length, thirty-four inches. Span, thirty-seven to forty inches. Bushy parts of Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal. (Bakolokolo of Matabili.)

(*Notice.*—For preservation from worm all horns should be removed as early as possible from pith, and well saturated with a solution of corrosive sublimate or arsenical soap. The pith may be sawn short and treated the same way, and the horns may then be refixed on same. The horns of Buffalo, which are not easily removed from pith, require great care in preserving from worm. Horns of the Wild Antelope should never be scraped or polished, but allowed to remain in their natural state, if possible with the skull attached.)

Birds.

Authorities on ornithology.

The ornithology of Southern Africa has met with considerable attention from the time of Le Vaillant until now. In recent times the list of South African birds has been much enlarged by the labours of Smith, Layard, and Andersson. Layard's catalogue includes 702 species, and Andersson's, which only gave birds

found north of the Orange River in Damara and Great Namaqualand, 428, while Dr. A. Smith's 'Illustrations' comprise 114 species, many of them before undescribed. We would refer our readers who take an interest in the subject to the authors we have mentioned above, and can here only notice a few of the principal birds, some of which are not peculiar to Southern Africa, but found more or less all over the continent.

The Ostrich.

The Ostrich (*Struthio Camelus*, Linn.—*Struysvogel* of colonists).—In the time of Kolben ostriches were so numerous in the neighbourhood of Cape Town that a man could hardly walk a quarter of an hour without seeing one or more of these birds. It is found in the present day, thinly scattered over many parts of the Cape Colony, in the Piquetberg, Malmesbury, and Caledon divisions, in Namaqualand and Clanwilliam, the northern parts of Uitenhage, Beaufort, Colesberg, and Graaf-Reynet; and a few in the dunes in the vicinity of Port Elizabeth. In October 1858 a flock of twenty or thirty were seen in the Koeberg, a few miles from Cape Town. But the regions from which we receive our principal supply of feathers are the dry deserts north of the Orange River. Many farmers preserve these birds on their farms; and their domestication and annual plucking has proved profitable, since the best feathers range from thirty to forty guineas a pound in the European market, although those from the domesticated bird are not considered equal to those from the wild animal. (See on this subject a separate chapter, pp. 217–228.)

Mr. Gurney has described the South African Ostrich as distinct from the North African bird, under the designation of *S. australis*; but the differences he notes are very slight, and have not as yet been proved to be constant. Andersson recognised two distinct species of ostrich in Namaqualand, the second species (*Birds of Damaraland*, pp. 251–2) being distinguished by the hen being jet-black, like the cock. It seems not improbable that the blackness of the hen which Andersson described was either a case of melanism or of assumption of the male plumage, both of which are known to occur among various birds.

The birds of prey (*Accipitres*) are numerous, in-

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Birds of prey.

cluding the Bearded Vulture (*Gypaëtus nudipes*, Brehm), the Arend of colonists, the Black Aasvogel (*Otogyps Auricularis*, Daud.), Common Aasvogel (*Gyps Fulvus*, Gmel.). There are several varieties of eagles, including the Black Eagle (*Aquila Vulturina*, Daud.), many of them fishing eagles; many Hawks and Falcons, and the well-known Secretary bird (*Sagittarius Serpentarius*, Gmel.). Among many species peculiar to South Africa we may mention here the Honey Guides (*Indicator* and *minor*, Sparmmanni, Steph.), the Stanley and Wattled Cranes. The Francolin Partridges are represented by no less than ten peculiar species (including the so-called 'Pheasant'—*F. clamator*, Temm.). Guinea-fowl and Quail also abound, and the Bustards ('Paauw' and 'Knorhaan') are nine in number, six being confined to South Africa. The largest of these is the Kori Bustard or 'Gom Paauw' (*Eupodotis cristata*, Scop.), the adult male of which often weighs from 30 to 35 lbs. Ducks, Wild Geese, Plover, of several varieties, are all numerous along the coast and in the neighbourhood of large vleis in the interior. As a rule the smaller African birds are not famed for song, but rather for the brilliancy of their plumage; the Golden or Emerald Cuckoos (*Chrysococcyx splendidus*, G. R. Gray, and *Lamprococcyx cupreus*, Bodd, and *Klaasii*, Less.) are particularly sought after on this account by collectors; many of the Kingfishers, Sun-birds, and Finches also have very beautiful plumage. A very good collection of South African birds will be found in the South African Museum, special attention having been given to that class of animals by the late curator, Mr. E. L. Layard.

Reptiles.

Reptiles.

The class *Reptilia* is well represented in South Africa, especially in the lizards and snakes. Forty-five species of the former (belonging to thirty different genera), and forty-three of the latter were enumerated by Dr. Gray in the British Museum Catalogues of 1843 and 1858. Of the Tortoises or shield reptiles (*Chelonia*) thirteen species, including three marine turtles, are known from the region. Only one Crocodile (*Crocodilus vulgaris*, Cuv.) has hitherto been discovered; it is

common in the rivers to the eastward and northward of the Cape Colony. CAPE COLONY

The largest South African snake is the Python (*Python Natalensis*, A. Smith), measuring from sixteen to twenty-five feet. It was formerly found as far to the west as the Great Fish River, where one was killed some fifty years ago by the well-known old sportsman, Sheffield, near Cometjies drift. The Python, like the rest of the Boas, is not venomous. The principal venomous snakes are the Cobra (*Naia Haje*), several varieties; the Ringhals (*Sepedon hæmachates*, Daud.); Puff Adder (*Echidna arietaus*, Merr.), and Berg Adder (*Echidna Atropos*, Linn.). Python.

Among the Lizards, Chamæleons are numerous, as well as various rock-haunting species of the genus *Cordylus*. The largest is *Varanus albogularis* (Daud.), one of the Monitors, varying from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet in length. The finest of the indigenous Tortoises is *Testudo pardalis*, common in the midland and northern districts of the Cape Colony.

Amphibians.

Eleven *Batrachia* of the tailless group are recorded from Southern Africa. By far the most remarkable of these is a Mud-Toad (*Dactylethra lævis*, Daud.), which is tongueless, and has pointed nails on three of the hind toes. *Bufo pantherinus* is a large and remarkably handsome Cape Toad.

Insects, &c.

It will not be expected (and indeed would be impossible within the limits of a portable Handbook such as the present work) that we should give even an outline of the entomology, &c. of the wide regions with which we are concerned. Our endeavour will accordingly be simply to indicate some of the works which relate specially to the Arthropodous animals of Southern Africa, and to mention a few of the most characteristic forms of life.

There are but few parts of the country that present any striking abundance of Insect life, although the

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number of *species* inhabiting a given tract is often very large. Both as regards species and individuals there is a marked increase as we proceed from the comparatively poor western districts to the eastward, but this greater abundance is chiefly shown along the coast, culminating at Port Natal in 30° S. lat., where indeed the entire fauna and flora are essentially tropical in character. All orders of Insects are well represented in South Africa, but the *Coleoptera*, or Beetles, take the lead. An idea of their development can be gathered from the circumstance that Boheman's far from completed catalogue of Wahlberg's collections (*Insecta Caffrariæ*, Stockholm, 1848-57) describes 1,064 kinds of beetles. Among the most numerous coleopterous tribes in the country are the predaceous Ground-beetles (*Geodephaga*), the Rose-chafers or Flower-beetles (*Cetoniidæ*—the subject of an elaborate memoir by Macleay in Sir A. Smith's *Illustrations of the Zoology of South Africa*), and the Weevils (*Rhynchophora*). The order of Bugs and Cicadas (*Hemiptera*) has been treated very fully by another distinguished Swedish entomologist, Stål, in his *Hemiptera Africana* (4 vols. Stockholm, 1864–66), which embraces species from every part of the African continent. The order (*Lepidoptera*), comprising Butterflies and Moths, has, next to the Beetles, received the most attention; but the only work specially devoted to South African species of the order is that on the Butterflies by Mr. Roland Trimen, the present curator of the South African Museum at Cape Town (*Rhopalocera Africæ Australis*, London and Cape Town, 1862–66). In this book 222 species are described, but many others have since been discovered. We are not aware that the remaining orders, *Orthoptera* (locusts, cockroaches, &c.), *Neuroptera* (dragon flies, ant-lion flies, &c.), *Hymenoptera* (Bees, Wasps, Ants, &c.), and *Diptera* (two-winged flies), have been separately treated in relation to South Africa exclusively, but large numbers of South African species have been described with others in various scientific journals, &c., and in the catalogues issued from the Zoological Department of the British Museum.

The orders *Orthoptera* and *Diptera* respectively contain the most formidable of South African insects, viz. the ravaging Locusts (several species of the genus

Pachytylus) and the notorious 'Tsetse fly' (*Glossina morsitans*). It should be observed, however, that the tremendous power attributed to the bite of the latter has of late been questioned by more than one traveller of judgment and experience, and that until more searching experiments have tested the matter fully it cannot be considered as finally settled.

The *Arachnida* (comprising spiders and scorpions, and a few allied groups) are fairly represented. Scorpions are numerous under stones and the bark of trees; one large yellow Namaqualand species attaining a length of over five inches, exclusive of its long *chelæ*, or nippers. One of the great ground-spiders in the 'Karroo' districts, belonging to the genus *Mygale*, has a body $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long; and the area enclosed by its long hairy legs in their natural position (without being straightened out) is about 16 square inches. The large and wonderfully swift scorpion-spiders (*Galeodes*) abound in the dry upland districts. The smaller web-spinning and other spiders are very numerous and varied, some being exquisitely coloured and of singular form.

The *Crustacea* (crabs, lobsters, prawns, etc.) of South Africa found an able historian in Dr. Krauss, of Stuttgart, who made extensive collections, chiefly on the coast of Natal, and in 1843 published a catalogue, with figures and descriptions of the new forms, of 120 species. No very large or remarkable crustaceans are known to inhabit these coasts, *Scylla serrata*, the biggest of the crabs, having a shell only 6 inches by 4.

The *Myriopoda* (centipedes, millipedes, etc.) appear to have been little if at all studied with any special regard to Southern Africa, though they are numerous and of varied forms. The larger species of *Julus* (millipedes)—slow, harmless vegetarians—are conspicuous objects in most parts of the country, but especially in wooded districts.

Mollusca.

South Africa is undoubtedly poor in this sub-kingdom; neither the exposed ocean-beaten coasts nor the dry bare tracts forming the bulk of the country presenting favourable conditions for these animals. The few and

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scantily-fed rivers are also ill-adapted for freshwater forms. In 1848 Professor Krauss, the author of the treatise on crustacea above-mentioned, published an excellent account of the South African shells (*Die Südafrikanischen Mollusken*, Stuttgart), in which he enumerated 460 species, giving descriptions and figures of the new forms. Among marine shells the genera most extensively represented are *Chiton*, *Patella* (limpets), *Fissurella*, *Trochus*, *Purpura*, *Buccinum*, and *Cypræa*. Besides these *Gasteropoda* there are various *Cephalopoda*, and notably the exquisite 'Paper Nautilus,' *Argonauta Argo*, which is common; and of the strangely constructed *Brachiopoda* three species (of the genus *Terebratula*) are recorded. The Bivalves (*Lamellibranchiata*) of the sea chiefly appertain to the genera *Donax*, *Venus*, *Arca*, and *Mytilus* (mussel); but four species of oyster are found (of which *Ostrea tuberculata* is excellent for the table), besides a 'pearl oyster' (*Avicula* sp.) which produces numerous pearls of an inferior description. The land shells number 39 (exclusive of 17 freshwater species) and belong mainly to the genera *Bulimus*, *Helix*, *Pupa*, and *Achatina*. The last-named genus consists of the handsomest and largest of the known land shells.

Our space will not allow us to touch upon the *Vermes*, *Echinodermata*, or other lower sub-kingdoms of animals; and we must content ourselves with simply observing that those of our readers who may have the opportunity of collecting such organisms will find their labours amply repaid in a region where but little attention has been bestowed on the groups in question.

Fishes.

The South African fishes have not hitherto been fully treated of in a separate work, but forty-one species are described and figured in Dr. (afterwards Sir) A. Smith's 'Illustrations.' The *edible* fishes of the Cape received, however, the special attention of the late Dr. L. Pappe (one of the original trustees of the South African Museum, and Colonial Botanist), who published

a synopsis of the species, from which the following list is drawn up:—

List of Edible fishes.

Scientific Name	Cape Name	Description
TRIGLIDÆ.		
Trigla Capensis	Red Gurnard	Flesh firm but palatable. Caught in summer with hook. Not very common in Table Bay.
Trigla Peronii	Grey Gurnard	Flesh equal to that of the preceding species.
SCORPENIDÆ.		
Sebastes Capensis	Jacob Evertsen	So called from a Dutch captain, with a red face and projecting eyes. A highly-prized fish for the table. Common in Table Bay.
Sebastes maculatus	Sancord	A delicious fish, not very common. Caught chiefly in winter.
SCIÆNINÆ.		
Sciæna hololepidota	Kabeljouw	A large fish, two to three feet long. Is one of the staple fishes for salting like cod, for export to the Mauritius and other markets.
Otolithus æquidens	Geelbeck	Large fish, about three feet long. Flesh dry and fit for salting. Common along the coast.
Umbrina Capensis	Baardmannatjie	Reputed a delicious fish. Caught in False Bay during summer.
Cheilodactylus fasciatus	Steenvisch	A good table fish, caught by the hook in Table Bay, where it is not very abundant.

Fishes—continued.

Scientific Name	Cape Name	Description
Cheilodactylus brachydactylus	Poempelmoesje	Flesh tender and wholesome. Caught at Green Point amongst the rocks.
SPARIDÆ. *Sargus Hottentottus*	Hangeberger	Common in Table Bay. Much used for pickling. Caught with hook.
Sargus Capensis	Hottentot Fish	Caught with a hook at all seasons in Table Bay, and on west coast. Length, 12 in. to 14 in.
Chrysophrys globiceps	Stompneus	An excellent pickle fish. Caught in abundance in drag-net in summer.
Chrysophrys laticeps	Roode Steenbrasem	A bulky fish, often exceeding 3½ feet in length. Much prized as food, and salted for exportation. Caught in False Bay.
Chrysophrys cristiceps	Roman	One of the most delicious of Cape fishes. Caught with hook and drag-net, near the Roman Rock, in False Bay, in great numbers.
Chrysophrys gibbiceps	Poeskop	One of the choicest of colonial fishes; rare in Table Bay. Caught in False Bay, Mostert and Fish-hook Bay.
Pagrus laniarius	Dageraad	Highly prized. Not caught in Table Bay, but in the waters east and south of Cape Town.

Fishes—continued.

Scientific Name	Cape Name	Description
Lithognathus Capensis	Blaauwe Steenbrasem	Excellent table fish, fit for pickling and salting. Caught with hook in Hout Bay.
Pagellus Afer	Roode Kaapsche Stompneus	One of the best fishes in the market. Its flesh white and delicious. Caught with hook in winter.
Dentex rupestris	Seventy-four	Considered one of the very finest of colonial fishes. Rarely found in Table Bay. Caught east of the Cape.
Dentex argyrozona	Silver fish	Common in Cape markets all the year. Forms an article of export.
Cautharus Blochii	Windtoy	A delicious table fish. Caught in winter.
Cautharus emarginatus	Dasje	Rare in Table Bay, but common in the bays east of the Cape. Highly esteemed.
Boops Salpa	Bamboes visch; Stink visch.	A rich and delicate fish, but scarce in Cape Town. Caught in Saldanha Bay, where it is dried and salted. Feeds on seaweed.
SQUAMIPENNES. *Pimelepterus fuscus*	Bastard Jacob Eversten	Flesh well flavoured. Caught in Simon's Bay, &c.

Fishes—continued.

Scientific Name	Cape Name	Description
Dipterodon Capensis	Galleon fish	A good fish, but at times rather unwholesome. Caught with drag-net.
SCOMBERIDÆ.		
Scomber Capensis	Halfcord	Not much in request. Flesh deemed by some unwholesome.
Scomber grex	Mackerel	Common in Table Bay. Not much liked, flesh being greasy.
Thyrsites Atun	Snoek	A voracious fish, caught in large quantities and salted for exportation.
Lichia Amia	Leervisch	Taken occasionally in Table Bay. Flesh dry and not much esteemed.
Temnodon saltator	Elftvisch	Young fish esteemed great dainties. Caught in Table Bay in summer.
Caranx trachurus	Bastard Mackerel Maasbanker	Flesh well formed and wholesome. Caught in winter at both ends of Colony.
Stromateus Capensis	Katunker	A good table fish. Caught with hook and net east of Table Bay.
Lepidopus argyreus	Scabbard fish	Very rare in Table Bay. Reputed to be excellent eating.
MUGILLIDÆ.		
Mugil Capensis	Harder	This species enters mouths of several rivers. Nursed in ponds it grows very fast. Worthy of breeders' attention.

Fishes—continued.

Scientific Name	Cape Name	Description
Mugil multilineatus	Springer	A species of mullet found in the bays and rivers of the colony. Good table fish. Commonly salted or smoked for exportation.
BLENNIDÆ. *Blennius versicolor* (several varieties)	Klipvisch	All very delicious. Flesh fat and firm when cooked freshly caught.
SILURINÆ. *Bagrus Capensis*	Bagger	Flesh resembling that of eel. Less prized than it deserves.
CLUPEIDÆ. *Clupea ocellata*	Shad, Sardyn	Used occasionally as pickled-fish.
Engraulis encrasicolus	Anchovy	Caught abundantly, but little used, Cape salt being unfit for preserving it.
GADIDÆ. *Gadus Merlucius*	Stokvisch Hake	A recent visitor to the Cape, and increasing in numbers annually. Its flesh delicate, resembling haddock. Salted and dried for exportation.
XIPHIURIDÆ. *Xiphiurus Capensis*	King Klip fish	One of the best of all the Cape fishes. Caught with hook amongst rocks in our bays. Mentioned by Barrow.
PLEURONECTIDÆ. *Solea vulgaris*	Tong ; Sole	Not common, but highly prized.
RAIDÆ. *Rhinobatus annulatus*	Zand Kruiper	Rather scarce in Table Bay. Flesh tender and delicate.

Fishes—continued.

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Scientific Name	Cape Name	Description
Raia Maculata	Spotted Ray	A good table fish, and a forerunner of bad weather. Caught with net.
Serranus Cuvierii	Rock Cod	Frequents Algoa Bay. Highly esteemed as food.

Sport in South Africa.

English sportsmen would hardly forgive us if we turned from the natural history of South Africa without giving some hints on the present condition of the country in reference to their favourite pastime.

Contrasted with English sport.

To those who have never carried their guns or rifles outside of an English cover, who like game to be crowded under the muzzles of their fowling-pieces, and whose idea of shooting is an easy march through heather or the autumn stubble with a 'fellow to load,' South African sport will have few attractions. But to those who have a passion for more open work, who are willing to tramp it through the bush, or, if necessary, climb the slopes of the mountains, or are able to keep in the saddle for a few days and to gallop at the heels of a rhebok or an ostrich, who can do without Pall Mall chops and coffee and put up with the fare of the wilderness—mutton sometimes dusted with sand and a rough shake-down in the homestead of a Dutch boor—South Africa will be, what by the genuine sportsman it has always been considered, the best shooting-ground in the world.

Small game.

There is a considerable variety of small game—partridges, pheasants, hares, quail, and snipe—in more or less abundance, on all the South African farms, besides other birds, such as the dikkop and the koorhaan, with which an Englishman is not familiar. There are wild ducks, wild geese, of beautiful plumage, wild turkeys (the pauw or bustard), on and about the vleis. As a rule the sportsman must wander far afield to fill his bag. But

there are few farms where a tramp in the early morning beside the watercourses, or in the open patches of long grass, or in the thick bushes where the pheasants love to hide, will not be rewarded with substantial success.

Bok-shooting.

But the specialty of South African sport is the bok-shooting. The bok, as every sportsman knows, much resembles the English deer, with short straight or curved horns instead of antlers. Of these there are a considerable variety, and a very great number in every district of the Colony and on the plains of the Free State. Some, as the bushbok, have comparatively short necks and legs, with a stout, closely-knit frame, standing scarcely higher than sheep; others, as the rhebok, are tall and stately, with long legs, long straight necks, and straight horns, with an exterior twist at the roots.

The flesh of the bok (pronounced like our English word 'buck') makes very fine venison when properly dressed, and the legs and shoulders of the animal are much esteemed as a relish when dried down into biltong, a most convenient and palatable article of diet, perfectly familiar to the colonists. In this form it can be kept almost any length of time, and has frequently been brought to England. It is extremely nourishing and digestible, and can often be taken by invalids when other food is rejected by the stomach.

Weapons.

Sportsmen ordinarily use a fowling-piece, loaded with large shot, for bringing down the boks, which generally lie tolerably close, and leap from the bushes as a footstep approaches. The rheboks, however, who keep in herds and make for the higher ground when pursued, afford fine practice for the rifle.

Brief narrative of a shooting expedition.

A brief account of a shooting expedition to one of the South African farms in the Caledon district will give a better idea of South African sport than any general remarks. The writer was one of a party of five who left Cape Town, at the invitation of a well-known and hospitable farmer, in the autumn of 1872, for two or three days' bird and bok shooting. 'The journey, in itself a most enjoyable part of the excursion, was made in a colonial cart, with a pair of horses, and lasted two days of the week at our disposal. It took us through the

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Hottentot's Holland Mountains, *viâ* Sir Lowry's Pass, and through much picturesque country about the valley of the Palmiet River.

'Guns were loaded on the way, for occasionally the dogs would point for small game, or a bok would leap startled from the roadside. When opportunities for a shot did not take us too far afield they were eagerly embraced, and a few birds hung in the cart when we reached our destination.

Description of the hunting ground.

'The farm over which we went to shoot was a sheep, ostrich, and cattle farm of several thousand acres. It was completely enclosed on three sides by a curved mountain range, and on the third by the Southern Ocean. Immediately around the homestead were patches of cultivated land and some open grazing ground, but on one side the bushes which covered the greater portion of the farm, and which supply nourishment for sheep and cattle, as in all sheep farms, crept up to the edge of the home field.

'It would be wrong to say that wherever there are bushes in South Africa there is game, but a glance at the thick bush of this farm would satisfy anyone experienced in South African travel that it will be found within three or four hundred yards of the house and over the whole land. Indeed, there are not many square miles of this kind of country in South Africa (and it forms the vast proportion of the lowlands) without game.

First day's sport.

'Eager for sport, we started after luncheon to see if we could stir a bok in the bush close at hand. Six in number (for we had been joined by our hospitable host), we formed into line, about fifty yards apart, and moved steadily and silently through the bush, each man with his hand on the trigger of his gun, and with his eye and ear attent on the bushes. Before we had tramped half an hour a rush was heard at the extreme end of the line. The nearest man fired a shot at a bok as he leaped out of a large bush. It was but a snap shot, and missed. Fortunately the animal, instead of running forward, moved parallel to the advancing line. The second man was on the alert, and had a good chance, of which he skilfully availed himself. A loud cry broke the stillness of the wilderness, and a fine bok leaped his last leap high in

the air. This was our only trophy that afternoon. But we had drawn blood, and were content to wait for the morrow.

'At four o'clock the next morning we were astir, our plan being to tramp for birds in the morning when the dew was heavy, and to follow the boks on horseback after breakfast, when the sun was up.

Second day's sport.

'Directly in front of the farm, and winding through the valley, was a line of large green bushes, which marked the course of what might be dignified by the name of a river in the winter, but was now the nearly dried bed of a stream, showing itself here and there in pools and narrow reaches of water. On either side of this stream were large open spaces of rough grazing ground, with high tufts of long grass, here and there a low bush, or a little marshy land fringed with flags. There we shall find the partridges, grey and red-winged, and at this hour the pheasants. By the time we return to breakfast the sun will be up, and the pheasants will be in the bushes. We will move along the open at starting, and take the river course and the high bushes as we return. Such was our resolution. We carried it out, and the rapid firing 'all along the line' proved that our programme was arranged with judgment, whatever we might make of it. The birds were abundant and the shooting fair, and we breakfasted that morning with a zest which the best English sportsman might envy.

Properly trained shooting-horses.

'After breakfast we were provided with shooting-horses, and started for boks, skirting the sea shore by a *détour*, through the broken ground under the mountains. Every South African farmer, who is also a sportsman, keeps one or more shooting-horses. The animal is trained to stop the moment his rein is dropped, and he stands like a rock while his rider fires. An experienced shooting-horse needs no sign from his master that he is required to stand. He can hear the stir in bush or cover, and is alert and attent as a dog scenting game.

'It was not easy to find a first-rate mount for six persons, but our host, who was a keen sportsman and a first-rate shot, was equal to the occasion. We started, riding abreast at about the same distance as we walked the day before. The sport was soon most exciting. Within an hour the line was broken by hard rides after

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wounded boks, sometimes crowned with success, sometimes otherwise. By sun-down we returned to dinner, the Hottentot who rode with us to take charge of the game returning with as much as his horse could carry, and the party bringing more besides.

Spoil of the chase.

'The slain boks are placed on the back of the horse with the fore and hind legs, or one of each, attached to the strap of the saddle-girth, the strap passing through an opening made with the sportsman's knife between the sinew and the leg bone. One of the party in question could tell how difficult he found it to bring home a heavy bok without fully understanding this simple device.

'With scarcely a variation in the programme two or three days were heartily enjoyed in this way, the party returning to town with ten or a dozen boks and forty or fifty brace of birds, besides for the most part feeding themselves with what they had shot. The task of getting the game to town was by no means easy. The weather was warm, and in temperature in which butcher's meat would not keep for twenty-four hours it was difficult to preserve even game for town palates. Both animals and birds were opened and gutted, and then freely peppered to keep off the fly. In addition to which the whole, after being tied to the back of the cart, were covered with a light spray of bush to shade them from the sun's rays. In this way we brought our game to town in tolerably fine condition.'

This pleasant excursion is not referred to as anything unusual, but as affording a fair example of the kind of sport which may be enjoyed in almost every extensive farm in South Africa. Any courteous English gentleman who wishes to have a month or two's shooting in the country will readily be put in the way of getting it either at Cape Town, Graham's Town, or East London. Within a few miles of either of these places he can find a considerable quantity of game, to which he can gain access by introduction to the farmers or Government officials.

Larger game.

Sportsmen who fly at larger game, and desire to emulate the feats of Mr. Gordon Cumming and bring home karosses and lions' skins and ivory, must go far into the interior. Wild beasts, as a matter of course, retire before civilization, and the lion is almost driven

from the Free State, and has become scarcer in the Transvaal.

Elephants and Cape tigers (leopards) may, however, both be found in the Colony. The latter have their homes in the recesses of the mountains, and are periodically hunted by the farmers whose flocks are most in danger from their depredations. They rarely venture far into the plains, and have scope enough for their energies in hunting young baboons and boks. It is said that tigers are always to be found where there are traces of baboons, and it is certain that no mountain range in the Colony is entirely free from them, or, indeed, likely to be so long as smaller game is abundant. A fine tiger now in the Museum was killed within four miles of Cape Town not more than eight years ago. A farmer residing on the mountains behind Tulbagh, within 100 miles of Cape Town, killed nine with his own gun in 1874.

'Tiger-hunting.'

Elephants are still found in the Knysna forest (district of George), and a few buffaloes in the Kowie bush. Ten years ago the Duke of Edinburgh joined an elephant hunt in the Knysna, and his Royal Highness, who is a first-class shot and a bold sportsman, had the good fortune to bring down a fine animal with his own gun. The chase and its *dénouement* were not a little exciting. For two days the royal party kept a herd in sight at intervals, but could not overtake them. At length a Hottentot was sent forward into the bush on horseback to reconnoitre. He reappeared in about an hour, riding hard for his life and shouting 'Skiet! skiet!' ('Shoot! shoot!') He had come somewhat suddenly upon the hindmost of the herd, who had turned and chased him, bounding along with furious strides. His Royal Highness, with the utmost coolness, placed himself right in the path of the infuriated beast, and slowly raising his rifle, shot him between the eyes. The elephant swerved sideways with a totter, and then received his *coup de grâce* by a shot behind the ear from the rifle of Sir Walter Currie, late commandant of the frontier armed and mounted police. The coolness and skill of the Prince, who deliberately placed himself in a position where a bad shot might have been fatal to himself, were fully appreciated by the colonists.

Elephant hunt by the Duke of Edinburgh.

If an African sportsman wishes to vary his amuse-

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Fishing.

ment by a turn with the rod and line on the sea coast, he can be accommodated to perfection at Cape Town. There is scarcely finer fishing to be found anywhere than in Kalk Bay, near Simon's Town. Fish from fifty to seventy pounds' weight are not unfrequently caught by a trolling-line from the rocks, besides a considerable variety of smaller species, all good for the table.

SCENERY, CLIMATE, AND METEOROLOGICAL PHENOMENA.

PERHAPS the best way to convey to a stranger a general idea of South African scenery is to describe the country as consisting of mountains and plains, the latter for the most part covered with bushes and traversed here and there with watercourses, swollen into monster torrents in the winter, and almost dry in the summer. There is no point of the coast from the Kei to Saldanha Bay at which the interior can be reached without crossing the mountains, and there is no spot in the Colony where the traveller is out of sight of mountains—mountains to right of him, mountains to left, mountains in front, and mountains behind. The mountains are of peculiar shape, occasionally flat at the summit like an elevated plateau, and at other times crowned with a sort of rocky dome. Though there are bold projections and towering and more or less pointed heights, and the form of the mountain elevations is undoubtedly impressive, the traveller misses those *aiguille* peaks which are the glory of the Alpine ranges. Nothing can exceed in beauty, however, the mountain *interiors* of South Africa. The kloofs, ravines, and precipices open with magnificent effect to the traveller's eye as he pierces the heart of the mountains by the passes through which the colonial engineers, with a skill which would have made their name immortal in older countries, have cut roads. These roads often wind for twelve or fifteen miles through the mountain ranges, rising to a level of several thousand feet, at the edge of precipices and round bosses and terraced heights, floored out into grotesque shapes by the wind and rain of centuries.

General description of the country.

Peculiar shape of the mountains.

Magnificent roads and mountain passes.

The greater part of the farm homesteads are situated

General situation of

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farm homesteads.

on the slopes of the mountains, or as near to the watershed as may be. They are generally surrounded by the blue gum or oak trees and large patches of cultivated land, which stand out with refreshing relief in the vast tracts of uncleared country.

Beauty of the scenery.

Very considerable portions of the Colony have a rich and fertile appearance. The green slopes of Albany remind one more of English scenery than perhaps any part of the Colony. The basins about Queenstown are covered with fine grass, if not with meadow turf; the 'waggon-makers' valley' between Wellington and the mountains is a beautiful spectacle in the fruit season; while the country about the Paarl and the Worcester Valley, beyond Bain's Kloof, with its vineyards and cornfields, arrest the traveller's eye after crossing the Karroo. The Knysna Forest, extending for thousands of square miles, with its magnificent foliage sometimes covering the open plain and sometimes the jagged, irregular country on the mountain slopes, is one of the most striking objects in South Africa. It still abounds with large game, and was visited ten years ago by the Duke of Edinburgh, who, with a pluck spoken of with admiration by South African sportsmen, followed a herd of elephants into the jungle and shot two fine animals.

First impressions of a stranger on entering Table Bay.

The South African landscape, however, may be described as extended and grand rather than rich. A stranger entering Table Bay in 1864 thus describes his impressions:—'The morning brought me a glimpse, as far as the external appearance of the country was concerned, which I shall long remember. We had drifted considerably to the southward during the night, and entered the bay as if coming from the eastward, following the bold shore of the peninsula which forms the long arm of Table Bay. A good deal of rain had fallen in the night, and a Cape winter morning broke clear and fresh over one of the most striking landscapes I had ever witnessed—I say striking, because there was little of the tender beauty of quiet pastoral scenery with which an Englishman is familiar in his native land. A broad calm lake of deep blue water lay before me, edged with a white and curving shore of singular beauty, and surmounted

by bold rocky mountain ranges. I have never lost—scarcely changed—the impression of South African scenery received that morning. I had bidden farewell to the green fields and valleys of Old England, the quiet country lanes with the wild briar and honeysuckle, the meadows rich in the tints of green and gold, the wandering inland rivers with the overhanging willows on the banks; and I had changed it for a country where the light was rich and brilliant, the atmosphere surpassingly bright and clear, and the scenery bold, spacious, and grand. The long range of mountains which completely separates the peninsula from the mainland, though at a distance of from seventy to a hundred miles, stood out with a sharply-defined outline in the morning air, the ravines, and watercourses, and terraced heights appearing with almost supernatural distinctness. The characteristic beauty of light in South Africa is not seen in its marriage with manifold forms of cloud so much as in the full and even splendour with which it penetrates the air. Distant objects, that in a less brilliant atmosphere fade away in hazy outline, stand out with perfect distinctness. Small boulders, cavernous hollows in the rocks, patches of bush at the head of the kloofs, at an elevation of two or three thousand feet, are seen without difficulty. Let a spectator place himself at a distance of twenty or thirty miles from Table Mountain or the Katberg in South Africa, and then do the same with Snowdon or Mangerton in the mother country, and he will be surprised at the contrast in the aerial perspective. The two latter elevations will appear in more or less of hazy outline with details of face and profile obscured; but in the clear atmosphere of South Africa the direction of the watercourses, the curves of the kloofs, and indeed every bold wrinkle on the face or slope of the mountains, will be clearly discerned. I have sometimes,' says the same traveller, 'looked at Table Mountain at what photographers would call the sharp definition of every line until the sense of distance almost vanished, and it has seemed as if I must see a human figure if it were climbing the heights, or hear a human voice if it broke the silence of the kloofs.'

Brilliancy of the atmosphere and consequent distinctness of outline.

The air and climate is as beautiful as the light—clear,

Air and climate.

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Its effect on invalids.

buoyant, and dry. It acts like a charm upon the impaired respiratory organs of consumptive or asthmatic patients, and though not in all cases effecting a cure, sufficiently restores many who could not live in Europe to enable them to pursue with comfort and pleasure the ordinary duties of life. In most of the chief towns and villages of the Colony are to be found persons in fair health, some of whom left England in an almost hopeless condition, and others who were quite unable to stand the rigour of an English winter. We are persuaded that if the climate of the Cape Colony and Natal were more fully known and appreciated it would be utilised far more than it is in the treatment of pulmonary diseases. The sea voyage (now performed in the short space of twenty or twenty-one days) is one of the pleasantest in the world, and after the Bay of Biscay is crossed may be called a fine-weather passage at any season of the year.

Changes of temperature.

Though the mean temperature of the South African climate is greater than England from the entire absence of very cold weather, the thermometer, at least in the cooler portions of the country, does not rise much higher than it frequently does in northern Europe, while the heat, from its dryness, is far less oppressive. It is a very common circumstance for residents in South Africa to complain of the oppressiveness of the English summer, from the amount of moisture which the atmosphere contains.

Heat not excessive.

The changes of temperature so often referred to in connection with the South African climate are not nearly so great as they are sometimes represented, while such as exist often assist the recuperative effects of the climate. If the invalids are careful the cool nights prove most refreshing, and enable the heat of the day to be borne without difficulty; indeed, it is generally the night heat which is trying to invalids. In New York, for instance, the heat of a summer day is so prolonged through the night as to prevent sleep, and try the strength of the healthiest person. There is nothing like this in South Africa. Near the sea coast, and in the higher ground up-country, the nights are sufficiently cool to allow the use of both sheet and blanket. The fact that the Cape

was for years a sanatorium for old Indians exhausted with tropical heat proves that it is not likely to be very trying to Europeans.

Choice of locality.

With regard to the localities most suitable for invalids it is almost invidious to distinguish where so many are good. Much, too, must depend on the experience of the patient. The drier air of the interior suits many afflicted with pulmonary disorders better than the coast climate. Others, again, do better with a larger percentage of moisture in the atmosphere and the refreshing sea breezes which temper the summer heat. The best way is to try the coast first, and, if it is found unsuitable, to move to the interior.

The suburbs of Cape Town—Wynberg, the Camp Ground, and Sea Point, as well as Kalk Bay, situated in the Southern Ocean, half-way between Cape Town and Simon's Bay—are frequently chosen as residences by invalids. The air is cool and delicious in the summer, and though somewhat overcharged with moisture in the winter, is bracing and healthy. Cape Town itself, enclosed by the huge horseshoe wall of Table Mountain, is not a desirable residence in the summer time, the reflected heat from the mountains often remaining during the greater portion of the night; but the suburbs we have named are entirely free from this drawback.

For those who desire a drier climate, the interior, or the eastern side of the continent, will be preferred. There the rain falls during the summer months, generally accompanied with thunderstorms more or less violent. The winter season is deliciously fine, the air clear, sparkling, and dry, and the temperature not too cool for invalids. The neighbourhood of Grahamstown, Cradock, and Queenstown are particularly salubrious. There is no finer climate in the world than the plateau of Cradock and Queenstown and the plains of the Free State. Cradock is easily reached from Port Elizabeth, Queenstown from East London, and the Free State and Transvaal from Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Durban. [See information on Conveyances.] In all these places there is comfortable accommodation for travellers.

Dr. Ross, of Cape Town, gives the following admirable advice to persons seeking health at the Cape:—'The

Dr. Ross's advice to invalids, &c.

more thorough their capacity to enjoy field sports and open-air exercise the more rapidly are dispelled the *ennui*, dyspepsia, and sense of *malaise* which at all times confinement to a sick room so rapidly engenders. It is, therefore, of the highest importance that visitors in delicate health should still be strong enough to get about, either on foot or on *horseback*, and so by frequent change from place to place, as the seasons revolve, derive every procurable benefit that the Colony can afford them. Even in the wettest season the porous, sandy soil rapidly carries off the torrents of water with which the fields are almost flooded, and nothing can be more truly delicious than the balmy yet bracing weather which precedes and follows a rainy day in winter.' 'No climate in the world,' says Dr. Stovell, 'could be more beneficial for the usual class of Indian invalids than a Cape winter. There is an invigorating freshness about this season equally delightful and beneficial; the moment the rain ceases the clouds rapidly clear away, and the sky remains bright for several days.' We may add to these most sensible remarks that invalids should avoid going out when the winds are unusually stormy, as well as just at the hour of sunset, when an uncomfortable moisture, trying to invalids, is often diffused through the atmosphere.

Mean temperature.

The same writer in the 'Bombay Medical Journal' remarks, 'That though the latitude of the Cape is within 34° of the equator, it has a mean annual temperature of places in much higher geographical parallels in the northern hemisphere. Its mean temperature, for instance, is that of Naples in latitude 40°5′ north. The same remark holds good of all places in the temperate zone of the southern hemisphere compared with the northern, so far as dependence can be placed on their thermometrical data. Hobart Town, for instance, in 42°45′ south, has a mean annual temperature of 52°5′, while Rome, in the same parallel in the northern hemisphere, has a mean temperature of 59°8′.

Statistics.

We deeply regret that, as in some other young countries, the statistics of life, death, and disease in the Cape Colony are very imperfect. It is impossible, therefore, absolutely to demonstrate the effects of the climate

upon pulmonary disease as regards the population generally, but the following tables, compiled by Major Tulloch, giving the principal diseases prevalent among white troops on the frontier of the Cape from 1822 to 1834 inclusive, and the extent of the same class of diseases among troops in Great Britain, is conclusive as to the character of the climate:—

Nature of Disease	Admissions			Deaths		
	Cape Frontier		United Kingdom	Cape Frontier		United Kingdom
	Total among whole force in 12 years	Annual ratio per 1,000 of mean strength	Annual ratio per 1,000 of mean strength	Total among whole force in 12 years	Annual ratio per 1,000 of mean strength	Annual ratio per 1,000 of mean strength
Fevers . . .	537	81	75	8	1·2	1·4
Eruptive fevers .	2	...	3	...	...	0·1
Diseases of lungs .	541	82	148	16	2·4	7·7
Diseases of liver .	140	21	8	7	1·0	0·4
Diseases of stomach and bowels . .	584	88	94	15	2·3	0·8
Epidemic cholera .	...	...	4	...	...	1·2
Diseases of brain .	65	10	6	4	0·6	0·7
Dropsies . .	10	2	1	3	0·5	0·3
Rheumatic affections	396	59	50			
Venereal diseases .	813	123	181			
Wounds and injuries	1,104	166	126	4		
Punished . .	168	25	8		1·8	1·4
Diseases of eye .	283	43	19			
Diseases of skin .	65	10	29			
Abscesses and ulcers	669	101	133	1		
All other diseases .	363	55	44	7		
Total . . .	5,740	866	929	65	9·8	14·0

Pulmonary disorders.

Another table, compiled by the same author, and which gives the percentage of pulmonary disorders at the various military stations of the Empire, proves conclusively how favourable the Cape climate is to the lungs of Englishmen:—

Attacked Annually, per 1,000 *of White Troops, at each of the following Stations:—*

Nature of Disease	Windward and Leeward Isles	Jamaica	Gibraltar	Malta	Ionian Isles	Bermuda	Canada	Nova Scotia and New Brunswick	Cape District
Diseases of lungs generally . . .	115	18	141	120	90	126	148	125	98
Inflammation of lungs and pleurisy	23	14	42	34	32	37	43	35	30
Phthisis pulmonalis	12	13	$6\frac{5}{10}$	6	5	$8\frac{8}{10}$	$6\frac{5}{10}$	7	$5\frac{5}{10}$
Catarrh, acute and chronic . . .	75	55	86	74	49	74	89	73	58
Deaths annually per 1,000 of the mean strength from all diseases of the lungs at same stations .	$10\frac{4}{10}$	$7\frac{5}{10}$	$5\frac{3}{10}$	6	$4\frac{8}{10}$	$8\frac{7}{10}$	$6\frac{7}{10}$	$7\frac{1}{10}$	$3\frac{9}{10}$

Statistics of Cape Town Hospital.

The only purely local statistics at our disposal refer to the percentage of pulmonary cases admitted into the Cape Town Hospital. They were obtained by Dr. Ross from the books of the hospital, and show even more clearly than Major Tulloch's tables the comparative rarity of lung-disease in the colony. When it is remembered that, to a general infirmary like this, persons of all classes and nationalities resort, and that in a place where there is scarcely any provision for the sick poor, many are admitted to the hospital to die, the results will appear yet more striking:—

Percentage of Pulmonary Diseases in Cape Town Hospital for Five Years.

Year	Admissions	Phthisis	Pneumonia	Bronchitis	All other diseases of lungs	Total of deaths
1861	673	14	4	6	0	24
1862	664	13	1	1	1	16
1863	505	12	2	0	1	15
1864	421	12	0	1	0	13
1865	459	11	3	1	1	16
Total	2,722	62	10	9	3	84

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The Cape long a sanatorium for invalided Indian officers.

It is well known that, before the time when Indian officers were permitted to visit England on furlough, the Cape was a sanatorium for invalids whose livers and stomachs had become deranged by tropical heat. This custom of a change to the Cape has now almost ceased, but it is seriously doubted whether, from a medical point of view, the invalid gains by the alteration. On this point Dr. Ross remarks:—'In the opinion of Sir R. Martin, the *sudden* change from extreme heat to extreme cold, through the overland route, has been highly injurious to both the military and civilian services, by inducing torpidity of the liver; and relapses in England from hepatic affections, as well as from dysentery and other allied diseases, are proverbially common. This is a matter well worthy of consideration. Nor must we underrate the importance of a long sea voyage in setting up many men who are suffering from functional disease of the stomach and bowels, and in warning "*bons vivants*" from the pleasures of the table. The sea air, and freedom from mental toil, gradually restore tone to overtasked brains and livers; and by the time they are landed in Table Bay they are in a capital position to avail themselves of the benefit to be derived from healthy exercise and judicious attention to regimen in a dry, cool, temperate climate. For a long time the baths at the Paarl, Stellenbosch, Malmesbury, and Caledon, had quite a reputation for improving the digestion of old Indians. And inasmuch as it will readily be admitted that the temperature produced by *latitude* is of unspeakably greater value than a similar value produced by *elevation*, it is quite open to medical proof that visceral disorder may without hesitation be sent to a place like the Cape, the temperature of which is caused by *distance* from the equator, rather than places which owe their coolness to elevation, as Simla.'

From this justly favourable view of the Cape climate, it must not be supposed that it is perfect and without its drawbacks. These drawbacks, however, result, in our opinion, rather from the absence of decided cold than from the presence of unwholesome heat. European constitutions need a change in the course of years to the bracing cold of a northern winter, and it is amazing what good effects in most cases follow such a change.

The whole system becomes invigorated, and often prepared for a prolonged spell of work in a warmer climate. It is as much as anything, through a certain pressure on the nervous system, in a climate like the Cape, that change often becomes desirable. With this drawback, however, the climate is undoubtedly one of the finest in the world. It is one of the few countries in the world that has never been visited by cholera and yellow fever, though there are periodical epidemics of small-pox and measles, the former invariably brought to the ports by vessels. Low fevers prevail occasionally, though not to a larger extent than in other healthy countries. Malarious diseases are, however, very uncommon. Ophthalmia and rheumatic and cardiac complaints are prevalent in portions of the country.

Having thus given a general account of the climate, particularly as it affects invalids, we may offer the reader a more detailed description of the meteorological phenomena and the climatic varieties of the country, with a simple description of the natural direction and form which the winds, rains, and climate in general assume from the valley of the Zambesi southwards to Cape Agulhas.

In doing so, we cannot do better than reproduce the summary of Mr. Hall, with such variations as recent experience suggests.

Want of rain.

Considering the description of the climate of South Africa to apply to those regions south of 20°, it will be found, on inspecting Berghaus's rain chart, that that portion of it bounded by the parallel of 20°, and on the coast side by the mountain ranges which fringe the south-western and eastern coasts, is situated, if not in a rainless region, yet in one in which the rains are periodical and partial; and it may be doubted whether rain ever falls in many parts of Great Namaqualand, the Kalihari, and Bushmanland (at least in the portion east of the Hartebeest River). South Africa is, indeed, except in its eastern portions, unfortunately circumstanced as regards the first great necessity of animal and vegetable life. Situated at the extreme southern angle of a large continent, the prevailing winds must of necessity blow towards the great heated surface of the interior, exposed to the influence of a tropical sun.

Hence the prevalence of southerly winds, which, blowing over a cold sea, and in early summer over fields of ice, can bring little rain. If they came from the north-west they would come loaded with the moisture of the tropical seas, which would then be deposited on the northern slopes of the coast ranges, and fertilize the karroos and deserts; but the north-westerly winds do not seem to extend far to the northward, and their influence is hardly felt one hundred miles in the interior.

In the Cape Colony itself, the prevailing winds are tolerably well marked by the trade-winds, namely, the south-east, blowing from about October until March, and the north-west, from April until September. During the south-east season dry weather prevails in the portion of the Colony west of the Gauritz River, and the Eastern Province enjoys fertilizing rains; and *vice versâ*, the northerly winds, which bring rain along the coast regions of the west, prevail in the form of hot, dry winds in the Eastern Province.

Prevailing winds.

It may be easily imagined that such an extensive region as South Africa presents many very different belts or zones of climate; yet, until the unhealthy regions of the eastern coast, north of Natal, and the swampy levels of the great central valley of the Zambesi or Leambye are reached, the whole may be considered as exceedingly favourable to European constitutions. They may be conveniently classified as follows:—*First*, the coast region, from latitude 20° south to the Olifant River, and extending as far inland as the foot of the mountain ranges, the character of which may be broadly stated as subject to severe droughts; temperature characterized by intense heat in the day time; and nights, even in the hottest season, cold; and it is not uncommon, in Little Namaqualand, to have the thermometer at sunrise as low as 40° or even 50°, even in the middle of summer; while from 11 a.m. to 4 p.m. it will stand in the shade at 100°, or more.

First climatic division.

In this region the rains, which are periodical, and very partial, appear to diminish towards the south, being, in fact, situated between the limits of the tropical rains and the regular rains of the southern parts of the Cape Colony; and there is, probably, a zone of rainless region similar to those existing in North Africa, Australia, and

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South America, extending from the coast along the Kalihari desert, whose limits are, however, not strictly defined.

Mr. Wyley describes the climate of that portion of Namaqualand south of the Orange River as one which, in a tropical country, would, when the air is overcharged with moisture, be depressing and unendurable; but in Namaqualand it need not prevent any one from riding, or even walking, so long as the dress is suited to the temperature and the head protected from the force of the sun's heat. It is not, however, favourable to longevity, since the extreme tension of the nervous system speedily gives way when one who has remained a few years in a dry climate changes to a moister one; and on the whole it is one that cannot be recommended for invalids.

On the immediate coast of this region it seldom rains; but dense fogs arise about dawn. Low fevers are more prevalent than in the interior, and, on the whole, this portion of the western coast must be pronounced less favourable to health than any other in the colony. The northern parts of Namaqualand receive partially the benefit of the subtropical rains; in the southern the rain falls in winter time.

Second climatic division.

The *second* climatic division to be described is the belt of coast country extending from the Olifant River West to the Gauritz River, and reaching inland to the mountains forming the western and southern edges of the Great Karroo. The characteristics of the climate of this division, although it varies in a few places whose elevation is considerable (as the Cold Bokkeveld, for instance), may be described as within the influence of the south-eastern trade-wind; and for eight months in the year, at least, during the prevalence of westerly winds, receives a bountiful supply of rains from the ocean. In summer, the south-east winds blow with great violence, and are remarkable for the local phenomenon they exhibit in the neighbourhood of the Cape peninsula and Table Mountain, called the Tablecloth. Thunderstorms are not so frequent as they are farther inland, and more to the eastward, even along the coast, —the annual mean of observations of lightning at the Royal Observatory, Cape Town, for 23 years ending

December 31, 1864, being between twelve and thirteen. For the same period the mean temperature was 61·88° F., maximum 99·5° on March 18, 1864, minimum, 34·3° on June 18, 1860;* the average fall of rain, 24·473 inches; the mean height of barometer, 30·034°. The barometer rises before south-east winds, and falls (*vide* Meteorological Table in Appendix) before north-west.

Third climatic division.

The *third* climate, that of Table Valley and its immediate vicinity, has certain local peculiarities which will be briefly described. The difference of temperature between the summit and base of Table Mountain is about 13°. The mean humidity of the air during the summer months, December, January, and February, is 66·4 per cent., and the mean temperature is 68·7° F.; the corresponding temperature of the dew point is 57·5° F., or 11·2° below the temperature of the air.

If we assume the humidity and atmospheric pressure to remain unaltered, the temperature of the air must descend about 12° before precipitation, in the form of cloud, fog, or rain, can take place. This circumstance is intimately connected with the phenomenon already alluded to—the Tablecloth. If, therefore, the stratum of air were suddenly lifted 3,600 feet, which is nearly the height of Table Mountain, its temperature would be lowered 12°, and a portion of humidity would be condensed in the form of cloud or fog, irrespective of each cubic foot becoming lighter by sixty-one grains.

The strong and violent southerly winds which prevail during these months effect the displacement. Table Mountain, like a huge wall, receives some four miles in breadth of the current which bounds up with diminishing temperature, and deposits the celebrated tablecloth or cap on the top. The upper surface of this majestic white cap is smoothed off like a well-dressed peruke—its northern border hangs over the precipice, drapery fashion; but during very strong winds it pours down like a cataract to about 1,000 feet from the top, where, entering a warmer temperature, it dissolves and disappears. Before a south-easterly gale, the barometer rises, and white fleecy clouds begin to gather on the

* On the grass the thermometer indicated 28·3° F., and was, of course, encrusted with ice.

summits of the Hottentot's Holland mountains. The same phenomenon is repeated on the Wynberg side of the mountain, in the summer season, when a north-westerly wind prevails.

The mean temperature of the cooler months, June, July, and August, is 55·1° F., the humidity, 80·6° per cent., and temperature of the dew point 49°, namely, 6° below the mean temperature of the air. The prevailing winds are north, north-west, west, and occasionally south-west. Hailstorm squalls are usually from the south-west, and lightning in that quarter is generally a sign of hard weather. The first indication of north-west winds is a fall in the barometer, and the appearance of a mass of condensed vapour rolling over the Lion's Hill; the air feels damp, and a swell sets into Table Bay. The violence of the north-west winds is generally in proportion to the fall of the barometer. During north-west and westerly gales the quantity of rain falling at Wynberg, on the south-eastern side of Table Mountain, is much more considerable than in the valley. The respective falls of rain at Cape Town, the Observatory, and Wynberg, for 1858, up to August 26, were twenty-four, nineteen, and thirty-six inches. The climate of Table Valley is, in most parts, thoroughly healthy and agreeable. The play of light winds across the peninsula from the two seas is most refreshing, and makes the suburbs of Cape Town delightful even in the hottest season. The neighbourhood of Green Point is best in winter.

Fourth climatic division.

Fourth.—The climate of the eastern division, from the Gamtoos River to Kaffirland, is, on the whole, more agreeable than the western. Heavy rains and thunderstorms occur during the summer months, moderating the intense heat and keeping the surface of the country fresh and green. The winters are often very cold, but the air is generally clear and agreeable; the maximum thermometer in the shade at Graham's Town, 1,728 feet above the sea, in 1857–8, stood at 106° with a hot wind, the minimum 35°; the annual fall of rain was 32·18 inches. But very hot days there are generally terminated by a thunderstorm and violent rain, which, reducing the temperature, makes the average temperature less than that of the western divisions. In the

year ending May 31, 1858, twenty thunderstorms were observed in Graham's Town.

Fifth climatic division.

The climate of the Great Karroo, the *fifth*, extending from the Hantam between the two great ranges as far eastward as Graaf-Reynet, at an average level of 3,000 feet above the sea, is characterized by severe droughts, rain seldom falling, except near the mountains; an intensely hot temperature in summer, with cold nights; and in winter exceedingly sharp nights and mornings, with three or four hours' high temperature between 11 a.m. and 3 p.m. Barrow thinks the extreme cold of the Karroo plains is caused by the alkaline nature of the soil. No meteorological observations of any extent exist for this part of the Colony.

Sixth climatic division.

The climate (*sixth*) of the country north of the Sneeuwberg and Winterberg mountains and the plains of the Free State, forming high plains from 3,000 to 5,000 feet above the sea, although subject to long droughts, is, on the whole, both salubrious and agreeable. In the summer months, the thunderstorms constantly occurring along the summits of the high mountains, render the air cool and pleasant; and the winters, though sharp, are always clear, bracing, and agreeable; indeed, for pulmonary complaints medical men agree that there is no finer climate in the world than the plateau of Cradock and Queen's Town and the plains of the Free State.

In the immediate vicinity of the high ranges of the Maluti, Sneeuwbergen, and Stormbergen, snow lies on the ground for three or four months in the year, and of course the upper valleys present climates more or less temperate; but it is undoubted that this portion of South Africa is one of the healthiest in the world.

Seventh climatic division.

The *seventh* climate is that of Natal, resembling that of the eastern coast region. In summer, rain falls daily, and thunderstorms are of constant occurrence. The thermometer on the coast, ranges in summer from 77° to 85°, in winter from 58° to 70°; on the first inland plateau, where the capital, Pietermaritzburg, is situated, in summer from 64° to 75°, in winter from 48° to 60°. Near the Quathlamba Mountains, which are covered with snow three or four months in the year, the winters are very cold.

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Eighth climatic division.

Although some of the peculiarities of the climate (*eighth*) of Bechouanaland and the Kalihari have already been described, it will be necessary, in order to preserve the unity of the subject, here to recapitulate them. The climate of Bechouanaland and the Kalihari is marked by a general deficiency of rain, which indeed characterizes all the regions north of the coast mountain range, forming the basin of the Orange River. Livingstone thus accounts for it: 'The reason, probably, why so little rain falls in this extensive plain is that the prevailing winds of most of the interior country are east, with a little southing. The moisture taken up by the atmosphere from the Indian Ocean is deposited on the eastern slope of the mountain ranges, and when the moving mass of air reaches its greatest elevation it is then on the verge of the great valley, or, as in the case of the Kalihari, the great heated inland plains; there meeting with the rarefied air of that hot, dry surface, the ascending heat gives it greater capacity for retaining its remaining humidity; and few showers can be given to the middle and western lands in consequence of the increased hygrometric power. This is the same phenomenon, on a gigantic scale, as that which takes place on Table Mountain, in what is called the spreading of the Tablecloth.

'Now, if, instead of a hollow on the lee side of Table Mountain, we had an elevated heated plain, the clouds which curl over on that side, and disappear as they do at present when a south-easter is blowing, might deposit some moisture on the windward ascent and top, as the south-easterly winds do now on the hill valleys of Kaffirland, the Kat River, and Winterberg; but the heat would then impart the increased capacity the air now receives at a lower level in its descent to leeward; and instead of an extended country with a flora of the disa grandiflora, gladiolus, rushes, and lichens, which now appear on Table Mountain, we should only have the hardy vegetation of the Kalihari.'

Hot winds.

Hot Winds.—Livingstone thus describes one of the hot winds from the north-west, blowing across the desert: 'It feels somewhat as if it came from an oven, and seldom blows longer at a time than three days. It resembles, in its effects, the harmattan of the

north of Africa; and at the time the missionaries first settled in the country, thirty-five years ago, it came loaded with fine red sand. It is so devoid of moisture, as to cause the wood of the best seasoned English boxes and furniture to shrink, so that every wooden article not made in the country is warped. This wind is in such an electric state, that a bunch of ostrich feathers held a few seconds against it becomes as strongly charged as if attached to a powerful electric machine; and clasps the advancing hand with a sharp, crackling sound.'

Fine climate for consumptive patients.

Dr. Livingstone considers the borders of the Kalihari desert as admirably suited for all patients having pulmonary complaints. 'It is the complete antipodes to our cold, damp English winter. The winter is perfectly dry, and as not a drop of rain ever falls from the end of May to the beginning of August, damp and cold are never combined. However hot the day may have been at Kolobeng (and the thermometer previous to rains, sometimes rose to 96° in the shade), yet the atmosphere never had that steamy and debilitating effect so well known in India and in parts of the coast region of South Africa itself. You may sleep out of doors with the most perfect impunity, as for many months not a drop of dew falls.'

Ninth climatic division.

Between the northern edge of the Kalihari and the Leambye or Zambesi valley, there is a *ninth* zone of climate, which forms a middle term between the dry region of the south and the more damp one of the 'Country of Waters' to the north. In spring the country suffers much from drought. The rainy season extends from September till April, but its approach is not so regular as farther to the north. At Linyanti the first rains fall about the end of September; and at Matlokako the rainy season begins, according to Moffat, in October. In the same latitude, in Ovampo and Damaraland, although heavy rains occasionally fall between November and January, the regular rainy season is from the first of January to the latter end of April.

Tenth climatic division.

The climate (*tenth*) of the Transvaal, on both the northern and southern slopes of the Magaliesbergen and great central plateau, is dry and healthy, resembling that of the northern parts of the Free State; but, farther

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to the north, the increased temperature and abundance of water engenders fever, and it assumes a tropical character. The same may be said of the Ngami regions, on the northern border of the Kalihari. The proximity to the great central valley of the Leambye or Zambesi, called by the natives the 'Country of Waters,' and the numerous anastomosing rivers which annually overflow, render it, in the summer season, very unhealthy; and fever and ague are there very prevalent. On reaching the Leambye we enter into the zone of the tropical rains. which appear to follow the course of the sun.

General observations.

General Observations.—Throughout the regions now described are localities whose altitude or particular local circumstances give a distinguishing stamp to their climates; for instance, the deep and narrow valleys of the Olifant River West are, in summer, intensely hot. Kannaland, between the Langeberg and Zwarteberg mountains, has a climate resembling the Great Karroo. The belt of coast between the Outeniqua and Zitzikamma mountains and the sea, being well wooded and favoured with abundant rains, may, perhaps, be more damp and tropical in its climate than other localities near the sea. The hot and deep valleys of the Great Fish and Great Kei Rivers present striking contrasts to the cooler high lands bordering on them; and dwellers who have broiled in the Great Fish Valley will remember the delight they felt, in the summer season, when they could ascend for a day or two to the plateau of Fort Peddie or Graham's Town. Fort Beaufort may probably, in the summer season, be hotter than Calcutta or Rangoon; yet within twenty-five miles of it are the deliciously cool valleys of Post Retief and the Great Winterberg; and the difference in climate between Cape Town and Wynberg, although only eight miles distant, need hardly be alluded to. In Table Valley grapes come to great perfection; the Alpine farms of the Cold Bokkeveld barely suffice to ripen the cherry. In Graaf-Reynet the honest burghers groan and swelter through the summer months, while the villagers of Murraysburg enjoy cool summers, and, scant of fuel as they are, can hardly bear the cold of the Alpine winters of the Koudeveld. But hot as the climate generally is in the summer months, the prevailing dryness of the atmosphere renders it, except in a very

few localities, one of the healthiest in the world; and with the exception of Australia, the Cape climate stands highest for salubrity in the statistics of the army medical department, deficient as are the accommodation and sanitary condition of many of our barrack buildings.

Mirage.

Mirage.—The phenomenon called mirage is very common, both in the interior heated plains and on the coast of South Africa, as it also is in the opposite latitude in North Africa. The illusions differ according to circumstances. Riding across the heated plains of Cradock or Colesberg, the spectator will suddenly see the whole features of the landscape change around him; sugar-loaf hills will be transformed into table mountains, and *vice versâ*, and a distant secretary bird will appear as tall as an ostrich; sometimes imaginary lakes will be formed. The same phenomenon is often observed, both in Table and False Bays, causing the apparent altitude of the surrounding hills to alter in a surprising manner. It results from the refraction of rays of light passing through strata of air of different density or moisture. Mr. Maclear made a scientific use of the apparent displacement thus effected of the plains of Bushmanland, by observing, at certain times of the day, the position of the peak of Kabiskouw, about seventy miles distant from his station, which by extraordinary refraction was seen above the horizon, when under ordinary circumstances it should be invisible.

Thunder-storms.

Thunder and Hailstorms, Snow, &c.—In the summer season, more especially in the northern and eastern parts of the Cape Colony and the adjacent regions, thunderstorms are very frequent and violent, and are generally accompanied by the following phenomena: After three or four days of very hot weather, small clouds begin to form on the horizon, generally in a northerly or north-westerly direction, early in the day; a hot scorching wind from the north-west sets in, often accompanied by clouds of dust; and the atmosphere assumes a dull yellow tinge. The clouds begin to accumulate and roll over each other in dark, smoky-looking masses, until at length the whole sky becomes overcast. Soon distant rumblings are heard, gradually becoming louder, until at last the whole heavens seem in convulsions; bright and

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vivid flashes of lightning quickly follow in all directions, succeeded by rattling and pealing volleys of thunder, until the storm, gradually passing overhead, terminates in torrents of rain; and in a few hours all is calm and beautiful, and the air cool; while, on the horizon, in a direction opposite to that whence the storm proceeded, are seen during the night the soft reflections of the distant lightning as it passes away to the southward. Every three or four days, during the summer, in seasonable weather, such storms occur; and, although sometimes fatal to life and property, do immense service by revivifying the scorched vegetation, and filling the dams and vleis with an abundant supply of excellent water. It is a grand sight, from a lofty mountain, to see a thundercloud discharging itself beneath you; the almost instantaneous electric discharge arising from the earth, at one extremity of the cloud, which transfers its electricity to the earth at the other, gives one, indeed, the actual sight of an immense electric battery in full operation.

Hailstorms.

Hail, although not common, yet sometimes falls heavily, especially after long droughts. In February 1849, after a drought of many months' duration, and in the midst of a very hot and almost cloudless day, a strange rattling noise was heard in the neighbourhood of Fort England, near Graham's Town; and it was found that within a circle of not more than half a mile in diameter a hailstorm had burst; the stones of which, some of them like irregular jagged pieces of ice, were not less than an inch and a half in diameter, and lay in some places, on the ground, nearly three feet in thickness, while all around was heat and sunshine. Large numbers of sheep are often lost by similar hailstorms in the frontier divisions.

Snow.

In the coast regions very little snow ever falls; but on the high plains north of the Nieuweveld and Sneeuwberg mountains, in the Cold Bokkeveld, and other high localities, the coast rains are generally precipitated in the shape of snow. The writer has seen Table Mountain adorned for a day or two with a slight sprinkling of snow.

Royal Observatory and meteorological stations.

The stations in South Africa where regular meteorological observations are recorded are the Royal Observatory near Cape Town, Simon's Town, Somerset West, Worcester, Mossel Bay, Port Elizabeth, Graham's Town

(formerly at the Royal Engineer Department, now at the Public Library), Graaf-Reynet, and Queen's Town. Partial observations are, however, kept by the Cape Town municipality, by Mr. Blore at Wynberg, at Green Point, at Swellendam, at Recife Lighthouse, and by the Rev. Mr. Frédoux, at Moteto, in the Barolong country. The work of observation has been begun at Colesberg, and is likely (under the auspices of the Meteorological Committee) to extend to other places. It is to be regretted that proper observations are not carried on at many more points; for instance, Clanwilliam, Springbok Fontein, Hondeklip Bay, Calvinia, Beaufort, George or Knysna, Oudtshoorn, Cradock, Graaf-Reynet, Richmond, Aliwal North, and Bloemfontein. The cost of providing a few trustworthy instruments for each of these localities would be but trifling; and, if the initiative step were once taken, volunteers in the cause of science would be found at once to take charge of them, and keep a daily record of their observations, which would be a most agreeable change in the usual dull monotony of a country village in South Africa. The determination of the mean fall of rain in different parts of the Colony is, in particular, a point of the highest practical importance with reference to our agriculture, &c.

Abstract from Meteorological Observations made at the Royal Observatory, Cape of Good Hope, in the Years 1862 *to* 1867.

Months	Mean Height of Barometer at Temperature 32°	Temperature of the Air					Mean Temperature of Evaporation for each Month	Mean Humidity for each Month	Rain
		Mean Temperature	Mean Daily Range	Mean of Greatest Range on any one Day of each Month	Mean of Least Range on any one Day of each Month	Mean of Greatest Range throughout each Month			
	Inches.	°	°	°	°	°	°	Per cent.	Inches
January . . .	29·930	71·83	16·97	30·80	9·42	37·28	62·66	62·62	0·282
February . . .	29·912	69·87	15·74	29·35	8·63	34·27	62·32	65·61	0·870
March	29·953	67·74	16·30	30·50	7·60	39·35	60·80	67·79	0·868
April	30·003	62·78	14·40	27·90	6·75	36·20	57·51	73·06	1·717
May	30·075	59·31	13·56	25·25	4·57	33·75	55·16	77·42	2·841
June	30·109	55·89	11·56	22·95	4·49	30·67	52·51	79·84	4·748
July	30·149	55·29	11·81	20·75	3·47	27·54	52·07	79·64	3·828
August	30·118	56·07	11·52	23·37	4·24	32·25	52·45	78·32	2·369
September . . .	30·109	57·93	12·76	26·20	5·20	33·97	53·23	73·88	1·579
October . . .	30·023	60·75	13·41	27·57	5·99	35·57	52·35	73·31	2·725
November . . .	30·014	63·99	15·14	25·50	8·32	34·59	57·61	67·81	0·780
December . . .	29·941	69·00	15·90	29·67	9·49	37·97	61·44	64·77	0·288
Mean Annual Values .	30·028	62·47	14·09	26·65	6·51	34·45	56·68	72·01	22·895

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Statistics of meteorological stations throughout the Colony.

TABLE II.—*Abstract of the Mean Annual Meteorological Results from the following Stations, Cape of Good Hope, &c.*

Names of Stations	Mean Height of the Barometer reduced to Temperature 32° Fahrenheit, and to the Observatory Standard	Mean Annual	Mean Daily Range	Mean of Greatest Range on any one Day	Mean of Least Range on any one Day	Mean of Greatest Range of each Month	Mean Annual Temperature of Evaporation at 9 a.m. and 1 and 5 p.m.	Mean Annual Humidity at 9 a.m. and 1 and 5 p.m.	Mean Annual Falls of Rain
	Inches	°	°	°	°	°	°	Per cent.	Inches
Graaf-Reynet	27·508	64·41	24·52	37·88	11·58	48·74	58·17	55·98	13·196
Worcester	29·238	62·75	24·89	40·98	10·15	48·82	57·88	54·63	11·745
Mossel Bay	29·608	63·90	17·78	27·42	9·00	38·25	59·20	69·47	11·550
Somerset West	29·931	61·89	20·88	35·08	8·12	42·87	59·93	68·83	26·671
Simon's Town	30·023	65·14	15·00	23·98	6·50	30·91	62·27	79·17	29·489
Royal Observatory	30·028	62·47	14·09	26·65	6·51	34·45	56·68	72·01	23·895
Graham's Town	30·026	62·65	18·59	...	...	43·94	58·90	70·30	32·594
Maritzburg	27·896	64·83	...	...	...	41·86	...	70·80	30·230
Adelaide	29·897	63·94	20·98	33·97	11·58	45·91	55·82	58·25	20·505
Hobart Town	29·894	56·20	18·48	32·50	9·00	40·13	50·86	72·17	25·710
St. Helena	28·285	61·40	...	...	...	...	59·00	87·00	47·198
Antananarivo	25·606	...	...	...	...	...	...	64·69	38·710
New Zealand	30·610	55·3	Mean of Greatest Range for Year			50·3	51·4	77·0	44·88

PRODUCTIONS AND INDUSTRIES.

Agriculture.

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Native tradition of the origin of agriculture.

The traditionary account given by the Bechouanas of the origin of Agriculture in South Africa is curious and interesting. They say that formerly immense fields of millet covered the earth, and corn grew of itself, being fed on by the oxen only, as man was altogether ignorant of its nature or value. He sustained his life, at this far distant period of time, on roots and cowdung only. At length, however, the use of corn as an article of diet was discovered, owing to the jealousy of a woman, who, wishing to poison a younger rival, whose charms had eclipsed her own in the estimation of her husband, gave her millet, gathered from the river-side, of which she had made cakes. Why she supposed it would have that effect tradition does not say, but to her amazement and mortification, it was found that under the administration of this novel 'medicine,' her dreaded rival grew more plump and charming than ever. This led to enquiry. Others soon learned the secret of these miraculous cakes, and, at length, the cultivation of corn became general among men.

Cereals.

Wheat.

Wheat is produced throughout the Colony, Kaffirland Proper, Natal, and parts of the Free State, the Basuto country, and even as far north, in elevated localities, as Angola and the valley of the Zambesi, where Livingstone found it of excellent quality at Zumbo and Tete.

Colonel Apperley writes in the 'Cape Monthly Magazine' (vol. vii. p. 166): 'No other soil that I have seen will produce a succession of crops of wheat, which is said to make the best flour in the world, upon one

rough ploughing (rough it is, and no mistake), little or no manure, and weeding never thought of. Every farmer should write over his mantel-piece that two grains of wheat, imported by Mr. Bailey, produced 5,000 perfect seeds, and compare that return with his own.' For one or two years, the Cape farmers produced sufficient wheat to export a considerable quantity to England. It was eagerly bought up by the confectioners, and realized a higher price than the best Dantzic. Unfortunately the poorness of the crops in the following two or three years, as well as increased demand for bread-stuffs in the colony itself, has prevented a repetition of the experiment.

The principal colonial wheat-producing districts are Malmesbury, Piquetberg, part of Cape Division, Cold Bokkeveld, Swellendam, Langekloof, Sneeuwberg and Winterberg valleys, Olifant's Hoek, and the division of Queen's Town.

Barley and oats.

Barley and Oats are much more generally cultivated, but chiefly as fodder for horses. They are confined to the temperate zone. It is only on the highlands of Damaraland that their growth extends into the tropics. The Cape barley does not malt well.

Rye.

Rye is the grain principally grown on the lower hills of Little and Great Namaqualand and the Roggevelds, where, in favourable seasons, it produces abundantly.

Maize.

Maize, or Indian corn, requires considerable moisture for its cultivation, and is found growing in all damp situations in Bechouanaland, Kaffirland, Natal, Zululand, the Free State, and the Transvaal country, and, more or less, on all the farms of the colony. But in no district is it cultivated on anything approaching to the extensive scale on which it is raised in the United States of America.

Millet.

Millet (*Holcus sorghum*) is cultivated by the Bechuana and Kaffir tribes extensively, and has much the same distribution as maize.

Rice, of a very superior quality, is grown on the banks of the Olifant River, where annual inundations take place; and there is no doubt that this and many other kinds of grain might be cultivated extensively under a proper system of irrigation, as well as sugar,

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coffee, cotton, &c., all of which are cultivated to some extent, but which need greater moisture than can generally be secured, to come to perfection.

Roots, Vegetables, &c.

The Potato.

The potato, says Hall, succeeds, under certain circumstances, in every well-watered part of South Africa, south of 25° latitude, and has been much extended of late in the Cape Colony. Livingstone found it growing as far north as Cassange, where it was, doubtless, introduced by the Portuguese. Batatas and yams are found in every part of the great central valley of the Zambesi, the Transvaal country, and on the eastern coast as far as Natal. Ground nuts are produced plentifully in Zululand and Natal, where they promise soon to become a valuable article of commerce. Arrowroot is also grown there in large quantities, and has been exported to a considerable extent. Melons, cucumbers, peas, beans, &c., &c., are grown universally where there is water, from Bechouanaland to the coast.

Sugar.

Sugar, Cotton, Indigo, Coffee, &c.—Although the sugar-cane, and its varieties, appear indigenous in nearly all the tropical parts of South Africa, yet it is only in the colony of Natal that the manufacture of sugar is conducted on a large scale, and with any prospect of success. The production has now become sufficient not only for home consumption, but to allow of a considerable exportation.

Cotton.

Cotton grows wild, most luxuriantly, in the country of the Makololo, in the northern parts of Ovampoland, and on the eastern coast north of Delagoa Bay; and its cultivation has been introduced into Natal, and parts of the Cape Colony.

Indigo.

Indigo grows wild in nearly every part of the tropical regions, and in Natal, from which colony some very excellent samples of the manufactured article have been brought.

Tobacco.

Tobacco.—The best colonial tobacco is grown in the valley of the Olifant River East, and other parts of the division of George; but the cultivation of it is

spread, more or less, all through South Africa, and the Bechouanas and Makololo use and prize it not less than the boers and English settlers. It is dried and cured by the farmers, and some good samples have recently come southwards from the Transvaal.

Medical Productions, &c.

Medical plants.

The aloe, castor oil, buchu, stramonium, euphorbiums, gum mimosa, wax berry, hottentot fig, and many other plants useful for medical and domestic purposes, are found indigenous in great abundance, in many parts of the Cape Colony and surrounding regions. Many native plants of great value in medicine are described by the late Dr. Pappe, in his useful publication on the properties of South African indigenous plants.

Land under Cultivation.

Estimate of the amount of land under cultivation.

The amount of land under cultivation can only be ascertained approximately, as there are no complete returns later than the year of the Census (1875). But the result of the statistics of the distribution of land then collected, is as follows:—

The total extent of landed property in the western and eastern divisions of the Colony was estimated at 39,947,734 Cape morgen—a morgen being equivalent to 2·11654 English acres. Of these only 274,412 morgen were returned as under cultivation, of which about one-half were in the western division. This was distributed as follows:—*Wheat*, 88,984 morgen, yielding 1,687,935 bushels; *barley*, 13,786 morgen, yielding 447,991 bushels; *rye*, 20,283 morgen, yielding 214,260 bushels; *oats*, 54,168 morgen, yielding 918,494 bushels; *maize*, 62,036 morgen, yielding 1,113,007 bushels; *peas, beans, and lentils*, 3,836 morgen, yielding 60,636 bushels; *tobacco*, 1,243 morgen, yielding 3,060,241 lb.; *potatoes*, 4,257 morgen, yielding 371,523 bushels; *orchards and orangeries*, 7,027 morgen, yielding dried fruit to the extent of 2,672,761 lb.; *vines*, 8,588 morgen,

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with 69,910,215 vine stocks, yielding 4,485,665 imperial gallons of wine, and 1,067,832 of brandy and other spirits.

Average market prices for 1878.

The average market price of wheat throughout the whole colony, for 1878, was 13*s.* 2*d.* per bushel; barley, 7*s.* 9*d.*; rye, 8*s.* 1*d.*; oats, 8*s.* 5½*d.*; maize, 11*s.* 6*d.*; peas, beans, &c., 12*s.* 10*d.*; potatoes, 8*s.* 6*d.*; pumpkins, 9*d.* each; dried fruits, 8*d.* per. lb.; aloes, 5*d.* per lb.; argal, 4¼*d.*; wine, 10*l.* 17*s.* per leaguer, first quality, and 7*l.* 15*s.* inferior quality; brandy, 30*l.* first quality, and 24*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* inferior quality.

Dairy farms.

Pure Dairy Farms are almost unknown in South Africa, but cows, either of a pure imported breed, such as Dutch, Alderney, Ayrshire, Kerry, &c., or of the Africander breed crossed and improved by these, are grazed at the best farms throughout the colony. Milk and butter are produced, but the milk is not rich enough for cheese-making.

Wool.

Wool.

This is the great staple article of produce in South Africa. In Graaf-Reynet, Cradock, Beaufort, and other divisions of the colony are immense sheep-farms, producing, in 1879, exports in wool to the extent of 40,000,000 lbs., of the value of over 2,000,000*l.*

This is chiefly derived from the Merino breed, which is fast replacing the old big-tailed sheep of the Dutch settlers. Considerable attention is being paid in the colony to the subject of breed, the problem being to produce the largest fleece with the smallest carcase. Too much importance can scarcely be attached to the matter. Whatever improved irrigation may effect, the vast extent of South Africa can never become fit for arable purposes, and no other animal is likely to be so extensively reared as the wool-bearing sheep, for whose fleece there will always be a demand. There seems to be no reason why, with sufficient capital and enterprise, South Africa might not become, as a wool-producing country, second only to the Australian Colonies.

Angora hair, clipped from the Angora goat, has also recently been added to the produce of the Cape farms, and promises to yield a considerable revenue.

The question of pasturage is treated under the division of 'Grasses,' and is an important one to the increased production of wool.

The particulars of the wool export will be found tabulated under 'Exports and Imports.'

Cape Wines.

Temporary depression of the industry.

Cape wines were some years ago imported into England, and sold at a moderate price. Unfortunately they fell into disrepute, from the haste with which they were prepared for the home market, and the consequent necessity for strongly fortifying them with spirit to enable them to bear a tropical heat. For some time the industry was much depressed, but owing to the largely increased consumption in the diamond-fields, it has of late years greatly revived.

Vineyards of Constantia.

The grapes of Constantia are said, by competent judges, to be the finest in the world; and there seems to be no reason why the wine produced from them should, of its kind, be inferior to that of the best vineyards in France and Germany. Indeed, as it is, some of the finer samples are said by connoisseurs to be almost perfect. M. Héritte, for five years Consul for France in South Africa, writes to the present Governor, Sir H. Barkly, on the 6th of November 1872, of three samples of wine taken by him in March 1869 when leaving Cape Town for Elsinore—Pontac prize wine, dry old Pontac, and Cape sherry, first quality:—

'These three wine sorts have become altogether perfect, and the best connoisseurs among my friends like them very much, not because this wine comes from a distant country, but because it is really excellent. The "Pontac prize wine" of Mr. Van Renen has become so dry that it is almost a little bitter, but of a bitter dryness which connoisseurs like best. It is really a "unique" wine, and if this wine, as it becomes in course of time, were more generally known, it would create a "*furore.*"'

He adds that 'the Cape Colonists have *in their wines* a source of wealth of which they have not at all a correct idea.'

Varieties of grapes.

It is not easy to trace the different Cape vines to their original stocks. They would seem to have been

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mostly derived from France. As we have seen, the French Huguenots who emigrated to the colony on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, brought with them cuttings or plants. There are some very old vines still in existence in Fransche Hoek, which tradition says were planted by them. The varieties imported since then have probably been from France and Germany, chiefly the former. It is very desirable in a wine-growing country like the Cape that the number of such varieties should be increased.

The most common vines, from which, perhaps, ninety-nine per cent. of the Cape wine is manufactured, are named as follows :—*Green grape* (*both black and white*), *Steen grape*, *Hanepoot*, *red and white Muscadel*, *Frontignac*, and *Pontac*.

Wines made from the green grape.

An enormously large proportion is made from the *Green grape*. Both varieties (black and white) yield a juice which is white, or rather colourless. The only grape at the Cape which produces *red juice* is the Pontac. A reddish wine can be made from all black grapes, but the colour is only in the skins, and can only be imparted to the wine by fermenting the skins with the juice, but its natural colour is white. Almost all Cape wines are so altered by the addition of spirit at various stages of their manufacture that very few people know what really natural Cape wine is like. A pale, light wine, with a sub-acid, grateful flavour, somewhat resembling Hock, may be made from the Steen grape (with a small addition of Green grape), altogether without the use of spirit, but stronger than Rhine wine; one sample, on being tested at Southampton, was found to contain 25 per cent. proof spirit, just enabling it to enter at the one shilling duty.

By the addition of alcohol at an early stage of the manufacture, the process of fermentation is checked, and some of the sugar remains undecomposed. The result is, as a rule, a wine resembling a low-class Madeira, like that supplied at canteens or roadside public-houses in Madeira.

Wines made from the Muscadels and Frontignac.

The Muscadels and *Frontignac* are, for the most part, used for *sweet wines*, such as are made at Constantia and the Paarl. These are said to resemble the sweet Muscat and Frontignan wines of the South of France. But it

must be borne in mind that they are sweet wines simply because fermentation is checked before the sugar is entirely decomposed—generally by the addition of alcohol, but sometimes by a process known as 'skummelling.' The wine is drawn into casks, of a size which can be easily handled, as soon as it has become a little clear. The casks are strongly *sulphured* before the wine is put into them—at first only a small quantity. The cask is then rolled and shaken till the sulphur is completely absorbed, when it is filled up, and, as a rule, fermentation will be checked by this means, for a time at least. It is necessary, however, to examine it daily, by placing the ear to the bung-hole, when, if fermentation has re-commenced, the process has to be repeated, if need be, several times. A more common practice, and far less tedious, is to add about 10 per cent. of very strong spirits of wine (about 35° by Cartier's hydrometer). This generally arrests fermentation, but the wine must be watched, and, if necessary, racked from one cask to another. Now and then a cask cannot be controlled; and, in that case, it must be allowed to ferment till it becomes dry, or, at any rate, much less sweet than it would otherwise have been.

From the Hanepoot grape.

The Hanepoot Grape, the proper name of which is Muscat of Alexandria, makes a white wine, which, when young, is rather rough, with a very strong Muscat flavour, peculiar to the Hanepoot. But when old it seems entirely to change its character. Nearly all the Cape wines acquire colour with age, but the Hanepoot, which when young is a pale wine, frequently becomes with age as dark as the brownest of brown sherry. Really good old Hanepoot is, perhaps, the finest of Cape wines, and in taste resembles a very fair Madeira.

Pontac.

The Red Wine called *Pontac* receives its colour and flavour from the grape. At Constantia this wine is never made till the grape has so far shrivelled up that it contains very little juice. This is supplied, in the best kinds of wine, by the addition of red Muscadel; but in the vineyards at Stellenbosch, Paarl, Drakenstein, and where the bulk of the Pontac is made, the green grape is used to supply the deficiency, and the result is a wine of inferior quality.

Pontac is either sweet or dry, according as fermentation has been checked or allowed to run its natural course.

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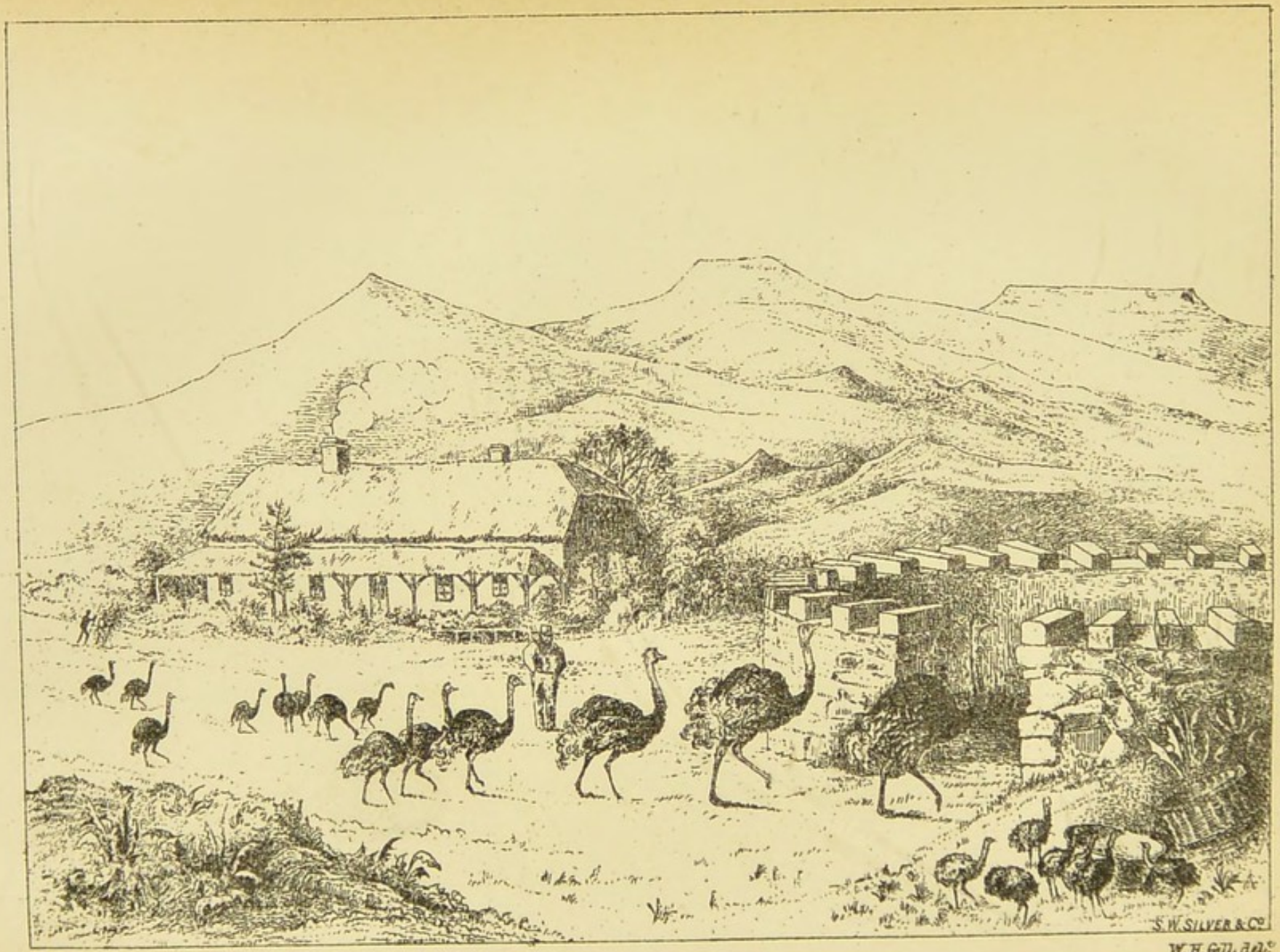
Unlike other Cape wines, it loses much of its colour with age, when it both looks and tastes much like old, dry, tawny port. At one time large quantities of this wine, after undergoing adulteration, were sold in England for port.

Process of manufacture.

The process of manufacture is substantially the same for all kinds of wine. When the grapes are *thoroughly* ripe they are packed in baskets and carted to the wine store. Fifteen or twenty bushels are thrown into a large tub with a false bottom pierced with holes, standing on the true bottom. The grapes are well smashed by the feet of the natives, and the juice, with some of the husks, runs into a trough below. It is then pumped up into fermenting tubs, where it lies, according to conditions of temperature and variety of grape, from two to four, or even five days, till the fermentation begins to slacken, which may be detected either by the falling of the thermometer, or by the sinking of the crust of husks, &c., on the top. It is then racked into the stukvats, where the less turbulent processes of fermentation are completed. The wine is racked into a fresh stukvat whenever it is wished to check fermentation. As soon as the wine is quite quiet and tolerably clear, it is sent to the merchants, who fortify it with spirit, sweeten it with sweeter wines, and clarify it till its flavour and appearance meet their approval. For *red* wines all the husks are sifted from the stalks, and put into the fermenting tubs.

Difficulties attending it.

The high temperature in which the wine has to be made is a great disadvantage under which the Cape manufacturer has to labour. The grapes often come into the store at an extremely high temperature, and the consequence is that the fermentation sets in furiously, and, as a result, all the delicate flavours which should remain in the wine are dissipated, and a harsh, flavourless wine produced, poisoned with what has been called an *earthy* flavour. This has been attributed, by mere theorists, to the fact of the grapes being grown too near the ground, instead of on trellisses, as they are in some parts of Europe; but anybody who has any practical knowledge of the matter must be aware that quite as much wine is made, in France (at any rate), from vines pruned as they are



Whiteman & Bass, *Photo-Litho* London.

OSTRICH FARM AND KRAAL, CAPE COLONY.

at the Cape, as from trellissed vines; and many think that the nearer a bunch of grapes hangs to the ground the better is its flavour. As a rule, in European wine countries, certainly in France and Germany, the wine is not made till the hot weather has passed. Accordingly, the fermentation is tediously slow, and has sometimes even to be invigorated by breaking down the crust of husks which forms on the top (and which contains most of the ferment), and mixing it thoroughly with the wine. There is no need for this at the Cape: in the few cases where the crust is mixed with the juice, the object is not to excite the fermentation, but to expose all the rich fleshy matter which rises with the skins to the action of the fermenting juice, and so to extract its sweetness and flavour. The other object, in red wine, is to extract the colour, which, as we have seen, except in Pontac, belongs entirely to the skins, and is thus artificially produced.

Amount exported in 1878.

The total amount of wine exported during the year ending December 31, 1879, is given in the Official Blue Book, as under:—

Constantia	...	2,843 gallons, value	1,940*l.*
Ordinary	...	72,569 gallons, value	14,095*l.*
Total...	...	75,412 gallons, value	16,035*l.*

For 1874 the returns were as follows:—

Constantia	...	1,655 gallons, value	1,272*l.*
Ordinary	...	77,802 gallons, value	15,876*l.*
Total	...	80,457 gallons, value	17,148*l.*

Ostrich-Farming.

Industries peculiar to South Africa.

Amongst the industries of South Africa are to be reckoned some which are entitled to be called romantic, chiefly because of the splendour of the articles they assist to produce, and partly on account of the singular methods of production. The Courts of Europe would be stinted in their materials of magnificence were it not for the ivory, the diamonds, and the ostrich feathers which

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take high rank in the merchandise of the Cape. Of the trade in precious stones, tusks, and teeth, and of the labours of the digger and hunter in obtaining them, a full account will be rendered elsewhere in this work,

Ostrich-farming.

A chapter must here be given to Ostrich-Farming—almost the newest, and certainly the most singular of all the enterprises to which the novel conditions of South African life have invited the adventurous colonist. It will probably add to the information of the generality of English readers to be told that ostrich feathers are now quite as much the product of regulated human labour, applied to the art of domestication, as wool, mohair, or silk. The plumes which play so distinguished a part in the pomp of ceremony and fashion, are no longer to be reckoned amongst the barbaric spoils of the chase. They are the tame products of the farmyard, and are the ultimate results of such commonplace processes as breeding, rearing, herding, feeding, plucking, and sorting. Cape farmers buy and sell ostriches as they do sheep, and they fence their flocks in, stable them, grow crops for them, study their habits, and cut their feathers, as matters of business.

Incubation.

The eggs are not, as yet, considered to belong to the Cape dairy, and are not sent to market with butter and cheese. They are too precious for consumption, and are too valuable even to be left for hatching to the rude methods of nature. The act of laying has not, as yet, been dispensed with, but as soon as the eggs have been deposited, the nest is discarded, the parents are 'locked out,' and the mechanical certainties of the patent incubator are substituted for parental instincts and affection.

Recent growth of this form of industry.

Twelve or fifteen years ago, ostrich-farming was unknown to the Cape; and ostrich feathers were the product of the chase. To obtain its beautiful and much-coveted plumage, the bird was hunted down and killed. This practice was not only cruel—it was also uneconomical. It was, in effect, to imitate the folly of the man who killed the goose for the sake of the golden eggs. The system of slaughtering the bird for its feathers was fast removing the ostrich from its old haunts, and was surely accomplishing its destruction. Less than half a century since, flocks of ostriches were to be seen in almost all parts of the

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Cape Colony. Preferring the Karroo flats, and the sweet grass lands of the upper country, where they found the alkalies necessary to their health, they were, nevertheless, to be found towards the coast, grazing on the sour-*veld*, and making the best of salt, lime, and such bones as they could find. At that time, however, the bird was vexed and harried. Pringle paints the ostrich of his time as in flight from enemies :—

> The fleet-footed ostrich over the waste
> Speeds like a horseman who travels in haste,
> Hieing away to the home of her rest,
> Where she and her mate have scooped their nest,
> Far hid from the pitiless plunderer's view,
> In the pathless depths of the parched karroo.

Ostrich-hunting in the interior.

For some time before domestication was attempted, the ostrich was a rare bird in the colony, except, probably, in the arid wastes of Namaqualand and Clanwilliam, and the chief sources of the feather supply were hid away in the far interior, to the north and north-west of the Free State and the Transvaal. The hunter, whether white or black, pursued his murderous calling during the proper season for the sport, which was also a business ; and, also, at the proper season for barter, the trader appeared at some established outspan with his creaking waggons, laden with guns, powder, blankets, wire, beads, brandy, and other attractions for the native eye and appetite, and a brisk exchange took place, ivory, karosses, rhinoceros's horns and hippopotami teeth, as well as ostrich feathers, being gladly accepted for western merchandise. The traffic still goes on, for ostrich-farming has not, as yet, made interior *smousing* unprofitable. The departure of a great trader with his train of, perhaps, half-a-dozen waggons, all of them gaily painted and cosily covered in with snow-white canvas, is an event in some Cape towns. As the drivers 'clap' their long whips, and the teams, eight pairs of oxen labouring at each wain, move briskly over the way, all eyes are upon them with the look which is given to far-voyaging ships when they leave port. But the return excites more attention, as then every waggon is full of precious and various wealth, the result of a long and risky venture. Not unfrequently the costly wares are sold by auction on the

Auction markets.

morning market, and the tusks, teeth, skins, horns, and feathers are spread out upon the ground as if they were no better than field-stuff or garden produce. It is no uncommon thing to see waggon cargoes worth 10,000*l.*, exhibited for sale in this unceremonious way, amidst a crowd of onlookers, some of whom are almost as wild as the animals which produced the barbaric spoils, and as black as a coal. It will take many years of feather-growing to put a stop to the rude traffic of the interior trader. Indeed, as long as the wild ostrich is to be found anywhere south of the Zambesi, the hunting and barter system will continue, as ivory will be sought after, and the feathers will be taken by tusk buyers as part of the bargain. No attempt has, as yet, been made by Cape colonists to domesticate the elephant for the sake of his tusks, and as the waggons go up for one commodity they may as well bring down another. How long it will take to complete the work of extermination it is impossible to say, as the rapid increase of the produce of the farms will, no doubt, tend to lessen the inducements to hunting.

Earliest attempts at domestication.

It is always difficult to award with accuracy the merit of the actual beginning of an enterprise. Who was the first in South Africa seriously to attempt the domestication of the ostrich will, probably, remain a matter of uncertainty. It is pretty certain that thirteen or fourteen years ago, Mr. Kinnear, of Beaufort West, had a small flock of ostriches well in hand. It must not be supposed, however, that the endeavour had its origin in the Cape. Very likely Mr. Kinnear had his attention directed to the scheme, which he carried out with so much vigour, by the efforts which the French Imperial Society of Acclimatisation had made to promote the domestication of the ostrich, several years before the date of his attempt. Nearly twenty years ago, ostrich-breeding was successfully tried in Algeria. In this respect, North Africa was in advance of the South. It is, however, probable that the industry has received a greater development in the Cape than in Algiers. The farmers of the British colony have taken to the novelty with great spirit. If it is difficult to say who was the first to begin ostrich-farming at the Cape, it is more difficult to enumerate all who are continuing

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it. The occupation is now wide-spread. There are but few districts of the colony where there are no ostriches. From the near neighbourhood of Capetown to the eastern frontier, and from Albany to the Orange River, flocks of these valuable birds are to be found at intervals of no formidable distance. Some breeders have a reputation for their successes. Mr. Meiring, Mr. Raubenheimer, and Mr. Guest, as well as Mr. Kinnear, in the west, Mr. Douglass, Mr. Atherstone, and Mr. White in Upper Albany, Mr. Distin, Mr. Sluiter, Mr. Booysen, and Mr. Murray of the Midlands, and Mr. Loxton on the eastern border, are well-known names in connection with ostrich-farming. It must not, however, be supposed that the colony, or any part of it, is stocked with the bird. The Cape is a vast country; its farms are long and broad; huge tracts are unoccupied, if owned; acres by the million are yet without proprietor or tenant. The traveller might journey for days without seeing an ostrich, and call at many homesteads with no domesticated fowl about them but the humble familiars of an English farm-yard. The Cape is a great wool country, but to the wayfarer, in that land of vast spaces, even sheep seem scanty; and its ostriches, in comparison with its sheep, are as one to a thousand.

Most successful breeders.

The plans adopted by farmers in meeting the first requirement of domestication—that of limitation—have been various. Mr. Kinnear made his compound, not more than eight acres in extent, suffice for thirty birds. It would, however, be misleading to allow this fact to be looked upon as anything but an exception to the rule that the ostrich needs considerable room. Mr. Kinnear was obliged to sow his eight acres with lucerne, in order to provide food for his birds. Even with that provision, and with every allowance made for an unusual aptitude for domestication on the part of Mr. Kinnear, it cannot but be considered that this gentleman was very much indebted to fortune for his success. Other breeders have given their birds the run of their lands, trusting to careful herds and the attractions of a daily feed of mealies at the homestead. Mr. George White, of Upper Albany, at one time, gave an enclosure of five hundred acres to twenty-three young ostriches. Mr. Murray, of Coles-

Arrangement of the farms, fences, paddocks, &c.

berg, had about ninety within one thousand acres, walled round with stone, and he has now an enclosure of nearly five thousand acres for his larger flocks. Mr. Douglass, of Albany, has his farm divided into about seven or eight large and well-fenced paddocks. It may be considered a settled law of ostrich-farming that free space and good fences are essential to success. Sheds, kraals, and houses are also necessary, not only for safe keeping, artificial hatching, and feather-gathering, but also for shelter from the cold and wet. Exposure is very hurtful to the birds, if weak or out of condition.

The grazing-ground.

The grazing-ground best suited for the ostrich is that in which the soil or plants are rich in alkalies. When this is not the case, care must be taken to supply the needful element.

Result of Dr. Atherstone's investigations.

Dr. Atherstone, of Graham's Town, who has given much attention to the domestication of ostriches, in a paper witten by him for the Acclimatisation Society of Victoria (Australia), at the request of Sir Henry Barkly, and published in the 'Australasian' and in the 'Cape Monthly Magazine,' gives an interesting account of observations made by him and his friends of the different results of ostrich-grazing on three farms in the neighbourhood of Graham's Town. 'Kruisfontein, belonging to Mr. John Atherstone, is,' he says, 'an unmitigated zuurfeldt farm, situated on a sandstone ridge. There is no limestone on the farm. On first buying ostriches, melancholy failures had to be endured, and their causes discovered. Limestone was first of all carted to the farm from a considerable distance, as the birds would not lay. But the ostriches would not touch the limestone, and they continued to be barren of eggs, and not very fruitful of feathers. Bones were then tried, and with admirable effect. What the birds required was the phosphate of lime, and the bones gave them that. They rushed at them with avidity, and began to improve in health and to lay.' Still, Kruisfontein cannot be said to have been successful as an ostrich farm. Mr. Atherstone gives a quarter of a pound of sulphur and some salt to two buckets of crushed bones. The second farm, Hilton, occupied by Mr. Arthur Douglass, is, says Dr. Atherstone, a table farm, on the junction of the sandstone with the schists and trap conglomerate formation, and the herbage is partly sour and

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partly sweet. The soil is rich in alkaline salts, which often exude on the surface in the hollows. On this farm the ostrich thrives well, and has always done so from the first, with the aid of but little artificial food. The third farm, in the same neighbourhood, is Brack Kloof. It is wholly on the trap conglomerate, and the *veld* is sweet. The rocks, soil, and herbage contain alkaline salts in abundance, and the water is brackish; hence the name of the property. On Brack Kloof the ostrich has a kindly natural home. Little artificial food is given, and shelter has scarcely been required. The birds thrive, fatten, pair, and multiply in the most satisfactory manner. The instructiveness of these observations is at once evident. Anyone attempting ostrich-farming would be unwise to overlook the important condition of fitness of soil. In any case, however, artificial food seems to be essential. Lucerne, clover, wheat, maize, cabbage leaves, fruit, grain, earth, crushed quartz, as well as bones, are all grist to the wonderful mill of the ostrich. According to an estimate made by Mr. Kinnear, an ostrich will consume twenty pounds of chopped lucerne in a day, if kept on artificial food. Mr. Arthur Douglass, than whom no one has been more successful in ostrich-breeding, feeds his birds in the summer time, at considerable intervals, leaving them at that season to the luxuriant natural herbage of the runs. In winter the feedings are more frequent, and in June (mid-winter at the Cape) the birds have a treat twice a week. A mounted herd leads a horse laden with a sack of corn into the various enclosures, and the grains are scattered about.

Kind of food required.

The season for pairing is the month of July, which answers to the English January. Polygamy prevails amongst the wild birds, and one male often has five females to his share. A common establishment is kept up, the eggs are laid in one nest, and the cock and his hens take upon themselves the labour of hatching by turns. Ostrich farmers, in domesticating the bird, have apparently a regard to moral training. Generally, at the pairing season, a male and a female are placed together in a kraal or pen. Some breeders, however, pair two females with a male. At this time the cock is fierce, and it is dangerous to approach him. Several farmers and farm servants have suffered from the ferocity of the

Management during the pairing season.

bird at this season of passionate disturbance. August is the laying time, and eggs continue to be deposited for a period of six weeks. During that time as many as twenty eggs are laid. About the middle of September hatching commences, and is brought to a close in October. In natural incubation the domesticated male takes his part with admirable assiduity. It is supposed that this alternate sitting of the birds regulates the temperature, and is thus important to the successful result of hatching. The birds cool themselves with water when they are off the nest. At night the male makes a policeman of himself, and stalks on duty around the female, grazing a little as he goes, as policemen are supposed to do when on their beat. In hatching, sixteen live birds out of twenty eggs is considered to be a very fair proportion. It not unfrequently happens that ostrich eggs turn out to be addled, and some farmers are particularly unfortunate. Supposing the young birds are removed, the parents begin to breed again within six weeks of the first hatching, and laying begins again in December. But this second batch is inferior to the first.

Number of eggs.

Treatment of the young birds.

The young birds are sometimes removed from the nest in a day or two after they are hatched, when they are strong enough to move about. They are then placed in a warm room, and at night are put to bed in a box lined with wool. They are fed with chopped food, lucerne, or other green-stuff suitable to them. As soon as they are able to shift a little for themselves they are entrusted to the care of a herd, perhaps a young Kaffir or Hottentot boy, to whom they soon get strongly attached. The ostrich begins to breed when about three or four years old, and lives to a great age. There are some domestic ostriches in the Colony known to have lived in their tame state nearly eighteen years.

Artificial incubation.

The frequent failures in natural incubation from the exposure of the nests and other causes have turned the attention of breeders to artificial means of hatching. Of all attempts, that of Mr. Arthur Douglass, of Hilton, in the division of Albany, has been remarkably successful. This gentleman, having some ten or twelve years ago possessed himself of eleven birds, gave himself the task of watching their habits at all hours and at all seasons, especially at the time of incubation. He was accustomed

to fix himself in one position at a favourable moment, so as not to be seen by the watchful eye of male or female, and there he would remain for long mornings or evenings, and nights also, noting every movement and change. By this means he acquired invaluable information, not only for the construction of an artificial incubator, but also for the right management of the eggs while in the machine. His success has been a wonder. A recent visitor to Hilton thus writes:—'Mr. Douglass has made ostrich-farming a special study, and from the first time he entered upon it, about four years ago, he has devoted all his time, energy, and, we may add, also genius, to bring it to perfection. He has increased the natural rate of hatching. It is the incubator which was invented and patented by Mr. Douglass that has secured to him such an unprecedented success. And it must be remembered that the working of the incubator has been studied in all its parts with scientific accuracy by the inventor, and that not one in a thousand who attempted it would succeed in working it with like success. We do not wish it to be understood that it would be useless for anyone to follow Mr. Douglass's example. Others have used the incubator with success; but either from the neglect of apparently unimportant, but really necessary, instructions, or some other cause, their success is only on a very limited scale. In the course of time training will doubtless overcome these deficiencies. In the meantime the patentee has a fair start, and is likely to distance all competitors and make his "pile" long before there is any chance of the market becoming glutted with ostrich feathers.' The differences are, of course, Mr. Douglass's property. The first machine sent to the Colony was constructed by Mr. W. H. Thick, of Kentish Town, from instructions sent him by Dr. Atherstone.

Mr. Douglass's invention.

The birds begin to feather at eight months from hatching, but the yield is then poor and of little value. In another eight months there is a fresh and improved crop, and the plumes become better with each season. The art of separating the feathers is one which requires practice. Plucking is not looked upon with favour, as it irritates and produces fever. Nipping, or cutting, is considered to be safer. The feathers are severed close to the

Feathers.

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point of insertion, and the stumps are allowed to remain until they can be easily removed. Dr. Atherstone says:—'My own opinion is that the best plan is that adopted by a farmer in the Western Districts, who had seventy or eighty ostriches, and found the plan the best and most convenient. To show me the whole process he had the whole flock driven into the waggon-house, and we then insinuated ourselves by wriggling among the densely packed birds. He had previously shown me what to do in case of any bird proving vicious; they are perfectly in your power if you seize them by the neck; you may choke them as far as you please until you find them powerless, and you can then run away. Having got with my friend into the middle of the crowd, so packed that they were unable to move, he quietly selected two or three of the best feathers, and with a curved sharp knife in his right hand, the blade protected by lying flat against his finger, he pressed it down as near to the root as he could, and cut it off obliquely upwards. The bird was quite unconscious of the operation, standing perfectly still as he handed several to me. He then picked out a blood-feather, very beautiful, which, on being cut, bled a little; but the sharp knife separated it without being felt. In a month or six weeks he took out all the stumps, if they had not fallen out. By this means the health of the bird is not impaired; no irritative fever is produced, as in the case of my brother's birds; and you can select only the feathers that are in prime condition, leaving the others to ripen in due course.' The average produce of a full-grown bird is about one-fourth of a pound weight; but the yield is entirely governed in quantity and quality by the health and vigour of the ostrich. Each proper bird is estimated to yield 15*l.* a year on the average. Still, some farmers are obliged to be content with 8*l.* or 9*l.* from each bird per annum. As the feathers ripen at the time of incubation and are injured by the process, the artificial incubator, by releasing the birds from duty on the nest, is of especial value.

How to manage a vicious bird.

Average yield of feathers.

Ostrich feathers vary very much in value. Chicken plumes are worth 5*s.*, and blood feathers from 35*l.* to 45*l.*, or even 60*l.* a lb. This, however, is a matter of the markets, and quotations can easily be corrected by present rates. The price of birds is also a varying

Market value of feathers,

and of birds.

quantity. Twelve years ago it was possible to purchase in the Western Districts chicks six months old for five shillings each. That chance has long since passed away. A writer of an interesting article in the 'Cape Monthly' of 1871 says:—'Now the veriest chick, fresh from the egg, will fetch 5*l.* sterling, and after a few months as much as 8*l.* and 10*l.*' Mr. Hellier, in a lively account of a visit to Hilton, estimates a bird of a week old at 10*l.*, and a valuable mature bird at 50*l.* For a favourite male bird and a pair of hens Mr. Douglass considers that a cheque for 1,000*l.* would not pay him. This, of course, is an estimate founded on special breeding capabilities. The value of birds is decided not only by the produce in feathers, but their increase. On this point it will be as well to allow Mr. Hellier to speak. In his narrative already referred to he says:—'We venture to think that no other domesticated animal can compare with an ostrich treated on Mr. Douglass's system. This is illustrated by the fact that the year before last the progeny of six breeding birds—four hens and two cocks—actually reared, was no less than one hundred and thirty. The past season (1874) has not been such a favourable one, attributable doubtless to the severe drought, the increase being but 120 from about 20 breeding birds; considering that the value of an ostrich at a week old is 10*l.*, and that its value increases at the rate of one shilling per day for the first month and considerably more afterwards, it will be seen that the income of even a bad season is by no means to be despised, particularly when it is further remembered that each bird averages 15*l.* worth of feathers per annum, in addition to value of increase. What the prospects of an ostrich farmer in Mr. Douglass's position are, when he has 200 or 300 full-grown breeding birds, it would require an active imagination to estimate.' In the same account, Mr. Hellier remarks:—'It is more than eighteen months since we last had the pleasure of inspecting Mr. Douglass's flocks; at that time they numbered 155 birds of all ages, many of them but a few weeks old. On the present occasion birds which appeared to us almost full grown, and which exhibited fine bunches of plumage,

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were pointed out as having been brought to light by the generating influences of the incubator since that date. At the present time the living birds number 220, while, in addition to these, more than eighty have been sold and distributed over the country. Mr. Douglass's original stock consisted of eleven only, and he has made no subsequent purchases. A neat rule of three sum could be made out of this; as an illustration:—If the progeny in four years of eleven birds number 305, what will be the increase of 220 in the same time?'

Possible mischances.

It must not, however, be supposed that ostrich-farming is a certain success. There are breeders who have failed to make it profitable, and Mr. Douglass himself has had his misfortunes. Early this year two fine birds were killed by a tiger, and a third was much injured. A parasitic worm is very destructive on some farms. The bird is subject to disease from changes in the weather. Crows watch for the eggs, and break them. In fact, the ostrich is liable to accident, and is unquestionably mortal. Dr. Atherstone gives an amusing account of the misfortunes which attended an experiment in one instance. 'Of eighty-five birds originally placed on his farm, in a forty-acre enclosure, H. has,' says the Doctor, 'lost twenty-seven—thirteen by cold and wet, three by diphtheria, six killed by natives, three by fighting, and two by falling into holes. He has five more males than females. Of sixty eggs, nineteen were destroyed by black crows, which were seen from the house to hover over the nest and let stones fall on the eggs (on running up on one occasion to the nest, about 600 yards off, he found three stones in the nest, the eggs cracked, and the yolk strewed about); forty-one were sent to the adjoining farm Hilton, to be artificially incubated, but these failed, probably from having been shaken, although they were carried in baskets on the heads of native women.' Still, let tigers, crows, worms, and bad weather do what they will, ostrich-farming at the Cape is one of its most profitable, as well as most interesting, occupations.

MINING.

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Gold.

Gold.—Indications of gold have recently attracted attention in portions of the Colony, particularly at Karatera, on the southern side of the Outeniqua mountain range, in the division of George, the boundaries of the field having been defined by proclamation in January 1879, but the only locality in which it gives promise of being found in quantities sufficient to pay for digging is in Leydenberg, in the Transvaal territory. A considerable number of diggers are at work on the alluvial soil, and crushing machines have been set to work by Mr. Button and others. One can hardly yet speak with confidence of the results. A considerable number of the diggers appear to have paid their way, but the most recent reports of the crushing operations are not very encouraging. Further information will be found in a separate chapter on the Transvaal.

Diamonds.

Diamonds are also found to the north of the Orange River. A full account of this important industry is given under Griqualand West.

Copper Mines of Namaqualand.

Early mining speculations.

As early as 1677 the Dutch authorities turned their attention to the mineral resources of the Cape Colony. In Hall's chronological tables we learn, under the date of October 18, 1677, that 'the mining speculation carried on near the Lion's Head and Riebeek's Castle was ordered to be discontinued, because the silver extracted would by no means pay the expenses of extracting and smelting.' Other mines were also worked, especially one at a place called Zilvermyn, near Stellenbosch, from which silver enough was extracted (it was said *à la* process Dousterswivel) to make a set of keys for Cape Town Castle, which keys, it is said, vanished in a very suspicious manner only a few years ago, and were never satisfactorily accounted for. In 1683 old Simon van der Stett made an expedition as far north as the seat of the Cape Copper Mining Company's present operations. Struck, no doubt, by the emerald green indications that surrounded him on all sides, he appears to have particularly noticed the Copperberg near Carolusberg, where the Cape Copper Company are now carrying on very extensive exploratory works; a few years ago the writer saw the name, S. van der Stell, 1685, cut

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on the hard gneiss rock which formed the entrance to a small shaft, no doubt first made by his party. But the state of the roads in that region, and the little knowledge of mining operations at that period, no doubt prevented the works being carried out on such a scale as would have brought any profitable results, and they appear to have been abandoned from that time till a few years ago; and although old travellers from time to time called attention to the promising mineral indications in that region, it was not till 1835 that attempts were made again to develop its riches at Fanning's Mine, near the Orange River. The results, from want of capital and skill, were again unfavourable, and it was not till about the year 1852–3 that the skill and energy of Messrs. Philips and King in the mine opened by them on the farms Springbokfontein and Spektakel showed that, even limited as the means of transport were, copper ore could be produced on remunerative terms. Then followed the copper-mining fever in the Colony, 1854 to 1857, when hundreds of individuals, without experience or proper capital, essayed to work spots in the hard gneiss rocks of Namaqualand, selected without skill or judgment, simply on the strength of delusive green surface stains on the hard ferruginous rocks. These efforts, of course, ended in disappointment and loss of capital to all concerned. In 1863 Messrs. Philips and King, finding that the development of their mines required more capital than they cared to invest in them, formed in London the present Cape Copper Mining Company, which has turned out a perfect success, a mine called Ookiep, almost untried at the period of the formation of the Company, proving to be one of the richest copper mines in the world, and at the present period, although sunk to the depth of 80 fathoms, the area of copper-producing ground is larger than ever, seeming, contrary to Mr. Wyley's prophecies, to increase the deeper the shaft is sunk. Since the formation of the Company the production of ore averages about 7,000 tons per annum, enabling a dividend of 4*l.* per year to be paid on the shares of 7*l.* paid up, while reserves of nearly 40,000 tons of rich ore have been accumulated. A railway about 60 miles in length, ex-

More recent attempts.

Mine opened by Messrs. Philips and King.

Copper-mining mania.

Cape Copper Mining Company.

tending to Port Nolloth from the foot of the mountain range near to the mines, has been also constructed, and its cost nearly paid for by the saving in transport. Sundry improvements, landing stages, &c., have been also effected at Port Nolloth, and the Company support an efficient medical, clerical, and engineering staff, giving life to a region which, without their expenditure, would be a howling desert. So numerous, however, are the copper indications on all sides that we can only consider the Cape Copper Mining Company as being in its first stage of development, and a few years may see its production of ore quadrupled. The cost of production and carriage is about 10*l.* per ton, which, as the ore sent down is usually very rich and realizes 25*l.* to 30*l.*, affords a very large profit.

Description of ores found.

The ores found are various, including the rich grey vitreous copper ore, ruby ore, black oxide, yellow pyrites, and some small specimens of malachite and native copper in a beautiful leaf-like form. Some of the richer ores show 70 per cent. of pure copper. Smelting operations, causing a large outlay, have been carried on at the mines, but unfortunately, owing to the dearness of coal, they did not prove a success. In the English market the copper from the Cape mines always commands a higher price per unit of metal than that from any other locality.*

Silver.

Silver ore has also been discovered in Namaqualand, and attempts have been made to work it, but so far without commercial success.

Ivory, skins, &c.

Ivory, Skins, Ostrich Feathers, &c., are all important articles of export. Ivory is brought by traders from the interior ; skins are both tanned in the Colony and exported in a raw state ; ostrich feathers are increasing as an article of export since the domestication of the bird.

Coal.

Seams of coal have been discovered near the Stormberg district, and also in Beaufort, but they have, owing both to their distance from the seaboard and from populous districts, been very little worked.

* For further information in Cape mining companies, see Appendix.

GEOGRAPHY. II. POLITICAL.

Divisions and Towns.*

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Boundaries of the Colony.

The limits of the Cape have lately been considerably extended by annexation. Basutoland and the whole of Kaffirland (except Pondoland), and Great Namaqualand, are now portions of the colony. Walvisch Bay, in 23° S. lat., is now the most northern point of the Cape of Good Hope, on the Atlantic side, while Cape Agulhas, the southernmost point, is in 34° 50′ S. lat. Walvisch Bay is also the most western point, being in 14° 30′ E. long.; and meridian 30° E. cuts the easternmost angle in Nomansland. The boundaries of this vast territory are: on the north, the Swakop, Orange, and Caledon rivers; on the south, the Indian Ocean; on the east, the Umzimkulu, which divides it from Natal and the Umzimvubu, which separates it from Pondoland; and on the west, the Atlantic Ocean.

The Cape Colony is generally considered as forming two sections, the Western and Eastern Districts, and contains the following electoral divisions, which are again subdivided for fiscal and magisterial purposes:—

Western Districts.

Western districts.

[Places marked *a* are seats of a civil commissioner or resident magistrate; and at those marked *b* a periodical court is held.]

Electoral Divisions	Fiscal and Magisterial Divisions	Chief Towns and Villages
Cape Town . .		*a* Cape Town. Green Point.
Cape . . .	Wynberg. Simon's Town.	*a* Cape Town. Papendorp. *b* Mowbray. Rondebosch. Newlands.

* From Hall's 'Manual of South African Geography,' second edition, 1866. Published by Saul Solomon & Co., Cape Town.

Western Districts—continued.

Electoral Divisions	Fiscal and Magisterial Divisions	Chief Towns and Villages
		Claremont. *a* Wynberg. Constantia. Kalk Bay. *a* Simon's Town. Kuils River. *b* Durban.
STELLENBOSCH .	Stellenbosch.	*a* Stellenbosch. *b* Somerset. Eerste River.
PAARL . . .	Paarl.	*a* Paarl. Wellington. Franschehoek.
MALMESBURY. .	Malmesbury.	*a* Malmesbury. *b* Darling. *b* Hopefield. *b* St. Helena Bay. Riebeeks Kasteel. Groenekloof.
PIQUETBERG . .	Piquetberg.	*a* Piquetberg. Goedverwacht.
CLANWILLIAM .	Clanwilliam. Calvinia—Div.	*a* Clanwilliam. *a* Calvinia.
NAMAQUALAND .	Namaqualand. Hondeklip Bay.	*a* Springbokfontein. *a* Hondeklip Bay. Port Nolloth. Leliefontein.
WORCESTER . .	Worcester. Tulbagh—Div.	*a* Worcester. *a* Tulbagh. *b* Ceres. Steinthal.
VICTORIA WEST .	Victoria West. Frazersburg—Div. Carnarvon	*a* Victoria West. *b* Schietfontein. *a* Frazersburg. Sutherland.

Western Districts—continued.

Electoral Divisions	Fiscal and Magisterial Divisions	Chief Towns and Villages
BEAUFORT . .	Beaufort. Prince Albert—Div. Willowmore	*a* Beaufort. *a* Prince Albert. Willowmore.
CALEDON . .	Caledon. Bredasdorp—Div.	*a* Caledon. *b* Genadendal. Villiersdorp. Greyton. *a* Bredasdorp. Elim. Napier.
SWELLENDAM .	Swellendam. Robertson—Div.	*a* Swellendam. *b* Heidelberg. *b* Zuurbraak. *b* Malagas. Port Beaufort. *a* Robertson. *b* Montagu. Ladigrey.
RIVERSDALE . .	Riversdale.	*a* Riversdale. *b* Ladismith. Amalienstein.
GEORGE . .	George. Mossel Bay—Div. Knysna—Div.	*a* George. Blanco. Hopedale. Schoonberg. Pacaltsdorp. Lyons. Aliwal South. Plettenberg's Bay. *a* Melville. Belvidere. Newhaven. Redbourne.
OUDTSHOORN .	Oudtshoorn.	*a* Outdshoorn. Calitzdorp. Cango.

Eastern Districts.

Electoral Divisions	Fiscal and Magisterial Divisions	Chief Towns and Villages
UITENHAGE . .	Uitenhage. Humansdorp—Div. Alexandria—Div.	*a* Uitenhage. Jansenville. *a* Humansdorp. Hankey. *a* Alexandria.
PORT ELIZABETH .	Port Elizabeth.	*a* Port Elizabeth.
GRAHAM'S TOWN .		*a* Graham's Town.
ALBANY . .	Albany. Bathurst—Div.	*a* Graham's Town. *b* Salem. Sidbury. Riebeek. *a* Bathurst. Port Frances. *b* Port Alfred.
VICTORIA EAST .	Victoria East. Peddie—Div.	*a* Alice. Aberdeen. *a* Peddie.
FORT BEAUFORT .	Fort Beaufort. Stockenstrom.	*a* Fort Beaufort. *b* Post Retief. Adelaide. Heald Town. *a* Elands Post (Seymour). Hertzog. Balfour. Philipton.
SOMERSET . .	Somerset. Bedford—Div.	*a* Somerset. *b* Groote Vlakte. *b* Been Leegte. Pearston. *a* Bedford. Glenlynden.
CRADOCK . .	Cradock.	*a* Cradock. Tarkastad.

Eastern Districts—continued.

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Electoral Divisions	Fiscal and Magisterial Divisions	Chief Towns and Villages
Graaf-Reynet .	Graaf-Reynet. Murraysburg—Div.	*a* Graaf-Reynet. *b* Aberdeen. *a* Murraysburg.
Richmond . .	Richmond. Hope Town—Div.	*a* Richmond. *a* Hope Town.
Colesberg . .	Colesberg. Middelburg—Div.	*a* Colesberg. *b* Hanover. *a* Middelburg.
Albert . .	Albert.	*a* Burghersdorp.
Aliwal North .	Aliwal North.	*a* Aliwal North. Dordrecht. Ladigrey.
Queen's Town .	Queen's Town.	*a* Queen's Town. *b* Whittlesea.
King William's Town.	King William's Town.	*a* King William's Town.
East London .	East London.	*a* East London.
Wodehouse . .	Dordrecht.	Dordrecht.

Table of Distances.

Distances between Cape Town and other principal postal towns in the Colony.

The following table shows the distances between Cape Town and the principal postal towns in the Colony.

Name of Postal Town.	Miles.
Albert, Prince	282
Alice	652
Aliwal North	666
Beaufort, Fort	646
Beaufort, West	330
Bedford	582
Burghersdorp	630
Caledon	72

Name of Postal Town.	Miles
Calvinia	270
Clanwilliam	160
Colesberg	540
Cradock	550
George	300
Graaf-Reynet	480
Graham's Town	600
Hope Town	600
Malmesbury	45
Middelberg	550
Namaqualand	396
Paarl	38
Port Elizabeth	510
Queen's Town	640
Richmond	450
Riversdale	206
Simon's Town	22
Somerset East	547
Stellenbosch	26
Swellendam	144
Tulbagh	80
Uitenhage	508
Wellington	(?)45
Worcester	80

Population and Social Statistics.

Census of 1865.

Previous to 1865 no census of the Colony in the proper acceptation of the word had been taken, but statistical returns were received at the Colonial Office from the civil commissioners under the heads of population, births, marriages, deaths, distribution of lands, and agricultural produce, and stock and animal productions. But on March 5, 1865, a careful and elaborate census was taken, showing the sex, races, ages, of the inhabitants, their places of birth, occupations, stock, land under cultivation, seed sown, produce, state of education, attendance at school, the number of deaf and dumb, blind, lunatics, and idiots. Every provision was made to ensure accuracy and completeness. A second census was taken in 1875. The following were some of the results arrived at:—

European population.

The European population of the Western and Eastern Divisions amounted to 236,783, including (1) the Dutch or Batavian descendants of the original founders of the

CAPE COLONY

Colony, who constitute the greater part of the white population; (2) the English, or Anglo-Saxon race; (3) the German, or Teutonic; (4) descendants of the French refugees who settled in the Colony after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; (5) Portuguese and others. But these different classes are so intermingled together that it was often found practically impossible to distinguish them statistically.

Native population.

The Hottentot races numbered 98,561. These differ from the other native tribes in being of a light olive complexion, an easy, indolent, light-hearted people, of light, active make, and generally somewhat below the middle size.

The Kaffirs numbered 214,138. They are a taller, more athletic and warlike race than the Hottentots, well made, of a dark brown colour, clean-limbed and active. They love a pastoral life, are fond of cattle, but do not care much for agricultural pursuits.

Other native tribes or races, including the descendants of former slave population, Fingoes, Bushmen, and Malays, amount to 171,502.

The total thus arrived at for the Colony is 720,984.

Including Basutoland, Griqualand East and West, and Transkeian Territory, annexed since the census, there cannot be less than 1,500,000 inhabitants living under the Cape Government.

Social and other statistics.

The accompanying tabular statement will supply information as to races, sexes, occupations, average population to the square mile, &c. &c., but a few other interesting particulars relative to the social institutions of the people may be given.

There are in the Colony 40 savings banks. The number of depositors is about 5,551—deposit, 207,485*l.*

There are 48 friendly societies, 15 in the Western and 33 in the Eastern Divisions, numbering altogether some 5,099 members.

There are 812 paupers receiving Government relief, pretty equally divided between the Eastern and Western Divisions.

The number of landholders in 1875 is returned at 16,166, and the extent of the holdings at 39,947,734 morgen.

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The number of electors in 1878 was 44,675. The number of schools, 776, with 62,209 scholars. Number of colleges, 4, with 211 students. The number of banks, 12, with a paid-up capital of 2,685,974*l.*, a reserve fund of 799,942*l.*, and a circulation of 685,206*l.*

CAPE COLONY

Numbers and Education of

DIVISIONS	Area in Square Miles	HOUSES, &c., 1875			I.—POPULATION—1875—			
		Edifices. Uninhabited and Building	Houses	Huts and Tents	Persons to a Square Mile	Males	Females	Total
Cape Division.	722	714	7,309	557	79·39	28,337	28,982	57,319
Stellenbosch .	503	848	1,360	167	20·97	5,357	5,192	10,549
Paarl. . . .	627	529	2,299	437	28·83	9,186	8,890	18,076
Malmesbury .	2,808	1,725	2,070	780	6·44	9,561	8,535	18,096
Piquetberg. .	1,854	846	836	562	4·44	4,268	3,971	8,239
Clanwilliam .	5,474	295	551	779	1 60	4,407	4,378	8,785
Namaqualand.	20,635	—	438	1,898	0·59	6,501	5,732	12,233
Calvinia . .	26,083	371	417	723	0·28	3,819	3,575	7,394
Tulbagh . .	4,976	—	997	361	1·99	5,333	4,590	9,923
Worcester . .	6,531	482	1,026	400	1·49	5,099	4,635	9,734
Frazersburg .	23,149	—	634	385	0·39	4,840	4,220	9,060
Victoria West.	15,815	288	854	686	0·84	7,097	6,150	13,247
Beaufort West	8,536	87	844	428	0·98	4,454	3,868	8,322
Prince Albert.	3,981	291	509	361	1·57	3,253	3,004	6,257
Caledon . . .	1,519	281	1,904	318	7·46	5,732	5,603	11,335
Bredasdorp .	1,697	418	739	113	2·54	2,150	2,156	4,306
Robertson . .	1,089	11	1,057	340	7·38	4,186	3,845	8,031
Swellendam .	2,954	410	1,356	377	3·39	5,035	4,972	10,007
Riversdale . .	2,462	980	1,434	502	5·17	6,492	6,229	12,721
Mossel Bay .	859	231	528	271	5·90	2,599	2,473	5,072
George . . .	2,537	526	1,301	630	4·66	5,983	5,830	11,813
Oudtshoorn .	1,781	8	2,376	1,122	8·52	7,891	7,290	15,181
Knysna . . .	524	187	834	204	6·14	1,668	1,550	3,218
Humansdorp .	2,430	171	797	468	3·12	3,862	3,725	7,587
Uitenhage . .	6,233	674	1,900	2,044	3·43	11,623	9,769	21,392
Port Elizabeth	251	603	2,116	353	57·88	8,320	6,208	14,528
Alexandria. .	1,519	296	384	524	3·97	3,321	2,709	6,030
Albany . . .	1,833	1,016	1,923	1,418	9·00	8,459	8,040	16,499
Bathurst . .	670	10	442	760	8·74	3,168	2,687	5,855
Peddie . . .	497	1,368	228	3,276	33·98	8,218	8,668	16,886
Victoria East.	576	193	272	1,765	14 75	4,238	4,260	8,498
Stockenstrom.	240	257	564	689	27 12	3,256	3,253	6,509
Fort Beaufort.	733	990	695	2,208	20·12	7,315	7,433	14,748
Bedford . . .	1,550	26	696	1,172	5·66	4,508	4,260	8,768
Somerset East	3,876	573	1,035	976	2·81	5,682	5,195	10,877
Cradock. . .	3,247	885	1,137	889	3 72	6,554	5,530	12,084
Middelburg .	2,252	422	550	353	2·65	3,199	2,777	5,976
Graaf-Reynet.	3,792	4	2,224	1,143	4·47	8,798	8,142	16,940
Murraysburg .	2,200	—	394	264	1·71	2,002	1,769	3,771
Richmond . .	4,463	351	578	392	1·71	4,058	3,566	7,624
Hope Town .	5,154	—	539	532	1·19	3,354	2,789	6,143
Colesberg . .	5,762	216	931	846	1 80	5,566	4,802	10,368
Albert . . .	3,834	732	1,098	1,046	3·15	6,580	5,489	12,069
Aliwal North .	2,263	742	860	5,557	13·22	14,936	14,986	29,922
Wodehouse .	2,849	594	1,068	4,801	9·11	13,002	12,946	25,948
Queen's Town.	3,604	3,234	1,313	9,296	14·12	25,407	25,483	50,890
King William's Town . . .	1,781	5,049	1,699	20,779	59·88	52,544	54,096	106,640
East London .	1,225	305	656	2,070	12·67	8,410	7,104	15,514
Total, 1875 .	199,950	28,239	55,212	76,022	3·61	369,628	351,356	720,984
Total, 1865 .	196,944	—	—	—	2·48	255,760	240,621	496,381
Increase . .	3,006	—	—	—	1·13	113,868	110,735	224.603
Basutoland.								
ThabaBosigoDis.	—	—	—	—	—	24,858	27,274	52,132
Berea ,,	—	—	—	—	—	8,148	9,164	17,312
Leribe ,,	—	—	—	—	—	14,874	16,526	31,400
CornetSprnit ,,	—	—	—	—	—	12,514	14,343	26,857
Total .	—	—	—	—	—	60,394	67,307	127,701

N.B. Census included no particulars respecting King William's Town or East

the People—Census, 1875.

CAPE COLONY

SUMMARY			II.—EDUCATION—1875					
			European or White			Exclusive of European or White		
European or White	Hottentot	All Other	Read and Write	Read only	Neither Read nor Write	Read and Write	Read only	Neither Read nor Write
30,730	1,834	24,755	22,541	1,092	7,097	4,592	1,689	20,299
3,442	253	6,854	2,549	110	783	1,474	688	4,945
7,312	363	10,401	5,045	163	2,104	1,444	1,254	8,066
7,862	3,968	6,266	4,871	203	2,788	1,208	578	8,448
4,357	2,537	1,345	2,513	216	1,628	265	184	3,433
3,018	3,128	2,639	1,822	110	1,086	468	331	4,968
2,675	5,963	3,595	1,626	130	919	698	693	8,167
2,752	2,783	1,859	1,596	87	1,069	159	170	4,313
3,772	2,505	3,646	2,574	112	1,086	849	471	4,831
4,093	1,949	3,692	2,823	108	1,162	1,048	532	4,061
3,790	2,421	2,849	2,218	168	1,404	161	174	4,935
5,493	2,644	5,110	2,840	118	2,535	333	307	7,114
3,738	2,193	2,391	2,265	98	1,375	401	184	3,999
3,324	1,908	1,025	1,880	86	1,358	125	105	2,703
5,366	5,344	625	3,140	238	1,988	1,382	640	3,947
2,017	1,955	334	1,081	107	829	655	286	1,348
4,512	2,284	1,235	2,802	244	1,466	316	290	2,913
5,028	2,989	1,990	3,063	192	1,773	536	406	4,073
6,878	4,503	1,340	3,820	308	2,750	663	505	4,675
2,664	1,766	642	1,556	89	1,019	230	196	1,982
5,229	3,600	2,984	3,019	259	1,951	825	648	5,111
7,925	6,037	1,219	4,443	277	3,205	313	294	6,649
1,825	629	764	982	109	734	114	68	1,211
2,711	2,624	2,252	1,682	69	960	541	440	3,895
9,385	4,558	7,449	5,726	300	3,359	611	593	10,803
9,309	945	4,274	6,395	409	2,505	939	433	3,847
2,157	1,288	2,585	1,425	53	679	116	83	3,674
8,143	1,490	6,866	4,942	400	2,801	368	271	7,717
1,711	357	3,787	1,196	85	430	90	88	3,966
1,327	95	15,454	832	73	422	650	315	14,594
1,133	257	7,108	771	45	317	646	163	6,556
1,508	1,983	3,018	804	113	591	387	425	4,189
2,998	1,106	10,644	1,878	153	967	659	444	10,647
2,134	1,277	5,357	1,293	146	695	163	157	6,314
4,713	1,800	4,364	2,856	168	1,689	252	279	5,633
5,967	1,523	4,594	3,513	203	2,251	139	280	5,698
2,510	1,272	2,194	1,515	57	938	61	90	3,315
7,356	3,123	6,461	4,723	253	2,380	407	541	8,636
1,210	998	1,563	789	36	385	45	95	2,421
3,021	1,335	3,268	1,893	87	1,041	84	104	4,415
3,236	1,722	1,185	1,827	199	1,210	38	38	2,831
4,521	2,168	3,679	2,669	197	1,655	129	209	5,509
6,140	1,072	4,857	3,435	249	2,456	187	175	5,567
3,543	681	25,698	2,055	192	1,296	253	386	25,740
5,235	347	20,366	2,632	340	2,263	201	149	20,363
6,228	1,721	42,941	3,797	268	2,163	1,243	989	42,430
9,012	950	96,678	5,402	448	3,162	3,168	2,210	92,250
3,773	313	11,428	2,508	131	1,134	228	116	11,397
236,783	98,561	385,640	147,627	9,298	79,858	29,864	19,775	434,562
			236,783			484,201		
181,592	81,598	233,191	110,301	7,684	63,607	15,252	15,142	284,395
			181,592			314,789		
55,191	16,963	152,449	37,326	1,614	16,251	14,612	4,633	150,167
234	—	51,898						
38	—	17,274						
33	—	31,367						
73	—	26,794						
378	—	127,323						

Note.—Population of Cape Town, 1875, M. 16,235, F. 17,004, total 33,239. Suburbs—12,001. 1865, M. 14,045, F. 14,412, total 28,457. Suburbs—9,334. Population of Port Elizabeth, 1875, 13,049. 1865, 10,773. Population of Graham's Town, 1875, 6,903. 1865, 8,072.

London Divisions, then called British Kaffraria, whose population, Dec. 1864, was 86,200.

Occupations of the

CAPE COLONY

III.—OCCUPATIONS OF

Order	Occupations	European or White		Malay	
		Males	Females	Males	Females
I.	Persons engaged in the General or Local Government, or in the Defence or Protection of the Country	3,971	52	3	—
II.	Persons engaged in the Learned Professions, in Literature, Art, and Science, with their immediate Subordinates	1,909	990	24	14
III.	Persons engaged in the Domestic Offices of Wives and Mistresses of Families	—	16,770	—	1,423
IV.	Persons engaged in entertaining and performing Personal Offices for Man	1,732	2,789	240	476
V.	Persons buying and selling, keeping and lending Money, Houses, or Goods of various kinds	5,476	281	28	6
VI.	Persons engaged in the conveyance of Men, Animals, Goods and Messages	4,030	22	202	—
VII.	Persons possessing, working, or cultivating Land, raising or dealing in Animals, or following pursuits subsidiary thereto	34,069	26,389	358	8
VIII.	Persons engaged in working and dealing in Art and Mechanic Productions in which matters of various kinds are employed in combination	5,023	15	761	—
IX.	Persons employed in working and dealing in Textile Fabrics, Dress, and in Fibrous Material	1,196	1,516	302	736
X.	Persons working and dealing in Food and Drinks	996	47	100	27
XI.	Persons working and dealing in Animal and Vegetable Substances	834	3	139	2
XII.	Persons working or dealing in Minerals	2,724	3	46	—
XIII.	Labourers and others—Branch undefined	1,814	45	607	—
XIV.	Persons of Property and Rank, not returned under any Office or Occupation	226	136	1	—
XV.	Persons supported by the Community	557	146	30	6
XVI.	Scholars, Children, and Persons of no specified Occupation	59,353	63,669	2,341	2,937
	Total	123,910	112,873	5,182	5,635

People—Census, 1875.

THE PEOPLE—1875

Hottentot		Fingo		Kaffir and Bechouana		Mixed and Other		Total Population	
Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
23	—	92	—	225	—	168	1	4,482	53
30	88	72	9	87	12	51	95	2,173	1,208
—	11,987	—	3,100	—	9,575	—	9,068	—	51,923
2,469	8,113	362	631	1,822	3,902	2,181	6,626	8,806	22,537
17	—	11	—	22	—	123	10	5,677	297
830	—	328	—	996	—	929	6	7,315	28
20,022	2,537	13,991	12,298	49,255	37,917	10,905	1,387	128,600	80,536
451	—	31	—	131	—	1,362	2	7,759	17
79	807	9	144	10	485	386	1,715	1,982	5,403
47	—	4	—	33	5	180	15	1,360	94
457	47	60	9	275	100	394	29	2,159	190
576	12	280	—	881	10	768	15	5,275	40
2,206	12	1,265	3	2,555	1	3,786	4	12,233	65
—	2	1	—	2	—	5	2	235	140
845	111	59	5	575	36	416	144	2,482	448
22,527	24,266	19,870	20,872	52,948	52,273	22,051	24,360	179,090	188,377
50,579	47,982	36,435	37,071	109,817	104,316	43,705	43,479	369,628	351,356

Population in certain Cities and Towns (1865 *and* 1875).

CITIES AND TOWNS	POPULATION		CITIES AND TOWNS	POPULATION	
	March, 1865	March, 1875		March, 1865	March, 1875
Cape Town .	28,457	33,239	Stellenbosch .	2,975	3,173
Simon's Town .	—	2,447	Paarl . .	4,929	5,760
Somerset West	—	820	Malmesbury .	1,246	1,840
Wellington .	—	2,192	Tulbagh . .	542	548
Clanwilliam .	327	746	Worcester .	3,257	3,788
Ceres . .	781	1,234	Victoria West .	698	754
Frazersburg .	471	568	Beaufort West	1,179	1,585
Carnarvon .	—	736	Caledon . .	724	1,038
Prince Albert .	881	900	Robertson .	715	1,104
Bredasdorp .	831	616	Swellendam .	2,016	2,008
Montagu . .	—	1,176	Riversdale .	1,025	1,177
Heidelberg .	—	736	George . .	1,981	1,937
Aliwal South .	946	1,361	Uitenhage .	3,342	3,693
Oudtshoorn .	1,145	1,837	Graham's Town	8,072	6,903
Port Elizabeth	10,773	13,049	Port Alfred .	—	987
Salem . .	320	690	Fort Beaufort .	1,063	1,146
Alice . .	598	599	Bedford . .	1,050	833
Adelaide . .	—	809	Cradock . .	1,845	1,712
Somerset East	1,822	2,231	Steynsburg .	—	726
Middelburg .	681	1,163	Aberdeen .	488	555
Graaf-Reynet .	3,869	4,562	Richmond .	898	995
Murraysburg .	549	699	Colesberg .	1,395	1,312
Hope Town .	697	493	Burghersdorp .	919	1,349
Hanover . .	365	541	Queen's Town .	1,225	2,320
Aliwal North .	644	1,229	King William's Town . .	—	5,169
Tarkastad .	—	627	East London (incl. Panmure)	—	2,134
Suburbs of Cape Town .	9,334	12,001			

Live Stock.

CAPE COLONY

The following list is taken from the Census Returns for 1875, and shows the live stock in the Cape Colony, including Basutoland and other native districts:—

Sheep	10,976,663
Draught oxen	421,762
Other horned cattle	689,951
Horses	205,985
Mules and asses	29,318
Angora goats	877,988
Common goats	2,187,214
Pigs	116,738
Ostriches	21,751

EDUCATION AND RELIGION.

Elementary Education.

CAPE COLONY

Special difficulties in organising a scheme of public instruction for the Colony.

CONSIDERABLE attention has been paid both by the Government and the colonists themselves to the matter of popular education for many years: and the very difficulties that had to be encountered, arising from the mixed nature of the population, both European and native, and from the extent of territory to be provided for, have resulted in the attainment of a system more complete, perhaps, than is to be found in any of the British colonies, and surpassing in many important particulars that of Great Britain itself.

Scheme of Sir John Herschel. Act of 1865.

As may be seen on reference to the historical section of this work, a system of public schools was brought into operation as long ago as 1839, on a scheme drawn up by Sir John Herschel. This was well adapted to the then existing conditions of the country. But the Education Act now in operation, which was passed in 1865, is a great advance upon it. As Dr. Dale, the present Superintendent-General of Education, and Vice-Chancellor of the Cape University, remarks, 'the Colonial Government acknowledges its obligations to promote the education of all, and seeks to do so among the higher and middle classes, not by compulsory enactments, but by putting them in the way of organizing their own schools, of securing competent teachers, and of providing school requisites. The poorer and coloured classes cannot be reached by this direct agency, and therefore the Government avails itself of the co-operation of various religious and educational societies to manage and provide teachers for their elementary and industrial instruction.'

Three chief classes of population

The population divides itself, not unequally, into three great classes, whose educational wants have to be provided for. The European, consisting of Dutch,

British, French, German, and other immigrants and descendants, forming a community somewhat heterogeneous in its prime element, but sufficiently amalgamated for social and political purposes; the mixed native population of the towns and villages, including those of Hottentot descent, the mixed offspring of white and coloured parentage, negroes rescued from slavers, &c. &c. These form the lower orders of Cape society, and furnish ordinary labourers, artisans, coolies, domestic servants, &c. The third class consists of pure native tribes, under the generic names of Kaffirs and Fingoes. These are found chiefly in the extreme Eastern District.

to be provided for.

To meet the wants of these three sections of the population, three classes, or *orders*, of schools are provided, known respectively as Orders A, B, and C.

Order A consists of undenominational public schools, and includes three classes.

Order A.

Class I.—Schools of a very superior character, answering rather to what would be called grammar schools than to ordinary elementary schools in England, though the fees charged place them within the reach of the poorest of the European population. Each of the 47 divisions of the Colony is entitled to such an institution, presided over by a principal and assistant, receiving guaranteed salaries, the former of 250*l.* per annum, with a free residence of the minimum value of 50*l.*, the latter 150*l.* per annum, one-half in each case being paid by Government. These schools are generally mixed, but provision is made for the instruction of boys and girls, as far as possible, in separate class rooms, or, where preferred, separate schools are established, with an additional grant of 50*l.* per annum towards the salary of the teacher of the girls' school.

Class first.

The subjects of instruction in a school of the first class must include reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and descriptive geography in the primary or elementary course; and also the Greek and Latin languages, English literature, history, elementary mathematics, and the elements of physical science in the secondary or superior course.

Class II.—Schools of the second class for each town or village, not being the chief town of the division, or

Class second.

CAPE COLONY

each chief town of a division in which a public school of the first class cannot be established. These schools are under one teacher, with a salary ranging from 100*l.* to 150*l.*, one-half of which is provided by Government. They are attended by both sexes, proper provision being made for the separate instruction of the female section under a female teacher; but should the inhabitants of any locality prefer the establishment of separate boys' and girls' schools, the Government extends its aid to both, provided that the amount of population justifies the maintenance of separate schools. The grant in aid of the salary of the teacher in the girls' school of the second class is 30*l.*

The subjects taught include reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and descriptive geography in the primary or elementary course; and the rudiments of Latin, plain geometry, and elementary algebra in the advanced.

Class third.

Class III.—A cluster of farms where twenty or thirty children can be assembled at one place for daily instruction is accepted as a school station. The teachers' salary must not be less than 60*l.* per annum, with a residence, the grant being 30*l.* per annum.

Here, of course, the instruction is of necessity more rudimentary, but must include reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic.

School fees.

In each of these three classes of public schools moderate school-fees are charged, but special provision is made to meet the necessities of those who are unable to pay. The schools are under the control of a local board of managers, who are elected by the resident householders, or such of them as may be willing to share in the necessary guarantee for the maintenance of the teacher. They are at liberty to provide for the religious instruction of the scholars, at an hour to be set apart by them, not being during the four ordinary school hours; but no scholars are to be compelled to attend for religious instruction without the consent of their parents or guardians.

Local management.

Religious instruction.

Government inspection.

All Government-aided schools are subject to the inspection of the Superintendent-General of Education, or his deputy duly appointed by the Governor, who has the right of entering the school at any time during

school hours, of inspecting the state of the buildings and the school furniture, of ascertaining the progress of the children under instruction, and of enquiring generally into the efficiency of the school in regard to the locality in which it is placed, and of calling for such returns as he may require, in order to obtain satisfactory information on these points.

Statistics.

The total number of schools under Order A in the Colony, according to the latest accessible Government returns, is 216. The annual receipts in the form of Government grants was 15,308*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*

Order B.

Order B comprehends the schools established by the missionary societies, to which Government aid is granted for secular instruction under certain conditions. Here, too, there are three classes.

Class first.

Class I.—Where there is a series of schools—infant, juvenile, and industrial—the annual allowance is 75*l.*

Class second.

Class II.—Where the children form only one school, the annual allowance is 30*l.*

Class third.

Class III.—To schools at out-stations the annual allowance is 15*l.*

Appropriation of Government grant, &c.

No portion of the Government grant can be appropriated otherwise than to the support of the teacher or teachers of the school, for the performance of their duty as teachers. The schools are under the management and control of the churches or missionary bodies with which they are connected, subject to the inspection of Government, and the standard of education must embrace at least reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic. The number of schools under Order B, according to the last returns, was 346. The amount of Government gratuity, 13,640*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

Statistics.

Order C.

Order C forms a very distinct class of schools. They consist of day schools, boarding and industrial institutions, for the civilization of the aborigines along the eastern frontier, some 700 miles from Cape Town. The conditions under which Government aid is granted to these native industrial institutions, and to the schools connected with them, are too lengthy to be recited here. The following description by the Superintendent-General of Education must suffice:—

General description.

'Schools where Kaffir only is taught at first are formed at out-stations under native teachers, receiving

CAPE COLONY

each a salary of 20*l.* to 30*l.* per annum, with a residence; in due course a superior native, qualified to teach the ordinary subjects in English, and receiving a salary of 50*l.* to 60*l.* per annum, supersedes the former; the more promising youths are drafted to the main station, where provision is made not only for the day-school instruction of all within a reasonable distance, but also for native boys and girls to live within the influence of the missionary's home, and to learn some trade, as carpentry, waggon-making, tailoring, shoemaking, and, in some cases, printing and bookbinding; many boys are also trained as schoolmasters, and girls for domestic service. The rates of maintenance money, as paid by Government, are from 10*l.* to 15*l.* per annum for each boarder, and liberal grants towards the salaries of the teachers at the main stations are also made. The Church of England, the Free Church of Scotland, and the Wesleyan Society are most conspicuous for their labours in this wide and, as regards the security of the Colony, signally important branch of the Colonial system of education.'

Statistics. The number of schools under Order C is 212. The amount of Government gratuity, 13,168*l.* 17*s.* 5*d.*

Summary. The total number of children thus receiving instruction in schools connected with the Government system is 62,209, not including those being educated in the Government established schools, of which there are three, forming a class by themselves, and supported by the Government at a cost of 1,129*l.* 15*s.* These are at Worcester, Uitenhage, and East Somerset, and number 282 scholars, with an average attendance of 160.

The total State expenditure on education for the year ending June 30, 1878, was 64,433*l.*, and total local expenditure 65,929*l.*

HIGHER EDUCATION.

Colleges and First Class Schools.

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South African College.

THE *South African College* was founded in 1829. It admits pupils from the age of ten years. Its junior classes, in addition to the elements of a classical and scientific education, receive instruction in those branches of practical knowledge which are required for commercial life. The senior classes are prepared for the older universities of Europe and for the higher Colonial examinations, hitherto conducted by a public board of examiners, constituted under Act 4, 1858, but now superseded by the new university.

Public grant and Queen's Scholarships.

This college receives a grant of 400*l.* from the public purse, in return for which the Government reserves to itself the right of nominating ten free scholars in the institution. These are called 'Queen's Scholarships,' and are tenable for five years. They are open for competition as they become vacant to all candidates under fifteen years of age, at examinations held in January and July.

'Murray's gift.'

There are also scholarships under the 'Murray's gift,' to which appointments are made by the Council. Here there is no limit as to age, and the preference is given to children of Dutch or Colonial parents.

Professional staff.

The college has a staff of four university professors, assisted by competent teachers, and is governed by a council and senate composed of some of the most distinguished men in the Colony.

Recent improvements.

In the year 1872 a movement was made towards the separation of the elementary and advanced departments of the college. The old arrangement, by which the energies and time of the professors, urgently required for the elder students, was largely expended on youths, was very unsatisfactory both for the pupils and teachers. The college was in fact an overgrown grammar school with none of the social advantages which a college should possess.

Separation of the elementary and advanced departments.

This most desirable improvement has now been effected. An elementary schoolroom has been erected at a cost of between two and three thousand pounds; a

head master has been appointed for the junior department, and the professors are left free to give their undivided attention to the senior students.

It is most satisfactory that such an alteration in one of the oldest and most valued educational institutions in the Colony should take place simultaneously with the establishment of a university. The Cape youth, who show great aptitude in classical and mathematical studies, and frequently win good positions at the English universities, have now a college for the pursuit of the higher branches of study and a university where their acquirements can be both tested and recognised. The present professors are: classics, Professor Gill; mathematics, Professor Childe; science and English literature, Professor Noble. Professor Cameron, who long held the classical chair, is now registrar of the new university.

Names of present professors.

Graaf-Reynet College.

The Graaf-Reynet College also receives a grant of 400*l.* from the public treasury, and is conducted on similar principles to the South African College.

Grey Institute.

The Grey Institute at Port Elizabeth was founded by Sir George Grey, who also presented a valuable library of some 5,000 volumes to Cape Town. It is presided over by a rector, assisted by three masters, and controlled by a board of managers, consisting of the town council and an equal number of elected members.

Gill College.

Gill College, in Somerset East, owes its existence to Dr. Gill, with the bulk of whose property it is endowed. There is a good staff of professors, each of whom receives a fixed salary of 300*l.* per annum and class fees. According to one of the conditions of the bequest, the course of study is based as far as possible upon that of Glasgow University, where Dr. Gill had received his own education.

Diocesan Collegiate School.

The Diocesan Collegiate School, Woodlands, is also a college of high standing under the immediate supervision of the Bishop of Cape Town, and holds a foremost place among educational institutions of a denominational character. The staff includes a principal, Canon Ogilvie, two masters, and three lecturers.

Dutch Theological Seminary.

The Dutch Reformed Church has also a *Theological Seminary* at Stellenbosch, established in 1859, with president, vice-president, and professors. The *Roman Catholic Church* has four

educational establishments in good working order. The parochial schools of St. Aloysius, and St. Bridget, for the education of the poorer classes; St. Joseph's Academy, and St. Mary's Day and Boarding School, in which the more affluent receive, besides a thorough English education, instruction in music, drawing, and the languages. St. Aloysius's School and the Academy are under the care of the Marist Brothers; St. Bridget's and St. Mary's are conducted by the Sisters of St. Dominic. About 450 children are in regular attendance.

Roman Catholic schools.

But at the head of all the educational apparatus of the Colony, forming in fact the keystone of the entire system of South Africa, stands

The University.

In 1858 *a Board of Public Examiners* was constituted, consisting of some of the most distinguished men in the Colony, whose duty it was to examine candidates in literature and science, law and jurisprudence, &c. &c. Various prizes, bursaries, scholarships, &c. &c. (some of them of considerable value), were placed at their disposal for the encouragement of the higher education, and *certificates* of the *first* and *second* class were granted to all who successfully passed the examinations. It was further provided that when the number of these certificate-holders reached fifty, they should be empowered to elect an *Educational Council*, which should supersede the *Board* of *Public Examiners*. But as the time drew near it was felt by the Governor, Sir Henry Barkly, and his advisers, that something more was needed. Accordingly, on March 27, 1873, they issued a commission, referring the subject to the following gentlemen: Langham Dale, Esq., LL.D.; William Porter, Esq., C.M.G., M.L.A.; Edward James Stone, Esq., M.A., F.R.S.; Rev. Prof. Murray, Astronomer Royal; Rev. Prof. Cameron, LL.D.; Henry Alexander Ebden, Esq., M.D.; Rev. Canon Ogilvie, M.A.; and the Rev. Thomas E. Fuller.

Defunct Board of Public Examiners.

As the Board of Public Examiners is now defunct, we may extract, by way of epitaph, as it has certainly deserved well of the Colony, the following pas-

Important service rendered by them to the

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cause of higher education.

sage from an essay by Prof. Cameron, of the South African College, published in 1869, while the Board was still in existence. It bears important testimony to the value of its work:—'The higher education of the Colony is practically under the direction of the Board of Public Examiners, whose higher certificates correspond to the degrees of the English universities, and the scheme of whose examinations is framed on the model of that university which is considered to embody in the highest degree the liberal spirit of the age. Our Colonial examinations seem to meet fairly the requirements of the opponents of the exclusively classical training, while at the same time they most properly insist upon Greek and Latin as indispensable elements in a scheme of liberal education. The experience of ten years, during which the Board has been in existence, proves that its principles have been accepted by the colleges and higher schools of the country; and lists of the names of the students who have gained its certificates show that its requirements are not beyond the capacities of our youth or the power of our institutions.'

Report of Government Commissioners, and establishment of the University.

Most admirably did this Board of Public Examiners prepare the way for the establishment of a public university. This, in accordance with the report of the Commissioners, was effected by Act of Parliament in 1872. Dr. Dale was appointed vice-chancellor, and Dr. Cameron registrar. In 1876 Mr. William Porter, C.M.G., late Attorney-General of the Cape, and a great benefactor of educational institutions, was unanimously voted Chancellor. The governing body is a council, consisting of members of the English universities resident in the Colony, and the leading representatives of the learned professions. The scheme of the London University is generally adopted, and it is gratifying to find that the matriculation examination is recognized by the medical faculties of the mother country. It may here also be stated that the Cape Town Hospital is so far recognized by the College of Surgeons and Physicians as a medical school that students are allowed to spend two years of their hospital course at this institution. These recognitions of Colonial education are not only fully justified by the position and capabilities of the

students, but are of great value in giving prestige to new institutions, as well as saving the time of students.

Additional Act for improvement of higher education.

Since the above was written a Bill has passed the Cape Legislature for the encouragement of higher education in the first-class public schools, so that each of the institutes named now receives additional aid from Government. There are liberal bursaries and scholarships now attached to the University, which enable students to pursue their studies in England.

RELIGION.

General distribution of Protestant and other churches.

Most of the Protestant denominations of Christendom are more or less largely represented at the Cape, besides the Roman Catholic Church. As might be anticipated from its early settlement and history, the Dutch Reformed Church is by far the most numerous, if not the most active, community. Essentially Presbyterian in its form of government as well as in its creed, its pulpits are largely supplied by both Dutch and Scotch clergymen. The majority of the ministers and congregations are thoroughly orthodox; but the leaven of liberalism from Holland has been felt both in the Synod and in the congregations of the larger towns. The Anglican Church, though late in the field, has of late years, and especially since the foundation of the see and the appointment of a bishop, made considerable progress. The Lutherans, Presbyterians, Independents, Wesleyans, Roman Catholics, &c., exist in considerable numbers, and the Baptists have two or three congregations. The Malays both in Cape Town and Port Elizabeth are, for the most part, Mahommedans, and worship in mosques. The mixed Hottentot races are most of them nominally Christians; but the bulk of the Kaffir, Bechouana, and Damara tribes are heathen. Still many of these have been converted to Christianity, and at the numerous mission stations Christian teaching is energetically and persistently enforced. The results of the labours of these devoted men is thus referred to by Dr. Dale:—'He who would honestly measure the results of missionary teaching and influence must extend the horizon of his observations some thirty or forty years back. Taking a retrospect of what the Eastern Districts, for instance,

Missionary labours among the native population.

were at that time—of the then lonely, yet as now lovely, slopes of the Kat River heights; of the untenanted wastes that stretched over where Queen's Town now flourishes—untenanted save where here and there some native kraals dotted the more fertile spots—the observer will have found nothing but what characterises the lowest types of humanity; now the missionary proudly points to churches and schools that have risen chiefly from the self-reliant efforts of the christianised natives; neatly dressed and well-behaved congregations of coloured races throng churchwards at the call of the Sabbath bell, and the voices of thousands rise to God in devotional hymns where superstition and debasing rites had encrusted the particle of inborn truth.'

We proceed to give a brief account in detail of some of the chief of the Christian denominations.

The Anglican Church.

The Anglican Church numbers some 45,441 adherents throughout the entire Colony, of which 26,327 are whites and 19,114 coloured, and receives Government aid to the amount of 4,764*l.* The average attendance at the principal service is returned at 18,215, of whom 7,205 are communicants. The English Episcopal Church of South Africa is ruled by three bishops, viz. Cape Town, Graham's Town, and Natal. Cape Town was first constituted into a see in 1847, and Dr. Gray appointed to be first Bishop of the Diocese and Metropolitan. The present Metropolitan is Dr. Jones. There are two archdeaconries—that of the Cape and that of George—at present occupied by the Ven. H. Badnall, D.D., and the Ven. P. P. Fogg, M.A. The dean is the Very Rev. C. W. Barnett-Clarke, M.A., and there are four canons and a precentor, who with him constitute the cathedral body. The Dean of Graham's Town is the Very Rev. F. H. Williams, and the cathedral body is composed of the dean and six canons. The number of clergy is 77, and there are 190 distinct congregations, including churches and out-stations.

Important service rendered to it by its first bishop.

The Anglican Church in South Africa owes its present position mainly to the wise administration, enthusiastic temper, and indefatigable exertions of one man. During the twenty-five years of his somewhat stormy episcopate the late Dr. Gray exhibited abilities of a very high order; and the present elaborate constitution of the province of South Africa remains as the last and most signifi-

cant result of his labours. When it became more than doubtful whether the Queen's letters patent conferred any real authority upon him, he declined to recognize the authority of the English Ecclesiastical Court as binding upon the Church of South Africa in matters of faith, and took his stand entirely upon the obligations arising out of solemn contract and engagement between the bishop and his clergy, on which alone the jurisdiction of the former is now supposed to rest. Every person admitted to holy orders, and all clergymen admitted to any office in the Church of the province, agree to be bound by all the laws of the province, and undertake to accept and immediately submit to any sentence which may be passed in due form by the tribunal authorized by the provincial synod; and the bishops also are similarly bound by a declaration to be made and subscribed by them on election.

Modified system of church government introduced by him.

How this modified system of church government will be found to work in the future time alone can prove, but there can be no doubt that the late Bishop was possessed not only of indefatigable zeal, but of the genius of organization.

There exists amongst the laity of the Episcopal Church in South Africa, however, a warm attachment to the constitution of the English Church, and on the death of the Bishop the desire was strongly manifested to keep as near as possible to the mother Church, both in *practice* as well as principle—to accept all its legal decisions as binding, and to make up for the want of legal connection with the State Establishment by voluntary adhesion to the constitution of the English Protestant Church. In accordance with this view, it was resolved after stormy meetings to have the Bishop's successor selected and consecrated in England if possible under mandate from the Queen. This policy prevailed, and in the summer of 1874 a bishop was selected by the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of Edinburgh, and the Rev. Mr. Bullock, of the Propagation Society, and consecrated in Westminster Abbey.

General feeling of the laity.

Consecration of the new bishop in England.

The Dutch Reformed Church is presbyterian in its form of government, and adopts the parochial division. But as the old parishes originally contained, many of them, thousands of square miles, they have been fre-

The Dutch Reformed Church.

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quently subdivided with the increase of population, and new parishes formed.

The Synod, or General Assembly, consists of all the ministers of the various congregations, together with the elders, or retired elders, from each congregation, Cape Town sending two elders, and generally holds its meetings in Cape Town once in five years. The Synod is convened by a notice from the scriba three months before. The total number of adherents in the Eastern and Western Divisions of the Colony is 131,642 (including 15,905 coloured people). Owing, however, probably to the scattered nature of the population, the average attendance of the whole does not exceed 30,529, and the number of communicants is returned at 53,030. There are 184 congregations, seventy-two recognised ministers, and the amount of Government aid is 9,004*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*, or considerably more than half the entire amount expended by the Colony for ecclesiastical purposes. These numbers include also the congregations described as Dutch Calvinistic.

Methodists.

The Wesleyan Methodists form the third most numerous body of religionists in the Colony, and are honourably distinguished especially for their work among the native population. Their returns show a larger number of coloured adherents than those of any other body, not even excepting the Dutch Reformed Church, viz. 23,535. These, with 11,246 whites, make a total of 34,781, of whom 11,565 are regular attendants and 10,375 communicants. The number of ministers is fifty-two, congregations 341, and the annual amount accepted from Government only 1,579*l.* The Wesleyans have been especially useful in elevating and christianising the Fingo race.

Congregationalists.

The Congregationalists, including both Independents and Baptists, with such of the congregations of the London Missionary Society as are within the Colonial boundaries, many of them self-supporting, number 32,286, of which no fewer than 26,577 are natives. The average attendance is 12,944; number of communicants, 6,114. There are twenty-six ministers and sixty-two churches. The Congregationalists are the only considerable body of Christians who decline to receive

any subsidy from the Government for ecclesiastical purposes.

Lutherans.

The Lutherans, including also the Evangelical Lutheran, Berlin Mission, Rhenish Mission, and the Free Evangelical, form a pretty considerable body. Their thirty-six congregations are presided over by twenty-eight ministers, and include 11,256 communicants; adherents, 8,953 white and 13,902 coloured. They are subsidized by Government to the extent of 243*l.*

Presbyterians.

The Presbyterians, including the Free Church of Scotland, have only thirteen ministers, with twenty-three places of worship, 2,218 white and 3,408 coloured adherents. The average attendance is 4,096, communicants 1,860. Amount of Government aid 300*l.*

Other Protestant communities.

Other Protestant Communities, such as the Moravians, the French Reformed Church, the Apostolic Union, the Rhenish Missionary Society, &c., make up some forty-three congregations throughout the Colony, with forty-nine ministers, 22,442 adherents, white and coloured, and 7,773 communicants. The entire Protestant population of the Colony is estimated at 290,000.

Roman Catholics.

The Roman Catholics have bishops in Cape Town and Graham's Town, and support large charitable and educational establishments. But their work lies chiefly among the European population, of whom they reckon 7,634 among the number of their adherents. The native converts are only 341. They are subsidised by Government to the extent of 1,000*l.* The cathedral was completed more than thirty years ago at a cost of several thousand pounds.

Government grant for ecclesiastical purposes.

The total amount expended by Government for ecclesiastical purposes is 16,891*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.*

By the passing of the Voluntary Bill during a recent session of the Cape Parliament, the grants are to lapse on the retirement or death of the present recipients.

GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONY.

General constitution.

The Cape Colony is governed by a royal representative who is Governor and Commander-in-Chief; a Legislative Council of twenty-one members, presided over by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; and a House

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of Assembly of sixty-eight members. The members of both Houses are elected by popular votes, those of the Legislative Council half for ten and half for five, and those of the House of Assembly for five years. Before the introduction of a responsible government no person holding an official situation under the Crown was eligible for election to either House; but four of the principal officers of Government had a seat, and were entitled to take part in the discussions of both, but not to vote, viz. the Colonial Secretary, Attorney-General, Treasurer-General, and Auditor-General. By the Act of 1872, however, this disqualification was repealed, and the Ministry thereafter held their office, like the English Cabinet, at the pleasure of the Parliament. Ministers of Native Affairs and Public Works were appointed, and the Auditor-General removed from the Cabinet. The Ministry now consists of a Colonial Secretary, Secretary for Native Affairs, Commissioner of Public Works, Treasurer-General, and Attorney-General. The Parliament must meet at least once in every year, so that a period of twelve months shall not intervene between the last sitting in one session and the first sitting in the next. The Chief Justice has a casting vote in the Council. No Act can become law unless passed by both the Council and Assembly, and assented to by the Governor.

Legislative Council.

Legislative Council of twenty-one members.

For the purpose of electing the members of the Council the Colony has been heretofore divided into two electoral districts—the Western and the Eastern. The Western Districts embrace Stellenbosch, Caledon, Swellendam, George, Beaufort, Paarl, Worcester, Malmesbury, Clanwilliam, Namaqualand, Oudtshoorn, Piquetberg, Riversdale, Victoria West, and the city of Cape Town (including the municipality of Green Point); and elect eleven members. The Eastern Districts include the electoral divisions of Albany (exclusive of the town of Graham's Town), Uitenhage, Port Elizabeth, Fort Beaufort, Victoria, Albert, Somerset, Graaf-Reynet, Cradock, Colesberg, Aliwal North, Queen's Town, Richmond, King William's Town, East London, and the

town of Graham's Town; and elect ten members. A high property qualification is required for a seat in the Council. Each voter has as many votes as there are members to be elected, and may distribute them as he pleases, giving the whole ten or eleven votes to a single candidate.

In the event of a general election for the whole Council, in the Western Province the six, and in the Eastern Province the five, elected by the smallest number of votes retire at the expiration of the first five years. The remainder continue in office for ten years. In the Legislative Council five members, exclusive of the President, form a quorum.

New measure dividing the Colony into seven electoral districts.

With a view to diminish the size of the constituencies for the election of the Council, which were inconveniently large, and for the more equable division of political power, as well as to destroy the division of the Colony into two parts, which was legally recognized in no other instrument than the charter of the Council, the Government introduced a Bill in 1873 for dividing the country into seven electoral districts, each of which is to return three members to the Upper Chamber. This Bill became law in 1874; but as it will not come into operation until the Council dissolves by the fluxion of time, or by a special appeal to the country, the old constitution for the present remains in force.

House of Assembly.

House of Assembly consisting of sixty-eight members.

The House of Assembly represents the country districts and towns of the Colony. The electoral divisions are as follows:—Cape Town and Green Point, returning four members; the Cape, Stellenbosch, Paarl, Malmesbury, Piquetberg, Clanwilliam, Namaqualand, Worcester, Victoria West, Beaufort, Caledon, Swellendam, Riversdale, George, Oudtshoorn. Uitenhage, Port Elizabeth, Graham's Town, Albany, Victoria East, Fort Beaufort, Somerset, Cradock, Graaf-Reynet, Richmond, Colesberg, Albert, Aliwal North, Queen's Town, King William's Town, East London, and Wodehouse, each of which returns two members. Of these sixty-eight members twelve, exclusive of the Speaker, form a

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quorum. The Speaker is elected by the House, and has a casting vote.

As in the case of the Legislative Council, each voter has as many votes as there are members to be elected, and may distribute them as he pleases.

Standing rules and orders similar to those of House of Commons.

Both Houses of Parliament have adopted certain standing rules and orders for the proper conduct of their business. These are substantially the same as those adopted by the House of Commons; and in all cases not provided for in the rules agreed to, resort is to be had to the rules, forms, and usages of the House of Commons, which are to be followed as far as they are applicable to the Colonial Legislature.

Political Franchise.

Rights and qualifications of voters.

Both the Council and Assembly are elected by the same voters, of whom a fresh registration is provided for every alternate year. The following extract from the schedule to the Order in Council of March 11, 1853, constituting a Parliament for the Colony is taken from the authorized Blue Book, and contains every necessary information as to the qualifications of voters.

Extract from Blue Book.

'§ 8. And be it enacted that every male person, not subject to any of the legal incapacities hereinafter mentioned, who shall have occupied, within any electoral division, for the space of twelve months next before the day on which any such registration of voters as is hereinafter mentioned shall commence, any house, warehouse, shop, or other building, being either separately or jointly, with any land within such electoral division occupied therewith, of the value of twenty-five pounds sterling, or who shall have been, for the space of twelve months aforesaid, really and *bonâ fide* in the receipt of salary or wages at and after the rate of not less than fifty pounds by the year, or who having been in the receipt for the space aforesaid of the salary or wages at and after the rate of not less than twenty-five pounds by the year, shall, in addition to such salary or wages, have been supplied with board and lodging, shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, and to vote at elections of members of the said Council and of members of the said House of Assembly; pro-

vided that, when any number of different premises of the required nature and value shall have been occupied in immediate succession by the same person within the same electoral division during the aforesaid space of twelve months, such person shall be deemed and taken to be entitled to be registered as a voter, and to vote; provided further that no person claiming to be registered from salary or wages shall be prevented from being so registered by reason that, during the space of twelve months aforesaid, he may have been employed by different employers, in case no interval greater than one month shall have occurred between the time of his quitting one employer and the time of his taking employment with or under another employer; and provided also that, whilst no person shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, or to vote from or out of any premises of which he shall not be in the actual occupation, yet, if in any case it shall happen that the same person shall be in actual occupation, in each of two or more electoral divisions, of premises of the required nature and value, such person shall be entitled to be registered as a voter for each of the said electoral divisions and to vote for each of such electoral divisions, in the election of members of the House of Assembly; but no voter shall vote in more than one electoral division in the election of members of the Legislative Council.

'§ 9. And be it enacted that where any premises are jointly occupied by more persons than one, each of the said joint occupiers shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, and to vote, in respect of the said premises, in case the total value of such premises, when divided by the number of such joint occupiers as aforesaid, shall yield for every such joint occupier a sum of twenty-five pounds; provided, however, that in case such joint occupiers shall own, or be interested in, such premises in unequal shares or proportions, no such joint occupier shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, or to vote, unless his share or proportion shall, regard being had to the total value of the premises, yield a sum of twenty-five pounds.

'§ 10. And be it enacted that no person shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, or to vote at any

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election of members of the Legislative Council or Assembly of the Cape of Good Hope, unless he be of the full age of twenty-one years, and either a natural-born subject of her Majesty the Queen, or a subject of her Majesty the Queen who, though not natural-born, was, before and on the 18th of January, 1806, a subject of the Batavian Government, resident in this Colony, and who, from thence hitherto, has resided or maintained a domicile in the said Colony, or unless, if of alien birth, and not such a subject as last aforesaid, he shall have been naturalized by some Act of Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, or of the Legislature of the Cape of Good Hope, or shall, before the commencement and taking effect of this ordinance, have obtained a deed of burghership; and that no person shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, or to vote, who is of unsound mind, or who shall have been convicted of or sentenced for treason, murder, rape, theft, fraud, perjury, or forgery, unless he shall have received a free pardon.'

Extension of the same provisions to British Kaffraria.

By Act No. 3 of 1865 the same provisions were extended to British Kaffraria, upon its incorporation with the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope. For the forms to be observed in the registration of voters the reader may be referred to 'The General Directory and Guide Book to the Cape of Good Hope and its Dependencies,' issued by Messrs. Saul Solomon & Co., of Cape Town, a most complete and useful publication, to which we have been indebted for many of the local particulars given under this head.

DEFENCE OF THE COLONY.

Important naval and military stations.

For many years past the Colony has had naval and military stations of Imperial as well as local importance. Before the opening of the Suez Canal, and the establishment of the overland route, the Cape was a half-way to India, where reserves were held in readiness for any emergency that might arise in that country.

Since the opening of shorter eastern routes, the naval station has been considerably reduced, but it is likely to be maintained in an efficient state, as serviceable in many ways for naval operations in the southern hemi-

sphere. It has been the head-quarters of the operations against the slave trade, and may, in case of war, still be useful for Indian reserves.

The military establishment at the Cape has also been considerable, and during the successive Kaffir wars there has been a very considerable expenditure both of English blood and English treasure. It is reckoned, indeed, that the military expenditure has equalled four times the estimated value of the Colony. The recent policy of the Home and Colonial Governments, however, has led to the gradual withdrawal of the troops, so that, with the exception of a few at Cape Town, there are now no imperial troops in the Colony. It is understood, moreover, that for the future the services of the troops are to be available only in case of serious emergency.

Recent policy of Home Government.

The colonists were not unprepared for this policy. As far back as 1853 a force, called the Frontier Armed and Mounted Police, was organised by Governor Sir George Cathcart, and reorganised and enlarged by Act of the Colonial Parliament in 1855. Nothing could be more admirably adapted for domestic defence than this force, which resembles a flying column of light cavalry, moving rapidly through the country, and quelling any approach to rebellion before it has time to gain head. In times of peace it is employed in protecting the stock of the farmers, so that these duties eminently fit it for service in times of war. It was employed to quell a disturbance on the northern border, and acted with such rapidity and effect, under the command of Sir Walter Currie, the late commandant, that the districts were soon cleared of the enemy. It performed similar service in cutting off the retreat of Langalibalele from Natal. More recently it performed an important part in the suppression of the Gcaleka and Gaika rebellion in 1877–8. In the latter year the name of the force was changed by Act of Parliament to that of Cape Mounted Riflemen, the service being at the same time thoroughly reorganised in conjunction with that of the burgher and volunteer forces.

Organisation of the Frontier Armed and Mounted Police, now called 'Cape Mounted Riflemen.'

Such a force is much more suited for Colonial warfare than English soldiery, and if brought to an efficient state, both as to numbers and discipline, will probably fully meet the requirements of the country, at least as

Adaptation of this force to Colonial warfare.

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Regulations as issued by the Cape Emigration Commissioner.

far as field service is concerned. The force is being raised to its full strength by recruiting in England. It is divided into ten different troops, with stations at many different localities in the border districts. The following extracts from the regulations, as issued by the Cape Emigration Agent in England, will give an idea of the nature, duties, and pay of the force:—

The force is embodied to serve as an armed and mounted force, the members of which shall be sworn before a justice of the peace to act as a police in and throughout the Colony, for preserving the peace and preventing robberies and other crimes, and apprehending offenders against the peace, and also as a military force for the defence of the Colony.

Officers are appointed by the Governor after examination in such subjects as he may from time to time appoint.

The pay of officers is as follows:—Lieut.-colonel, 600*l.* per annum, and 300*l.* contingent allowance. Captains, 16*s.* per diem, with annual progressive increase of 1*s.* per diem until a maximum of 20*s.* per diem is reached, and a contingent allowance of 5*s.* per diem to cover travelling and every other expense. Paymasters, 400*l.* to 450*l.* per annum. Surgeons, 456*l.* Gunnery instructor, 456*l.* Adjutant and musketry instructor, 500*l.* Quartermaster, 365*l.* Veterinary surgeon, 400*l.* Lieutenants, 11*s.* per diem, with annual progressive increase of 1*s.* per diem until a maximum of 15*s.* is reached.

Sergeants,	1st class	. . .	9*s.* 0*d.*	per diem
Do.	2nd ,,	. . .	8*s.* 0*d.*	,, ,,
Do.	3rd ,,	. . .	7*s.* 0*d.*	,, ,,
Privates,	1st ,,	. . .	6*s.* 0*d.*	,, ,,
Do.	2nd ,,	. . .	5*s.* 0*d.*	,, ,,
Do.	3rd ,,	. . .	4*s.* 6*d.*	,, ,,
Do.	4th ,,	(natives)	2*s.* 6*d.*	,, ,,

Non-commissioned officers and privates after five years' service will, on re-engagement for three more years, receive an increase of 1*s.* per diem, and after eight years' service an increase of 6*d.* per diem, and an additional 6*d.* for every subsequent re-engagement for a further term of three years.

Pay is issued monthly, and is subject to deductions

for horses, arms, equipments, clothing, forage, rations, or advances.

Each recruit receives a bounty of 10*l.* in aid of the purchase of a horse.

Stoppages for equipment, &c., will in no case exceed the sum of 2*l.* per month per man.

The amount provided by Parliament for 1879 for the maintenance of the force was 124,159*l.*, exclusive of a sum of 4,050*l.* for contingent expenditure.

Volunteer forces.

The other forces organised by the present Government for the defence of the Colony are the Cape Mounted Yeomanry, consisting of three regiments of volunteer burghers, the head-quarters of which are respectively at King William's Town, Queenstown, and Uitenhage, and the Volunteer Corps, each division of the Colony raising a battalion.

Total expenditure for military purposes of the Colony.

The total amount provided by Parliament for the whole of the defensive forces of the Colony for the year 1879 was 227,959*l.*, as against 174,074*l.* for the previous year.

Literary, Scientific, and other Local Institutions.

Royal Observatory.

The Royal Observatory.—The Cape affords one of the most important positions on the earth's surface for astronomical, meteorological, and other scientific observations, and its advantages in this respect have long been recognised. Under the old Dutch governor, Simon van der Stett, the Jesuits who accompanied the French astronomical expedition to Siam in 1685 had a temporary station, and made the first recorded observations there. In 1751 La Caille, the celebrated French philosopher, arrived at the Cape, where he resided till 1783, for the purpose of measuring the arc of meridian, and established a temporary observatory at No. 2, Strand Street. The results of his observations are printed in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences of Paris for the year 1855, and in the Colonial Blue Book for 1862, where this most interesting document appears at full length, translated under the direction of Sir Thomas Maclear, for more than thirty-seven years her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, and one of whose most valuable works has been the 'Verification and Extension of La Caille's Arc of the Meridian

La Caille's Observatory.

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of the Cape of Good Hope.' In 1772 observations of various kinds were made by astronomers and other men of science who accompanied the celebrated Captain Cook on his second voyage round the world. But, with the exception of the observations taken by La Caille, nothing like a meteorological register was kept in South Africa till the establishment of the present Observatory.

Establishment of the present Observatory.

That Observatory has grown to be one of the most valuable Colonial institutions supported by the British Government. The first astronomer sent out to the Cape by the English Board of Admiralty was the Rev. Feardon Fallowes, M.A. He filled that office for about ten years, till his death in 1831. His first observations were carried on in a temporary wooden building, but subsequently the present Observatory was built in a beautiful situation, some three miles from Cape Town. Mr. Thomas Henderson was appointed to succeed Mr. Fallowes, but resigned, owing to failure of health, in 1833. Sir Thomas Maclear was appointed to succeed him, and under his able management the Observatory has attained its present high position. After more than thirty-six years' service he retired, and the present Astronomer Royal, E. J. Stone, Esq., F.R.S., was appointed in his place, and entered on the duties of his office on October 21, 1870. He has pursued the work of his predecessor with indefatigable zeal, and has already made most valuable additions to the tables. Though long a resident in the Colony, the late Sir John Herschel was never officially connected with the Cape Royal Observatory. The entire cost of his expedition was defrayed by himself. But he rendered valuable assistance to Sir Thomas Maclear, and the Observatory is indebted to his powerful influence at home for its present equatorial instrument, and for some other important additions to its splendid stock of apparatus.

Sir John Herschel.

Parliamentary vote.

In the year 1859, in response to the recommendation of his Excellency the Governor, the Colonial Parliament voted a sum of money for the purpose of purchasing instruments and establishing a proper system of meteorological observations.

The Meteorological Commission.

The Meteorological Commission was appointed for the purpose of carrying this out. Ten sets of instruments were obtained from Negretti and Zambra, of London,

and, after being compared with the Observatory standard, placed in the hands of competent observers in different parts of the Colony. They have been the means of supplying the principal part of the valuable meteorological data in the reports of the Commission published in 1866, 1868, and 1869.

South African Museum.

South African Museum.—This institution was founded in June, 1855, and incorporated by Act of the Colonial Parliament in 1857. The Museum collection is chiefly illustrative of the zoology of South Africa, but includes also many representatives of the fauna of other parts of the world. The *Mammalia* number upwards of 450 specimens, exclusive of crania and horns. The series of *Birds* comprise not fewer than 7,000 examples, while that of their eggs numbers upwards of 5,000. Of *Reptiles* and *Amphibians* there are, together, more than 500 specimens, and of *Fishes* about 400. There are 18 mounted vertebrate skeletons. Of *Insects* no less than 17,000 examples are contained in the Museum, but only about a third of these have hitherto been named and arranged. Other *Arthropoda* (chiefly *Crustacea*) are but poorly represented. The general collection of the shells of *Mollusca* embraces about 7,000 specimens, representing pretty completely the great majority of recent genera. The lower classes of animals, with the exception of a few *Corals* and *Sponges*, remain unillustrated at present. The *geological* series consists of about 9,000 specimens, more than half of which contain remains of extinct animals or plants. These have been roughly arranged in the order of the successive formations, and the South African rocks, minerals, and fossils kept apart from the rest of the series. There is a good collection of the weapons and implements of savage tribes, as well as various specimens of the works in metal, glass, and porcelain of the more civilized races of man. It is extremely desirable to perfect, as far as possible, the South African portion of the collection, and the Trustees will be thankful for any contributions for that purpose. Intending contributors should note that all letters and packages of specimens for the Museum (if not unduly heavy or bulky) are allowed to be conveyed by inland post *free of charge*, if superscribed ‘ On Her Majesty’s Service,’ and addressed to ‘ The Curator of the South

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African Museum, Cape Town.' The present Trustees are His Excellency Richard Southey, Esq., C.M.G.; Sir Thomas Maclear, Kt., F.R.S.; and C. A. Fairbridge, Esq., M.L.A. The Curator is Roland Trimen, Esq., F.L.S. The Museum is open to the public generally on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, from 10 to 4 in the winter, and from 10 to 5 in the summer. On Monday and Friday admission is limited to subscribers and to visitors from distant parts of the Colony or from abroad. The number of visitors to the Museum during the year 1874 was 23,565, an attendance which was fully maintained in 1875 up to the month of August. The annual subscription is one guinea.

South African Public Library.

The South African Public Library was established in 1818, and has nearly 40,000 volumes, in every branch of science and literature. The public are admitted free of expense, but subscribers only are allowed to take out books. Three pounds per annum, with a deposit of 1*l.*, entitles the subscriber to two sets of works and two periodicals two months after receipt; 1*l.* per annum, with a deposit of 10*s.*, to one set of works and a periodical three months after receipt.

Munificent gift of Sir George Grey.

In one of the rooms of the institution is the *Grey Library*, the munificent gift of Sir George Grey—a collection of about 5,000 volumes (most of them rare and valuable), presented to the Colony by Sir George Grey. They include among them several hundreds of manuscripts, some as ancient as the ninth century, a considerable number of which are handsomely illuminated. About 100 of these manuscripts are in Latin, being either splendidly written Bibles or devotional or theological works, classical and mediæval authors. There are also two valuable Dante manuscripts, several of Petrarch, one of the earliest manuscript copies of the 'Roman de la Rose,' a very old Flemish manuscript of Sir J. Mandeville's Travels, &c. &c. The Grey Library also contains an extensive collection of books printed within the first century after the invention of printing, as well as first original editions of the works of Shakespeare, Spenser, De Foe, &c. &c. The collection of the native literature of Africa, Australia, and New Zealand is perfectly unique in its completeness. It includes original manuscripts by the first missionaries (Van der Kemp,

Schmelen, &c.), and still unpublished manuscripts by Dr. Livingstone.

The South African Public Library and the Grey Library, though in one building, are vested in different bodies of trustees, and each has a curator or librarian of its own.

The Botanic Garden.

The Botanic Garden completes the group of institutions that gather round the museum as a centre, and forms one of the most attractive and beautiful features of Cape Town, in addition to the value which it has from a scientific point of view. It is under the management of a committee, appointed by the Governor, and a superintendent, Mr. McGibbon; and it is supported partly by a Government grant, partly by subscriptions, and partly by the sale of seeds, plants, bulbs, &c. &c.

The Government Herbarium.

The Government Herbarium consists of a collection of dried plants preserved in one of the rooms of the library building, under the curatorship of the superintendent of the Botanic Gardens. The series of Cape plants is very extensive, and a complete set as far as Campanulaux have been authenticated by the late Dr. Harvey, Dr. Sonder, and other European authorities. A full account of them is given elsewhere.

The Albany or Graham's Town Museum.

The Albany or Graham's Town Museum deserves a place of honourable mention under this section. Though less extensive than that of the metropolitan city, it is thought by some to surpass the larger institute in the completeness of its classification. It does not profess to furnish a sort of cosmopolitan collection of either birds, beasts, or fishes. Its main object is to exhibit specimens directly illustrative of the fauna—past and present—of South Africa itself, together with a fair representation of the natural and economic products of the Cape, from the cotton pods of Albany to the coal-seams of the Stormberg. In palæontological specimens it is peculiarly rich, from the Trilobites of the Bokkeveld and Cedarbergen in the west, to the Dicynodons of the north and the Ammonites and Trigonias of the Sunday River beds. In illustration of the completeness and care with which the classification is carried out we give a few details on the peculiarly South African department of the Dicynodons, beginning with the heads of *D. lacerticeps*, of which there are four specimens, all clearly showing

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the remarkable characteristics of those strange reptiles—the possession of but two teeth, occupying the position of the canine in the Mammalia, the separation of the external nostrils by a long partition, and the hole on the top of the head known as the parietal foramen. Then follow bones of the feet, sacral vertebræ, ribs, and other vertebræ, showing a very large neural spine, all from their juxtaposition with the skulls supposed to be illustrative of the anatomy of this highly developed extinct reptile. Skulls of *D. strigiceps* and *testudiceps* follow, and then a part of a head, which differs from all that has yet been described, from Fort Beaufort. Only the front part is there, much compressed, broken off between the nostrils and the orbits, but exhibiting teeth of a diameter of one and a half inch at the base. The reptilian remains that follow have not yet been relegated to any particular species. They consist of ribs, teeth, and femurs. At the end of the case is the head of *D. tigriceps*—an enormous head, or rather part of one—broken behind the orbits, but showing them and the temporal fossæ behind them and the nostrils in front with great distinctness. The great tusks of this head are seen embedded in a mass of stone that lay beneath it, now broken off, each being about one inch in diameter. The other side of this case contains remains of reptiles, allied to Dicynodon, but presenting very remarkable differences from it. Here are the bones that were associated with some of the heads that were taken to England by the late Mr. Bain. Dudenodon is the name given to one of these groups, showing vertebræ that formed the sacrums of two individuals, in one of which the pelvis bones are attached to the vertebræ; then there are three cervical vertebræ with a portion of the scapula attached, and portions of the pelvis detached, all from the Gouph. A knee-joint of an unknown reptile from Bedford; a scapula, well developed, from Fort Beaufort; fibulæ, ribs, vertebræ, and heads from the Dicynodon beds in various parts of the Colony follow. These heads are, however, not of the Dicynodon type, having many teeth. Some of the fragments of the heads and leg bones show how enormous the individuals were to whom they belonged. Lastly, there is the head of a reptile closely allied to Dicynodon, but whose skull was strangely bent

into a rectangular shape. This animal has been named Phychognothus by Owen, and comes from Bethulie, Free State.

On the whole, the state of the Albany Museum reflects the highest credit on its accomplished curator, Mr. Burt J. Glanville, and other gentlemen who have been associated with him in its formation and management.

Hospitals and Charitable Institutions.

Colonial Medical Committee.

At the head of the medical institutions of the Colony stands the *Colonial Medical Committee*, appointed by Government, and presided over by the Government Inspector of Colonial Hospitals, which meets every week.

The Medical Committee exists by virtue of Ordinance No. 82 of 1830, which constitutes a committee for the superintendence of the civil medical concerns of the Colony. It ordains that no person shall practise in the Colony as physician, surgeon, accoucheur, apothecary, chemist, or druggist without taking out a license, issued under the hand of the Governor, after the diploma or certificate of the person desiring to practise has been examined and approved by the Medical Committee, to whom is entrusted the duty of discovering whether applicants for permission to practise are duly qualified members of the profession they desire to exercise. Apothecaries are not licensed until the expiration of an apprenticeship of four years, nor until they have satisfied the Committee, by examination, that they possess an adequate knowledge of the medicinal properties of drugs and compounds. Persons who practise without license subject themselves to a fine of 50*l.*, and the ordinance also provides stringent regulations for the sale of drugs and poisons.

New Somerset, Old Somerset, and Lock Hospital.

There are in Cape Town two large hospitals, the *New Somerset* and the *Old Somerset*, in addition to the *Lock Hospital*, all supported from the Colonial Treasury. The first of these especially possesses a very efficient medical and nursing staff. There is a fixed rate of charge of 2*s.* 6*d.* per diem for all classes of patients, except masters and chief officers of ships and others, who are charged 3*s.* per diem and upwards. Seamen and

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breakwater labourers are charged 2*s.* per diem, but reductions are made in individual cases, according to circumstances, and paupers are treated without charge, with the special sanction of the Government in each case, or when sent to the hospital by the resident magistrate of Cape Town or the police surgeon.

General Infirmary.

There is also the *General Infirmary* at Robben Island, for lunatics, supported by Government, and containing about 300 inmates, male and female.

Dispensaries, &c.

The other medical institutions of Cape Town are the *Dispensary for the Relief of the Sick Poor* and the *Homœopathic Dispensary*, supported by voluntary contributions, and a list of duly qualified medical practitioners, which certainly ought to be sufficient to keep a much larger population in healthy working order.

Provincial Hospital.

The Provincial Hospital, Port Elizabeth, is supported partly by Government grant, partly by subscriptions and donations, and partly by paying patients and quit-rents. It has a resident surgeon and superintendent, visiting medical officer, and a board of managers, consisting of the Town Council and an equal number of elected members.

General Hospital.

The General Hospital, Graham's Town, Albany, is supported in the same way as the hospital at Port Elizabeth.

An Asylum for Lunatics has lately been established at Grahamstown, and is supported by Government.

Native and European Hospital, &c.

The Native and European Hospital of King William's Town is another important institution, mainly under local management, but supported by Government. There is also the *Midland Hospital* at Graaf-Reynet and the *Frontier Hospital* at Queenstown, and there are as many as thirty *Gaol Hospitals* throughout the Colony, at many of which the indigent sick may receive needful medical aid.

Government aid.

The entire amount expended by the Government on hospitals, &c., falls very little short of 45,000*l.*

Other hospitals, &c.

The hospital at Ookiep, Namaqualand, is supported by the Cape Copper Mining Company, who employ their own surgeon; admission free to miners and labourers; and there are in many parts of the Colony dispensaries, homes, refuges, almshouses, orphanages, cottages, hospitals, and other benevolent institutions for the relief of

sickness and destitution, connected chiefly with the different religious organizations, and supported by voluntary contributions.

Medical practitioners.

The published list of *medical practitioners*, corrected up to December 31, 1878 (the latest we have been able to obtain), contains the names of no fewer than two hundred and sixty-five gentlemen, of whom by far the larger number are possessed of European medical degrees and diplomas.

Periodical Press of South Africa.

Early struggles for a free press and subsequent development.

The history of the early struggles which resulted in the attainment of a free press has already been given in a former part of this work. Since that time nearly fifty years have passed away, and with each successive year the press has become a greater power in the Colony. It may be added, deservedly so. For public spirit and enterprise, for general and for literary ability, the various organs of public opinion, and especially of cultured literary and scientific society in South Africa, need not shrink from a comparison with those of any of her Majesty's colonial possessions. It would seem invidious to single out any one newspaper for special comment, but among purely literary organs we may mention the 'Cape Monthly Magazine,' published in Cape Town, as being conducted with marked ability, and worthy to take its place side by side with all but the very best of similar publications at home. We make this acknowledgment the more readily as many of the scientific and other contributions contained in it have been not a little serviceable to the present undertaking.

There are about fifty newspapers and periodicals of all sorts, in English and Dutch, published in Cape Colony and Natal.

Newspapers and periodicals published in Cape Town.

The following is, we believe, a nearly complete list:—'Cape of Good Hope Government Gazette,' Tuesday and Friday; 'Cape Mercantile Advertiser,' Monday, Wednesday, and Saturday; 'Cape Argus,' 'Cape Times,' 'Cape Post,' 'Evening Express,' daily; 'Zuid Afrikaan and Volksvriend,' Wednesday and Saturday; 'Volksblad,' Thursday, and supplement on Tuesday and Saturday; 'Gereformeerde Kerkbode,' every fortnight; 'De Wekkar' and 'De Ouderzoeker,' monthly;

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'Zingari,' Friday; 'Cape Monthly Magazine,' and 'South African Magazine and Review.'

In other parts of Colony.

All the foregoing are published in Cape Town, those which follow in other parts of the Colony.

'Graham's Town Journal,' Monday, Wednesday, and Friday; 'Eastern Star,' Graham's Town, Tuesday and Friday; 'Grocott's Penny Mail,' Graham's Town, Tuesday and Friday; 'Eastern Province Herald,' Port Elizabeth, Tuesday and Friday; 'Port Elizabeth Telegraph,' Tuesday and Friday; 'The Observer,' Wednesday and Saturday; 'Beaufort Courier,' Beaufort West, Friday; 'Richmond Era,' Saturday; 'Mossel Bay Advertiser,' Thursday; 'Oudtshoorn Courant,' Wednesday; 'Fort Beaufort Advocate,' Saturday; 'Cradock Register,' Friday; 'Cradocksche Nieuovsblad,' Tuesday; 'Uitenhage Times,' and 'Uitenhage Advertiser,' Friday; 'Humansdorp Echo;' 'Graaf-Reynet Herald,' Wednesday and Saturday; 'Graaf-Reynet Advertiser,' Tuesday; 'Somerset and Bedford Courant,' Saturday; 'Alice Times,' Wednesday; 'Victoria West Messenger;' 'Middleburg Gazette;' 'Colesberg Advertiser,' Tuesday; 'Colesberg Herald,' Saturday; 'Queen's Town Free Press,' Tuesday and Friday; 'Queen's Town Representative,' Saturday; 'Standard,' Aliwal North, Saturday; 'Burghersdorp Gazette,' Saturday; 'Lovedale Kafir Express,' monthly.

British Kaffraria.

'King William's Town Gazette,' Monday and Wednesday; 'Kaffrarian Watchman,' Monday and Wednesday; 'The Cape Mercury,' three times a week; 'East London Dispatch,' and 'East London Advertiser,' twice a week; 'The Christian Watchman,' and the 'Isituniwa Sennyanga,' or 'Monthly Messenger,' issued monthly from the Wesleyan Mission Press in King William's Town.

At the Diamond Fields.

Three newspapers are published at the Diamond Fields:—'The Diamond News,' on Monday, Wednesday, and Saturday; 'The Diamond Field,' on Thursday; and the 'Independent.'

In the Orange Free State.

In the Orange Free State:—'Friend of the Free State and Bloemfontein Gazette,' Friday; 'Gouvernments Courant,' Tuesday; 'De Tyd,' Wednesday.

At Basutoland.

At Basutoland, a monthly, entitled 'The Little Light,' and at Transvaal, 'The Advocate,' every Saturday; the 'Argus' and the 'Volksstem.'

In the Colony of Natal.

To complete the list of South African literature, the newspapers, &c., published in the colony of Natal may as well be added in this place :—

At Maritzburg—'Natal Government Gazette,' on Tuesday; 'Natal Witness,' Tuesday and Friday; 'Times of Natal,' Wednesday and Saturday.

At Durban—'Natal Mercury,' Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday; 'Natal Colonist and Herald,' Tuesday and Friday.

A monthly magazine is also published by the American Missionary Press in the Zulu language, entitled 'Esidumbini: Ikwezi.'

TRADE, COMMERCE, AND INLAND COMMUNICATION.

Public Works.

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Different kinds of works.

THE principal public works undertaken by the Cape Colony for the development of the resources of the country and facilitating the operations of trade and commerce both with Europe and the interior of the continent are (1) harbours, (2) railways and telegraphs, (3) the opening of mountain passes, (4) roads and bridges.

Harbours and breakwaters.

The harbours are amongst the most necessary of the works. With the exception of Saldanha Bay, which is unfortunately too distant from the centres of trade to be of much service, there is not a natural harbour on the South African coast. Ships at anchor are therefore occasionally exposed to the full fury of the gales which are so frequent both in the summer and winter seasons.

To provide a shelter for shipping the following harbours are either completed or are in course of construction:—Table Bay Breakwater and Alfred Dock, Port Elizabeth Breakwater, Kowie Harbour, and East London Harbour.

The first of these is the most important work of the kind yet undertaken in any of her Majesty's colonies, and merits special notice. With the exception of the graving dock, to the cost of which the Home Government have contributed, the works are now completed. The Duke of Edinburgh, who has several times visited the Colony and always taken a warm interest in its progress, tipped into the sea the first truckful of stone for the formation of the breakwater on September 17, 1860, and the docks were officially opened by his Royal Highness on July 11, 1870. It so happened that severe gales visited the coast during the week of the opening celebrations, so that had the harbour not been constructed many vessels would have been lost. How necessary the works were will be understood from the

fact that on May 17, 1865, fifteen vessels were wrecked in Table Bay in the course of twelve hours. The following is a brief description of the work from Messrs. Solomon's Directory :—

Table Bay Breakwater and Alfred Dock.

The breakwater.

The Breakwater.—This runs out in a north-easterly direction for a length of 1,870 feet from the old high-water line, and affords sufficient protection to the dock works, as well as to ships lying well in shore. The full length of the breakwater is to be 1,000 yards, and when it is completed, ample protection will be given to vessels of deep draught lying in the roadstead. The crest of the breakwater is twenty feet above high water, sloping outwards on each side. The south side of the breakwater is steep, being at an angle of about forty-five degrees. On the sea side the work is left to take the slope that nature requires, and which is formed by the action of the sea. The base is 100 yards wide in the centre, increasing with the depth of water toward the end, and the largest stones have been placed on the side facing the sea and in the middle. As a temporary measure, the head is protected by blocks of concrete weighing from thirty to seventy tons each. On the inside of the breakwater a road and a railway have been formed, and these will give access to the end when the staging is removed, and afford means of making the necessary repairs.

The Outer Basin—Alfred Dock.

The Outer Basin.—On the south side of the breakwater, close in shore, a basin has been constructed, with an entrance at the south-east angle 150 feet wide. This basin has been formed to give access to the inner dock, and to prevent heavy swells disturbing the shipping lying there. The basin is about 800 feet long, by about 400 feet wide, and will accommodate about a dozen vessels of the size usually visiting this port. The depth at low water on the east side is 19 feet, and it gradually decreases till on the west it reaches 9 feet. It is enclosed from the sea by the breakwater on the north, and by two jetties on the east and south sides, the jetties being formed of timber frames filled in with stones, partly laid by divers. They are 15 feet wide at the top,

and slope slightly on each side. This basin is six acres in extent.

The Inner Basin.

The Inner Basin or Dock.—Passing through the outer basin, we come to the inner entrance to the dock. This is 100 feet wide, and, when completed, will have a depth of 21 feet at low water, or between 26 and 27 feet at high water. A coffer dam having been erected to enable the entrance to be constructed, a ridge of rocks upon which this dam stood had to be cleared away. This work is nearly finished, and will give 21 feet at low water. The walls are of massive masonry, with a strong coping of granite taken from the quarries under Table Mountain. Going through the entrance we come into the Dock, a fine piece of water 1,100 feet long and 500 feet wide in its greater dimensions, but tapering inwards, the depth of water also decreasing. The north end is the widest, and is 24 feet deep at low water, or about 30 feet at high water. The bottom of the dock is nearly 70 feet below the original surface of the ground, the upper portion of the surface—soft stone and clay—having been deposited on the shore line, by which means a large area of land has been reclaimed from the sea. The dock, which has an area of ten acres, will accommodate about fifty or sixty vessels of the size usually frequenting this port, besides a large number of coasters and other small craft. The quay on the west side is carried on a series of arches with heavy buttresses between them, this construction being required by the sloping strata of the rocks, which, though very hard, were found to move, and therefore had to be secured. On the east and north side the strata lay safely, but considerable trouble was given by beds of soft stone and clay, which had to be cut out, and the places filled up with solid masonry or brickwork. On both the sides the upper part of the walls—from low-water mark—had to be built up with masonry. All the dock walls are protected by ironwood fenders, so that no damage can possibly be done to a vessel by the stone-work. The walls are of various elevation, the greater part being about thirty-eight feet high. Ample quays extend all round the dock, on which railways are being laid to connect them with the Cape Town and Wellington line. A new road has been made along the beach from the

Area of the dock.

dock to the central causeway, and the dock and quays are now lighted with gas. Pipes are also laid down to supply the shipping with fresh water at their berths alongside the quays.

Storage.

Storage.—On the north quay three fine sheds—each 140 feet long by 34 feet wide—have been erected for the reception of goods. On the east quay four sheds—each about 140 feet long by 40 wide—have been erected, and on the west quay there are three sheds, 150 feet long by 27 feet wide. Smaller sheds are in other situations, and the whole affords accommodation for about 7,000 tons of cargo. The whole are made of solid masonry with the exception of those on the west quay, and each can have two stories added if they should be required. It is not intended to disturb at present a large range of workshops fitted up with every appliance for the construction or repair of any kind of engine work.

The Patent Slip.

The Patent Slip.—This is situated at the south end of the dock. The slip is in thorough good order, and is laid on solid masonry. It is equal to lifting a ship of 1,200 tons burthen.

The Graving Dock.

The Graving Dock.—This part of the work is now under construction, but has not yet been completed. It will be 420 feet long, 65 feet wide at the entrance, 90 feet wide at the quay level, and will have 27 feet of water on the blocks at high water—a sufficient depth to take in such iron-clads as the 'Agincourt' and the 'Northumberland.' The dock will be constructed so as to be divided into two unequal portions, so that the whole will not require emptying for a small vessel.

Other works.

Other Works.—There are a number of other works connected with this undertaking. A convict station capable of holding 700 prisoners, with the necessary officers and their wives and families, has been erected, and its average population has been about 1,000 souls. Comfortable cottages for about 40 of the principal foremen and workmen have also been erected, and residences for the engineers and their assistants. To accommodate the Customs department, buildings have been erected close to the entrance gate, containing searchers' offices, &c. Another range of buildings has been constructed for the use of the dock officers.

Expenditure.

Expenditure.—The outlay upon the works, exclusive

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of interest paid in debentures issued for a loan of 300,000*l.*, and exclusive of the cost of the convicts, has been about 450,000*l.*

Dock revenue, &c.

Dock Revenues, &c.—For the first few months after the docks had been opened (on May 17, 1870) a portion of the shipping trade was still carried on in the bay, and the mail steamers did not avail themselves of it, but the work is now exclusively confined to the docks, and the revenue it yielded from its opening to November 30, 1872, exclusive of wharfage dues, was 55,520*l.*

Engineers.

Engineers Employed.—J. Coode, Esq., M. Inst. C.E., Engineer-in-Chief; A. T. Andrews, Esq., M. Inst. C.E., Resident Engineer; F. A. Sheppard, Esq., Assoc. Inst. C.E., Assistant-Engineer till 1867, when he received the appointment of Assistant-Colonial Engineer at Singapore; A. C. Jenour, Esq., Assoc. Inst. C.E., Assistant-Engineer (now engineer in charge).

Harbour Commissioners.

Harbour Commissioners.—The following gentlemen served as commissioners during the construction of the work:—Messrs. Field, Pinney, and Graham, in virtue of their office as Collector of Customs held by them respectively, and Messrs. T. Ansdell, H. C. Jarvis, D. G. de Jongh, J. A. Wicht, J. Murison, F. F. Rutherford, Saul Solomon, and John Stein. Mr. John Saunders has acted as secretary to the Board since its formation in 1860. The Board now consists of the Commissioner of Crown Lands (chairman), Messrs. Burrowes (sub-collector of customs), Rutherford, Murison, and Jarvis.

Breakwater at Port Elizabeth.

At Port Elizabeth a wooden breakwater, of about equal length to that of Cape Town, was constructed to protect the landing of goods, which previously had to be accomplished in the surf. For a time the work was of great service. Unfortunately, however, the sand silted up within the arm of the breakwater, owing to the interference with the natural currents of the bay, and rendered the work entirely useless. Steps are now being taken under the direction of Sir J. Coode to remedy this defect; with what success cannot as yet be determined.

The harbour works at the Kowie and East London are at the delta of the Kowie and Buffalo Rivers. As usual in such cases, the efforts of the engineers are directed to the removal of the bar. The works at the

Kowie have been successful to a considerable extent, and the harbour has for some time been available for vessels of light draught. The East London harbour works are sufficiently advanced to warrant the confident predictions of their success, and the highly favourable opinions of them expressed by Sir J. Coode.

Railways.

Western District Railways.

Railway construction in this Colony commenced with the line from Cape Town to Wellington, of which the first sod was turned by Governor Sir George Grey on March 31, 1859, the Colonial Parliament having given, by an Act passed in the session of 1857, guarantee of a minimum rate of interest of six per cent. per annum upon a sum not exceeding 500,000*l*., the colonial liability being limited to fifty years from the opening of the line. For one-half of this guarantee, the divisions of the Cape, Stellenbosch, and the Paarl were made collectively liable, but by Act 19 of 1874 they were relieved of this liability from January 1 in that year, with a proviso, however, that the arrears then due should be collected. The balance remaining to be paid on account of this sub-guarantee stood, on May 15 last, at 19,624*l*. This line to Wellington, 58 miles in length, was opened in November 1863, and passed into the hands of the Government, at the sum of 773,019*l*., its purchase having been authorised by an Act passed in the session of 1872.

The branch line to Wynberg was constructed solely by private enterprise, the first sod being turned on August 14, 1862, and the line thrown open for traffic on December 19, 1864. This line is six miles in length, from the Salt River junction, and the Government acquired it by purchase, under Act 8 of 1876, at a cost of 75,000*l*. It is in contemplation to extend this line to Simon's Town.

Legislative authority was given in 1861 for the extension of the Wellington line to Worcester and Malmesbury, but nothing was done upon the Act then passed beyond the execution of some heavy cuttings in the Tulbagh Kloof, which were undertaken for the purpose of providing employment for a number of labourers thrown out of work by the completion of the

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Wellington and Wynberg lines; these cuttings cost about 42,000*l.* In 1873, consequent upon the prosperity resulting from the discovery of diamonds, the Colony was encouraged to press forward the work of railway construction upon a large scale, and the Act 13 of that year provides, *inter alia*, for a line from Wellington to Worcester, a length of 64 miles. A sum of 315,000*l.* was to be applied to this railway, and by Act 19 of the succeeding year authority was given for the further extension of the line to Beaufort West, a distance of 229 miles, at a cost not exceeding 1,390,000*l.* The same Act empowered the Government to expend a sum not exceeding 228,000*l.* upon the construction and equipment of a branch line to Malmesbury. Authority was given in the last session of Parliament for the raising of further loans to complete the lines in course of construction, the Worcester and Beaufort line requiring 222,792*l.* for this purpose. This work is now finished. The entire line to Beaufort West, a distance of 338 miles from Cape Town, was opened for traffic by Sir Bartle Frere on February 5, 1880.

Midland and North-Eastern Railways.

Legislative authority was given in 1862 for the construction of a line of railway between Port Elizabeth and Graham's Town, but nothing was done under authority of that enactment, and in 1873, by Act 13 of that year, the construction was authorised of a line from Port Elizabeth to Bushman's River, a distance of 56 miles, at a cost of 345,000*l.* In the succeeding year, by Act No. 19, a loan of 842,000*l.* was authorised for the construction of a line from Bushman's River to Cradock, the distance being 125½ miles. It was found necessary in the last session of Parliament to supplement this vote by a further sum of 521,242*l.*, making the amount already voted for this line 1,363,242*l.* The Act 19 of 1874 also authorised the construction of a branch line to Graham's Town, taking off at the Little Fish River, the estimated cost being 328,000*l.* This sum was amended by Act 5 of 1876, which substituted the Bushman's River for the Little Fish River as the point of divergence, the cost as estimated being reduced to 225,000*l.* for the 34 miles, which is the length of the substituted line. A further sum of 226,924*l.* was appropriated to this line in the Railway Loan Act of last session, bringing the cost as now estimated to 451,924*l.*

The North-Eastern line was opened to Cookhuis, 128 miles from Port Elizabeth, in March 1880, and the branch to Graham's Town in April 1879. The remaining portion of the main line, from Cookhuis Bridge to Cradock, 53 miles in length, is now in course of construction.

The Act 19 of 1874 authorised the construction of a line from Zwaartkops—a point on the north-eastern line, distant from Port Elizabeth 8 miles—to Graaf-Reynet, the sum of 940,000*l.* being provided for that purpose. A portion of this line, from Zwaartkops to Uitenhage, 13 miles in length, had been constructed by a private company, incorporated for the purpose in 1871, and it was taken over by the Government at a sum of 63,760*l.*, or an average of 4,904*l.* per mile. Graaf-Reynet is distant from Zwaartkops 176 miles, and the amount voted in 1874 being found insufficient for the completion of the line, the Act of 1878 authorises the expenditure upon it of a further sum of 176,200*l.*, making 1,116,200*l.* in all. This railway is now completed and open to Graaf-Reynet.

East London and Queenstown Railway.

A railway from East London to King William's Town, 42 miles, and from Blaney Junction to Queen's Town, 124 miles, was authorised by the Act 19 of 1874, the estimated cost being 1,069,000*l.* An additional loan of 150,000*l.* was authorised by Act 7 of 1877 for the prosecution of these works, and in the Act of last session a further sum of 384,500*l.* is provided for their completion, making the entire sum authorised for this system 1,603,500*l.* In October last this railway was opened as far as Cathcart; the section from East London to Blaney, 32 miles, and the branch from Blaney to King William's Town, 10 miles, having been opened in May 1877. The whole line was completed and opened to Queenstown in May 1880.

Telegraphic communication.

The first line of telegraph constructed in the colony was between Cape Town and Simon's Town, which was opened in April 1860. In the Eastern Province a line of telegraph was opened early in 1861, connecting King William's Town with the Port of East London. During the session of 1861, Parliament authorised the Government to enter into a contract for the construction and maintenance of a line of telegraph between Cape Town

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and Graham's Town. The first section of this line, between Graham's Town and Port Elizabeth, was opened on January 2, 1862; and on January 8, 1864, the whole distance was completed, and formally opened in the Commercial Exchange, in presence of His Excellency the Governor, the heads of departments, and a large assemblage of the public. On the 15th it was publicly opened for the transmission of messages.

The line between Graham's Town and King William's Town, and connected with East London, was opened on October 1, 1864. Since then extensions have carried the wire up to Kimberley, on the Diamond Fields, to Queenstown, on the Eastern Frontier, and to Beaufort West. The total length of all the lines is 2,713 miles.

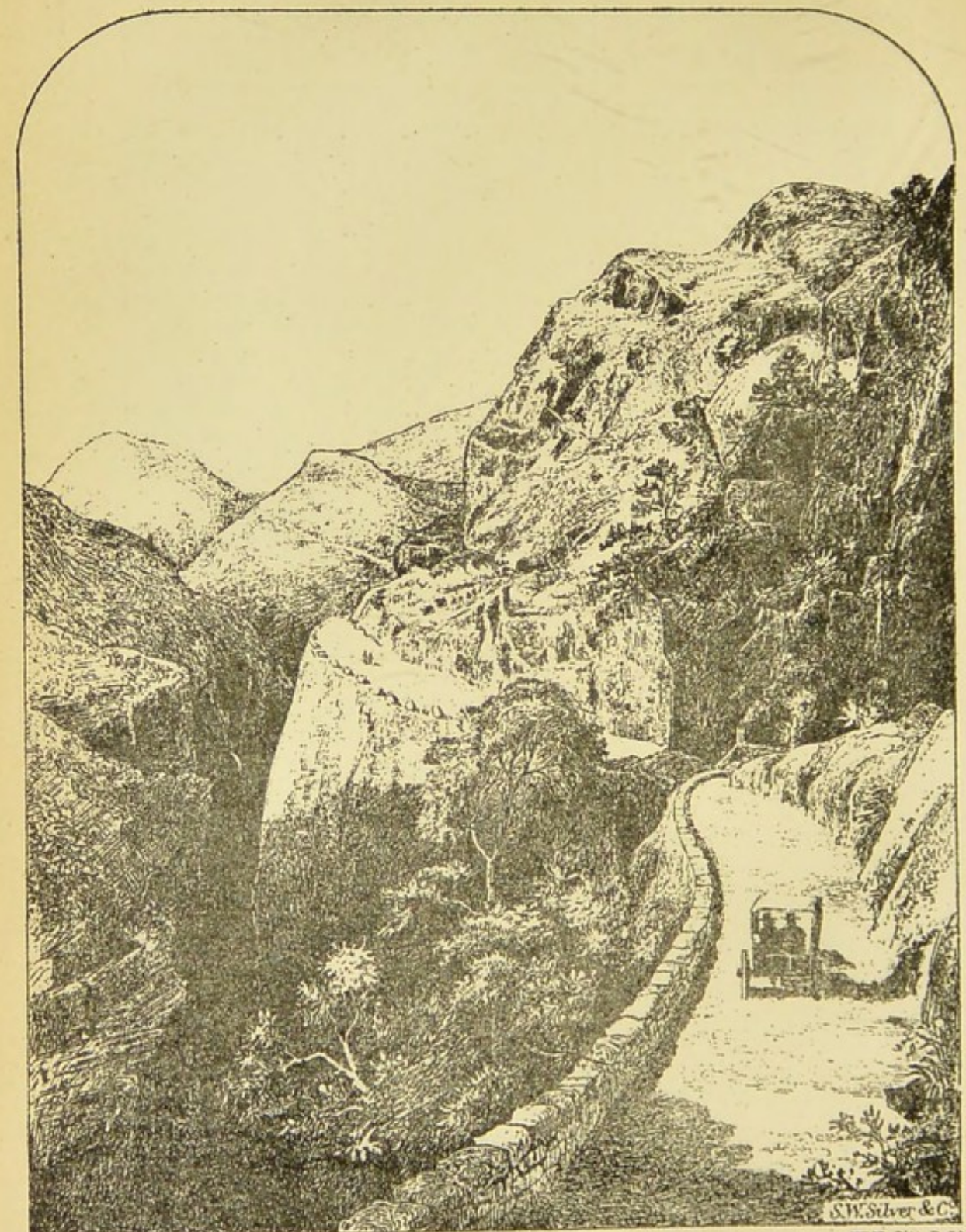
The original proprietors were the Cape of Good Hope Telegraph Company (Limited), and the constructors were Messrs. Siemens, Halske & Co., of London, represented by their engineer, Mr. Hoeltzer. The lines have lately been bought by the Cape Government for 45,000*l.*

Telegraphic communication with the Free State has been discussed in both Houses of the Legislature for several sessions, but as yet nothing has been arranged for carrying out the project.

Telegraphic communication has been established between the Albert Docks and the Telegraph Company's office in Adderley Street. The charge for messages is sixpence for twenty words, and includes free delivery in Cape Town within a quarter of a mile either side of Adderley Street, and within the limits of the docks. A time-signal apparatus, with opening disc, has also been erected near the flagstaff, over the west quay, which is dropped by electricity daily at the instant of one o'clock. For the convenience of the mercantile community, the Commercial Exchange has been included in this circuit, and provided with proper telegraphic instruments, and receives shipping information every hour during office hours.

Submarine Telegraph Cable.

The project of establishing telegraphic communication with England was originated about ten years ago. Various causes contributed to delay its execution. But the breaking out of the Zulu war, and especially the disaster of Isandhlwana, proved so powerful a solvent of all difficulties, that a contract was finally arranged



Whiteman & Bass, Photo-Litho London.

MONTAGU PASS.

From a drawing by A. de Smidt Esq.

early in 1879, and the work of laying the cable successfully accomplished on Christmas Day of that year. The cables, which are the work of the Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company, are 3,845 miles in length. They start from Durban (Natal), and proceed, *viâ* Delagoa Bay, Mozambique and Zanzibar, to Aden, where they connect with the lines of the Eastern Telegraph Company. A suitable repairing ship and hulk for spare cable are provided. The subsidies granted to the Eastern and South African Telegraph Company on account of the cable, and which are payable in quarterly instalments for a period of twenty years, are :—

From the	British Government,	35,000*l.*	per annum.
„	Cape Government	15,000*l.*	„
„	Natal Government	5,000*l.*	„
„	Portuguese Government (subject to ratification by the Cortes) . .	5,000*l.*	„

The lines were opened for public messages on December 29, 1879.

The Mountain Passes.

The Mountain Passes for carrying the highways through the mountain ranges are amongst the principal works of the colony, and reflect the highest credit on the colonial engineers. The roads are frequently taken by a zig-zag course several thousand feet above the level of the sea, and climb heights which to a stranger's eye might appear almost inaccessible; at one time cut in the side of a ravine, and at another carried on by retaining walls. The principal passes are Bain's Kloof, Sir Lowry's Pass, Tradouw Pass, Robinson's Pass, Mitchell's Pass, Montagu Pass, the Katberg and Stormberg Passes, &c.

Commercial Statistics and Information.

Trade of the Colony.

The following table shows the exports and imports of the colony for the year 1879. It will be observed, however, that the value of the precious stones exported is not declared, in consequence of very few of the diamond parcels being entered as freight. Three and a half millions sterling must be added for the unregistered value of precious stones exported during the year :—

Exports for the Year ending December 31, 1879.

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Articles		Quantities	Declared Value
			£
Aloes	pounds	473,143	5,524
Argol	,,	82,563	1,909
Copper Ore	tons	14,178	283,885
Corn, Grain, and Meal, viz.:—			
Barley	pounds	146,050	619
Beans and Peas	,,	12,195	94
Bran	,,	323,120	1,423
Flour	,,	274,800	2,262
Maize	,,	65,634	252
Oats	,,	2,586,220	14,038
Wheat	,,	64,960	444
Cotton	,,	11,816	290
Feathers (Ostrich)	,,	96,582	653,756
Fish (Cured)	,,	3,956,881	25,997
Fruit (Dried)	,,	114,955	1,967
Hair (Angora)	,,	2,288,116	130,775
Hides (Ox and Cow)	number	104,281	39,092
Horns	,,	51,803	4,602
Horses	,,	207	6,000
Ivory	pounds	79,225	23,769
Precious Stones, viz.:—			
Diamonds	number	—	—
Skins, viz.:—			
Goat	,,	687,570	73,675
Sheep	,,	1,480,875	138,477
Spirits, viz.:—			
Brandy	gallons	6,296	1,445
Wine, viz.:—			
Constantia	,,	2,843	1,940
Ordinary	,,	72,569	14,095
Wool, Sheep's, viz.:—			
Fleece, washed	pounds	8,045,573	360,625
Scoured	,,	22,233,113	1,515,354
Grease	,,	9,808,907	280,630
Total value of above Articles			£3,582,939
Total value of other Articles			81,796
Grand total value of Exports			£3,664,735
Add for unregistered Diamonds			3,500,000
Total			£7,164,735

Imports for the Year ending December 31, 1879.

Articles		Imported	Entered for Consumption
Agricultural Implements	value	£48,319	£47,988
Ale and Beer	gallons	807,305	809,083
Apparel and Slops	value	£479,059	£477,527
Coffee	pounds	8,622,097	8,826,621
Corn, Grain, and Meal, viz.:—			
Beans and Peas	,,	533,614	490,324
Barley	,,	959,320	765,670
Bran	,,	2,251,105	2,285,960
Flour	,,	26,888,503	25,878,071
Maize	,,	18,595,186	17,925,802
Oats	,,	2,423,797	1,750,141
Wheat	,,	20,965,925	23,589,696
Cotton Manufactures	value	£724,255	£719,800
Gunpowder	pounds	291,793	316,489
Guns	number	6,867	6,366
Gun-barrels	,,	8	8
Haberdashery & Millinery	value	£637,168	£633,779
Hardware, Cutlery, and Ironmongery	,,	£498,416	£501,165
Iron, viz.:—			
Bar, Bolt, and Rod	,,	£31,140	£31,136
Leather Manufactures	,,	£345,264	£344,680
Linen Manufactures	,,	£79,907	£78,780
Rice	pounds	14,583,483	10,714,675
Saddlery and Harness	value	£107,913	£106,983
Silk Manufactures	,,	£11,291	£11,323
Spirits (all sorts)	gallons	219,009	179,437
Sugar, viz.:—			
Not Refined	pounds	24,537,100	24,671,197
Refined or Candy	,,	1,267,524	1,194,677
Molasses	,,	1,181,771	934,115
Tea	,,	836,310	879,599
Tobacco, viz.:—			
Unmanufactured	,,	177,865	105,809
Manufactured	,,	819,035	374,446
Cigars	number	1,208,845	1,222,545
		& 83,420 lbs.	lbs. 84,535
Wine	gallons	78,102	62,694
Wood, viz.:—			
Unmanufactured	cubic feet	1,989,492	2,014,313
Woollen Manufactures	value	279,456	279,782
Total value of above Articles		£5,008,978	£4,928,129
Total value of other Articles		2,071,251	1,950,895
Grand total value of Articles		£7,080,229	£6,879,022

Table showing the comparative exports of wool from 1859 to 1879, from the principal ports of the Colony.

Annual Exports of Wool from the Ports of Cape Town and Port Elizabeth, 1859 to 1879, inclusive.

Twenty-one years' Wool Export.

Year	Cape Town *	Port Elizabeth †	Total
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1859	4,024,562	15,465,632	19,490,194
1860	3,734,219	19,438,566	23,172,785
1861	4,082,483	20,740,801	24,823,284
1862	3,840,703	21,197,515	25,038,218
1863	3,971,331	27,011,594	30,982,925
1864	3,616,296	32,680,402	36,296,698
1865	3,839,854	28,806,831	32,646,685
1866	5,023,610	30,205,679	35,229,289
1867	4,987,256	31,039,358	36,026,614
1868	4,712,631	31,753,679	36,466,310
1869	2,517,005	34,373,458	36,891,063
1870	3,473,357	33,809,934	37,283,291
1871	6,226,758	40,052,881	46,279,639
1872	—	—	48,822,462
1873	7,391,294	33,002,452	40,393,746
1874	7,191,847	35,428,634	42,620,481
1875	7,068,418	33,271,256	40,339,674
1876	5,970,981	28,890,358	34,861,339
1877	6,341,077	29,679,494	36,020,571
1878	5,779,241	26,347,926	32,127,167
1879	5,841,691	34,245,902	40,087,593

* Including Port Beaufort and Mossel Bay.
† Including Port Alfred and East London.

Table showing the Comparative Imports and Exports of the different Ports of the Colony in the Years 1878 *and* 1879.

PORTS	Imports				Goods entered for Consumption				Total Value of Exports (the Produce of this Colony)			
	1878	1879	Increase	Decrease	1878	1879	Increase	Decrease	1878	1879	Increase	Decrease
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Cape Town . .	2,380,603	2,677,573	296,970	—	2,284,573	2,510,493	225,920	—	670,193	702,102	31,909	—
Hondeklip Bay .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Port Nolloth . .	28,165	14,401	—	13,764	28,165	14,401	—	13,764	244,076	282,528	38,452	—
Simon's Town .	23,541	3,159	—	20,382	8,655	3,336	—	5,319	4,488	3,306	—	1,182
Port Beaufort .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mossel Bay . .	131,843	172,359	40,516	—	137,953	175,390	37,437	—	86,650	140,871	54,221	—
Port Elizabeth .	2,489,277	2,960,884	471,607	—	2,433,198	2,918,847	485,649	—	2,076,093	2,223,181	147,038	—
Port Alfred . .	198,658	171,131	—	26,927	200,441	170,872	—	29,569	41,715	47,125	5,410	—
East London . .	898,936	1,080,122	181,186	—	938,579	1,085,685	147,106	—	189,764	265,622	75,858	—
Total . £	6,151,023	7,080,229	929,206	—	6,031,564	6,879,024	847,460	—	3,312,979	3,664,735	351,756	—

Imports and Exports of different ports of the Colony.

CAPE COLONY

Comparative table of shipping, with exports and imports for 1859 to 1879. At least two millions sterling per annum must be added to the last twelve years for the value of diamonds exported.

Number and Tonnage of Vessels entered outwards, with the Value of Exports.

Exports for twenty-one years.

Year	Entered Outwards		Coastwise		Exports
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	Value
					£
1859	662	292,511	432	71,841	2,021,371
1860	695	271,346	347	64,012	2,080,398
1861	612	242,102	339	64,349	1,972,700
1862	734	321,362	319	47,821	1,957,686
1863	638	242,119	298	50,698	2,224,446
1864	640	266,758	337	58,600	2,395,673
1865	573	264,568	336	62,304	2,145,234
1866	522	234,046	347	79,885	2,590,348
1867	578	259,024	418	99,113	2,405,409
1868	539	244,104	482	131,833	2,306,698
1869	494	265,262	469	110,089	2,139,689
1870	409	182,935	584	151,251	2,453,768
1871	393	172,002	626	172,650	3,408,635
1872	487	228,614	694	242,077	4,757,494
1873	—	—	—	—	3,761,310
1874	568	326,909	890	364,946	4,138,858
1875	632	361,908	955	536,528	4,088,125
1876	646	379,309	938	738,176	3,399,745
1877	648	453,595	958	778,173	3,542,694
1878	728	540,872	1,061	1,064,800	3,312,979
1879	917	761,535	1,239	1,289,333	3,664,735

Number and Tonnage of Vessels entered inwards, with the Value of Imports.

Imports for twenty-one years.

Year	Entered Inwards		Coastwise		Imports
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	Value
					£
1859	724	314,203	393	57,851	2,579,359
1860	692	273,532	322	56,402	2,665,902
1861	649	263,981	327	58,076	2,605,305
1862	738	321,336	306	42,201	2,785,853
1863	629	252,739	285	44,777	2,275,833
1864	659	273,925	330	54,531	2,471,339
1865	555	254,931	347	66,924	2,111,332
1866	548	244,891	342	80,179	1,940,281
1867	620	269,208	394	98,577	2,514,385

Tonnage of Vessels entered inwards, &c.—continued.

Year	Entered Inwards		Coastwise		Imports
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	Value
					£
1868	580	251,420	443	125,470	1,956,154
1869	464	230,113	497	145,654	1,953,091
1870	417	186,204	564	149,305	2,352,043
1871	412	176,525	617	167,512	2,585,298
1872	524	245,517	685	237,039	4,388,728
1873	—	—	—	—	5,130,065
1874	535	308,927	891	347,563	5,424,273
1875	658	384,427	981	525,399	5,731,319
1876	673	399,664	928	730,529	5,556,077
1877	674	471,610	941	790,947	5,158,348
1878	793	597,478	1,037	1,037,548	6,151,023
1879	986	820,085	1,252	1,319,097	6,879,022

COINS AND PAPER CURRENCY.

Coins.

Coins in circulation.

THE coins in circulation are exclusively British, with the exception of the sovereign and half-sovereign of the Sydney Mint, New South Wales, which became legal tender by Her Majesty's proclamation, November 16, 1866, published in Cape Town on January 24, 1867. They consist in gold, of sovereigns and half-sovereigns; in silver, of crowns, half-crowns, florins, shillings, sixpences, fourpences, threepences, and one-and-a-halfpenny pieces; and in copper or bronze, of pennies, halfpennies, and farthings. There is no colonial coin.

Legal tender.

The Home Government have established the British coin as a circulating medium of the colony, and have directed that it shall be a legal tender in discharge of all debts due to individuals and to the public, at the rate of one shilling and sixpence (1*s.* 6*d.*) sterling for each paper rix-dollar, at which rate the value of the rix-dollar, formerly the only currency in the colony, and fluctuating according to the rate of exchange with England, was consequently fixed by ordinance of the Governor in Council, No. 2, bearing date June 5, 1865. The coins in circulation have not been pierced, cut, defaced, or otherwise altered; neither have their respective values been diminished or augmented.

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Foreign coins exist in very small quantities, and are not used as a circulating medium.

Paper Currency.

Paper currency.

There is no Government paper currency now existing in the Colony. The only paper currency is that issued by the joint-stock banks, upon which there is no restriction put by law. There is, however, a duty of one and a half per cent. on the average monthly circulation payable to Government by the banks. The following table is extracted from the Colonial Blue Book for 1879, and gives the circulation of each bank for the year 1878, together with the amount of capital, number of shares, reserve fund, and other useful information:—

Joint-stock banks.

Banks	Capital (Nominal) *a*	Shares *a*	Paid up *b*	Reserve Fund *b*	Circulation *b*
	£	£	£	£	£
Cape of Good Hope *c*	75,300	1,506	75,300	84,700	14,665
South African . .	75,000	1,500	45,000	10,000	8,300
Colonial . . .	In liquidation	—	—	—	—
Union *d* . . .	110,300	11,030	55,150	10,000	18,900
Cape Commercial *e* .	124,728	10,394	52,364	50,888	22,365
London and South African . . .	Fused in Stand.	—	—	—	—
Standard *f*. . .	4,000,000	34,000	850,000	270,000	362,441
Oriental Bank Corp. *g*	1,500,000	60,000	1,500,000	325,000	134,950
Stellenbosch . .	Ceased to exist	—	—	—	—
Western Province, Paarl *h* . . .	50,000	2,000	30,000	18,000	59,570
Paarl *i* . . .	41,430	2,762	13,810	7,000	21,530
Wellington *i* . .	30,000	3,000	15,000	317	10,825
Malmesbury Commercial and Agric.	Ceased to exist	—	—	—	—
Worcest. Commer. *i* .	25,310	2,230	6,925	3,500	7,340
Caledon Agricultural	In liquidation	—	—	—	—
Swellendam . .	Ceased to exist	—	—	—	—
Somerset . . .	In liquidation	—	—	—	—
Graaf-Reynet *i* .	51,850	2,074	25,925	10,025	19,030
Kaffrarian Colonial .	60,000	3,000	16,500	10,512	5,290
Total . . £	6,143,918	133,496	2,685,974	799,942	685,206

a. The figures in this column are, with the exception of those opposite the names of the first five banks, taken from the Civil Commissioners' returns. *b*. The figures in this column regarding 1878 are taken from the statements published by Government Notice No. 97, January 21, 1879, for half-year ended December 31, 1878. *c*. London and Westminster Bank is correspondent. *d*. Alliance Bank ditto. *e*. London and County Bank ditto. *f*. Head office: 10 Clement's Lane, Lombard Street. *g*. Head office: Threadneedle Street, London, E.C. *h*. Cape of Good Hope Bank, agents in Cape Town. *i*. Cape Commercial Bank, ditto.

THE REVENUE AND CUSTOMS, &c.

CAPE COLONY

The revenue.

The revenue of the Cape Colony is derived from an *ad valorem* duty on all goods imported (with some few exceptions), quit-rents, stamp duties, and duties on the transfer of landed property, house tax, and spirit duties. Subject to occasional fluctuations, owing to temporary depression or sudden impetus of trade, it shows a steady and substantial increase from year to year, that for 1872 being considerably larger than any previous year.

The following is the statement of the revenue and expenditure from the year 1858:—

Revenue and expenditure for twenty-one years.

Year	Revenue	Expenditure
1858	£463,010	£494,989
1859	650,925	664,645
1860	742,771	729,689
1861	748,866	763,237
1862	716,488	683,792
1863	757,603	682,866
1864	587,713	633,937
1865	837,529	870,089
1866	732,297	691,732
1867	898,825	885,196
1868	642,322	668,382
1869	593,245	648,732
1870	831,211	795,695
1871	836,097	764,914
1872	1,161,548	922,567
1873	1,218,619	2,158,658*
1874	1,538,551	1,357,454
1875	1,602,918	2,272,275
„ arrears	—	779,026
1876 half-year	827,386	1,412,677
1876–77	1,319,603	3,503,671†
1877–78	1,586,303	3,627,530

Sources of revenue.

The sources of this revenue in 1877–78 were as follows:—

Customs	£775,776
Land Sales	50,913
Land Revenue	90,325
Rents, exclusive of Land	2,717

* Including 851,442*l.* for purchase of Cape Town and Wellington Railway.

† Including 75,278*l.* for purchase of Wynberg Railway.

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Transfer Dues	£72,082
Auction Dues	19,652
Succession Duties	7,222
Taxes, House Duty	8
Stamps, Stamp Licences	99,981
Bank Notes Duty	6,957
Postage	61,482
Fines, Forfeitures, and Fees of Court	15,673
Fees of Office	5,991
Sale of Government Property	2,744
Reimbursements in aid of expenses incurred by Government	36,101
Miscellaneous Receipts	5,569
Interest and Premiums	3,016
Special Receipts	2,368
Railway Receipts	274,545
Telegraph Receipts	23,419

Stamp duties.

Stamp Duties are charged, under Act No. 3 of 1864, and Act No. 13 of 1870, upon legal documents, agreements, arbitrations and awards, bills, notes, cheques, &c. The following list of licences may be interesting to our readers:—

	£	s.	d.
These licences are annual. For exercising the trade of a baker in this colony	3	15	0
For exercising the trade of a butcher in this colony	3	15	0
For keeping a billiard table	7	10	0
For killing game	0	7	6
For hawkers, or travelling traders, travelling without any vehicle, or with only one vehicle	1	10	0
Do. do. travelling with more vehicles than one	3	0	0
For dealing by wholesale	4	0	0
For carrying on the business of an auctioneer	10	0	0
For keeping a bonding warehouse	20	0	0
For selling wines and spirits	20	0	0
For dealing in gunpowder	3	0	0
For selling stamps	0	5	0
For every apothecary or chemist or druggist	3	0	0
For keeping a retail shop	1	10	0
To cut reeds on Government land, per 1,000 bundles	0	0	9
Special licence for the solemnization of marriage	5	0	0

Licences.

1. The above-mentioned licences shall either be written upon paper duly stamped, or shall have adhesive stamps of the proper value affixed to them before being issued. If adhesive stamps be used, they must be cancelled by writing thereon the name of the officer issuing the licence, and the date on which he shall write the same.

2. All such of the above licences as are annual shall, no matter at what period of the year they may be taken out, expire on December 31 then next. When any such annual licence shall be issued upon or after June 1, there shall be payable only one half of the appointed sum. If taken out at any time before June 1, there shall be no deduction.

3. It shall be lawful for any resident magistrate, justice of the peace, field-cornet, assistant field-cornet, or chief constable, to demand from any person travelling in this colony as a hawker or trader the production of his licence; and unless such person shall, on such demand, produce a licence duly stamped, and still in force, it shall be lawful for the person demanding the same to carry and convey the hawker or trader, with his goods, to the nearest resident magistrate, and such magistrate shall have jurisdiction to try the offender, although no act of trading may be proved to have been done within the district of such magistrate.

4. The licence as an apothecary, or chemist, or druggist, shall cover all dealings as an apothecary and chemist and druggist, as well as all dealings covered by the retail shop licence, and must be taken out by every surgeon, doctor of medicine, or other person selling any medicines, patent or otherwise. Every wholesale and every retail licence shall authorise the sale of patent and homœopathic medicines, and no licence as an apothecary, chemist, or druggist shall be necessary for so doing.

5. So much of this tariff as relates to annual licences shall commence on January 1, 1865, and not sooner, anything contained in the concluding section of this Act to the contrary notwithstanding.

6. The charge for the licence to keep a retail shop shall continue to be that prescribed by Ordinance No. 11 of 1846, namely, 1*l.* 10*s.*

7. No licence shall be necessary for selling postage stamps.

8. Every wholesale licence shall authorise all dealings authorised by the retail shop licence as well as all dealings by wholesale.

Customs Information.

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Customs duties.

The following general regulations are in force in the several ports of the Cape Colony:—

TABLE OF CUSTOMS DUTIES

Authorised to be levied under Act No. 1 of 1866–67, and Act No. 20 of 1870.

	£	s.	d.
Ale or beer, the gallon	0	0	4
Butter, the 100 lbs.	0	10	6
Candles, the lb.	0	0	2
Cheese, the 100 lbs.	0	12	6
Chicory, the 100 lbs.	0	13	6
Cider, the gallon	0	0	4
Cinnamon or Cassia, the lb.	0	0	6
Cloves, the lb.	0	0	4
Coals, coke, or patent fuel, the ton of 2,000 lbs.	0	0	9
Coffee, the 100 lbs.	0	13	6
Confectionery and sweetmeats, the 100 lbs.	0	12	6
Corn and grain, viz.:—			
Barley, the 100 lbs.	0	0	8
Oats, the 100 lbs.	0	0	8
Maize, the 100 lbs.	0	0	8
Wheat, the 100 lbs.	0	0	8
Dates, the 100 lbs.	0	3	0
Fish in cases hermetically sealed, or in bottles, jars, kegs, or kids not being the produce of Africa, for 100*l.* value	10	0	0
Flour, wheaten, the 100 lbs.	0	2	6
Fruit, dried, viz.:—			
Currants, raisins, or figs, the 100 lbs.	0	10	0
Other sorts, the 100 lbs.	0	5	0
Ginger, viz.:—			
Dry, the lb.	0	0	2
Preserved, or chow-chow, the lb.	0	0	4
Gunpowder, the lb.	0	0	6
Guns or gun-barrels, the barrel	1	0	0
Lard, the 100 lbs.	0	10	0
Mace, the lb.	0	0	9
Meat, salt or cured, and not in cases hermetically sealed, the 100 lbs.	0	5	0
Meat, potted or in cases hermetically sealed, for every 100*l.* value	10	0	0
Mules, each	1	0	0
Nutmegs, the lb.	0	0	6
Oils of all descriptions, including kerosene, imported in vessels containing not less than one gallon or 9¼ lbs., chemical, essential, perfumed, and castor oils, and fish			

TABLE OF CUSTOMS DUTIES—*continued.*

	£	s.	d.
oils in a raw state, the produce of Africa excepted, the gallon or per 9¼ lbs.	0	0	6
Oils, not subject to the preceding rate of duty, except fish oils in a raw state, the produce of Africa, for every 100*l.* value	10	0	0
Paddy, the 100 lbs.	0	1	6
Pepper, the 100 lbs.	0	12	6
Pistols or pistol barrels, each	0	10	0
Rice, the 100 lbs.	0	2	6
Salt, in bulk or in bags, or other packages of not less than 100 lbs., the 100 lbs.	0	0	3
Salt, other than above described, for every 100*l.* value	10	0	0
Soap, not perfumed, if imported in packages of not less than 50 lbs., the 100 lbs.	0	3	0
Soap, other than that above described, the 100 lbs.	0	10	0
Spirits, of all sorts, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength, the gallon	0	8	3
Spirits, sweetened or mixed, so that the degree of strength cannot be ascertained, the gallon	0	9	0
Spirits, perfumed, the gallon	0	9	6
Sugar, viz.:—			
Unrefined, the 100 lbs.	0	5	6
Refined, or candy, the 100 lbs.	0	8	0
Molasses, the 100 lbs.	0	3	0
Tallow, the 100 lbs.	0	4	0
Tamarinds, the 100 lbs.	0	5	0
Tea, the lb.	0	0	7½
Tobacco, viz.:—			
Not manufactured, the lb.	0	0	9
Manufactured (not cigars) or snuff, the lb.	0	1	6
Cigars (at the option of the officers of Customs) the 1,000	1	10	0
Cigars (at the option of the officers of Customs) or the lb.	0	3	0
and 10 per cent. *ad valorem* in addition in either case.			
Vinegar, the gallon	0	0	4
Wine, the gallon	0	4	4
Wood, manufactured, the cubic foot	0	0	2
Goods not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope, for every 100*l.* value	10	0	0

Free.

Agricultural machinery—namely, reaping, thrashing, and winnowing machines; animals, living (excepting

Articles free from duty.

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mules); anchors and chain cables for ships' use, books and music, printed, and printed stationery for the use of schools; bottles of common glass imported full; bullion or coin; engravings and photographs; *feathers, ostrich; *fish, other than the above described; flowers of sulphur; *fruit, green, including cocoanuts; guano and other manures; *hides, ox and cow; *horns, ditto; *ditto, wild animals; ice; *ivory; maps or charts; metal composition or sheathing; *oil, fish; *ore, copper and other; pictures, being oil or water-colour paintings; picture frames in use for paintings or engravings; provisions or stores of every description, imported or supplied for the use of Her Majesty's land or sea forces, when the customs duties shall not have been paid thereon; rattans; seeds, bulbs, or plants†; *skins, seal; *skins, sheep; *skins, wild animals; specimens illustrative of natural history; staves; stones of marble, for building or ornamental purposes; wine, imported or taken out of bond for the use of military officers serving on full pay in this colony, and also for the use of officers of Her Majesty's navy, serving on board any of Her Majesty's ships, subject, however, to such regulations as the Governor shall think fit to make; and provided that if any such wines shall be subsequently sold in this colony, except for the use or consumption of any of Her Majesty's military or naval officers serving as aforesaid, the same shall be forfeited and be liable to seizure accordingly. All articles of naval or military uniform or appointments, imported by officers stationed in this colony for their own use.

By an Act of Parliament, No. 4 of 1854 (allowed and confirmed by Her Majesty), which came into operation on June 26, 1855, a duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* is payable upon foreign reprints of books and reviews first composed, written, or published in the United Kingdom, and protected by copyright laws.

* Being the growth and produce of Africa and not manufactured, but in the raw state.

† Importation of bulbs and plants, as also of all vines, or cuttings or portions of vine plants prohibited by Government notice of January 29, 1880.

Dock Dues on Goods landed or shipped.

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Dock dues.

By the Act No. 22 of 1872, it is provided that the following dues will be levied on goods landed or shipped in the harbour of Table Bay :—

Upon all goods landed from or shipped to ports or places beyond the limits of this colony, or transhipped, 4*s.* 6*d.* per ton.

Upon coals, 2*s.* 6*d.*

Upon all goods landed from or shipped to ports or places within the limits of this colony, 2*s.* 3*d.* per ton.

On horses, mules, asses, and horned cattle, landed, shipped, or transhipped, 5*s.* each.

On calves, sheep, pigs and goats, landed, shipped, or transhipped, 3*d.* each.

Upon goods less than a ton, viz. :—

One-fifth of a ton and under	£0	1	0
Over one-fifth . . .	0	2	0
Over two-fifths . . .	0	3	0
Over three-fifths . . .	0	4	0
Over four-fifths . . .	0	5	0
Upon one ton and any fraction of a ton, but less than two tons .	0	10	0

Exemptions.

Exemptions.

1st. All naval and military stores for the use of her Majesty's naval and military forces, or for the use of her Majesty's civil departments.

2nd. All stores for the use of her Majesty in her Local Executive Government.

3rd. Such reasonable personal baggage of passengers and of masters and seamen as Customs duties shall not be levied on.

4th. All such military and naval baggage as Customs duties shall not be levied on.

5th. All provisions and stores, not liable to Customs duties, shipped at this port, for daily consumption on board the ship while in harbour.

6th. All animals, living, not specified in the above tariff.

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7th. Coals shipped, on which the dock dues were paid when landed.

Mossel Bay.

(*Under Act* 7 *of* 1860.)

Mossel Bay. Dock dues.

1st. Upon all wool shipped or landed in Mossel Bay there shall be payable and be paid 3*d.* for and upon every one hundred pounds of the weight thereof.

2nd. Upon all goods, articles, matters, or things, except wool, shipped or landed in Mossel Bay, dues shall be payable and be paid at and after the rate of 7*s.* 6*d.* for every one hundred pounds of the value thereof.

Exemptions.

Exemptions.

1st. All public stores, naval or military baggage, and personal baggage of passengers.

2nd. All ships' stores outwards.

3rd. All goods exported upon which wharfage had been paid upon importation.

4th. All surplus stores or provisions for the use of whaling vessels.

5th. Coin and bullion (Act No. 26 of 1864).

Port Elizabeth.

(*Under Act* 10 *of* 1858.)

Port Elizabeth. Dock dues.

1st. Upon all wool shipped or landed in Algoa Bay there shall be payable and be paid 3*d.** for and upon every one hundred pounds of the weight thereof.

2nd. Upon all goods, articles, matters, or things, except wool, shipped or landed in Algoa Bay, dues shall be payable and be paid at and after the rate of 5*s.*† for every one hundred pounds of the value thereof.

Exemptions.

Exemptions.

1st. All public stores, naval or military baggage, and personal baggage of passengers.

* Increased to 4½*d.* } Proclamation 69, Sept. 9, 1878.
† „ 7*s.* 6*d.* }

2nd. Ships' stores outwards.
3rd. All goods shipped upon which dues had been paid on importation under this Act.
4th. All goods shipped to or landed from any place within the colony.
5th. Coin and bullion (Act No. 26 of 1864).

Port Alfred (Kowie).

(*Under Act* 10 *of* 1866–67.)

Port Alfred. Dock dues.

1st. Upon all wool shipped or landed at the Kowie Harbour there shall be payable and be paid 6*d.* for and upon every one hundred pounds of the weight thereof.
2nd. Upon all goods, articles, matters, or things, except wool, shipped or landed at the said harbour, dues shall be payable and be paid at and after the rate of 10*s.* for every one hundred pounds of the value thereof.

Exemptions.

Exemptions.

1st. All public stores, naval and military baggage, and personal baggage of passengers.
2nd. Ships' stores outwards.
3rd. All goods shipped upon which dues had been paid on importation under this Act.
4th. All goods shipped to or landed from any place within the colony.
5th. Coin and bullion (Act 26 of 1864).

East London.

(*Under Act No.* 7 *of* 1871.)

East London. Dock dues.

1st. Upon all wool shipped or landed at East London Harbour there shall be payable and be paid 6*d.* for and upon every one hundred pounds of the weight thereof.
2nd. Upon all goods, articles, matters, or things, except wool, shipped or landed at the said harbour, dues shall be payable and be paid at and after the rate of 10*s.* for every one hundred pounds of the value thereof.

Exemptions.

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Exemptions.

1st. All public stores, naval and military baggage, and personal baggage of passengers.

2nd. Ships' stores outwards.

3rd. All goods shipped upon which dues had been paid on importation under this Act.

4th. All goods shipped to or landed from any place within this colony.

5th. Coin and bullion (Act No. 26 of 1864).

STEAM COMMUNICATION AND PUBLIC CONVEYANCES.

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The contract for the carriage of the ocean mails having expired in June 1876, new arrangements were entered into by which the mail service is equally divided between the Union Steamship Company's steamers and those of the Donald Currie Line. Each company despatches two steamers a month. Southampton is the terminus of the Union Line, and London that of the Donald Currie Line. All the homeward bound steamers call at Plymouth, which is also the last place of call for the outward sailing vessels of the Union Company, the Donald Currie steamers calling at Dartmouth on their outward voyage.

Madeira, Ascension, and St. Helena are touched by the Union steamers on specified voyages.

Mails.

The mails are despatched every Friday from England, and Tuesday from the Cape, being made up the day before.

Railways.

There are at present five lines of railway in the colony, two having their termini at Cape Town, two at Port Elizabeth, and one at East London.

The Cape Town and Beaufort West Railway is three hundred and thirty-eight miles in length, and passes through Wellington and Worcester. The Wynberg Railway is eight miles in length, and conveys passengers from Cape Town to the suburbs on the eastern side of Table Mountain. On the Wynberg line fourteen trains run each way every day. On the main line five trains run each way at present, but all of these do not run the whole distance, on the Midland line there are five trains daily each way, on the North-Eastern eight, and on the East London and Queenstown four. All trains are first, second, and third class, and fares are re-

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spectively 3*d.*, 2*d.*, and 1½*d.* per mile. Cape Town cab fares are *by distance* 6*d.* for half a mile, 1*s.* for a mile, and 9*d.* for every additional mile. For more than two persons, 6*d.* per mile extra. For every fifteen minutes' detention, 9*d.* *By time*, 2*s.* 6*d.* for first hour, 2*s.* for each additional hour, without reference to number of persons carried. 20 lbs. of luggage allowed to each person, whether by distance or time.

Passenger Transit.

Besides the railways from Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and East London passenger carts and post carts leave one or other of those parts for every town in the colony, and also for the Diamond Fields, the Free State, and the Transvaal. The post carts are available, to a limited extent, for passengers throughout the colony. Bullock wagons can be hired for travellers having large quantities of luggage, or for families.

Passenger cart fares from Port Elizabeth are as follows:—

	£	s.		£	s.
To Fort Beaufort	4	0	To Queenstown	8	0
„ Dordrecht	10	0	„ Aliwal North	13	0
„ Smithfield	15	10	„ Bloemfontein	18	0
„ Diamond Fields	18	0	Luggage allowed, 112 lbs.		

The Union Company's coaches run twice a week from Beaufort West to the Diamond Fields.

Leading Hotels.

Hotels.

Cape Town. — Central, New London, Masonic, Claridge's Private Commercial Hotel, St. George's, Pekin, Albion, Whittington, Cambrian, Black Horse, Victoria, &c.

Port Elizabeth.—Palmerston Hotel, The Farmer's Home, Erin's Hope Hotel, &c.

Graham's Town.—Wood's Hotel, Masonic Hotel, Belman's Commercial and Private Boarding House.

Nearly all the towns and villages of the Colony and Free State have good comfortable hotels or boarding houses.

POSTAL INFORMATION.

Arrival and Dispatch of Mails.

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Inland Post.

Inland Post.—There are three main postal routes in the Colony—the first following the Coast line Eastward between Cape Town and Graham's Town, conveying mails for the intermediate post-towns, and also for the Eastern and North-eastern Frontier; second, through the Karroo to Murraysburg, by which are conveyed the mails for the Northern Districts, Free State, &c.; third, from Cape Town to Springbok, conveying mails to the North-western Frontier. Almost all other post-offices than those situated on these main routes are served by branch lines from them.

Penny Post.

Cape Town Penny Post.—Letters intended for delivery within the limits of the Cape Town Municipality may be posted at the General Post-office, Cape Town, or at the pillar letter-boxes near the Castle Bridge, at the corner of Long and Bloem Streets; at the corner of Strand and Bree Street; in Orange Street, at the top of Government Gardens; at Mr. Hazell's, apothecary, Harrington Street; at Mr. Marais', bookseller, Long Street; and at the Cape Town Railway Station. The Cape deliveries are three in each day, Sundays and public holidays excepted, viz., the first to commence at 9.30 a.m.; the second at 1.30 p.m.; the third at 3.30 p.m. Letters posted up to 9 o'clock in the morning will be included in the first delivery; those posted up to 1 p.m. will be included in the second delivery; and those posted up to 3 p.m. in the third.

European and Cape Mail.

Mails for England and the Cape, St. Helena, and Ascension.—Under the contracts entered into with the Union Steamship Company and Messrs. Donald Currie

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& Co. for the conveyance of mails between the United Kingdom and the Cape of Good Hope it is provided that each company shall convey a mail to Table Bay on every alternate Friday, and shall convey a mail from Table Bay on every alternate Tuesday. The rate of postage is 6*d.* per half ounce, and 1*d.* for every newspaper.

Rates of Postage.

I. Letters.

Rates of postage.

Inland Postage.—All letters transmitted by post to places within the Colony, to the Orange Free State, or the Transvaal Republic, are charged according to weight, at the rate of 4*d.* for every letter not exceeding half an ounce. When above half an ounce but not exceeding one ounce, 8*d.*; and so on, increasing 8*d.* for every additional ounce or fraction of an ounce. Letters from the Free State not covered by Colonial postage-stamps are chargeable at an unpaid rate—8*d.* for half an ounce, 1*s.* 4*d.* above half an ounce and not more than one ounce, and 1*s.* 4*d.* for each additional ounce or fraction of an ounce.

Insufficiently paid letters.

Insufficiently paid Letters, Book or Sample Packets.—Letters, newspapers, book or sample packets posted in this Colony for transmission by inland post, if insufficiently prepaid, are chargeable with a fine equal to a single rate of postage, in addition to the deficient postage

Rates of Suburban Post.

Suburban Penny Postage.—The postage upon letters between Bellville, Bennettsville, Cape Town, Claremont, Diep River, Eerste River, Eerste River Station, Durban, Green Point, Sea Point, Kalk Bay, Montagu Bridge, Mowbray, Mowbray Station, Newlands, Observatory Road, Plumsted, Wynberg, Papendorp, Paarl, Paarl Station, Rondebosch Station, Robben Island, Simon's Town, Somerset West, Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch Station, Wellington, and Wellington Station, and between the chief town in each division and any field-cornet post-office agency in such division, also between Port Elizabeth and Uitenhage, is 1*d.* on each letter not more than half an ounce in weight; 2*d.* for each letter above

half an ounce but not more than one ounce; and so on, increasing 2*d.* for each additional ounce or fraction of an ounce.

Postage rate for Natal.

Letters for Natal—Natal letters not exceeding half an ounce are charged 6*d.*; exceeding half an ounce but not exceeding one ounce, 1*s.*; and 1*s.* for every additional ounce or fraction of an ounce.

Ship letters for British Colonies.

Ship Letters for British Colonies, &c.—Letters for British Colonies (except Natal) or foreign parts, not having to be sent *viâ* the United Kingdom, when posted or delivered at the port from whence the mail is shipped, are charged at a rate of 4*d.* per half-ounce or fraction of a half-ounce for each letter. But if posted or delivered at an office other than that at the port of shipment, at a rate of 6*d.* per half-ounce or fraction of a half-ounce.

St. Helena.—Letters for St. Helena sent by mail packet are charged 6*d.* the half-ounce, which must in all cases be prepaid.

Rates of Postage to Foreign Parts.

Australia.

Australia.—Letters to Australia from the Cape Colony *viâ* the United Kingdom are charged at the rate of 1*s.* 5*d.* for half an ounce; exceeding half an ounce, but not exceeding one ounce, 2*s.* 10*d.*

Austria.

Austria.—The postage to Austria is the same as to Australia.

America, &c.

America.—1*s.* 2*d.* for every half-ounce.

Ceylon and India.—1*s.* 8*d.* for every half-ounce.

Madeira.—1*s.* 5*d.* for every half-ounce.

Russia.—1*s.* 4*d.* for every half-ounce.

Ascension.—Letters for Ascension sent by mail packet are subject to a British rate of 4*d.* the half-ounce, in addition to the ordinary ship rate mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

English Letters by Mail Packet, &c.—Letters for the United Kingdom, when sent by mail steamers or Queen's vessels, are charged 6*d.* per half-ounce, and 6*d.* for each additional half-ounce or fraction thereof. No charge is made upon delivery.

Letters for the United Kingdom per 'Private Ship.'—Letters for the United Kingdom, when intended to go by private ship, should be marked accordingly, and are

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charged only 4*d.* the half-ounce or fraction of the half-ounce, increasing at the rate of 4*d.* for every additional half-ounce or fraction of a half-ounce.

Shippers' Letters.

Shippers' Letters.—Owners, charterers, or consignees of vessels or goods arriving in any port of the Colony have their letters, when forwarded open and properly superscribed as such, delivered, if for the port of arrival, upon payment of one penny postage for each; and if for any other part of the Colony, at the ordinary inland rate chargeable on prepaid letters, in addition to the penny payable at the port; provided the letters for any one person do not exceed six ounces in weight.

Registration.

Registration.—The charge for registering to any part of the Colony, the neighbouring States, or the United Kingdom, is 4*d.* for each letter, book or sample packet, or newspaper.

Compulsorily Registered Letters.

Compulsorily Registered Letters.—Letters containing coin, as well as any having the word 'Registered' written upon them, which may be posted in the Colony without registration, will be registered and forwarded, charged with a double registration fee.

Franking Regulations.

Franking Regulations.—The regulations under which correspondence may pass free through the Colony are as follows:—1. All letters on public business, between civil departments, military and naval departments, or between a military or naval and a civil department, whether on departmental or regimental matters, will be transmitted through the Colonial Post free of inland postage, if marked 'On Her Majesty's Service,' and bearing the signature of the officer or person duly authorised to send the same. 2. The following shall be the officers authorised to frank such letters:—In Cape Town.—Any head of a department, the chief clerk of the department, or any clerk or other officer of the department who may be specially deputed to do so. In the country divisions.—The several civil commissioners and resident magistrates and their clerks, officers at the head of departments independent of the civil commissioners and resident magistrates and their immediate subordinates. 3. The head of any naval or military department, the officer in command of any of Her Majesty's ships, the officer in command of a regiment, or in charge of a detachment of troops. 4. The officers entitled to frank such letters are

required to file their autographs with the postmaster at whose office such letters have to be posted. 5. Letters addressed to the heads of civil, military, and naval departments in their official capacity, 'On Her Majesty's Service,' by private persons, will be transmitted by the postmaster at whose office such letters are posted, and be delivered upon their arriving at their destination, under the restrictions contained in paragraph 9 of these regulations. 6. Should it appear that any letter from a private person, addressed as described in paragraph 5 of these regulations, is not upon the public business, but of a personal or private nature, the officer to whom such letter is addressed will write upon it the word 'Unstamped,' and forward it to the General Post-office, to be returned to the writer as an unstamped letter. 7. Letters from divisional councils entitled to pass free of postage are limited exclusively to those addressed to heads of civil departments, and such letters must be franked by the civil commissioner. 8. By section 3 of the Postal Regulations Act of 1868 all petitions to Parliament, marked as such, and addressed to a member of either House, and with or without a letter enclosed therein, shall pass free of postage. Every such petition shall be enclosed in a cover open at both ends, and every such letter shall refer exclusively to the subject of the said petition. 9. When the Postmaster-General may have sufficient reason to suspect, either from the appearance of any letter marked 'On Her Majesty's Service,' or from any other cause, that it is made the vehicle of private communications, he will acquaint immediately the head or chief clerk of the department to which such letter may be addressed, or from which it may have proceeded, and request the attendance at the post-office of some person properly deputed for the purpose, when he will cause the letter to be opened and examined; and if it be found to contain a private communication he will report the circumstance to the Government.

II. Newspapers.

Newspaper Postage.

Inland Postage.—Newspapers posted for delivery in the Colony, whether Colonial, English, or foreign, are charged 1*d.* each, irrespective of weight.

United Kingdom.—Newspapers posted in the Colony for transmission over the sea by direct mail or private ship are charged 1*d.* each.

St. Helena and Ascension.—Newspapers posted in the Colony for transmission per mail steamer to St. Helena and Ascension are charged 2*d.* each.

III. Book and Sample Post.

Book and Sample Post.

Inland Book and Sample Rates.—The postage on book, pattern, and sample packets, not exceeding one ounce, is 1*d.*; not exceeding two ounces, 2*d.*; above two ounces, but not more than four ounces, 3*d.*; and for every additional quarter of a pound, or fraction of a quarter-pound, an additional rate of 3*d.* *See* directions under "Miscellaneous Information."

United Kingdom and Natal.—The scale of charges for books or packets and samples or patterns to or from the United Kingdom and Natal is, for a packet not exceeding a quarter of a pound in weight, 3*d.*; do. exceeding four ounces, and not exceeding half a pound, 6*d.*; do. exceeding half a pound, and not exceeding twelve ounces, 9*d.*; and so on, increasing 3*d.* for every additional quarter of a pound or fraction thereof.

Money Orders.

Money Orders.

Inland Money Orders, not exceeding 10*l.* in amount, are granted by the Postmaster-General, Cape Town, and at the post-offices of Aberdeen, Alexandria (Humansdorp), Alice, Aliwal North, Aliwal (Mossel Bay), Bathurst, Beaufort West, Bedford, Bredasdorp, Burghersdorp, Caledon, Calvinia, Clanwilliam, Colesberg, Cradock, De Beer's N. R., Du Toit's Pan, Klipdrift, Elands Post (Seymour), Fort Beaufort, Fort Peddie (Peddie), Fraserburg, George, Graham's Town, Graaf-Reynet, Humansdorp, King William's Town, Knysna, Malmesbury, Middelburg, Mossel Bay, Murraysburg, Newhaven, Oudtshoorn, Paarl, Piquetberg, Port Elizabeth, Prince Albert, Queen's Town, Riversdale, Richmond, Robertson, Simon's Town, Somerset East, Springbokfontein, Stellenbosch, Swellendam, Tulbagh, Uitenhage, Victoria West, and Worcester. In granting an inland order a commission is charged

of 3*d.* for any sum not exceeding £1; 6*d.* for any sum not exceeding £2; 1*s.* for any sum above £2; 1*s.* for any sum above £2, but not exceeding £5; 1*s.* 6*d.* for any sum above £5, but not exceeding £7; and 2*s.* for any sum above £7, but not exceeding £10.

Notice to the Public.—Arrangements having been completed for the establishment of a money order system between the Cape Colony and Natal, it is notified by the Postmaster-General for general information, that money orders may be obtained for sums not exceeding £10 at the several money order offices in this Colony, payable at D'Urban or Pietermaritzburg, in the Colony of Natal. The commission chargeable on orders for those places will be:—Upon every order not exceeding £2, 1*s.*; exceeding £2, and not exceeding £5, 2*s.*; exceeding £5, and not exceeding £7, 3*s.*; exceeding £7, and not exceeding £10, 4*s.* Money orders upon the office at James Town, St. Helena, may also be obtained. Commission:—Fourpence for every ten shillings or fraction of ten shillings. No single order can be obtained for more than £10.

United Kingdom.—Money orders for sums not exceeding £10 each are granted upon the United Kingdom upon payment of a commission of 4*d.* for each half-sovereign or fraction of a half-sovereign.

Miscellaneous Information.

Prepayment of Letters and Newspapers.—The prepayment of inland letters by affixing postage-stamps is compulsory. Letters posted unpaid are returned to the writers at their expense. Unpaid newspapers are destroyed. The prepayment of letters for the United Kingdom only is optional, Letters sent unpaid or insufficiently paid, however, are chargeable with a fine equal to one additional rate of postage. Late letters will be received after closing of the Frontier mails on Tuesdays from 12 to 12.30; on Thursdays from 4.30 to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, 4.30 to 5 p.m., on payment of a fine of 1*s.* in addition to the usual postage. Prepayment of Letters.

Book Post.—Books may be transmitted by post under the following regulations and restrictions:—No book or book parcel may be forwarded by post if it ex- Book Post.

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ceed two feet in length, in breadth, or in thickness, or if it exceed five pounds in weight. Every book posted for transmission by post must be either without a cover or with a cover open at the ends or sides. The postage upon such books must be prepaid by means of postage-stamps affixed, at the rate of 1*d.* for every ounce or fraction of an ounce; 2*d.* for two ounces; 3*d.* for four ounces; increasing 3*d.* for every four ounces. Books posted unpaid will not be forwarded to their destination, but sent to the dead letter office, Cape Town. Books insufficiently paid will be chargeable upon delivery with the amount of postage deficient upon them, with the addition of a single rate of postage as fine. Books posted in a cover not open at the ends or sides are chargeable as letters. No book posted for transmission by post, nor the cover of such book, must contain any letter, closed or open, or any enclosure not being a letter, sealed or otherwise closed against inspection—otherwise such book shall be chargeable with the usual letter rate of postage, namely, 8*d.* for every ounce or fraction of an ounce, and the sender be liable to a fine not exceeding five pounds sterling. The name and address of the sender may, however, be written or printed upon the envelope or cover of the book or book packet. Books from the United Kingdom, or elsewhere, arriving in this Colony by sea, free of postage, will be delivered from any post-office in the Colony free of postage. Books for the United Kingdom forwarded by inland post will be chargeable with the following rates of postage, namely, 1*d.* for one ounce, 2*d.* for two ounces, 3*d.* for four ounces, 6*d.* for eight ounces, and so on, increasing 3*d.* for every additional quarter-pound or fraction of a quarter-pound. No further charge is made upon delivery. The postmaster at any of the stations is at liberty to delay the transmission of books by inland post until, in his judgment, the size, weight, and other circumstances of the mails by which books are to go shall admit of their being forwarded; but as often as any number of books are so delayed they shall be forwarded by the postmaster in the order of priority in which they were posted. A book packet may contain a 'pamphlet,' 'magazine,' 'review,' 'sheet of letter press,' 'sheet of music,' 'map,' 'chart,' or 'plan,' also any 'part' or 'number' of any

literary work published in parts or numbers, and any number of newspapers bound up together so as to form a volume, or stitched up together in a cover, in which cover they were issued by the publishers of such newspapers. A book packet may contain any number of separate books or other publications (including printed letters and printed matter of every kind), prints, maps, and any quantity of paper, parchments, or vellum. And the books or other publications, prints, maps, &c. may be either printed, written, or plain, or any mixture of the three. Further, all legitimate binding, mounting, or covering of a book, &c., or of a portion thereof, will be allowed, whether such binding be loose or attached, as also rollers in the case of prints or maps, markers (whether of paper or otherwise), in the case of books, and, in short, whatever is necessary for the safe transmission of literary or artistic matter, or what usually appertains thereto.

Pattern and Sample Post directions.

Pattern and Sample Post.—In accordance with section 8 of the Postage Act, No. 30 of 1864, patterns or samples of merchandise, or trade patterns, may be sent to and received from the United Kingdom at the same rates of postage as book packets, viz., 3*d.* for every quarter of a pound or fraction of a quarter of a pound, subject to the following conditions, restrictions, limitations, and provisions, viz.: 1st. The patterns or samples must not be of intrinsic value. This rule excludes all articles of a saleable nature, and indeed whatever may have a value of its own, apart from its mere use as a pattern or sample; and the quantity of any material sent ostensibly as a pattern or sample must not be so great that it can fairly be considered as having, on that ground, an intrinsic value. 2nd. There must be no writing or printing in addition to the address of the person for whom the packet is intended, and the address of the sender, other than a trade mark and numbers, and the prices of the articles; and these particulars must in all cases be given, not on loose pieces of paper, but on small labels attached to the samples or the bags or boxes containing them. 3rd. The patterns or samples must be sent in covers open at the ends, so as to be easy of examination. Samples, however, of seeds, drugs, and so forth, which cannot be sent in open covers, may be enclosed in boxes, or in bags of linen, paper, or other material, tied at the neck; or the

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bags may be entirely closed, provided they be transparent, so that the officers of the post-office may be able to satisfy themselves as to the nature of the contents. The rule which forbids the transmission through the post of any article which might injure the contents of the mail-bags or the officers of the post-office is so far relaxed in this case as to permit patterns of scissors, knives, razors, forks, steel pens, nails, keys, watch machinery, metal tubing, pieces of metal ore, and such like articles, to be forwarded, provided that they be packed and guarded in so secure a manner as to afford complete protection to the contents of the mail-bags and the persons of the officers of the post-office, whilst at the same time the samples may be easily examined. If any book packet or packet of patterns or samples be posted unpaid, it will not be forwarded, and any such packet posted insufficiently prepaid will be charged with the amount of the deficiency, and a single rate of postage as fine. No book packet or packet of patterns or samples must exceed two feet in length, one foot in breadth or depth, or three pounds in weight. In order to prevent any interruption to the regular transmission of letters a book packet, or packet of patterns or samples, may, when it is necessary, be kept back by any head postmaster for twenty-four hours beyond the time when, in the ordinary course, it would be forwarded.

LAWS AND LEGISLATION.

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1. The Cape Colony was ceded to England by Holland, under the Treaty of Vienna, in 1815, and, according to the rule of English law applicable to colonies by cession from foreign powers, the laws in force at the Cape at the time of the cession remained in force, though liable to be altered by English authority.

Roman Dutch law in force at the time of the cession of the Colony to the British.

2. The Cape, being by cession what is termed a Crown colony, became subject to the legislation of the Crown, such legislation, by prerogative, being, of course, subordinate to the legislation of the Imperial Parliament.

3. The Crown, in the first instance, delegated to the Governor of the Colony, for the time being, individually, the power of legislation. Then, after a time, a 'Council of Government' was created, which the Governor was instructed to consult in regard to the exercise of his legislative power. In 1834 'the Council of Government' gave place, in its turn, to a 'Legislative Council,' by the 'advice and consent' of which, and not otherwise, the Governor could enact laws. The Cape, however, still continued to be a Crown colony, and, as such, was subject to have laws made for it by any of the following instruments, viz., by Acts of the Imperial Parliament, by Letters Patent under the Great Seal, by Orders of the Sovereign made with the advice of the Privy Council, and by ordinances enacted by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the local Legislative Council. The authority of these respective instruments was regulated according to their order as now set forth, and none of them was competent to alter anything established by any of them higher up the list.

Power of legislation vested in the Governor as subsequently aided by a Council.

4. In process of time the progress of the colony, materially and educationally, appeared to the Home Government to call for a still further application of the

Creation of a local parliament.

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principle of local self-government. In 1854 letters patent were issued creating a parliament at the Cape. It consists of the Governor and two chambers—a Legislative Council and a House of Assembly. The areas which the Council and the Assembly respectively represent differ in extent, but the qualification of the electors for both houses is the same, and is so framed as to exclude few from the exercise of the franchise except criminals and vagrants. All Acts of the Cape Parliament are subject to disallowance by her Majesty the Queen.

The Crown thereby self-denuded of legislative power.

5. By a well-known rule of English constitutional law, as often as the Crown, by any instrument issued in the exercise of its prerogative, grants to a Crown colony representative institutions, it thereby denudes itself for ever of the legislative power under which those representative institutions were granted, and the colony takes, thenceforward, the place of a colony by settlement. From this it follows that, since 1854, the Cape can only have laws made for it by acts of the Imperial, or of the local, Parliament. The Crown can neither revoke nor alter the letters patent creating the Cape Parliament, nor any longer make laws by letters patent or orders in council.

Code of law at present in force at the Cape.

6. Turning from this brief statement of the past history and present position of the Cape legislature to a statement, equally brief, of the principal laws in force in the Cape Colony, it is to be observed that, according to a rule of English jurisprudence already explained, the laws in force at the time of the cession in 1815 remained in force till changed by competent authority. And at the time of the cession, in 1815, that which may be called the common law of the colony was the Roman Dutch law, that is, the Roman or civil law as received in Holland under various modifications, prior to the introduction into that country of the Code Napoléon in or about 1811. Besides this common law there were in force some local laws promulgated by the Dutch Government prior to the cession.

Difference between the Roman Dutch and

7. A detailed statement of the points in which the Roman Dutch law differs from the law of England would be out of place in this handbook. But a few

words upon some of them may, possibly, prove acceptable to our readers.

English law.

Tenure of landed property.

8. First, then, as to the tenures of landed property. In early times these were of a very rude description. The Government for the time being, Dutch or English, granted to settlers and others small patches of land on a tenure which at the Cape is termed 'freehold,' a term which there signifies merely free and full allodial ownership, not subject to any rent or other service. Then, round this patch of freehold, regarded as a centre, a large tract of Government land, usually about 6,000 acres, but often much more, was set apart for the occupation of the owner of the freehold, and held by him as a 'loan place,' subject to a small annual rent. In 1815 the Government, in order to encourage improvements by offering fixity of tenure, established a system by which these 'loan places' might be converted into 'perpetual quit-rent lands.' These 'perpetual quit-rent lands' differ little from the freehold land already described, except that they are granted subject to an annual rent, and to certain servitudes, such as the liability to have public roads made over them, and materials for making or repairing those roads taken from them, without being, in either case, entitled to claim compensation. The lands of the colony down to 1864 were mainly held upon one or other of the tenures just described. In 1864 the Cape Parliament introduced an additional mode of dealing with the public lands, namely, by leasing them for periods not exceeding thirty-one years, at a rent ascertained by the highest bidding at public auction. Liberal provisions exist by which the quit rent upon quit-rent lands can be redeemed, and by which tenants who hold leaseholds under the system of 1864 may turn the lands held under their temporary leases into perpetual quit-rent lands. Leases by private landowners are not common, but are gradually coming into use.

'Deeds and Debt Registry.'

9. Connected with the land tenures of the Cape is one of the most useful of the many useful institutions inherited by the English Government from the old mother country, Holland. This is the 'Deeds and Debt Registry.' Every transfer of freehold lands or of quit-

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rent lands from one person to another must, in order to be effectual against creditors, be made in the office of the Registrar of Deeds, and every mortgage or hypothecation of any such lands must, to be so effectual, be made before the same officer. The degree of certainty, simplicity, and economy which is secured by the admirable institution in question might well excite the envy of those legislators who have in England been labouring, but hitherto with small success, to facilitate and cheapen the conveyance of landed property.

Marriage law.

10. Marriage, and its effects upon the property of the spouses, may be now adverted to. In regard to the celebration of the marriage contract, every minister set apart for the conduct of public worship is entitled to marry, after the publication of banns, the members of his congregation. For a fee of 5*l*., marriage licences may be obtained, after certain simple preliminaries, calculated to prevent irregularities, have been complied with. Besides ministers of religion, there are resident magistrates in every district of the colony who are empowered, after certain public notice given, to solemnize marriages, and who can also marry, without such notice, parties who have obtained a marriage licence.

Right of property in husband and wife.

11. The effect of marriage upon property is now to be described. When there has been no ante-nuptial contract or previous settlement entered into, the effect of marriage at the Cape is to introduce what is called 'community of property.' This is, in fact, a partnership in equal shares in all the property belonging to the spouses, or either of them, before the marriage, or which shall be acquired during its subsistence. Of this 'joint estate' the husband has during the subsistence of the marriage the sole control and management, whilst at the same time the law protects the wife against gross prodigality in the husband by allowing her to obtain by judicial authority, and upon proof of such prodigality, a separation of the joint estate. But it is open to all parties intending to marry to exclude, by ante-nuptial contract, community of property either wholly or in part, and to make such provisions in reference to the effects of the marriage as they may think fit. These ante-nuptial contracts require, in order to affect creditors or other third parties, to be registered in the office of

the Registrar of Deeds. The charges of the notary public for drawing up, attesting, and registering ante-nuptial contracts are moderate, and these instruments are coming, in the colony, more and more into use.

Divorce.

12. Marriages are dissolved by the death of one or other of the spouses, or by judicial decree. The Court dissolves marriages upon either of two grounds, adultery and malicious desertion. As regards the right to claim the dissolution on either of these grounds, the husband and the wife are, by the Cape law, differing therein from the English law, upon a perfect equality. When the marriage is dissolved by death, the heirs of the deceased spouse, testamentary or intestate, take his or her half of the joint estate in case there was community of property, and take his or her separate property when community was excluded by ante-nuptial contract. Upon dissolution by judicial decree, the joint estate, when there was community, is divided under the authority of the Court; and when community was excluded, each spouse retains what belonged to him or her under the ante-nuptial contract.

Wills, &c.

13. The Cape law regarding wills and testamentary and intestate succession can be briefly stated:—Wills may be made before a notary public. They may also be made without the intervention of a notary public, or, as they are commonly called in the colony, 'underhand.' Wills are, like wills in England, to be witnessed by two witnesses. But at the Cape the testator and witnesses must, as a safeguard against fraud, sign their names upon each leaf of the paper upon which the will is written.

Testamentary disposition of property.

14. The Dutch law, like the Roman law, imposes certain restrictions in favour of certain persons upon the freedom of testamentary disposition. Parents, by that law, cannot pass over their children altogether—children being entitled to their 'legitimate portion.' If the children be four in number, or fewer than four, not less than one-third of the parent's estate, as abandoned by his or her death, must go amongst the children; and no child need accept less than his or her proportion of the third. If the children be more in number than four, then the 'legitimate' is one-half of the parent's estate. If, on the other hand, a child dies without descendants,

but leaving parents surviving, they are, by Dutch law, entitled to their 'legitimate,' which is one-third of the child's estate; and when but one parent survives the parent takes as much as both parents, if living, would have taken.

Intestate succession '*ab intestato*.'

15. The Dutch law of intestate succession is simple. Primogeniture is unknown. When a parent dies without a will, leaving children, they divide equally all his or her property, movable and immovable, or, to use the kindred though not equivalent terms of the English law, all his or her property, 'personal and real.' The descendants of deceased children take, by representation, the share which the deceased child, if living, would have been entitled to.

Laws of succession as affecting 'Natural-born subjects of the United Kingdom.'

16. The Dutch law of succession, '*ab intestato*,' meets at the Cape universal approval. But the Dutch law of testamentary succession has, for a considerable time, been the subject of much discussion and difference of opinion. Shortly after the arrival of the Albany settlers, in 1820, a proclamation, having the force of law, was issued, enacting that 'Natural-born subjects of the United Kingdom,' settling in the colony, might dispose of their properties according to the laws of England. The construction of this very loose and ill-drawn instrument has taxed more than once the acumen of the Court, and it has been held that the words 'natural-born subject' mean persons born in the United Kingdom; that, as regards the formalities with which their wills shall be executed, the Cape law is to be complied with, but that, as regards testamentary power, 'natural-born subjects' may, by will, exercise the same freedom in the colony that they could have exercised according to the law of England. A 'natural-born subject,' who was such within the meaning of the proclamation, thus became entitled to disinherit children or parents without assigning any reason, whilst no other colonist could do so without setting forth, in his or her will, one or more of the reasons recognised by Dutch law as justifying disherison. It must be allowed that weighty arguments have been adduced, both by the impugners and the defenders of the old law. The impugners relied mainly upon the stimulus to acquire which is afforded by the consciousness of possessing absolute power to dispose of

our acquisitions; upon inequalities often found in the condition of our several children, which nothing but freedom to distribute our property can set right; and upon the tendency of the rule regarding the 'legitimate' to make children fail in reverence to their parents. The defenders rely mainly upon the right of society to call upon parents to make some sort of provision for the children whom they bring into the world; upon the frequency with which parents are led to make capricious and indefensible dispositions of their property, leaving their children little or nothing; and upon the large proportion of their property over which, after leaving the 'legitimate' to their children, parents have still an unrestricted right of disposition. Public opinion, it would seem, has of late undergone a change, and now favours more than it did absolute freedom of testamentary disposition. During the session of Parliament which closed in August 1874, an Act was passed under which Cape colonists will be entitled to dispose, by will, of their properties at pleasure, and by which all right of children and parents to claim any 'legitimate' is wholly taken away. This Act, it is scarcely necessary to say, does not affect, in any way, the marriage law regarding 'community of property between spouses, or the law of succession *ab intestato*.'

Recent Act.

17. It seems needless to refer with any degree of particularity to any other points of Cape law. Contracts and crimes are, in substance, dealt with in the same manner by the laws of most civilised communities; and, although there are several peculiarities distinguishing the laws of the Cape regarding contracts and crimes from the laws of England upon the same subjects, these peculiarities are neither so numerous nor so important as to call for notice in such a publication as the present.

Contracts and crimes.

18. The 'Supreme Court' of the colony consists of a Chief Justice and four Puisne Judges. Two of the Puisne Judges of the Supreme Court form the 'Court of the Eastern Districts,' which sits in Graham's Town. The other two Puisne Judges, with the Chief Justice, form the Supreme Court in Cape Town. The jurisdiction of the Court in Cape Town extends over the entire colony, whilst the Court in Graham's Town has a con-

Administration of justice.

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current jurisdiction over that portion of the colony known as the Eastern Districts. Besides the two Courts just mentioned, Circuit Courts are held throughout the colony twice a year. The distinction between Law and Equity, so long the opprobrium of English law in the estimation of all real jurists, is one unknown to the more scientific jurisprudence of the Cape. Together with the Superior Courts described, there are Courts of resident magistrates in the several districts into which the colony is divided, which possess, in regard both to civil and criminal cases, a limited jurisdiction.

EMIGRATION, LAND LAWS, &c.

Though the Cape Colony is one of the oldest of European settlements, it has not until recently been generally recognised as a field for emigration. Until the Parliamentary session of 1873 all emigration had been suspended for some years, though certain regulations were nominally in force, empowering the Emigration Commissioners to supply the colony with labour.

In 1873, however, the Parliament appointed an Emigration Agent to represent the colony in London, and under his auspices nearly ten thousand artizans, labourers, domestic servants, &c. for Government service and private persons have been forwarded to the Cape. The emigration still continues; and is likely not only to be sustained but extended.

Cape emigration has attractions of its own, although not of the same kind as some of the younger settlements. The shortness of the voyage, now performed in 21 days by steam-vessels, the fineness of the climate, and the good openings for skilful and industrious workmen have had their effect upon that large class of English, Scotch, and Irish men looking out for new fields of toil and enterprise. There is every reason to believe that if the emigration should be made a little more open the Cape will receive its full share of attention.

Though voyagers to the Cape cannot be promised immunity from the ordinary inconveniences of a sea life, the voyage is one of the pleasantest in the world. The

Bay of Biscay once passed, the steamer 'slips through the summer of the world' free from the storms of the North Atlantic or the hurricanes of the Indian Ocean. A sight of the island of Madeira, the Cape de Verds, and St. Helena are all pleasant episodes in the passage.

With these hints the intending emigrant will be prepared for a more detailed account of the opportunities for settlement at the Cape.

General conditions affecting the grant of public lands.

Land Emigration.—It is necessary at the outset to say that the Cape Government has not up to the present time promulgated a general scheme of land settlement after the model of New Zealand and the Australias. There is, indeed, a large area of Crown lands still in possession of the Government, of which considerable portions are sold every year. The terms on which this is done are given fully hereafter. But, partly from the nature of the soil, partly from the distribution of the water supplies in many districts of the colony, and partly from the length of time during which the country has been settled, these plots of land are principally purchased by the farmers, who utilise them with great advantage.

There are, without doubt, large tracts of land which might be cultivated with advantage, and in which we cannot doubt European capital will ere long be invested. The corn lands of the west, yielding the finest wheat in the world, as well as many portions of the eastern and frontier districts, are but partially cultivated. In the district of George, about the Knysna Forest, are large tracts of wholly uncultivated and fertile land, which must ere long attract the enterprise of the colony, and, we may add, the attention of the Government. At present the distance of the district from the seat of government, the want of population and means of conveyance by sea and land, have stood in the way of any serious measures for its settlement.

Case of the German emigrants.

There is practical evidence that enterprise and energy properly directed may effect much with the more fertile portions of the country. The German emigrants, to whom portions of land in Kaffraria were granted at the close of the Crimean War, have thriven wonderfully. With easily supplied wants and thrifty and industrious habits, they strove on year after year, until success

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and others.

rewarded their toil. Their property is now very considerable, and they have become an important and prosperous section of the eastern community. Many frugal Scotchmen, Englishmen, and Dutchmen have achieved like success in other parts of the country, both in sheep-farming and the cultivation of the land. The present Government are keenly alive to the importance of the question, and are at this moment actively promoting an agricultural emigration on a considerable scale. Moreover, land is often changing hands, and men with enterprise and capital can almost always improve upon the methods of cultivation adopted by the old Dutch settlers. It is a rare thing up country to find enclosed lands, and in many parts of the country, particularly in the neighbourhood of the Orange River, there is no proper shelter for horses or cattle.

Local experience necessary for the advantageous investment of capital.

While, therefore, we have every reason to anticipate that capital and enterprise will do much more than heretofore for the lands of the Cape Colony—indeed, is now doing much more—it is right to warn intending emigrants that some local experience is necessary before either can be advantageously employed. It is well, both for the sake of the country and the settler, that this should be fully understood. The day has gone by, indeed, with all the colonies when land purchases and settlements can be satisfactorily arranged in a London office, nor has any such method ever found favour with the authorities at the Cape.

Act to facilitate the acquirement of landed property.

An important Act, to be hereafter quoted, was passed in the year 1870, for affording increased facilities to 'agriculturists and others of small means to become possessors of land on certain fair and reasonable conditions.' We have every expectation that the provisions of this Act will be availed of by agriculturists, workmen, and others who may have *obtained a footing* in the country by their industry and perseverance. But there is nothing as yet to justify the issuing of land grants to intending emigrants from Europe.

That there is scope for settlement, on the basis and with the precautions we have named, the following statement will show :—

Estimate of the area of

The total number of acres granted in the colony, including King William's Town and East London, up to

December 31, 1872, was 54,434,720. Total number of acres sold, 8,263,193. As no general survey of the colony has been made, it is impossible to state exactly the total number of acres that remain ungranted. From the best calculations, however, that have been made, the area of the colony, inclusive of King William's Town and East London Divisions, is estimated at 119,662,000 acres. The quantity already disposed of being about 62,697,658 acres, there appear to be left 56,964,942 acres, in which are included some loan places still unconverted, missionary institutions, outspans, commonages, and land since surveyed of which no grants have been issued, and Crown lands leased under Act 19 of 1864.

Land remaining to be granted. 56,964,942 acres.

We have elsewhere given full particulars of ostrich-farming, which is the most novel, as well as the most paying, industry recently established at the Cape. We could hardly suggest a better opening for enterprise and capital, in connection with agricultural pursuits, than is furnished by this novel and interesting experiment. There is no longer any doubt that the rearing of ostriches, and the plucking of their feathers, is even more profitable than the farming and shearing of sheep. Those who enter upon this industry, however, must have sufficient capital to hold a good farm, and judgment for its selection.

Ostrich-farming.

The disposal of the Crown lands in the colony is regulated by Acts No. 2 of 1860, No. 19 of 1864, No. 4 of 1867, No. 24 of 1868, and No. 4 and No. 5 of 1870.

Acts relating to the disposal of Crown lands.

The following is an abstract of the Act No. 2 of 1860:—

1. The conditions and regulations relative to the disposal of Crown lands in this colony, published by Government Notice of May 17, 1844, or by subsequent notices, are cancelled, and in future all waste and unappropriated Crown lands will be sold, subject to an annual quit rent on each lot, and at a reserved price sufficient at least to defray the costs of inspection, erection of beacons, survey, and title-deed.

Previous conditions rescinded.

2. The sale will be by public auction, and at the office of the Civil Commissioner of the Division in which the land is situate, after four months' notice in the *Government Gazette*, by proclamation descriptive of the position and extent of the land intended to be sold; but

Sales by public auction.

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lands in the Cape Division shall be sold at Cape Town for such place as shall be notified in such proclamation.

Redemption of quit rent.

3. The quit rent may be redeemed at any time upon payment of fifteen years' purchase, but when by future subdivision of a lot, and the quit rent thereon, any portion of the quit rent shall be less than ten shillings, it shall be obligatory upon the proprietor of such portion within twelve months to redeem the quit rent at fifteen years' purchase.

Conditions of sale.

4 and 5. The sales will be held on the following conditions as to the payment of purchase money, viz.:—The expense of inspection, survey, erection of beacons, and title-deed shall be paid on the day of sale, and one-fourth of the purchase money within three months. Failing either of these conditions, the sale is void. The remaining three-fourths of the purchase money, or any portion, may be discharged at once, or (on deposit of the expense of the necessary bond) may be retained on first mortgage of the land, payable in three equal instalments, at the expiration of five, six, and seven years respectively, or at any previous time at the pleasure of the purchaser. Interest on the bond at the rate of 5 per cent. is payable annually to the Civil Commissioner of the district or to the Treasurer General in Cape Town. The Government may at any time discharge from mortgage any part of the lands so mortgaged if the Surveyor-General certifies that the remainder of the land is equal in value to the amount of the mortgage.

6. In all cases in which there may be timber, or houses, or other valuable and destructible or perishable or exhaustible property on or within the limits of any lot, the Governor may, at his discretion, direct that a clause be inserted in the conditions of sale requiring that the purchaser provide at the time of sale two good and sufficient securities for due payment of the purchase money, to the satisfaction of the Civil Commissioner of the Division, or the Surveyor-General in case such land be sold in Cape Town.

General conditions to be stated in the title deed.

7. The lots will be sold subject to such special servitudes and conditions as may be set forth in the conditions of sale, and the following general conditions, which must be stated in the title-deed, viz.:—

(*a*) The quit rent payable.

(*b*) All existing roads and thoroughfares described in the diagrams shall remain free and uninterrupted.

(*c*) That Government shall have the right to make new roads, railways, railway stations, aqueducts, dams, and drains, to connect telegraphs over the land, or establish outspans, for the benefit of the public, on payment to the proprietor of such sum of money in compensation as shall, upon equitable valuation by appraisers, appointed on both sides, be found just.

(*d*) With regard to the lands on or adjoining the sea coast, or on the banks of public rivers (not in towns or villages), that Government shall have power to resume any portion thereof, when required for public purposes, on payment to the proprietor of a just and fair price for the same, according to valuation as under condition (*c*).

(*e*) Lands adjoining public rivers or running streams shall be sold subject to leaving such water furrows made through or over them, as the Government shall direct, for the supply of water to lands lying at a distance. Compensation is made as above (*c*).

Title deed when issued. Lands claimed as private property.

(*f*) No condition which is not clearly expressed shall be presumed to exist.

8. On settlement of the whole purchase money by bond or otherwise, title-deeds will be issued to the purchaser.

9. Lands claimed as private property are not to be considered as waste land of the Crown under these regulations if timely notice of the claim be given to the Colonial Secretary, and due diligence used to prove the claim.

10. The Governor may, with the concurrence of the Legislature, make grants or reserves for special public purposes.

Grants for special public purposes.

11, 12, 13, and 14. Municipal lands, town or village pasturage lands, lands containing valuable minerals, fishing stations, public outspans, or lands required for military stations, defence of the frontier, or other public purposes, and the sea shore within two hundred feet of high-water mark, are not to be considered waste Crown lands.

Municipal and other lands.

15 provides for the sale of certain lands in the frontier districts, subject to the conditions of personal occupation, and of providing arms and armed men for the defence of the frontier.

Special conditions for frontier districts.

Steps to be taken by persons desirous of purchasing waste Crown lands.

16. Whenever any Divisional Council deems it expedient that waste Crown lands shall be sold, or when persons are desirous of becoming purchasers of particular parts of such land, an application may be made to the Colonial Secretary, or to the Divisional Council, in writing, setting forth, as far as practicable, the position, boundaries, and extent of the land referred to.

17, 18, and 19. Such application is then to be submitted to the Surveyor General and to the Divisional Council, and if necessary to the Governor for decision.

Steps to be taken by the Council.

20. When the Government directs that the sale shall proceed, the Council shall in the first place transmit an estimate of the probable cost of inspection and survey, and erection of beacons, in order to enable the Surveyor General to comply with the financial regulations, by obtaining previous specific authority for the necessary expenditure, or to call on the applicant for a deposit sufficient to cover it, which deposit shall be refunded when paid by the eventual purchaser should the applicant not become the purchaser; but should no sale take place, no refund will be made.

21, 22, 23, and 24 relate to the local arrangements for the inspection and survey of the land.

Compensation for improvements by authorised and unauthorised occupiers.

25. Where improvements have been made by an *unauthorised* occupier on Crown land which is to be sold, the Government may grant compensation by valuation. When the amount has been fixed the land is to be sold, subject to the payment of the compensation out of the purchase money by the purchaser. If the occupier who made the improvements does not purchase the land he is to receive two-thirds of the compensation, the balance being retained by the Government. Should he become the purchaser, the two-thirds is also retained by the Government towards the payment of the purchase money. An *authorised* occupier is to receive or be allowed the entire value of improvements. Compensation is not to be given for improvements unconnected with the ordinary use of the land by the usual class of purchasers, or for 'extravagant' improvements not adapted to increase the value of the land.

Allotment of land contiguous to private farms.

26. Where a portion of Crown land lies contiguous to or between farms belonging to private persons, the Divisional Council may allot such land or portions of it

to one or more of the farms as may seem just and expedient at a reasonable price, to be fixed by the Council and approved by the Governor, being not less than the expense of inspection, survey, erection of beacons, and title-deed. Such land is subject to a quit rent to be assessed by the Council.

27 to 32 prescribe the formalities to be observed in dealing with applications for such last-mentioned lands.

Purchaser may forfeit his rights by failing to take up his title deed, &c.

The Act No. 19 of 1864 provides that if the purchaser of any Crown land does not, on the demand of the Civil Commissioner, take up his title-deed within 12 months of the sale, and give a mortgage bond for the balance of the purchase money, the sale is to be deemed *ipso facto* cancelled, and any previous payment forfeited. But such cancellation and forfeiture is not to take effect until after three notices published in the *Government Gazette* during three months, calling upon the purchaser to execute the mortgage or to pay the purchase money. Sect. 6: The Governor is empowered to dispense, if he thinks fit, with the certificate required by the 27th regulation contained in the Schedule to Act No. 2 of 1860, if any Divisional Council shall have so recommended, but the Surveyor-General shall have refused to give it.

It provides for—

i. The leasing of Crown lands, in cases where the Governor deems it expedient.

ii. Such lands may be let for any term not exceeding 21 years, upon such conditions as the Governor may impose.

iii. They are to be let by auction, provided the highest rent offered be adequate.

iv. Rent payable annually; the first 3 years' rent to be secured by sureties, or the first two paid in advance.

It also provides that Crown lands may be let by public auction; but that the Government should not be bound to accept the highest rent offered, should it be deemed inadequate.

Land put up but not sold.

The Act No. 4 of 1867 provides that land so put up to auction, but not let, may at any time within 12 months afterwards be leased by the Government by tender or private contract, at a higher rent than that bid at auction; but that such lease shall not be for

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more than a year, and that at the expiration of that time the lease shall again be put up to auction at the rent and for the term proposed in the tender or private offer. At such auction, the highest tender is to be accepted if sufficient security is given by the lessee for the performance of the conditions of the lease.

An Act, No. 24 of 1868, was passed to cancel the conditions of personal occupation, and the provisions for the defence of the colony attached to grants of land in certain of the eastern divisions of the colony in past years on the ground that such conditions are irksome and vexatious, and no longer necessary.

The Act No. 4 of 1870, with the view of giving increased facilities to agriculturists and others of small means to become possessors of land, provides for the survey of agricultural areas of Crown land, in allotments of not more than 500 acres, which allotments will, when surveyed, be open for selection by conditional or absolute purchase.

Conditions of conditional purchaser.

The following are the conditions upon which the person declared the conditional purchaser of any allotment shall receive a lease:—

The term to be ten years, commencing from the first payment of rent.

The yearly rent one shilling per acre, or such sum as may have been bid by the conditional purchaser.

The rent for the second and each succeeding year to be paid in advance to the Civil Commissioner of the division in which the land is situated.

The lessee is bound, within two years of obtaining the lease, to cultivate at least one acre of every ten acres, or to erect a suitable dwelling-house thereon.

On failure of any of the conditions hereinbefore contained, the lease will be forfeited and the land and the improvements thereon revert to Government, but no forfeiture for non-payment of rent is to be enforced if the rent be paid within ninety days.

Forfeited leases are to be put up to sale by public auction within one hundred and eighty days of forfeiture; and after deducting from the amount for which the leases may be sold the arrears of rent and expenses, the money remaining, if any, will be paid to the lessee, or to his lawful representatives.

So soon as the lessee has made the tenth annual pay-

ment of rent he will, on payment of the survey expenses and other expenses of title, receive a grant of the land at a perpetual quit rent of one per cent. per annum upon ten years' value thereof; but the quit rent chargeable will in no case be less than ten shillings per annum.

The lessee may at any time pay the rent for the unexpired portion of his term, and receive a grant of the land, subject to the above quit rent.

The purchase of any such allotment, but subject to quit rent, may be effected by the payment forthwith of the whole of the purchase money, at the rate of ten years' annual rent, and the expenses of survey and title.

Sale of leased lands.

By Act No. 5 of 1870 the Government is empowered to sell to lessees the lands leased by them under Act 19 of 1864. In case of disagreement the purchase amount is to be settled by arbitration, the minimum being a sum equal to the yearly rent capitalised at six per cent. The quit rent is uniformly one per cent. of the purchase amount. The tenure of lands so purchased is identical with that under Act 2 of 1860. The following are the conditions of payment of purchase money:—

It may be paid in cash, or in three equal annual instalments; until completion of payment the lessee shall pay rent under his lease, unless such be vitiated or expire.

The failure of any payment of purchase money cancels the contract of sale, and payments already made are refunded, less five per cent. for breach of contract; the lease then continues unaffected, as before the proposed sale.

When the whole purchase money has been paid, and there are no arrear payments under the lease, the purchaser obtains title, and a refund of six per cent. per annum on all the previous payments of purchase money. Quit rent commences from and after the completion of the payment of the purchase money.

The value of industrial improvements is not taken into account in fixing the amount of purchase.

The Act No. 12 of 1867, by which pasture licences were regulated, expired on January 1, 1871.

Act No. 10 of 1877, Act No. 14 of 1878, and Act No. 33 of 1879 provide for the reservation and disposal of certain Crown lands to agricultural emigrants. The emigration agent was instructed towards the close of 1879 to invite persons accustomed to agricultural pursuits

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to proceed to the colony for the purpose of agricultural settlement under the following regulations :—

Regulations for the Introduction of Agricultural Emigrants into the Cape of Good Hope.

1. The Government of the Cape Colony being desirous of introducing into that country a number of industrious agriculturists, to whom land grants will be made on easy terms, and being alive to the necessity of furnishing every information to intending emigrants, publishes the following regulations, which it agrees to observe and fulfil.

2. Persons accustomed to agricultural pursuits, desirous of emigrating to the Cape Colony, should make application to the Cape Emigration Agent, who thereupon shall furnish applicants with a form of application, which shall be filled in and returned to the Emigration Agent.

3. Applicants shall at the same time forward to the Emigration Agent certificates of character and occupation, signed by their employer and by a justice of the peace, or by a clergyman or minister of religion.

4. The Emigration Agent shall, without delay, inform applicants whether they have been approved or not.

5. Approved applicants shall thereupon inform the Emigration Agent as to the time when they would be prepared to sail from England, and, when such time shall have been agreed upon, applicants shall, in the case of single men, deposit the sum of 3*l.*, and in the case of married men, with or without children, the sum of 5*l.*, with the Emigration Agent, as a guarantee, one-half of which deposit may be forfeited should the applicant not be ready to sail at the time agreed upon, and in the event of not sailing at all, one-half of such deposit shall be forfeited.*

6. Upon being located on their grants, as hereinafter provided, the said deposits shall be repaid in full.

* The reasonableness of this requirement will be admitted when it is known that the Government itself forfeits to the Steamship Company half the amount of the passage money (13*l.*) for each emigrant who fails to proceed to the colony at the time appointed.

7. Emigrants shall convey themselves on board ship at their own expense.

8. The Government shall pay the entire sea passage of emigrants, together with their baggage, to the Cape Colony, and shall make provision for their suitable reception at the port of debarkation, and shall also provide and pay for their land transport, in waggons or other vehicles, to their respective locations.

9. Emigrants shall provide food for themselves from the date of landing.

10. Government may, within one year after landing, advance small sums of money to emigrants, and such moneys shall be repaid, without interest, within two years from the date of making such advances.

11. Government shall lend to each family at least one tent, to be returned after reasonable time has been given for the erection of a hut or other dwelling.

12. Government shall grant to each head of a family (who must not be over forty-five years of age), and to each single man of not less than twenty years of age nor more than forty-five years of age, a piece of arable land not less than twenty acres,* on the following conditions, viz.:—

13. The terms of payment shall be over a period of ten years, commencing from the date of the lease.

14. The yearly payment shall be at the rate of one shilling per acre.

15. The payment shall be made at the expiration of each year from the date of the lease, into the office of the Civil Commissioner of the division in which the land is situated.

16. The lessee shall be bound, before the expiration of the first two years of his lease, to erect upon the land leased a dwelling-house of the value of not less than twenty pounds sterling, and every year after the expiration of the two first years to cultivate at least one acre of every ten acres leased.

17. On failure of any of the conditions hereinbefore contained, it shall be competent for the Government to declare such lease to be forfeited, and the land and improvements thereon shall thereupon revert to the

* See also Sections 23 to 27.

Government; and no forfeiture for non-payment of any instalment shall be enforced, provided such instalment be paid into the office of the Civil Commissioner of the division within three months from the same becoming due: provided, further, that when the lease of any such land shall be forfeited as aforesaid, such lease shall be put up to sale by public auction within six months of such forfeiture, and after deducting the amount for which such lease shall be sold, the arrear payments and all other sums due, or which may be due to the Government, as well as all expenses incurred in holding such sale, the sum of money remaining, if any, shall be paid to the lessee, or his lawful representatives.

18. So soon as a lessee shall have paid the tenth annual instalment, he shall receive a grant of the land at a perpetual quit-rent of one per cent. per annum upon ten years' value thereof: provided, however, that in no case shall the quit-rent chargeable be less than ten shillings per annum. The said quit-rent may be redeemed at any time in terms of Sec. VI. of Act 14 of 1878.

19. If at any time during the term of such lease the lessee shall pay into the Civil Commissioner's office the money for the unexpired portion of such term, he shall receive a grant of the land under perpetual quit-rent, as aforesaid.

20. Any person who, having received an allotment as aforesaid, shall forthwith pay the whole purchase amount thereof at the rate of ten shillings for each acre, and the expenses of survey and title,* shall receive a grant of the said allotment on a perpetual quit-rent as aforesaid.

21. No lessee shall be entitled to dispose of the lease or quit-rent grant of any land obtained under the provisions of this Act before the expiration of five years from the date of his lease.

22. The mode of locating emigrants shall be that persons paying ready money for their pieces of arable land shall have the right of selecting such pieces, after which the allocation of other emigrants in any given locality shall be decided by drawing lots.

* Cost of survey and title will not exceed 6*l*. 6*s*.

23. Adjoining such arable lots in any location of emigrants, Government shall set aside certain land as commonage for the joint usage of all the holders of such arable lots, the extent of which commonage shall be such that, if divided into lots, equal in number to such arable lots, the size of each commonage lot so divided, together with the arable lot belonging thereunto, would not be less than 200 acres, nor more than 500 acres.

24. The use for grazing purposes, but not otherwise, of such commonage shall be enjoyed by the holders of such arable lots free of all charge for a period not less than six years, from the date of the assignment of such arable lots to the respective holder thereof.

25. Government shall have the power to issue regulations regarding the quantity of stock to be depastured by each holder of lots, and regarding the general preservation of such commonage.

26. At the end of six years from the date of assigning arable lots, or as soon thereafter as to the Government may seem fit, the commonage lands shall be divided into lots of not less than 180 acres, and each holder of an arable lot shall have the right to purchase a commonage lot, which should be, whenever possible, contiguous to his arable lot, at a price of not more than ten shillings per acre, or he may pay an annual rent of not more than sixpence per acre, with the right to purchase at any future time at a rate of not more than ten shillings per acre, as aforesaid.

27. Any emigrant purchasing a commonage lot shall pay the expenses of survey, which, for 180 acres, will not exceed eight guineas (8*l.* 8*s.*).

28. Government shall appoint a superintendent or superintendents of emigrants, practically acquainted with farming, whose duty it shall be to receive emigrants upon their arrival at the point of debarkation, to arrange and superintend their transport to their locations, to place them upon their respective lots, to advise in all matters affecting their welfare, to assist them in every reasonable manner, and to be the medium of communication between them and the Government.

Artisan and Labour Emigration.

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An Englishman's account of the Cape.

A correspondent of one of the English journals (*The Colonies*) wrote thus of the labour prospects of the Cape in January 1874:—

'I see in your journal numerous inquiries as to the prospects this colony amongst others holds out to the emigrant. I would answer briefly thus. Let no one come to the Cape with the idea gained from novels and tales of colonial life that all he has to do is to clear a piece of forest, build a log hut, commence farming, live a happy life, made up chiefly of hunting, and then retire to England, rich, bearded, and hearty. Fortunes are made here, and very rapidly too. But they are made through hard work, much self-denial, and clear business-like brains. A good mechanic—steady, honest, and industrious—by beginning modestly, working hard, and waiting patiently, has every prospect of dying a rich man. An agricultural labourer has not the same prospect, for the coloured classes can work for less than he can. But if he is thrifty, and keeps his eyes open, he will have a far better chance of making a good income here and becoming an independent man than he would have in England. The German immigrants seem to me to be the only agriculturists who get on well here as farm labourers. The man of capital must learn by experience. Sheep-farming is, as a rule, very profitable; but you have to gain your South African experience of farming before you can make it pay.

* * * * * *

'Money is to be made here, and if you can remain steadily at work, it is astonishing how soon you will join your fellow-colonists in saying that in many respects life is more enjoyable here than in the Old Country.

'X.

'Cape Town: January 6, 1874.'

Steady demand for labour.

These words are so true and sensible that little need be added to them. Since 1868 the colony has enjoyed continuous and increasing prosperity, though this was interrupted for a short period by the frontier disturbances in 1877–78. The diamond-fields have drawn off a considerable portion of the population, public works have been authorised in every part of the colony, and the

demand for labour has steadily increased with the improvement in trade and production. In the session of 1874 the Legislature passed Bills for the construction of 800 miles of railway. These lines are now all but completed, at a cost of over eight millions. Extensions, however, are provided at an estimated cost of two and a quarter millions. In addition to these works, new bridges, new Parliament Houses, and new mountain-passes are authorised. With the limited supply of labour in the colony, it is evident that unless any unforeseen circumstances arise there will be a steady demand for labour in South Africa for some years to come.

Farm labourers.

There is a large native population in the colony, so that agricultural labourers and herds are not required to the same extent as in Australia and New Zealand. The farmers are, however, not at all satisfied with the labour which they now employ, and it is probable that farm labourers may to some extent be in demand.

Diamond and gold fields.

Information is given elsewhere on the position and business of the diamond-fields and gold-fields. It is right here to say that there is now little to encourage speculative emigration to the diamond-fields, the mining having become a settled industry. The same may be said of the gold-fields, which are as yet too much in their infancy to tempt at least a distant emigration. Leydenburg, which is their centre, is at a great distance from the coast, and provisions are very dear.

To meet the demand for labour throughout the whole colony the Government authorised in 1873 a system of aided emigration of artisans and servants, which, with a short interruption in 1878, has continued ever since. The latest notice on the subject was issued on January 31, 1880. It is as follows:—

Government Notice.—No. 110, 1880.

'*Office of the Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works, Cape Town, Cape of Good Hope.*

'January 31, 1880.

'With reference to Government Notice No. 941, dated October 28, 1878, it is hereby notified that the rates at which immigrants shall be conveyed from England to this colony have been reduced under the

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new contract with Messrs. Donald Currie & Co., for the Cape Immigration Service for the year 1880, and that the charge for passages during the subsistence of the contract will be calculated according to the rates for the whole passage shown in paragraph 6 of the Government Aided Immigration Regulations, which are republished hereunder, with amendments, for general information. 'JOHN LAING, Commissioner.'

'*Regulations under which Assisted Passages are granted by Government to Artisans, Domestic Servants, and Agricultural Labourers, coming out to the Colony under engagement to serve a Resident therein.*

'1. Any person wishing to introduce any immigrant or immigrants under the provisions of these Regulations shall apply to the Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works for permission so to do, stating particulars, as full as may be, with respect to the nationality and occupation of each person proposed to be introduced, and the trade or occupation it is expected or intended that such person should follow.

'2. When specified individuals are applied for, their approximate age should also be stated.

'3. When persons are to be brought out under engagements to undertake certain duties or render some certain service, the service for which the persons are to be engaged should be stated, and sufficient particulars given to enable the Government to judge whether or not assistance should be given.

'4. Every person proposed to be introduced under the preceding regulations must obtain a medical certificate to the satisfaction of the Emigration Agent of his being in good health at the time of emigrating or entering into an agreement to emigrate.

'5. The services of the Government Emigration Agent in England will be available to engage and send out such persons as may be applied for from the United Kingdom, or to forward such as may be sent out *viâ* England, in respect of whom a payment of one-half of the passage money shall have been made either to the Agent or to the Commissioner. In no case will any sum less than half the said passage money be accepted.

'6. The fares from England, one-half of which must be paid in advance as above stated, are to—

Cape Town	.	2nd Class.	£14	10	0	3rd Class.	£12	0	0
Mossel Bay	.	„	14	10	0	„	12	0	0
Knysna .	.	„	15	0	0	„	12	10	0
Algoa Bay .	.	„	14	10	0	„	12	0	0
Port Alfred	.	„	16	10	0	„	13	0	0
East London	.	„	16	10	0	„	13	0	0

'7. All other expenses both to the port of embarkation and from the port of landing must be borne by the person introducing the immigrant. The Government only contributes to the cost of passage between England and the colony.

'8. Wives and families of persons immigrating to the colony under these Regulations will also have the benefit of assisted passages. In the case of children coming out, one-sixteenth of the rate per statute adult must be deposited for each year of their age, and persons above sixteen years of age will be regarded as adults.

'9. Deposits may be made with the Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works, or the Government Emigration Agent in England; and forms of the annexed power of attorney may be obtained from this office, and from the several Civil Commissioners, to enable the Emigration Agent, on behalf of applicants, to enter into contracts with immigrants from the United Kingdom. Such power should be forwarded, duly signed and witnessed, to this office.

'10. If the applicant does not require the Emigration Agent to enter into an agreement with the person applied for, on his behalf, such power of attorney need not be sent to this office.

'11. Whenever the selection is left to the Emigration Agent, the fullest particulars should be given of the nature of the service expected to be rendered, the periods for which contracts should be made, and the maximum wages applicants are prepared to guarantee. Whilst the maximum will not be exceeded, the Emigration Agent will be instructed to engage suitable persons on the most favourable terms.

'12. All immigrants not selected by the Emigration Agent must nevertheless be seen and approved by him before embarkation.

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'13. Every application must state the name of the agent whom the applicant has appointed to receive such immigrants at the port of destination, and to forward them thence to the scene of their future employment.

'14. Forms of application may be obtained at any of the offices named in Section 9.'

Facilities given by emigration agent.

Similar facilities are given by the emigration agent to employers of labour who may wish to forward emigrants.

Notes on the Building Capabilities of South Africa.

Carpenters and joiners.

We propose to give a few hints to—1. Carpenters and joiners; 2. Masons and bricklayers; 3. Smiths, plumbers, and painters.

In the colony there is no distinction made between the carpenters and joiners. An English carpenter emigrating to the Cape Colony will, if working in the neighbourhood of large towns, no doubt always find the soft deals and pine timbers he has been accustomed to. The place of English oak and mahogany, however, he will find replaced by East Indian teak, a wood there is no particular difficulty in working, and an excellent one for external work.

In the country districts, however, and in all works connected with waggon-building and mill work in general, he will have to use the native timbers, a few of which and their qualities we shall proceed to describe. (Vide Table of Woods, pp. 132–4.)

Wood of South Africa.

1. The Yellow-wood (botanical name *Taxus elongatus*). This timber is the most useful and most generally used for building purposes of all the South African forest trees. It is a species of yew of light yellow colour, with a specific gravity of 40 lbs. per cubic foot, and a rather splintering fracture, which makes it a very unsafe timber to use for beams or other purposes on which severe cross strains may be expected; the grain is very fine and uniform, resembling that of clean yellow pine, and its hardness makes it a very useful material for floors, in which, however, it should be laid in narrow widths and well seasoned, as it shrinks considerably both in length and width. Planks up to 24 inches in breadth can be obtained, but it generally comes from the forest

sawn into 12-inch planks. Taking the unit of labour on fir at 1, that on yellow-wood may be called 1·35. The wood when unseasoned warps or twists very much, and splits if not carefully nailed: if not ventilated freely it is subject to dry rot. In price it is, unless in very remote districts, rather higher than Swedish deal, and it is used more out of necessity than choice as a substitute for the latter article.

Sneeze-wood.

2. The Sneeze-wood is a very hard and durable timber, excellent for piles, sleepers, lintels, and other engineering purposes where strength and lasting properties are required. It has a weight of 68 lbs. per cubic foot, or nearly twice that of fir; it is full of a peculiar resin like that of Lignum vitæ (*Guiacum*), it is a difficult timber to work, and cannot now be procured in very large scantlings. No vermin of any kind will be found in furniture constructed of it, whence it is much used for bedsteads and stretchers in the colony. It is principally found in the forests of George and Uitenhage, and as it is a tree of slow growth we fear it can hardly be got in sufficient quantities for a purpose for which its strength and non-decaying qualities make it invaluable, that is, sleepers for our railways and poles for our telegraph lines. Thousands of these trees, the wood of which is very inflammable, perish annually in our great bush fires.

Stink-wood.

3. The Stink-wood, sometimes called Cape mahogany, or rather Cape walnut, which latter timber it much resembles, is a most useful and elegant wood for furniture uses when properly seasoned. It is specially adapted for carving purposes. It comes to market in planks of 3 inches to 4 inches in thickness, and from 12 inches to 14 inches in width: it is also much used in light waggon building, for gun stocks, and other such purposes, and is found in all the forests of the coast region, although the larger trees are pretty well thinned out. In labour, calling fir 1, that on stink-wood may be represented by 1·60. It is so called from a peculiar though not an unpleasant smell it has when worked fresh; for all furniture uses it should be previously well seasoned by immersing it in a sand bath, heated gradually to about 100° of heat.

Other woods.

The other principal Cape woods used in waggon-building and farming purposes, such as fences, posts, &c.,

are the Assagai wood, Essen wood or Cape ash, cederhout, red and white iron wood for spokes, melkhout or milk wood for felloes, &c. These are principally brought to market from the Bush in convenient scantlings for the purposes for which they are employed, and are all rather tough than hard to work. They have considerable specific gravity, and at first an English carpenter finds it hard to do a satisfactory day's work with them; but they are invaluable to the farmer, as no European wood can stand the heat and dryness of the African climate as well as these woods. Cape waggons made in England have been sometimes imported, but invariably they fall to pieces after going through the wear and tear of a Cape summer.

Workmen's tools.

Tools.—If an emigrant carpenter has a good set of tools, we should advise him to take them with him. Though tools may be purchased in the colony at all the leading towns, it will be of course at an increased price, and if he should find himself working in a country district the emigrant will be glad to be in possession of well-tempered instruments purchased at an English warehouse. It is of the greatest possible use to a young carpenter about to emigrate to be skilful in the use of the turning lathe both for wood and iron: the importance of this can hardly be exaggerated in a country where an artificer should be able 'to turn his hand to any thing,' and ready to cast aside the strict formalities of a London joiner's shop, in which he has probably been for years employed on one description of work. A knowledge of waggon makers' and agricultural implement makers' work is invaluable, nay almost indispensable to a Cape carpenter; also the ability to construct simple plain articles of furniture made with the native woods, and a knowledge of simple machinery and mill work generally, as in the country mills wooden spur-wheels often have to take the place of cast-iron ones.

Mason and Bricklayer.

Mason and Bricklayer.

These trades, although considered separate and distinct in England, are in the Cape frequently combined, and often with the kindred crafts of slater and plasterer. The Cape mason is, in fact, a sort of handy man, able to

put his hand to every sort of work in which stone, brick and mortar are employed; but, no doubt, when the great projected lines of railways are fairly afloat, the separation between these trades will become more marked, especially as, in the construction of bridges and retaining walls, the craft of a mason of the first class, not a mere jobbing hand, will be indispensable. We may here add a few words as to the building materials used in the Cape Colony.

Granite.

Granite is worked in the neighbourhood of Cape Town, in the Paarl, and other parts of the Western Province, where it is found in isolated hills, as at Table Mountain, the Paarl Mountain, Riebecks, Castael, &c. It is of rather a coarse and intractable nature, with large crystals of felspar and hornblendic rock and little mica. The high price of labour has prevented it being much worked, except in the commonest form of rubble masonry. Of course, the cost of working all granites is much enhanced by the high price for steeling tools, and the granite itself is of a very hard nature, and a good deal is consumed for paving, &c., in the neighbourhood of Cape Town.

Sandstones.

Sandstones.—The building mason will find in the sandstones and shales his staple building material throughout the colony. Some of the sandstones are soft, beautifully stratified, and turn out of the quarry nearly in as shapely a form as if they had been sawn; other kinds are hard, quartzy in nature, and irregular in form; these are equivalent to our English old red sandstone, or quartzite, and although useful for rough walling, are expensive for ornamental purposes, as church building, &c., where ornamentation in terra cotta or Portland cement will probably be found the most economical substitute. The blue splintery shale of the Fish River valley is very unsatisfactory stone to work, and difficult to bring to a plain surface. Near Bathurst, on the East Coast, is a large bed of soft white limestone, but it yields few stones of a large size. The blue slate rock of Table Valley is a good stone for general building purposes. Extensive beds of very good flags are found in different localities, a very excellent one on the banks of the Kat River, near Ft. Beaufort. The finer sandstones of this region cut well, and are very lasting. But the general

character of Cape stone is that, however fit for useful purposes, its general hardness renders it unfit for ornamental work. Hence, every mason emigrating to the Cape should be able to build as well as to work hard stone. Bricks, of course, vary locally, according to the nature of the soil used for them; if it contains much saline matter the bricks speedily decay from atmospheric influences. But abundance of excellent brick earth, free from salts, may be found in nearly every direction. Owing to difficulties, however, in the burning of bricks, the Boers use walls of *pisé*, or rammed clay, or else unburnt bricks of considerable thickness. These houses are much cooler to live in, with their massive thick walls, than those of burnt brick of ordinary thickness would be. Fire-places and chimneys are seldom found in these Boer houses, the cooking being generally performed in a detached building. In towns, however, all modern houses are built with fire-places.

Thatching.

In addition to ordinary building operations, a knowledge of thatching would be useful to a Cape mason; also he should pay attention to the construction of dams and watercourses, be able to repair flat roofs, tiling, &c., &c., and to build walls in concrete or *pisé*; he should also be always ready to avail himself of the advice of workmen who have had some experience of the colony.

Lime.

Lime.—In the Cape material from which lime is obtained is generally a tufaceous stone, occurring in heaps or deposits throughout the clay plains, or else large beds of shells existing in the Coast regions or collected on the shore. The tufa lime, containing both clay and iron, is of an hydraulic nature; the shell lime less so. No native cements, that we are aware of, exist—all used coming (very often in a worthless state) from Europe. No beds of native slate exist in South Africa of any value for roofing purposes, but excellent tiles are made both in the neighbourhood of Cape Town and Port Elizabeth. Owing to the heavy S.E. gales, the roofs of the former city are nearly all flat in construction, and if carefully made, which too often is not the case, are very well adapted for the climate.

The heat of the summer sun renders it very injudicious to use asphalte, either as a covering to roofs or for paving purposes. The floors in the Boers' houses

are generally formed of pulverised ant-heaps: well tempered and beaten down, they form a hard and serviceable floor, resembling cement.

Smith, Plumber, Painter, &c.

Smith, plumber and painter.

Again we have a tendency in the Cape to amalgamate three or four trades that in Europe would be separate and distinct.

The plain blacksmith, pure and unadorned, is in great request in the Cape, as a repairer of the iron work of waggons, ploughs, &c., as well as a shoer of horses; but the man of all others most prized in a Cape village is that gifted man, but rarely met with, endowed by nature with a certain mechanical genius, who can repair a French timepiece, an American clock, or a gun with equal facility, solder a broken piece of jewellery, doctor up a decrepit umbrella, solder a joint in a water pipe or a hole in a tin kettle, or turn an odd chessman if you happen to lose one of your set. Such a man, if he has a good lathe and a few modern tools, with a stock of good behaviour, steadiness, and ingenuity, is sure in a few years to make his fortune.

Example of successful artizan.

Some years ago a man of this description purchased his discharge from the regiment of Royal Engineers on the frontier; he was an artificer of singular ingenuity and contrivance, and worked well in every description of metal, although his original trade was that of a plumber. He had a good lathe, constructed by himself, which was his sole capital. He settled down in a frontier colonial town, where a workman of his description was much wanted, and we were pleased and surprised to hear of his retirement and return to his native country, Scotland, a few months ago with a sum of money sufficient to ensure him a handsome competency for the remainder of his life.

This man, if he had remained in England, would probably have passed the remaining years of his life as a travelling tinker, umbrella mender, a knife grinder, and possibly have ended his days in a workhouse.

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THIS territory, which adjoins the Free State, on the north of the Orange River, which had long been under the sovereignty of the great Chief Moshesh, was proclaimed British territory, with consent of its people, on March 12, 1868, by Sir Philip Wodehouse, and was annexed to the colony by the Act No. 12 of 1871. The country annexed is bounded as follows:—

Boundaries.

From the junction of the Cornet Spruit with the Orange River, along the centre of the former to the point nearest to Olifants Been; from that point by Olifants Been to the southern point of Langeberg, along the top of Langeberg, to its north-western extremity; from thence to the eastern point of Jammerberg; along the point of Jammerberg, to its north-western extremity; from thence by a prolongation of the same to the Caledon River; along the centre of the Caledon River to its junction with the Klein Caledon; along the centre of the Klein Caledon, to the heads of the Orange River, at the Mont aux Sources; thence westward along the Drakensberg, between the watersheds of the Orange River and St. John's River, to the source of the Tees; down the centre of the latter river to its junction with the Orange River, and down the centre of the latter river to its junction with the Cornet Spruit.

Products and trade.

The country measures about 150 miles long by 50 miles wide, and contains about 7,000 square miles. Its population has been estimated by good authorities at

about 75,000 souls. The revenue, derivable from hut-tax, licences, fines, fees, &c., amounts to about 13,000*l*. The principal productions are wool, wheat, mealies, and Kaffir corn. A very large trade is carried on in the three latter articles with the diamond-fields, the Free State, and the districts of Colesberg and Hope Town. The country is well watered; its principal rivers being the Orange, Caledon, Cornet Spruit, Klein Caledon, Putiatsana, Tlotse, and Sengunyana. The chief mountains are the Drakensberg, Maluti, Qeme, Masiti, Berea, Tsikwane, Leribe, and Langeberg. Several indications of coal, and also of iron and copper ore, have been discovered. The climate is cool and temperate in summer, with abundant rains; and dry and bracing in winter, when snow occasionally falls. There is but little wood found in the country, though grass is plentiful. The mountain scenery is very picturesque, several spots being of great beauty. The average height of the plains above the sea level is about 5,000 feet. The Drakensberg and Maluti mountains average here about 9,000 feet above the sea, and the other mountains about 6,000 or 7,000 feet.

Climate.

The distance from Maseru to the diamond-fields is about 150 miles; from Bloemfontein, the capital of the Free State, about 70 miles; from Pietermaritzburg, Natal, about 350 miles; from King William's Town, about 350 miles; and from Port Elizabeth, about 500 miles. The nearest town in the old colony is Aliwal North, distant about 140 miles.

Distance from diamond fields.

A civil post has been established direct to Aliwal North.

The following interesting Report by the Governor's Agent at Maseru, dated January 31, 1874, which appears in the 'Cape Blue Book on Native Affairs,' has just come to hand:—

Report of Governor's Agent.

Political.—The Basutos, who had lived under a kind of semi-protectorate on the part of the British Government from 1848 to 1854 (interrupted only by the battles of Viervoet and Berea in 1852), were, at the abandonment of 'the Sovereignty' in 1854, thrown upon their own resources, and left to maintain their independence as best they could. No definite limits had been appointed

Political.

between them and the infant Free State—and the question of boundary became the foundation of an endless series of disputes. The Basutos, who from the commencement of the war with the Free State had been but poorly provided with guns and ammunition, had long ceased to attempt meeting the Boers in the open field, and acted on the defensive, ensconcing themselves in fortified caves, very few of which were ever taken. About the end of 1867 'Makwai's' mountain was attacked and taken, the Basutos escaping by night. Soon after Tandtjes Berg, the stronghold of the notorious 'Pushuli,' was carried, and that chief (with a large number of his men) was killed.

In February, 1868, the large mountain 'Quami,' whither 'Letsie' and the greater portion of his people had fled for refuge with their stock, was taken with very little resistance, an immense booty in cattle becoming the prey of the victors. 'Thaba Bosigo' would have been the next point attacked, and would inevitably have fallen, in the demoralised and disheartened state of the Basutos; but, whilst the Boers hesitated to invest it, Sir Philip Wodehouse interfered, yielding at length to the urgent entreaties of Moshesh, and in consideration of certain obligations under which the Government lay to that chief personally. On March 12, 1868, the Basutos were proclaimed British subjects, and Sir Walter Currie, with the F. A. M. Police, occupied Basutoland, forming camp at Korokoro, within the limits fixed by the treaty of 1866. This virtually put a stop to the war, although marauding continued on both sides outside that boundary line, until the actual conclusion of peace in February, 1869. On February 22, 1869, Sir Philip Wodehouse held a meeting of the chiefs and people at Korokoro, when peace was proclaimed, and the substance of a code of regulations was published, by which the Basutos were henceforth to be governed. Mr. J. H. Bowker was left, with a strong detachment of police, as the High Commissioner's Agent to administer the government.

The state of the Basutos at the conclusion of the war was most deplorable.. Weakened by defection and desertion on every side, and by the loss of about 2,000 men, killed during the war, reduced from considerable wealth

and ease to complete poverty and destitution, and suffering from famine, they had no longer any force to oppose to their enemies. Their stock had been mostly captured or slaughtered, their ploughs and waggons, houses, clothes, money, and movable property captured or destroyed, while the people were so depressed and intermingled that all organisation was lost. Disheartened by constant defeat and cowardice, they had lost confidence in, and were utterly disgusted with, their chiefs—refusing in many cases to obey or even acknowledge them. The mutual feuds and jealousies between one chief and another had been intensely embittered during the war, and all feeling of cohesion seemed lost. Owing to the impoverished state of the people, and to the general scarcity of food, as well as to the unwholesome state of the caves in which they lived, typhoid fevers had broken out everywhere, carrying off their victims by the hundred. At one time nearly one-half of the tribe was laid up with fever, and this contributed in no small degree to the general depression and discouragement. The Basutos were, so to speak, at the last gasp, and must infallibly have succumbed and been broken up as a tribe had the British Government not stepped in and saved them. At the peace the country occupied by them was reduced to about one-half of its original extent, whilst the tribes under 'Mopeli,' 'Makwai,' 'Lebenya,' and 'Monyake,' together with the Zulu settlers from Natal, forming an aggregate of not less than 15,000 souls, had left the country. The remnant were crushed and humbled. Their aspect was most pitiable. Clothed in ragged skins—many of them nearly naked, black, and emaciated—they seemed the last of human beings. Had it been possible at that time to have at once organised the government, much might have been done which it will now take years to accomplish. The power and prestige of the chiefs were broken, their authority gone, and the Basutos fully expecting and prepared to submit to the abolition of several of those customs which are now, and will prove hereafter, the greatest barriers to civilisation and progress. On the other hand, the generous and liberal policy of the Government, and the debt of gratitude which the Basutos owe to it, will always form a powerful ground of appeal to their feelings, and perhaps after all

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form the strongest claim which could be urged upon them in favour of submission and obedience.

During Mr. Bowker's tenure of office as High Commissioner's Agent, he did little towards introducing the new form of government, his time being chiefly occupied in pacifying the country, re-distributing the inhabitants, and guarding against the possibility of any outbreak by which the newly-concluded peace with the Free State might have been endangered.

The delay which took place in the ratification of the Convention of Aliwal North, and in the formal recognition of the Basutos as British subjects, tended to unsettle the native mind, and to diminish the power and influence of the Government.

Mr. Bowker left Basutoland in 1870, whilst as yet only one magistrate had taken up his appointment, who, aided by the deputy to the High Commissioner's Agent, could do little more than commence the first collection of the hut-tax in 1870.

The judicial functions of government had not yet been in motion, owing to the want of the requisite machinery; and as this state of things continued for more than two years, cases, both civil and criminal, had to get settled for the most part as best they could. It was not to be wondered at, under these circumstances, that the natives should have had recourse to their own chiefs, whose power and prestige had been considerably broken during the war, but who began now to recover their authority with rapid strides. The new laws and regulations promulgated by Sir Philip Wodehouse had, it is true, been circulated amongst the people, and solemnly accepted at general meetings of the tribe; but as there had been no magistrates to give effect to them, they had, to a great extent, remained a dead letter; and comparatively little had been done towards making British rule a reality instead of a name. Such, in a few words, was the state of the country when I took up my appointment in June, 1871.

Shortly after this, the four magistrates having entered office, the real work of governing the Basutos commenced. The first step was to collect the hut-tax, which had been only partially paid the preceding year, and chiefly in grain and stock. The courts were also opened

for judicial business. At first very few Basutos brought their cases before the magistrates, most of them being deterred by fear of the chiefs, who did all in their power, short of open opposition, to prevent them. Strong prejudices also existed in the minds of the people against the magistrates, and these were fostered by the chiefs, who foresaw the loss of their power. The people were taught to believe that the magistrates had come to subvert all their cherished laws and customs. They were told that although the white man might be clever enough in many ways, he could never understand and grasp the merits of a native case as these chiefs could.

Gradually, however, by dint of perseverance and firmness, and by a judicious admixture of forbearance and severity, the magistrates succeeded in winning the confidence of the common people. These began to find out that the Government was their true friend and protector against the arbitrary and unjust acts of their chiefs. Every case which was decided by the magistrates was canvassed, and increased the prestige of the Government. Prejudices began to disappear, and many people openly supported the Government; those who did so prominently being jeered at by the chiefs as 'rebels and turncoats.' Much advantage also resulted from the employment by Government of some of the most active and intelligent of the sons of Moshesh, and from the formation of a native police force.

A new danger now arose, but happily, as it turned out, too late to stay the growth of Government influence. The chiefs finding their power was leaving them, became seriously alarmed, and tried to organise a reactionary movement. Outwardly, this reaction manifested itself by the simultaneous rush of a great many Basutos, at the instigation of the chiefs, to the Diamond-fields, for the purpose of procuring arms and ammunition. It is impossible to say whether this reaction would have resulted in open resistance or not; happily, before it could gather strength, the sudden collapse of the Natal rebellion, and its crushing out before the eyes of the Basutos, convinced them of the futility of resistance. A lesson not less severe than salutary was thus taught them, which will have a most beneficial effect in the future, by showing that the orders of Government must

be obeyed, that no physical difficulties will be sufficient to deter it from punishing the rebels, and that the punishment of such offenders is swift and sure. Thus the disaffected will receive a warning, and the loyal will be confirmed in their feelings of respect for British authority.

This event has done more to place the Government in a firm and commanding position than years of careful administration.

At the present moment a thorough confidence in the Government and its administration of the laws seems to prevail everywhere. As a mark of this, I may adduce the fact that the paramount chief, Letsie, was without difficulty induced to apprehend his own nephew, a young chief named Sekake, who was charged with the crime of murder, but was subsequently convicted of culpable homicide, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment with hard labour.

The chief Masupha has also relieved us of a difficulty by consenting to move into the Berea district as directed.

The revenue is collected without difficulty; crime, especially stock-stealing, is rare; and both chiefs and people submit gladly to the laws. From returns which have been sent in to me by the different magistrates, I find that during the year 1873 only five cases of stealing were reported from the Free State, and in most of these cases the stolen property was recovered before the thefts were reported by the owners. When it is considered that the boundary line common to the Free State and Basutoland extends from the Orange River to the sources of the Caledon, a distance of at least 180 miles, it must be admitted that the Basutos have no longer any right to be called 'a nation of thieves,' which was the title given them by the Free State a few years ago.

Materially as well as politically there has been progress. Where only half-a-dozen small shops once existed, some fifty respectable trading stations have now sprung up, the buildings erected at which give a different aspect to the country. Hundreds of waggons enter Basutoland, and traverse it in every direction, collecting and exporting the grain of the country to the Free State and the Diamond-fields. The production of grain has

greatly increased, the plough having very generally superseded the Kaffir pick. Flocks and herds, which had disappeared from the country during the war, now dot the face of the landscape in every direction. Stone cottages are beginning to supplant the rude native 'hut,' and the Basutos present the general appearance of a thriving and well-ordered people.

The discovery of the Diamond-fields has had a great effect upon the country; money has come into general use, and commerce has been much facilitated and increased thereby.

Commerce and agriculture.

COMMERCE AND AGRICULTURE.—The trade of this territory, one of the principal granaries of the Diamond-fields, has been very largely developed during the past year. In 1872 there were thirty fixed trading stations in the country, a number which, during the past year, has increased to fifty. Merchandise to the value of about 150,000*l.* has been imported into the country during the same period. The exports have been about 2,000 bales of wool, and upwards of 100,000 muids of grain (wheat, mealies, and Kaffir corn), also a considerable number of cattle and horses. The articles which the Basutos obtain from the traders are almost entirely either of British or foreign manufacture, and consequently the colonial revenue must benefit very considerably by the Basuto trade. The revenue collected in 1873 has exceeded that collected in 1872 by 2,953*l.*, as will be seen on reference to the statement of revenue and expenditure for last year, hereunto annexed.

I am afraid that the yield of grain this season will not equal that of the previous one, as the crops have suffered a good deal from want of rain. Nevertheless, larger areas of land are brought under cultivation each year, and consequently the demand for ploughs continues unabated, and the production of grain is annually increasing. Last year the number of ploughs purchased by the Basutos from the traders in Basutoland was six hundred; this has been carefully ascertained from actual returns furnished by the traders themselves.

Social affairs.

SOCIAL AFFAIRS.—I am sorry to say that I have not been able to discover much improvement under this head during the past year, except, of course, in the case

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of native Christians living under the good influences of missionary guidance and instruction. Polygamy, cattle marriages, circumcision, &c., are still carried out by the heathen in all the plenitude of their dark superstitious and savage ceremonies. The only improvement noticeable (and it is not a small one) is the fact that they have given up stock-stealing; that there appears to be an increasing desire to be the happy possessor of a bullock-waggon; that there is a slight improvement in the construction of the native houses and huts, and a considerable increase in the number of those who are taking to wearing European clothes.

It may not be irrelevant to mention here that letter-writing is beginning to form a conspicuous feature of social life in Basutoland, and that the activity of private and business correspondence has been much developed by the establishment of regular weekly posts throughout the country. Since the beginning of 1872, the weight of the mails (both incoming and outgoing) has more than doubled, and the natives are beginning to avail themselves already to a noticeable degree of the facilities of inter-communication thus afforded to those of them (and they are many) who have acquired the art of writing. The proceeds of the sale of postage stamps has advanced from 35*l.* in 1872, to 70*l.* in 1873, an increase which is of course chiefly attributable to the development of trade, though the natives have also, to a small extent, contributed thereto by direct purchases.

Religion.

RELIGION.—The progress of religion amongst the Basutos, and its influence upon their life and conduct, continue to manifest themselves; directly, of course, in the case of those who come into immediate contact with the missionaries, and indirectly, to a certain extent, even amongst the great masses of the heathen population at large. The work of forty years has not left 'The Missionaries of Moshesh' without valuable testimonials which consist, not in elaborate reports to societies at home, but in the religious life and Christian conduct of thousands of natives who would otherwise be enveloped to-day in all the darkness of their primitive heathenism. This work has of course been a gradual and arduous one; and to some it might, at first sight, appear that the results, numerically considered, are

trifling as compared with the extent of the population amongst whom the trial has been made. Such matters, however, are not to be judged by the mere standard of numbers only, though the subjoined statistics are, in my opinion, decidedly encouraging even in that point of view. The *quality* of the work done in the field of religious teaching is of more moment than the *quantity*; and in this respect no missionaries could have been more conscientious and successful than those who have charged themselves with the duty of evangelising the Basutos. To this fact may be attributed, in a great measure, that superior intelligence, spirit of inquiry, desire for improvement, and appreciation of good government which prevails amongst this people more than amongst any other South African tribe, excepting perhaps the Fingoes. And so deeply has the leaven of Christianity penetrated amongst the Basutos that, at least in some of its outward observances, it affects even the raw heathen population to such an extent that none of them are to be found working in their gardens, or travelling the roads, on the Sabbath day—a remarkable circumstance, unparalleled (as far as I am aware) amongst the *heathen* in any other tribe under British rule. The usefulness, therefore, and success of the missionaries in Basutoland, in their special department of labour, cannot well be exaggerated; and I regard them as an eminent source of benefit to the Basutos, as well as to the Government, in this territory: to the Basutos, by elevating the tone of their moral character, and awakening in them a realisation of spiritual life; and to the Government, by laying amongst the people those foundations of honesty, industry, and right judgment, without which the structure of political and social life would be merely an edifice erected upon the sand. I sincerely hope, therefore, that the mission work in this territory may in future continue to meet with the same prosperity which it has enjoyed in the past.

The following statistics are in close approximation to truth for the year 1873. It is not possible to furnish more exact information at the present moment, as the final returns for 1873 will not be completed by the missionaries until the meeting of their annual conference in the month of April next:—

Religious Statistics (approximate) for 1873.

Church members	2,300
Candidates for baptism	1,290
Children in the schools	1,983
Adults baptized during the year	250
Children ditto	180
Marriages celebrated during the year	98
Principal stations	10
Out-stations	45
European Missionaries	15
Native Catechists and Schoolmasters	65
Collections	600*l.*

Education.

EDUCATION.—From what has just been said about the state of religious matters in this territory, and the widespread good which is being wrought thereby upon the Basuto tribe, it will easily be inferred that education, the handmaid of religion, occupies a prominent position in the system adopted by the missionaries. Very fair progress has been made in this department also during the last year. The missionaries, themselves educated men, appreciate the value of education as an antidote to the darkness of heathenism and superstition, and make it a regular practice to devote several hours a day to the instruction both of young and old in such elements of knowledge as are suitable to their respective ages and circumstances. Besides the *general* process of instruction carried on in primary and infant schools at all the stations and outstations in the country, and which are regularly attended by nearly 2,000 children, there are also two important training institutions, established at Morija and Thaba Bosigo, one for boys and the other for girls, which occupy the best attention of some of the most able and experienced of the missionaries, and are meeting with deserved success and appreciation at the hands of the people. In these training schools the standard of education attained is the highest to which the Basutos have as yet been introduced; and while the physical and material improvement of the pupils is ensured by the residentiary system, under which they acquire habits of neatness, order, and cleanliness, their mental and moral condition is proportionately elevated and developed by constant contact with European teachers, by a superior course of studies, and by a complete withdrawal, during the most critical period of

youthful life, from the evil associations and debasing influences of heathenism.

The training school for girls at Thaba Bosigo seems to me a most important and interesting institution, for amongst the Basutos, as amongst other native tribes, the position of women is a very low one; and if a better social status, and proper feelings of self-respect are ever to be attained by them, it can only be by the combined action of religious and educational training, brought to bear first directly upon the women themselves while still young, in some such schools as the one I am now writing about; and, secondly, indirectly, though not less powerfully, upon the male portion of the tribe, through the influence of these women in after life moving amongst them in their various spheres as wives and mothers. It is with no little satisfaction that I find these schools at Thaba Bosigo and at Morija in a flourishing condition, and duly appreciated by the Basutos, as shown by the increasing number of pupils, in consequence of which application has recently been made to Government for an extension of the annual grants in aid. After having directed a good deal of my attention to these training schools, I am strongly convinced of their utility and success, as well as of the efficiency and ability with which they are conducted. In September last I had the pleasure of attending the annual examination of the Morija school, where the neat personal appearance, ready intelligence, and general progress of the boys in all branches of their studies, pleased me much, and went far to confirm in my mind the opinions I have above expressed as to the beneficial effect of such institutions. I regret that the pressure of public business at the time prevented my being able to attend the last annual examination of the Girls' Training School at Thaba Bosigo, which is one of the most promising and interesting schools in the country. Before closing these remarks, I may observe that, recognizing the importance of facilitating to the utmost the education of the natives as the best means of making them honest, peaceful, and industrious, the Government is now engaged in the inauguration of a scheme for the establishment of undenominational schools in Basutoland, which will be extremely useful in supplementing the work of

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the missionaries, and providing a cheap and sound education for those who, from a variety of causes, may be either unable or unwilling to avail themselves of the advantages offered by the mission schools.

In conclusion, under this head it may not perhaps be uninteresting to observe the following facts, collected from statistics kindly placed at my disposal by the missionaries themselves:—

(A.)

No. of Children at School.	No. present at Examination.	No. who can read English.	No. who can read Sesuto.	No. who write on Paper.	No. who write on Slate.	No. who work Simple Rules.	No. in Mental Arithmetic.	No. in Geography.	No. in Bible History.	No. in Recitation.
1983	1631	142	769	191	241	287	505	537	1243	1218

(B.)

No. of books printed in the Sesuto language, purchased by natives during the year 1873:—525 New Testaments, 12 Hymn Books; 84 'Line upon Line;' 820 Spelling Books; 135 Book of Genesis; 159 Book of Isaiah; 405 1st and 2nd Samuel; 367 Pilgrim's Progress.

Financial Affairs.

FINANCIAL AFFAIRS.—But few words need be added under this head. A statement of the revenue and expenditure in Basutoland for the year ended Dec. 31, 1873, is attached to this report, which will speak for itself, and show the rapid development of the public income in this territory since the year 1872, the total receipts in 1872 having been 9,853*l.*, whilst in 1873 they amounted to 12,806*l.*, showing (as before remarked) an increase of 2,953*l.* On the other hand the total expenditure in 1872 was 6,567*l.*, whilst that in 1873 was 6,278*l.*, showing a reduction of 289*l.* The balance on hand on January 1, 1874, to credit of the Basutoland Revenue Account, was 14,955*l.* The revenue, which on my arrival in the country three years ago scarcely amounted to 5,000*l.* a-year, has since then, by the assiduous exertions of the sub-collectors, been

brought up to the not inconsiderable sum of 12,000*l.* a-year (of which 10,000*l.* is hut-tax); and below this amount it is not likely—unless some totally exceptional circumstances arise, such as war or famine—ever to fall again.

In conclusion, it remains only to add that outward events have had comparatively little influence upon the current of Basutoland affairs. The annexation of this territory to the colony in 1871 passed almost unnoticed; but, on the other hand, the sitting of a Parliamentary Commission at Maseru in 1872 awakened considerable interest. The Langalibalele affair is perhaps the only recent event which history will chronicle in Basutoland. The progress of events has been of that slow and gradual character which, though scarcely attracting attention at the time, and unattended by incident, yet effects those remarkable changes which, in their final completion, astonish the observer. Ten years of similar progress will cause such an alteration that those who formerly knew Basutoland will fail to recognize it again.

It gives me much pleasure to be able to say that I have received every assistance and support from the magistrates; and as a proof of the able manner in which they have performed their duties, and the satisfaction they have given the people over whom they are placed, I may mention that I have only had two cases of appeal brought before me as chief magistrate. I have also much pleasure in mentioning the names of 'George,' 'Tsekelo,' and 'Sofonia Moshesh,' who are staunch supporters of the British Government, and continue to give satisfaction in the discharge of their respective duties.

CHARLES D. GRIFFITH.

THE TRANSKEIAN DISTRICTS.

General description.

The Transkeian Districts comprise the whole of the territory extending from the Great Kei and its tributary the Indwe to the western boundary of Natal. Until recently they have been known under the name of Kaffirland Proper, a geographical expression used to distinguish the region from British Kaffraria and the localities within the Cape Colony occupied by Kaffirs. At no time has this territory been politically one and undivided, various native tribes under their respective

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chiefs having parcelled it among themselves from the earliest known period, while within the last ten years portions of it have been given out to Fingoes, Basutos, and Griquas. Lying between the Cape and Natal, it has long been subject to British influence, and in 1875 several of its more important parts were annexed to the Cape Colony by a resolution of the local Legislature. This being the case the term Kaffirland Proper is unsuitable and should give way to a designation more in accordance with facts. In the course of a few years the whole of this territory will be included in either the Cape or Natal, and its various portions will be known as so many divisions of one or other of those colonies.

Area and shape.

The area of the Transkeian Districts taken together is about 16,000 square miles, being almost equal in size to Natal. The shape is that of an irregular parallelogram, the length from east to west being from 150 to 170 miles, and the breadth, from its inland boundary to the sea, varying from 100 to 110 miles.

Boundaries.

The boundaries are well defined. The Indian Ocean washes the south-eastern base-line, while the Drakensberg and Stormberg mountain ranges unite to form the inland frontier towards the north-west; on the western side are the Great Kei and the Indwe, and on the eastern side are the Umtamvuna and the upper waters of the Umzimkulu. The adjacent regions are the Cape Colony on the west, Natal on the east, and British Basutoland on the north. The entire territory is thus hemmed in by the other South African possessions of England. When all the Transkeian districts are annexed, British South Africa, including them, the Cape, Natal, Griqualand West, and Namaqualand, will form a compact and continuous whole, curving round from Walvisch Bay, on the Atlantic, to the Tugela, on the Indian Ocean, and having an unbroken coast-line of nearly 2,000 miles.

Natural features.

This territory is one of the finest in South Africa with respect to natural features and productive capability. The mountain range at its back rises, at its north-eastern point, to an elevation of 9,657 feet, and is along its whole length of considerable height. From this grand eminence the land slopes down gradually by a hundred miles of grass, forest, and bush to the sands on which the surf of the Indian Ocean perpetually beats. It is watered by a hundred streams, some of which are

rivers of magnitude. The Kei, the Bashee, the Umtata, the Umzimvubu, the Umtamvuna, and the Umzimkulu are to be classed with the secondary rivers of South Africa. The most considerable of them is the Umzimvubu, which rises at the Giant Kop, receives numerous tributaries from east and west, and after a course little short in all its wanderings of 250 miles flows into the sea by a mouth which is navigable for small vessels. The gorges of the Stormberg and Drakensberg are full of fine trees, the uplands are rich in grass, the banks of the rivers bear a thick growth of forest and bush, and the warm lowlands and valleys are favourable to almost any kind of fruit, field, and garden cultivation. The country of the Amapondo is singularly fine. There the grasses grow so luxuriantly as to overtop the head of a tall man, and soil and climate are such as to favour the growth of tropical plants. It is there also that copper has been found, while indications of coal are met with in several places. In the broken land of the north-eastern angle of this part of South Africa lions find cover, and if game is not plentiful it is not scarce. Where the land is occupied cattle and sheep are numerous. Some districts are populous, Kaffirs, Fingoes, Basutos, Griquas, Zulus, Hottentots, and Bushmen giving variety and interest to the human element. There are but few white men in any part of the Transkeian districts, and they are mostly officials, missionaries, and traders. At present this region is without bridges and almost without roads. Although it is undergoing important changes, it is still the land of the Kaffirs—wild and strange. It is the most romantic part of South Africa, and is well worthy a visit from those who may wish to have a glimpse at African native life and yet have no ambition to be explorers. A short and agreeable voyage of little more than three weeks in well-appointed steamers would place a traveller at the very threshold of a country in which the natural man and the untamed wilderness are to be seen in any glory that may belong to them. It is somewhat to be wondered at that the home of the Kaffirs has not long ago become a favourite resort for those who can spare three months for a holiday.

Minerals.

Animals.

As no enumeration of the entire population has been made, an estimate can only be given. In the opinion

Population.

TRANSKEIAN DISTRICTS

of some the various peoples taken together exceed half a million. Others consider four hundred thousand to be an over-estimate. The following figures are from an official source :—

Fingoland	45,000
Idutwya Reserve	18,000
Gcalekas (Kreli)	60,000
Bomvani	20,000
Tambookies	70,000
Pondos	200,000
Pondomise, Bacas, &c. . .	30,000
Griquas and Basutos . . .	32,000
Total	475,000

The Pondos, Tambookies, and Gcalekas are credited in this table with the largest numbers, and it is exactly of these three tribes that there is no complete census.

Political Divisions.

Politically the various parts of this territory may be arranged under two designations: (1) The Districts annexed to the Cape Colony, and (2) The Independent Districts.

The Districts annexed to the Cape are—

1. Fingoland.
2. Idutwya Reserve.
3. Emigrant Tambookieland.
4. Tambookieland.
5. Nomansland.
6. Gcalekaland.
7. Bomvaniland.

The Independent districts are—

1. Pondoland under Damas.
2. Pondoland under Umgikela.

The Annexed Districts.

Fingoland.

1. Fingoland.—This District is sometimes called 'The Transkeian Territory.' It is the most advanced of the whole group to which it belongs, and promises to retain the lead which favourable circumstances have given to it. It is about forty miles square, and projects eastward from the Great Kei a little more than half

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way to the Bashee. The Great Kei separates it from the Cape Divisions of King Williamstown and Queenstown; on the north and west it has the Emigrant Tambookies, on the south the country of the Gcalekas under Kreli, and on the east Tambookieland and the Idutwya Reserve. It is a grass country, suitable for pasture and cultivation. It is watered by the Kei and some of its tributaries, especially the Tsomo.

The Fingoes.

This district is now inhabited by Fingoes, a people having a singular history. In the early part of this century they were driven westward by the Zulus under Chaka, and were enslaved by the Gcalekas, at that time in possession of the whole of the country along the eastern bank of the Kei. Their sufferings were great. Called in contempt 'Fingoes,' or dogs, as the name implies, they were treated as such by their Kaffir masters. In 1834 they appealed to the Colonial authorities, and not long after they were removed by the British Government into the Colony, where they were settled at Peddie and other places. Under protection they flourished and increased until they, their flocks and herds, needed more room. In 1858 their former masters, the Gcalekas, having through misconduct been driven from their territory, there was an area of unoccupied land east of the Kei, and after an unsuccessful attempt to secure it for European occupation it was decided by the British Government that a portion of the vacant land should be awarded to the Fingoes. Accordingly several thousands of that people were removed back again as owners into the land from which twenty-three years before they had marched as liberated slaves. They were placed under the guidance of an English magistrate, and were considered to be British subjects in British territory; but it was only in 1875 that they and their lands were formally annexed by resolution of the Colonial Parliament to the Cape. Under Captain Blyth the Fingoes have thriven well, increased their numbers, and added to their possessions. The Gcalekas, their old owners and taskmasters, are narrowed into a small district immediately to the south, and it is considered that the neighbourhood of these peoples, still animated by the aversion caused by their former relationship, is a defence to the Colony. The Fingoes, it is supposed, are a protection against the Kaffirs.

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The present population may be estimated at 45,000. The census return of 1874 gave the following numbers—

Population.

Married men	6,494
„ women	8,218
Unmarried men	2,585
„ women	3,672
Boys	11,891
Girls	11,111
Total	43,971

Character.

The Fingoes are an acquisitive people, and show an aptitude for industry. They cultivate largely, and grow wheat, oats, Kaffir corn, mealies, and various vegetables.

Live stock.

The following is the latest published return of stock and other property possessed by them :—

Waggons	439, valued at	£8,780
Ploughs	1,935 „	4,837
Horses	4,976 „	24,880
Calves	37,298 „	186,490
Sheep	182,869 „	91,435
Goats	50,240 „	5,362
Total		£321,784

Trade.

There are forty-five trading stations in Fingoland, and transactions in wool and English merchandise are numerous. It is estimated that the annual value of the import and export trade is over 150,000*l.* per annum. Roads and a bridge over the Kei would double these figures in a few years. The principal revenue is from the hut tax, and is now about 4,000*l.* a year.

Missions.

The Church of England, the Wesleyans, the United Presbyterians, and Free Church of Scotland have mission stations in Fingoland, and there are forty-six schools in the district, nineteen Wesleyan, fourteen Church of England, eight United Presbyterian, and five Free Church of Scotland. The number of children in attendance exceeds 2,000. An Industrial School is about to be established under the Free Church of Scotland, and 1,500*l.* has been subscribed towards the object by the Fingoes themselves. Agricultural shows are held every year, at which prizes are given. Many hundreds of Fingoes go to the Colonial towns, farms, and public works as labourers.

It will be gathered from the foregoing statements

that the Fingoes have made some approach to civilization. As additional evidence the following passage from the letter of a recent visitor to Fingoland may be quoted :—

Testimony of a visitor.

'We then rode across country to pay a visit to Veldtman, the much respected Fingo headman, and here was an amount of civilization which one could hardly have expected. Veldtman's house is a well-built brick building, very similar to the modern farmer's house, with sod-wall enclosure, stable, &c. On our approach the drum and fife band formed up at the entrance and played "God save the Queen;" after which they formed up in front of Veldtman's verandah and played many popular airs, such as "Garryowen," "St. Patrick's Day," "So Early in the Morning," and others, about ten altogether, finishing with "God save the Queen." They play remarkably well, and keep excellent time. The band consisted of Mr. Theodore—the school and band master—who plays the fife, one boy carrying the Union Jack, twelve fifers, four side-drummers, one big drummer, cymbal, and one triangle. They varied in age from four to thirteen years, and the elder boys, who play brass instruments as well as fifes, are away at Lovedale. They wear a very pretty uniform, consisting of red cap and yellow band, white jacket, corduroy trowsers, black and white belts, and coloured sashes. There is a church, which the schoolmaster informed us is always well attended, and two schools, at which sixty girls and fifty boys are under instruction. Veldtman's house is furnished in European style, and nothing can exceed his courtesy and hospitality. His son played very nicely to us on a harmonium, which had been given to him by Mr. Saul Solomon, of Capetown.'

Magistracy.

Capt. Blyth, to whom much of the forward condition of the Fingoes is due, after a successful magisterial rule of several years, has been promoted to the Commissionership of Nomansland; and has been succeeded by Mr. Levy, whose experience of official duties in Fingoland fits him for the position.

Emigrant Tambookies.

2. The District of the Emigrant Tambookies.— This is a strip of land to the west and north of Fingoland, separated from the Colonial divisions of Queenstown and Wodehouse by the river Indwe and a part of the Stormberg Range, and having Tambookie-

TRANSKEIAN DISTRICTS

Products.

land and Fingoland on the east. It is about 85 miles long and 20 miles broad. The upper waters of the Tsomo pass through it. It is rich in wood as well as in grass and land fit for cultivation. Sawyers, mostly natives, are constantly at work in its forests, and the whole of the Colonial districts to the north are supplied with timber from this quarter. Wool, wheat, oats, and Kaffir corn, as well as wood, are amongst its products.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants of the district are various sections of the great Tambookie tribe, the eldest branch of the Kaffir race. They are designated 'Emigrant Tambookies,' because some years ago they removed, under the direction of the British Government, over the Indwe into the land they now occupy. Several petty chiefs are acknowledged as having some authority, but the British Agent has general jurisdiction throughout the district.

Trade and live stock.

The population is about 40,000. There are 76 shops or stores, six mission stations in chief, several substations, and numerous schools. The following is the official return of the number of the people, stock, and other possessions of the district for 1875:—

Men	6,997	Sheep	84,201
Women	15,484	Goats	47,300
Children	17,597	Guns	1,299
Horses	5,348	Waggons	107
Cattle	38,749	Ploughs	898

Mr. Fynn has for some time been the Agent in residence in this district, but a change has recently been made in the appointment.

Idutwya Reserve.

3. IDUTWYA RESERVE.—This district has a small area of about 25 miles square. It is situated immediately to the east of Fingoland, which forms its western boundary. On the north and east is Tambookieland Proper, from which it is separated by the Bashee. To the south lies Gcalekaland, the territory subject to Kreli. This was formerly a part of Kreli's possession, but when that chief was expelled in 1858 it was peopled with those Kaffirs from the King Williamstown and East London divisions who, under Colonel Gawler, had assisted in clearing the country. It has long been under the magistracy of Mr. Cumming.

Population and live stock.

The population is estimated to be at present close upon 18,000. In 1874 it was 16,587. The following are the census returns taken in that year:—

Married men	2,517
,, women	3,494
Single men	759
,, women	916
Boys	4,591
Girls	4,310
Total	16,587

Waggons	46	Sheep	51,302
Ploughs	501	Goats	14,909
Horses	2,514	Guns	420
Cattle	17,695		

The hut tax of this district is about 1,700*l*. The Idutwya Reserve was included within the Cape Colony by resolution of the local Parliament in 1875.

Tambookieland Proper.

4. TAMBOOKIELAND PROPER.—This is a fine tract of country, about 75 miles in length from north to south, its breadth varying from 40 miles in its upper portion to 30 in its lower. It is bounded on the north by an overlapping section of Emigrant Tambookieland, on the west by the River Bashee, which separates it from Emigrant Tambookieland, Fingoland and the Idutwya Reserve; on the south by the territory of the Bomvanis, and on the east by the River Umtata, which divides it from the Pondomise section of Nomansland and Pondoland.

Natural features.

It is a district of excellent natural capabilities, and is admirably suited for grazing and cultivation. Its northern half is abundantly watered by the numerous tributaries of the Bashee, and in some parts it is well wooded.

Tambookies.

The country is occupied by the Tambookie clan, acknowledging Gangelezwi as their chief. They were brought under British rule and the district was virtually annexed to the Cape Colony early in 1876. As no census has been as yet taken it is impossible to give the population. As, however, when the Tambookies had to take the field against Kreli a short time ago there were not less than 6,000 fighting men at the muster, it is reasonable to suppose that there are at least 30,000 people in the district. As many of this tribe are accustomed to take service in the Colonial settlements for lengthy periods and then return with their gains, there is a good deal of wealth in the land. The district is remarkably well off for cattle. Shops are numerous, and some of them are well supplied with merchandise. On

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one station alone the stocks are estimated at 25,000*l*. Wool is produced in large quantities, and cultivation by ploughs is largely on the increase. There are several mission stations, the Church of England having two, the Wesleyans one, and the Moravians two.

Mr. Wright has been for some time British Resident, and is now Magistrate in Chief. The district is to be divided into three sections, each one of which will have its magistrate.

Nomansland.

5. NOMANSLAND.—It can scarcely be considered that this is a desirable designation for the large tract of country to which it is applied, occupied as it is by various peoples now acknowledging the sovereignty of Her Majesty as exercised through the Cape Government. Thirty or forty years ago the country was but sparsely occupied, and without any well-established authority. For a time Faku, the chief of the Amaponda tribe, was considered to be paramount, but exercised but little authority over the vagrant bands which found their way into it. In 1862 he ceded his right to the High Commissioner at the Cape, who proceeded to parcel out the unoccupied portion amongst Adam Kok's Griquas, Basutos, and Fingoes, the occupied portion being possessed by Pondomises, Bacas, and Xesibes. For some time these tribes were allowed to govern themselves, without being controlled even by a British Resident. In 1876, however, the various peoples having desired the change, the whole territory was annexed by resolution of Parliament to the Cape Colony, and Capt. Blyth, long the Fingo Agent, has been appointed chief magistrate. Probably the district will be divided into several magistracies.

Size and boundaries.

Taking this district as a whole it is by far the largest of the annexed portions of Kaffirland, its length being from east to west about 125 miles, and its breadth increasing gradually from 40 to 75 miles. It is bounded on the north by the Qathlamba Range, which divides it from Basutoland and the Wodehouse district, on the south by Amapondoland and Natal, on the west by the river Umtata, which separates it from Tambookieland Proper, and on the east by the river Umzimkulu, which separates it from Natal.

Natural features.

The upper portion of this district is mountainous, and its whole breadth is traversed by the numerous

feeders of the Umzimvubu and Umzimkulu rivers. Wood is to be found in the gorges of the Drakensberg. The uplands bear a sour grass, but are not unsuitable to corn; while the southern part is fruitful and attractive.

Inhabitants.

The different occupants of this region are the Pondomise, near to Tambookieland; Basutos and Fingoes, along the foot of the Kathlamba Range; the Bacas, Griquas, and petty tribes in the south-eastern part, adjacent to Pondoland and Natal. The most remarkable of these native settlements is Griqualand East.

Griqualand East.

Griqualand East is that part of Nomansland which subsequently to the cession in 1862 was allotted to Adam Kok's people, who removed from Philippolis, now a part of the Free State, and to the Basutos, who had previously migrated into the country under Nehemiah Moshesh.

The Griquas.

The Griquas are a mixed people, the descendants of Hottentots, slaves, and Europeans, dating in origin from the Dutch period of Cape rule. Another branch of the family, under the Chief Waterboer, still remains in a former location near the Vaal and Orange rivers, and lately ceded to England the Diamond Fields, now known as the Crown Colony of Griqualand West. Griqualand East is that part of Nomansland which borders on Natal and Pondoland under Umgikila. In the part occupied by the Griquas wheat is grown in considerable quantities, and the natives occupying the western portion are Basutos in good circumstances, as the *veld* is studded with herds of cattle, sheep, and goats. The total population is said to be 31,901; and the following is the return of stock and property made in 1875:—

Population and live stock.

Cattle	69,139	Pigs	3,429
Horses	6,223	Waggons	183
Sheep	47,754	Ploughs	947
Goats	40,124	Guns	2,024

The following is a return of population, stock, and property, taken in 1875, for the other tribes of Nomansland:—

Population	30,440	Pigs	1,429
Cattle	42,058	Waggons	30
Horses	6,380	Ploughs	400
Sheep	42,918	Guns	1,818
Goats	27,035		

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The people, with the chiefs Lebana, Lebenya, and Ziba, under the mountains, are great corn producers. Coal has been found above the ford of Tol River, in the Gatberg district, and there are indications also at the ford of the Ulwzi and near the sources of the Umzimvubu. There are several mission stations in Nomansland.

Coal.

Gcaleka-land.

6. GCALEKALAND.—This is the territory of the Gcalekas, the Amaxosa Kaffirs, under Kreli, the most formidable of all the Kaffir chiefs. It is situated on the seaboard, having the Great Kei on the south-west, separating it from the Cape Colony; the Bashee, on the north-east, separating it from Bomvaniland; to the north-west it has Fingoland and the Idutwya Reserve; and on the south, or more strictly south-east, lies the Indian Ocean. It is about fifty miles long by thirty broad.

The population is estimated at 60,000. The Gcalekas are the most warlike of the natives within or about the Cape, and their chief, Kreli, is a leader of much ability. He and his tribe are the objects of some anxiety, on account of their history, and also because they are limited to a small part of what was once their territory, and consider themselves to be overcrowded. It is, however, only by the favour of the British Government that they are in possession of the land they occupy. In 1858 they were on account of their misconduct driven over the Bashee and formally dispossessed of their entire territory, but were allowed to return to the part they now occupy as a matter of grace.

Products.

The country is suitable for cattle, and some parts of it for sheep. It has fair agricultural capabilities, and has a good deal of timber. In 1874 about 300 bales of wool were sold to the traders, together with a large quantity of tobacco. Ploughs are much sought after, and a consequent increase in cultivation is reported. It has twelve trading stations, two missions, and six schools. Although Kreli is an independent chief the British Government has placed with him a Resident, Mr. James Ayliff, an officer of great experience in native affairs.

7. BOMVANILAND.—This territory, occupied chiefly by the Amabomvani, under the chief Moni, who acknow-

ledges Kreli as paramount chief, is of small size, being little more than thirty miles by twenty. It is immediately north-east of Gcalekaland, from which it is separated by the Bashee. Its inland boundary is Tambookieland; the Umtata is on its northern and the Indian Ocean on its southern side. Its population is estimated at 20,000. As there is no British Agent in the country it has not been made the subject of report. Bomvaniland.

Independent District.

Pondoland.—This native territory is about sixty miles square. Having the Indian Ocean on its south-eastern side, it is bounded on the south-west by the river Umzimvubu, on the north-east by the river Umtamvuna, separating it from Natal, and on the north-west by Nomansland. Pondoland.

It is inhabited by the Amapondos, numbering, according to a rough estimate, 200,000 souls. The Umzimvubu, by far the largest river in the Transkeian districts, separates the territory from Bomvaniland. The country is under the paramount chief Umgikela, great son of the famous Faku.

As there are no census returns for this territory it is impossible to give an accurate description of any of its conditions. The country is, however, noted for its fertility and beauty. In the upper part sweet grass, fit for sheep and cattle, abounds, and towards the coast the soil and climate are said to be suitable to cotton, sugar, and coffee. Natural features.

The Umzimvubu, sometimes called the St. John's, is navigable at its mouth, and is the only river for a distance of nearly a hundred miles on each side of it of which this can be said. It is true that at present only vessels of a very small draught can enter, but the possibility of using the mouth of the St. John's at all suggests the further possibility of improvement. The Cape Government are endeavouring to obtain some authority over the port, but up to the present the Pondo chief has resisted all endeavours even to bring it under customs regulations. Still a small coasting trade is carried on. The channel is good for vessels not drawing over seven feet of water from December to July inclu- The St. John's.

TRANSKEIAN DISTRICTS

sive. From August to November the channel narrows and runs in a zig-zag course to the westward. From March 1846 to November 1874 twenty-eight vessels, from 20 to 91 tons, entered and left, the total tonnage being 1,052. With proper customs arrangements, some engineering, and fair attention to inland communications, the St. John's mouth would become a thriving coasting harbour, as the country at its back to the Drakenberg is one of the finest parts of South Africa, and could be made highly productive; and the Umzimvubu and its tributaries have about them nearly a quarter of a million of people gradually, if slowly, acquiring habits of industry and learning some of the wants of civilization.

The Recent Western Annexations.

Western annexations.

The Legislature of the Cape of Good Hope has lately authorised preliminary measures towards the annexation of the territory on the Atlantic seaboard north of the Orange River to Walvisch Bay, latitude 23° S., including the district commonly known as Great Namaqualand; and Mr. Palgrave has been commissioned to proceed to Damaraland to ascertain the views of the people of that country with reference to a still further extension of the Colonial boundary and jurisdiction. The present use of Walvisch Bay by persons engaged in the sale of arms and ammunition to the natives renders it desirable that it should be brought under the customs regulations and general control of the Cape Government. The inland boundary of the territory to be annexed has not yet been defined. Great Namaqualand is not naturally an attractive country, but it may be found to possess some mineral wealth.

GRIQUALAND WEST.

The Diamond Fields.

GRIQUALAND WEST AND DIAMOND FIELDS

History.

Griqualand West is the youngest and smallest of the three British possessions in South Africa. It has recently been formally annexed to Cape Colony, but for the present the inhabitants seem indisposed to recognise the validity of the act. Previously to the discovery of diamonds within its boundaries it was but little considered on any account, and can scarcely be said to have been known to politics or geography. When, in 1868, it was found to be rich in the most precious of all gems, it became an object of interest, and several claims to its possession were asserted. Amongst the claimants were the Free State and Waterboer, the chief of the Griquas. In 1871 Waterboer ceded all his rights to the British Government, and after some delay the High Commissioner, as the representative of Her Majesty, proclaimed the territory, from that time known as Griqualand West, to be a part of the British Empire. The Free State continued to maintain its claim to a portion of this territory until July 1876, when it relinquished its claim for a money consideration of about 90,000*l.*

Boundaries.

The boundaries of the colony are—on the south, the Orange River, from Ramah to Keis; on the east, a slightly curved line from Ramah to the Plaattberg, passing through David's Grave, near the junction of the Reit with the Modder; on the north, by a line from the Plaattberg through the Vaal and the Hart; and on the west by the Langeberg range, which overlooks the southern part of the Kalahari Desert. In size Griqualand West is about 150 miles from east to west and 100 from north to south.

Government.

It is at present governed by an Administrator, assisted by a small Council, composed partly of officials

GRIQUALAND WEST AND DIAMOND FIELDS

and partly of elected members. Its Law Courts are presided over by a Recorder. Its revenue, chiefly derived from claim and stand licences, is about 70,000*l.*, which is also about the amount of the expenditure. The Government have bought the farm on which the Kimberley mine is situated, at a cost of 100,000*l.* The population is estimated at 15,000 white persons, 10,000 coloured, and 20,000 native labourers from the interior. Most of the inhabitants are centred about the Kimberley mine, which is probably the richest diamond mine in the world.

Value of diamonds.

It is believed that diamonds to the value of 2,000,000*l.* or 3,000,000*l.* are annually found at Kimberley and its neighbouring diggings, and that the value of produce and merchandise brought to the province and chiefly sold at Kimberley is 2,500,000*l.* a year. These figures are from the dispatches of Lieut.-Governor Southey. Some parts of Griqualand West are well adapted to farming.

Diamond-digging.

As diamond-digging is the great feature of Griqualand West, the rest of this section of the Handbook will be devoted to that remarkable industry.*

Discovery of diamonds.

History of first diamond.

The first diamond discovered in South Africa was found in the Hope Town Division, Cape Colony, in the year 1867, by one of the children of a Dutch farmer named Jacobs, who allowed it to be used as a plaything, and had no idea of its value. Mr. Schalk van Niekerk, happening to call, observed that it was a peculiar-looking stone, which weighed heavier than an ordinary pebble. He offered to purchase it from Mrs. Jacobs, but she, it is said, laughed at the idea of selling a stone, and told him he could have it for nothing. It was then handed to Mr. O'Reilly and taken to Cape Town; but the idea of its being a diamond was so much scouted that he nearly threw it away. Thence it was conveyed to Colesberg, and as some people recommended that it should be sent to Dr. Atherstone, Graham's Town, it was forwarded to that gentleman, who set doubt at rest by surprising the colony with the information that it was indeed a diamond. This stone weighs twenty-one

* For this historical sketch of the Diamond Fields, the publishers are largely indebted to an admirably compiled local Directory, published by Messrs. Saul Solomon & Co., of Cape Town.

and three-sixteenth carats, and was sold to his Excellency Sir P. E. Wodehouse for £500. Natives and Europeans immediately commenced to search, and the result was that a second diamond was shortly afterwards discovered by Mr. Duvenhage, at 'Paardekloof,' along the Orange River, in the Hope Town division. This is a beautiful stone, eight and thirteen-sixteenth carats, purchased by his Excellency the Governor. Then followed the third, found by a native along the Vaal River, weight four and a-half carats. No. 4 was found by Mr. H. Bedizenhout, on Mr. Cloete's farm 'Mark Drift,' Hope Town division, weight one and a-half carats, and of a greenish colour, and defective in shape. But it would be tedious to describe every one; suffice it to say that out of the first twenty diamonds discovered six were found in the division of Hope Town, Cape Colony, and ten near the Vaal River or along its borders. One diamond, weighing two carats, and of first water, was found by a Griqua in Waterboer's country. A Bechuana picked up one of a milky colour (three carats) along the Riet River, in October, 1868, and two were brought in by a trader from beyond the Orange River. Nos. 11 and 17, both of which were found beyond the Vaal River, are very brilliant and of peculiarly good shape; the former weighs nine carats and the latter four. Diamonds continued to be searched for so successfully that newly-discovered gems formed the subject of constant paragraphs in the colonial papers. Mr. Louis Hond, writing from Hope Town, in March, 1869, gives a list of ten diamonds seen by him in possession of the Kaffir Chief Sebonell, all found on the Vaal River, and it was in this month that the 'Star of South Africa' was sold. Many great diamonds have romantic legends connected with them, and our 'Star' is no exception. It was a considerable time in the possession of a Kaffir witch-doctor, and was therefore present at many incantations and mystic rites, but avarice conquered superstition, and its owner was at last induced to sell it to Mr. Schalk van Niekerk, who took it to Hope Town, and disposed of it there to Messrs. Lilienfeld Brothers for, we believe, £11,200. This beautiful gem weighs eighty-three and a-half carats, and being of first water, will, after it is cut, be one of the finest class of brilliants. It is of an

Second and third diamonds.

Increase in number.

The 'Star of South Africa.'

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irregular shape, and about the size of a small walnut. Shortly after the purchase, an interdict forbidding its exportation or sale was obtained from one of the Judges of the Eastern Districts Court, at the suit of several gentlemen who had purchased the royalty rights of the Chief Waterboer, and stated that the 'Star of South Africa' had been found in his territory. When the case came before the Supreme Court, conflicting evidence was adduced, the finder testifying that it was picked up in the colony, and the embargo claimed was refused with costs. Subsequently the 'Star' was visited by crowds, both in Port Elizabeth and Cape Town, whence it was forwarded to England.

Litigation arising.

Mr. Gregory's search.

News of these discoveries having reached England, Mr. Harry Emmanuel, a London dealer in diamonds, despatched a Mr. Gregory to South Africa to make enquiries as to their reality. This gentleman made an examination of the geological features of some parts of the country; and on his return to England reported, at first in private and in speeches, but subsequently in a paper published in the 'Geological Magazine,' that 'the whole diamond discovery in South Africa is an imposture—a bubble scheme.' When the news of this reached the colony, several gentlemen exposed Mr. Gregory's erroneous statements, and none more successfully than W. B. Chalmers, Esq., at that time Civil Commissioner and Resident Magistrate of Hope Town, who, in a letter to the 'Journal,' gave such particulars of a large number of diamonds that had passed through his own hands as to place the matter beyond all doubt.

The rush to the fields.

In the earlier part of 1870 the number of diamonds found was so considerable that it attracted the attention of the inhabitants of the various colonies and republics in South Africa. Gradually a 'rush' set in from all quarters, and the banks of the Vaal in a few months became covered with thousands of busy diggers.

Dry diggings at Du Toit's Pan and Bultfontein.

At the beginning of 1872 diamond digging underwent a great change, in the concentration of almost the whole of the digging population on the dry diggings of Du Toit's Pan and neighbouring camps, as distinguished from the diggings on the banks of the Vaal River. At the close of 1871, Pniel, Cawood's Hope and Robinson's on the southern bank, and Hebron and Gong-Gong on

the northern bank of the above-named stream, were the spots to which nineteen-twentieths of the intending diggers directed their attention. Du Toit's Pan and Bultfontein, lying twenty-five miles to the south-east of Pniel and the river, were indeed known to be productive of diamonds, and some two or three hundred Dutch farmers, together with a few Englishmen, had obtained permission of the owner, Van Wyk, to dig on the farm,—a privilege for which he charged them a fee of about ten shillings each. But their digging consisted merely of surface scratching, and the diamonds found were for the most part small and of inferior quality. It was, indeed, generally believed that to dig to any depth below the surface would prove utterly useless, and so insignificant were these dry diggings deemed that when Du Toit's Pan was mentioned by the river diggers it was in a tone of contempt, and pity for those weak enough to remain there was very freely evinced. But a marvellous change was at hand. About the month of April the farm was purchased by the Hope Town Diamond Company (already the purchasers of the adjoining farm, Bultfontein), represented by Messrs. Hond and Webb, who immediately took steps to close this digging to the general public. But unfortunately for the new proprietors, though very fortunately for the diggers, it happened just at this time that a few of those at work on the farm had determined to give deep digging a trial, and their success was so marked that the example was at once followed by every digger on the kopje. The result of this step was speedily shown in the discovery of a very large number of diamonds of great weight. These 'finds' were published in the 'Diamond News,' at Pniel, and in this and other ways the newly-discovered richness of this 'dry digging' became known throughout the length and breadth of the camps. Immediately there was an unprecedented rush to this spot; the success of new comers was great; and in less than two months the river diggings were emptied of more than three-fourths of their population, and the number assembled at Du Toit's Pan exceeded 20,000. Compelled, against their will, to yield to the pressure of numbers, the proprietors, after several vain attempts to carry out their original intention, reluctantly threw open to the public both Du Toit's Pan and Bult-

fontein at a monthly charge of ten shillings per claim of thirty feet square. Those who held claims on the Du Toit's Pan Kopje under licence from the former proprietor, Van Wyk, were exonerated from any future payment of licence thereon, and this privilege still adheres to the claims in question, even though they change hands. Thus the purchaser of what is termed an 'old briefje' claim on the Du Toit's Pan Kopje has no monthly licence to pay thereon.

About this time the proprietors purchased Alexandersfontein, a farm adjoining Bultfontein, and opened that also to the public. The diggings on these two farms are conjoined, and form one kopje, separated from that of Du Toit's Pan by a short valley of depression in the ground, and the celebrated Pan from which the last-named place has derived its name. This Pan, when full after rain, forms a very large shallow pond, about a quarter of a mile in diameter. The water, however, soon disappears, and the dry bed presents an unbroken surface of sand. The Pan forms the only reservoir for the drainage of the surrounding country, and particularly of the two diamond-bearing kopjes in its immediate vicinity, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that, in the course of former years, many of the small surface diamonds for which these kopjes were in the outset remarkable must have washed down into the Pan, and are now imbedded in the sand of the basin. As yet, however, no attempt that we are aware of has been made to test this.

De Beer's.

Just about the time that the rush to Du Toit's Pan took place, a neighbouring farm belonging to one De Beer was found to possess a diamond-bearing kopje. The proprietor would at first permit only a few of his friends to work thereon, reserving to himself a royalty of 25 per cent. on the value of all finds. These were registered, and the valuation was made by the proprietor himself, who, however, protected the diggers from exorbitant charges by a stipulation that he should be compelled to purchase any diamond at the value fixed upon it by himself if the digger finding it so desired. During the first three months, and with only a few at work on the kopje, the diamonds registered as above were no less than 1,500—clearly foreshadowing the rich finds which took place on this kopje when, a little later, a law passed

by the Free State Government (then in possession of the territory in question) threw all diamond-bearing localities open to the public. The first kopje opened on De Beer's farm, though limited in extent, proved richer in proportion than those of Du Toit's Pan or Bultfontein, but one still richer remained to be discovered. Towards the end of July a rush took place to a kopje on the same farm (De Beer's), about a mile from the old camp. The ground was speedily taken up, and the unequalled richness of the digging very quickly exhibited itself. So much so, that claims and portions of claims soon changed hands at enormous prices—as much as 1,000*l.* having been given for half a claim, or fifteen feet square. A perfect mania for claims at this new ground, or, as it was termed, 'Colesberg' or New Rush, was established, and at the present time a much larger number of persons may be seen at work at this spot than have yet been located on any similar area throughout the diggings. The farm has since been purchased by Messrs. Ebden, Christian, and Jones, of Port Elizabeth, and subsequently bought by the Griqualand West Government for 100,000*l.* Since the opening of this mine, there have been several false rushes to various spots in the neighbourhood.

The New Rush.

Having now given a slight sketch of the history of diamond-digging for the past year we must add a few words for the information of intending diggers, with reference to the nature of the work and the conditions of life on the fields.

The Work.—At the river diggings the work is more laborious and costly, as well as more tedious than it is at the dry diggings. The precious gems are for the most part imbedded amongst huge boulders, the removal of which is a matter both of time and labour. Then, also, the gravel has to be carted down to the river, and then washed in a cradle, previous to sorting, or it is washed in tubs on the claims—the water being daily carried from the river for the purpose. The implements required for the work are picks and shovels in proportion to the strength of the party, a cradle, and a sorting table. The two latter can usually be obtained to better advantage on the fields than elsewhere. Picks and shovels can generally be purchased considerably cheaper at the sea-ports than on the fields, and if

Diggings.

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the intending digger's mode of travelling permits of his carrying such tools we should advise him to do so. So, also, with the tent and cooking utensils.

Dry-diggings.

For dry-digging the same implements as above mentioned are necessary, with the exception of the cradle, in lieu of which the digger has to provide himself with a double sieve of coarse and fine mesh wire, or perforated zinc, the former preferred. These also will be best obtained on the fields, and, excepting when wove wire runs short in the camp, are reasonable in price, viz., about 22*s.* 6*d.* the pair. In working, the stuff extracted from the claim—a lime-like substance, varying in colour from white to a sort of reddish-green—is in the first place broken as small as possible with the flat of the shovel, and then thrown into the coarse sieve. This latter rests on a ledge inside and above the finer sieve, which is fully twice as large, viz., about four feet by two feet. The upper sieve retains all the large stones, or lumps, which are forthwith thrown on one side as rubbish, whilst the lower sieve conserves all that is considered worth sorting, and this is then turned on to the sorting-table. As a rule, two men can dig out and sieve enough to keep two others steadily sorting all day. This, of course, could not be done at the river diggings.

Native labour.

Native labour can usually be obtained on the fields, though sometimes, and more particularly in winter, with some difficulty and at considerable expense. It is by far the best plan for the digger to take such natives as he may require with him from the colony, if he can manage to do so. Wages on the fields vary from 7*s.* per week with food, to 15*s.* without food. This, of course, refers only to native servants. A fair average of these may be considered honest, and may safely be trusted in the claim by themselves. Many instances of dishonesty on the part of such servants have been discovered, but they have been severely punished by the authorities, and are not, on the whole, as numerous as might be expected.

Life on the Fields.

Life on the Fields.—It may with safety be asserted that the climate of the South African diamond-fields is one of the finest and most healthy in the world. Even on the dry diggings, with the prevailing scarcity of water, and in the absence of thorough sanitary arrange-

ments, the diggers, as a rule, enjoy the best of health. The quantity of white dust inhaled daily by the individual digger must be very great, yet so far as present experience goes it has no deleterious effect upon the body. During the summer months, a kind of low, intermittent fever attacks many—chiefly those who have not been accustomed to work much in open air or under a hot sun, but though exceedingly weakening, it rarely proves fatal. As hot canvas tents give place to cool houses built of masonry, we believe that this fever will disappear.

The digger's fare.

The digger's fare is simple. Meat is plentiful, good, and comparatively cheap. Vegetables are, as yet, exceedingly scarce and dear. During the past year potatoes have frequently been as high as 50*s*. per bag, and cabbages have been sold on the Du Toit's Pan market at the rate of 5*s*. per head. There are signs, however, that the Dutch farmers in the neighbourhood are becoming alive to the fact that a magnificent market is open for all they can produce, and the coming year will doubtless see large additional supplies of necessaries and luxuries throughout the camps.

Sanitary arrangements.

Sanitary arrangements at the great dry diggings were for a long time much neglected. Hundreds of carcases of oxen, lying in and about the camps, poisoned the air in all directions. Fortunately, before the approach of hot weather, some thoroughly energetic steps were taken to lessen this nuisance; and the erection of latrines did much also to diminish another terrible pest. Since the diamond-fields were proclaimed British territory, these matters have been set right.

General Observations.

Warning to emigrants.

Diamond-digging has now become a settled industry, but an industry fairly in the hands of the claim-holders. Emigrants to the Cape are warned that the day for making fortunes on the fields, at least by digging, is past. Dealers and traders may still be fortunate, but this is not a business that 'prentice hands can touch.

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Value of diamonds.

15,000,000*l.*

The market value of diamonds has fallen considerably since the fields have become so numerous. The claims, moreover, are worked with much greater difficulty, in consequence of their depth and of the water frequently filling up the lower portions. There is no sign, however, of the mines becoming exhausted. It is reckoned that diamonds to the value of fifteen millions sterling have been taken from the diggings.

Latest information.

The most recent information on the present state and future prospects of the diggings is contained in a report by J. C. Kitto, Esq., addressed to and published by command of the Acting Administrator of the Colony in July and August 1879. Mr. Kitto, after what appears to have been a thorough and unbiassed examination of the whole of the workings, has arrived at the conclusion that these are still a very long way from being exhausted.

Conveyances.

Conveyances run for the Diamond Fields, both from Cape Town and Port Elizabeth. Time, about seven days from the former, and six from the latter. Fares, about 18*l.*

Hotels.

There are fairly comfortable hotels at Du Toit's Pan and Kimberley, the seat of government.

Public worship.

In the matter of public worship, almost every sect, from Roman Catholics to Plymouth Brethren, is represented on the Fields, and weekly services are held in large canvas tents erected for the purpose.

Geological Features of the Diamond Fields of Cape Colony.

General system of stratified rocks.

Of a continent so little known as that of Africa it is not easy to obtain such a view of the geological structure of the parts most familiar to Europeans as will serve to connect it with the general system of stratified rocks.

It has been supposed, from the saurian remains found in various parts of the interior, that it was at one period, and that not the most remote of geological epochs, covered with a vast lake of fresh water extending far into the tropics.

The traces of stratified rock are few and far be-

tween, yet sufficient to indicate an extensive series, which has given way to great denudations and disturbances.

Metamorphic and schistose rocks.

Almost all the line of the western and south-western coast is occupied with metamorphic and schistose rocks, which, at Table Mountain, are largely developed, the only stratified formation in that neighbourhood consisting of extensive beds of sandstone overlying the slate rocks.

Granite.

A mass of granite appears between the Table Mountain and the Lion's Head, resting on the schistose rocks, and obviously of more recent supra-position from the action of upheaving forces, penetrating and altering them at Green Point. On the north, however, as far as is known, along the western coast beyond Olifants River, a vast field of granite and gneiss extends, containing veins of copper ore.

Sandstone beds.

The beds of sandstone overlying the slate rocks are the remains of a series of sedimentary rocks, of probably the Devonian and Silurian age.

Mineral products.

Whilst great value is justly attached to the mineral products of the unstratified rocks, to which we shall presently more especially refer, it is to the coal measures that we must look for the ultimate development of the industrial resources of the Colony, and for its true civilisation and prosperity. The maritime districts, hitherto the only parts generally accessible, have not been remarkable for success in this department of mining operations, the prospect of the sudden and rapid acquisition of wealth in another direction having diverted for a time the attention of adventurers and even capitalists to what may prove a less permanent, if more attractive, scene of labour.

In the Stormberg Mountains, north of Algoa Bay, there appears to be promise of a coal country more or less productive, the sandstones and shales of which that range consists containing beds of this valuable mineral, which have, however, not been as yet discovered in sufficient thickness to render their working very profitable, especially when the distance from the coast is taken into account.

Traces of the secondary rocks appear to be few.

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Mention is, however, made in the Geological Reports of the 'Cape Monthly Magazine' of deposits both of the secondary and tertiary periods in the beds of the Sunday River, north-east of Uitenage. These, it would appear, overlie the series of carboniferous rocks which crop out in the Stormberg Mountains.

We will now turn our attention to the Diamond Fields on the Vaal River, between 28° and 29° S. lat., and about 25° E. lon.

We are indebted to Dr. Shaw, of Colesberg, for an elaborate examination of the geology of this district in the year 1870. He furnishes a tabular list of the series of rocks between Backhouse on the south and Klipdrift on the north, viz.:—

Rocks between Backhouse and Klipdrift.

'Greenstone (not, however, at Klipdrift).
'Quartzite.
'Crystalline sandstone.
'Shales, sandstone, &c.
'Conglomerate sandstone.
'Metamorphic slates (permeated by hornblende dykes at Sebonell).
'Trap } passing into each other in some
'Amygdaloidal trap } places.
'Trap, conglomerate (agglomerate, according to Lyell, as the imbedded rocks are angular, and not obviously waterworn).
'Syenite.'

It would appear, from a comparison of the above with the development of the rock series of Cape Town, as well as from an examination of intervening strata along the line of the Vaal and the Orange River to the western coast, that the series of stratified rocks is more or less traceable from their granite foundations on the coast to the exposure of the early secondary rocks of the Vaal.

Stratified deposits at Klipdrift.

The immediate neighbourhood of Klipdrift and Pniel shows indeed little but fragmentary traces of stratified deposits. These consist chiefly of clay slates, sandstones, and shales, the tokens of which appear in the waterworn gravel at the bed of the valley, and occupy interstices among extensive columns of basalt, chiefly of hexagonal structure.

Denudation.

So great has been the disturbance by denudation,

and above all by upheaving forces, that the bed of the stream appears to have undergone repeated changes, such as might well give rise to the question whether the materials so scattered about and around the scene of so much anxious and persistent search were deposited on or near their present site or were brought down from some distant and perhaps tropical region?

Early secondary rocks.

The evidence, however, seems to be in favour of the former supposition, not only from the frequent occurrence of deposits of the same character bearing no marks of disturbance, but from the interesting and instructive fact that, below the junction of the Harts with the Vaal, and within a few miles of this spot, a series of early secondary rocks, represented by fragments at the kopjes of Klipdrift and Pniel, presents an almost unique specimen of stratification, undisturbed by those adverse forces which so extensively acted upon districts somewhat higher up the stream. It is thus described by Dr. Shaw:—

'Ascending from the river, there are, first, a series of basaltic hummocks, the basalt being the same as that of the Klipdrift kopjes. Above these, there are thin clay slates and argillaceous sandstones, some of them much altered and indurated. A conglomerate sandstone of great thickness lies upon these again, and forms the first terrace from the river, say 400 feet above the level of the stream. Upon this we have sandstone shales; and higher up a crystalline sandstone, which becomes more and more indurated till at the summit of the ridge it is a thorough quartzite. Greenstone boulders, the remains of a trappean capping, lie about on the next and the second terrace, which cannot be less than 800 feet above the river level.'

Syenite.

It will be observed that, so far as has been discovered, syenite is the basis of the rocks in the Klipdrift district, the only instance of granite appearing in isolated boulders wanting the micaceous portion of the compound.

Basalt trap.

The basaltic trap, which abounds there and assumes a hexagonal columnar structure, rises in denuded fragments, exhibiting marks of violent upheaval since their deposit as trap rock, and assuming an appearance of radiation from below, the upper part having spread by

the violent pressure. In the interstices of these columns have been found considerable numbers of diamonds, imbedded in the drift which had been left there in the general denudation of the strata.

The material which has been washed down into the bed of the stream no doubt contains a rich deposit of precious minerals; but owing to the imposition of recent alluvial soil it will require not only the diversion of the stream, but the excavation of superincumbent masses of silt for their acquisition.

Ferruginous gravel.

The searchers for diamonds have been most successful in their examination of gravel, and particularly ferruginous gravel, obtained from the interstices in the clefts and the bases of rocks. Many of these will, of course, be extremely small, though some of them of great dimensions have been saved by these harbours of refuge from the violence of the elements.

Precious stones.

The occurrence of precious stones of less mark, such as emeralds, sapphires, rubies, &c., are occasionally met with, but not of sufficient size for them to be generally recognised as of any other value than as indicating the probable presence of diamonds. Garnets are in sufficient plenty to be of little account. The majority of the inferior class of precious stones are found embedded in the conglomerate of pebbles, called, from its resemblance to almonds, amygdaloid.

This, of course, does not indicate the origin of these deposits, which still remains uncertain. Nor can it yet be said, with any approach to demonstration, what is the true matrix of the diamond.

Pans.

It can hardly have escaped the notice of readers of reports from the diamond fields that, in the nomenclature of those regions, the term *Pan* as the termination of a compound word, is of frequent occurrence, as 'Du Toit's Pan,' 'Salt-Pan,' &c. It always indicates the presence of a geological depression, collecting all and sundry of the substances which, under the influence of rains and winds, have drifted into them, and been retained by rings of porphyry or greenstone, which form a circular ridge round the subsidence; but how those subsidences are occasioned must be a matter of some conjecture. They are, however, the probable result of some geological disturbance which could not affect the

harder substances encircling the outside, and forming lagoons of more or less extensive area, so shallow that, except after a rain, the surface is dry.

Saline deposits accounted for.

Some reference to the constituents of these capacious deposits is necessary, and the first element that strikes the attention is the saltness of some of them, which has been variously accounted for—some supposing it to have been occasioned by their subjection, countless ages back, to the overflow of some vast ocean. The utter absence, however, of marine organic remains, to say nothing of other objections, is fatal to such a conclusion, while the operation of local influences points to a cause not far to seek, and whose action is continuous. Dr. Stevens quotes from Fowne's 'Actonian Essay' the theory that 'all bodies of water into which rivers flow, and from which no waters pass out, are salt. It is therefore inferred, from the position of these receptacles, skirted by hills abounding in alkaline minerals, that the combination of chloride of sodium with nitrate and sulphate of soda is sufficient to account for the saline properties with which they are impregnated.' How far the theory above quoted can be accepted as universal it is difficult to see in the face of the fact that there are fresh-water lakes with no apparent outlets, and which are often the receptacles of rivers whose water-sheds have no such mineral constituents.

That the saltness of the 'Pans' is due to this source seems almost beyond dispute, the surrounding hills abounding in the materials whose combination in those confined areas would naturally produce it.

The substances constituting the more solid contents of these receptacles, in the detrition of which diamonds are found, vary in different positions, consisting of *kalk* or fragments of rock, in which silicious and calcareous deposits abound, the former to a greater extent at Klipdrift and Pniel, the latter at Du Toit's Pan, and a little farther south at Bultfontein.

Alluvial nature of Vaal deposits.

The district of Du Toit's Pan, moreover, differs in its surface from that of the Vaal Valley, the former exhibiting a calcareous tufa, the latter being alluvial, though below the kalk a layer of clayey shale, consisting of talcose slate, sandstone, and chalk-marl is common to both districts.

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The alluvial nature of the Vaal deposits, as distinguished from those of the more southern tract, is shown in the water-worn character of its fragments, which consist largely of rounded pebbles from the amygdaloid boulders, while those of Du Toit's Pan and the surrounding district consist of angular unworn pieces of garnet quartz, periclot, greenstone, &c. From these differences it is inferred that the diamonds in the latter case occupy a position which has never been subjected to violent action. The solution, however, of the question as to the original source of these precious minerals does not seem to be any nearer.

Dr. Shaw's conclusions on production of diamonds.

The elaborate and judicious researches of Dr. Shaw, to whom not this colony only, but the scientific world, is largely indebted, have shown conclusively:—

1. That the production of diamonds is not due to any rock more recent than the greenstone.

2. That there is no evidence of that or any known rock being the matrix of the diamond.

3. That a rough diamondiferous rock (possibly undisturbed until the upheaval of the trap rocks) has been carried away, and is, so far as this district is concerned, represented only by fragments mingled with the detritions of other rocks, and now occupying either the quiet resting-place of the ancient lakes, now called salt-pans, or the beds of rivers, exposed to the perpetual wear and tear of mountain torrents.

The site of the 'New Rush' at Colesberg was, prior to the excavations, a scene resembling the Valley of the Vaal only in the tumultuous assemblage of basaltic and trap rock. The breaking of the surface with deep and general excavation has left little in the shape of continuous rock but the greenstone which forms the basis of the district.

Dr. Shaw expatiates on the effect of the metamorphic rocks on the landscape scenery of the colony, comparing it, not to the disadvantage of his country, with that of the Hebrides, reminding us of the union of poetic enthusiasm with scientific accuracy which characterised the revellings of his famous compatriot of Cromartie among the hills and vales of the 'Old Red.'

NATAL.

Position and History.

NATAL

Importance of Natal.

In the South African group of settlements Natal justly occupies the second place, following the Cape and taking precedence of the two Dutch Republics and the Crown Colony of Griqualand West. Although not half the size of the Free State and not one-fourth that of the Transvaal, its advantageous position on the seaboard and its consequent enjoyment of a large shipping trade, together with the enterprise of its white inhabitants and the interest commanded by the history and condition of its large native population, give it a comparative importance which its area would not justify. It is scarcely necessary to claim this high position for Natal, as in English opinion this colony until lately almost obscured the Cape. It has always been well advertised in the emigration market. It numbers amongst its products attractive articles of tropical growth. A great critic and controversialist has made it famous; and its native troubles have been more recent than those of the once notorious Kaffir wars. For these and probably other reasons Natal has been conspicuous when the Cape has attracted but little attention, although, in point of size, population, production, trade and revenue, it has always been and still is far behind its senior colony. The Cape has room for twelve Natals. The natural capabilities of the larger colony are, however, by no means in the proportion of twelve to one.

Communication between Natal and the Cape.

Although the two colonies touch each other along a boundary-line of 150 miles there is little or no regular land communication between them, the Cape districts adjacent to Natal being peopled by natives as yet but in the first stage of removal from barbarism. There is no highway from one colony to the other, and communication is almost entirely by sea. When the traveller, after a voyage of twenty-four or twenty-five days from Ply-

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mouth, has reached Capetown, the first port of call in the Cape Colony, he has still, including stoppages at that place, Port Elizabeth, and East London, nearly a week on board the steamer before he reaches Durban, the only seaport of Natal. Durban is, indeed, quite a thousand miles from Capetown.

Historical notice.

Young as this settlement is, its name was given it nearly four centuries ago, when, in 1497, the Portuguese voyager, Vasco de Gama, sighted its headlands on Christmas Day of that year—the day of the discovery suggesting the name, *Terra Natalis*. In 1760, or thereabouts, the Dutch for a very short time had a trading settlement at the site of the present harbour of Durban. This settlement was, however, speedily abandoned, and more than a hundred years passed before the Natal shores were again visited by Europeans. In 1823 an English officer, Lieut. Farewell, while on a surveying expedition along the coast, was attracted by the evident suitableness of the country about the Bay of Natal for the purposes of settlement, and at once arranged with Mr. Henry Fynn and others for occupation. The natives, of whom at that time there were but few in the immediate neighbourhood, granted the land about the Bay as a site for the little colony of a score of white men. Twenty years before there would not have been room for the newcomers, as at that time the land was thickly peopled. In 1810 the famous Zulu chief Chaka began his career of conquest. Marching southwards, he cleared the country before him of man and beast and left it a wilderness. Hence, when Farewell and Fynn founded the settlement of Natal they had space and to spare. In the earliest days of occupation the little white colony afforded a shelter to the miserable people whom Chaka had despoiled. In 1828 that chief was assassinated and succeeded by his brother Dingaan, who threatened the English settlers with hostilities on account of their continuing to receive those who had fled from the terrors of himself and his brother. In 1835, however, Captain Allen Gardiner brought about an agreement between the Zulu chief and the settlement. In the same year 'Durban' received its name from the Governor of the Cape, Sir Benjamin D'Urban. About this time a party of Dutch, discontented with British rule in the Cape Colony,

after long wandering through the territory now known as the Orange Free State, found their way over the Drakenberg into Natal, and opened a new chapter in the history of this settlement. In 1836 the first party was strengthened by a second. Amongst their leaders were Maritz and Pieter Retief, whose names are both perpetuated in that of the capital, Pietermaritzburg. The English settlers received the new comers gladly; they met with very different treatment from Dingaan and his Zulus. During an interview between Retief and a party of the Dutch with that treacherous chief, at a signal from him his soldiers fell upon the unsuspicious visitors, who had previously disarmed themselves, as a mark of confidence, and killed almost every one. This was a signal for a general attack on all the parties of Dutch, and much slaughter was the result. A Natal town to the present day bears the name of 'Weenen,' or Weeping, in memory of the massacre in Dingaan's kraal and the sorrows that followed it. The English party, assisted by some of the protected natives, moved over the Tugela, but were driven back, and had to seek shelter on board a ship in the Bay. By the close of 1838, however, upwards of 800 Dutch had come to the help of their countrymen, and Dingaan and his Zulus were overthrown in a great battle, in which 3,000 warriors were slain. In the following year Pietermaritzburg was founded by the victorious Boers, and many of them settled themselves near the English encampment at Durban. Shortly after the Dutch espoused the cause of Panda, a brother of Dingaan's, and in another great battle Dingaan was utterly defeated and driven out of his land. His assassination speedily followed, and Panda reigned in his stead. The Dutch were supreme, and, claiming the territory from the Umzimvubu to Delagoa Bay, resolved to establish themselves as an independent and sovereign community. To this step, however, the British Governor at the Cape, Sir George Napier, objected. He considered the emigrant Dutch to be still British subjects, and he attached a new importance to the English settlement at Durban. Accordingly a detachment of soldiers was sent up by sea, but was speedily withdrawn. Considering this withdrawal of the troops to be an act of abandonment by the British, the Dutch proclaimed 'The

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Republic of Natalia.' This was resented by the Cape Governor, who again sent up, this time by land, a body of soldiers under the command of Captain Smith. In 1842 fighting began. The English were few and ill-provided. In order to obtain reinforcements Mr. King rode 600 miles through Kaffirland to the then distant frontier of the Cape. A ship of war with troops was hurried up, and, before the year was ended, Colonel Cloete, in command of the British forces, had the good fortune to receive the submission of the Dutch. In 1843 Natal was formally declared to be a British colony, and in 1847 Mr. Martin West was appointed Lieutenant-Governor. Many of the Dutch, dissatisfied with the new arrangements, recrossed the Drakenberg. The year 1849 was remarkable for the arrival of a considerable body of British settlers. In 1850 Mr., now Sir, Benjamin Pine succeeded Governor West. In 1853 the first Bishop of Natal was appointed in the person of Dr. Colenso. In 1856 Mr., now Sir, John Scott was appointed Governor, and he brought with him a Royal charter which made Natal independent of the Cape, and constituted a Legislative Council of twelve elected members and four official nominees. In 1864 Mr. Scott was succeeded by Colonel Maclean, who was followed in the Governorship first by Lieut.-General Bisset, and, in 1867, by Mr. Keate. In 1872 Mr. Musgrave ruled for a year, and in 1873 Sir Benjamin Pine was re-appointed to his former post. Scarcely had he been settled in Government House when the Langalibalele affair took place. That chief, having shown some signs of disobedience, fled with his people towards Basutoland. Being intercepted by a party of Volunteers, some of his men fired with fatal effect, three of the Volunteers receiving death-wounds. A punishment followed which was considered by the Imperial Government to be unnecessarily severe, and Sir Benjamin Pine was recalled in 1875, Sir Garnet Wolseley administering the government for a while. Having completed the work of pacification for which he was appointed, and having carried out some important alterations in the constitution of the Legislative Council, Sir Garnet returned to England at the close of 1875, and Sir Henry Bulwer was appointed Governor.

But the troubles of the colony were not ended. The excessive preponderance of the black over the white

population has always been felt to be the weakness and the danger of Natal. 'Years ago,' says Mr. John Noble, 'that danger was pointed out by Sir T. Shepstone, who urged upon the Imperial Government the adoption of a policy similar to that since pursued by the Cape Government, by which the natives might be brought to become part and parcel of the industrial and civilised organisation of that community.' But as money was necessary to the carrying out of any such scheme, and as Earl Grey, who was then Secretary of State, said no money was to be had, the ever-increasing horde of Zulu refugees were left to themselves, in the enjoyment of their own savage laws, customs, and usages, constituting a permanent source of danger to the colony. The colonists, indeed, had no other guarantee for the good conduct of the natives than the circumstance of their being refugees, who prized the security of life and property they enjoyed as compared with their former fellow subjects of Ketshwayo across the frontier. But for years the condition of affairs in Zululand itself had been becoming more and more alarming. Ketshwayo, proud of the traditions of his family and the deeds of Chaka, had gathered around him an army eager to emulate the career of that ferocious conqueror. No one could tell when or where his warriors, eager to flesh their spears, would burst forth. To Natal and the Transvaal he was a constant menace. Even on the frontier of Cape Colony his influence was felt, for he had sent his emissaries to the Pondos, just as he was known to have sent them to Sekukuni at the time of the outbreak of the Gcaleka insurrection. The Hon. Mr. Brownlee, who is intimately acquainted with native matters, reported to Sir Bartle Frere in November 1877 that the overtures of Ketshwayo were well known to the Gcalekas and Gaikas, and in taking up arms they calculated upon assistance from him, even to the last believing that that help would come. 'Kreli and Ketshwayo,' said Mr. Brownlee, in May 1878, 'may be regarded as the mainspring of our troubles; their positions and power give weight to anything they may suggest or wish to undertake. Kreli's power is now closing; the main source of trouble on this side is thus removed. Judging from the analogy of the past of the natives, whatever may be done to stave off a

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collision with Ketshwayo I think will fail, and that before long the collision will inevitably arise; and when the Zulus, like the Gcalekas, are broken up, we may look forward to the cessation of wars and combinations of native tribes against the Government.' 'These,' says Mr. Noble, 'were prophetic words. With the barbaric power of such a ferocious savage as Ketshwayo in close juxtaposition, and his restless warriors ever occasioning ferment and alarm, the peaceful neighbouring tribes were forced to be continually on the alert—in fact, in what European diplomatists would term an armed state of observation. Colonisation, progress, and civilisation could not long exist under such a state of things; and Her Majesty's High Commissioner, Sir Bartle Frere, charged with the solemn trust of protecting Her Majesty's subjects, had no alternative but to use the power placed at his disposal to secure the safety and future peace of Her Majesty's dominions in South Africa, as well as of the Zulus and all the other neighbouring tribes and peoples.' Fortunately, Sir Bartle Frere had the courage to do what he so clearly saw to be the only thing possible. His peaceful overtures and remonstrances being treated by Ketshwayo with evasive messages, scornful indifference, or angry insolence, he at last was compelled to resort to the final arbitrament of war.

The opening of the campaign was darkened by the terrible disaster which befell the English troops under Colonel Durnford and Lieutenant-Colonel Pulleine at Isandhlwana on January 22, 1879, and brightened by the heroic defence of Rorke's Drift by Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead on the following day. Isandhlwana was no common disaster. On its terrible field, owing, it is to be feared, to the neglect of Lord Chelmsford's instructions, more than a thousand of our brave soldiers and colonial volunteers were surrounded and overwhelmed by a horde of Zulu warriors numbering some twenty thousand. The news of the calamity caused a panic in Natal and created a profoundly painful sensation not only in South Africa but at home, and indeed throughout Europe. For a time it caused a suspension of active hostilities on the part of Lord Chelmsford. He retired across the Tugela, and while waiting for reinforcements from England occupied himself in making preparations for advance when these reinforcements

should arrive. No time was lost by the Government at home in responding to the call for additional forces. The news of the calamity reached England on February 8, having been telegraphed from St. Vincent, and within fourteen days 10,000 men were on their way to Natal. The operations which followed cannot be detailed here. Suffice it to say that, although much delay occurred in resuming active operations—a delay which sorely tried the patience of the colony and the mother-country, and gave opportunity for floods of the usual infallible criticisms by 'our own correspondents'—victory was at last achieved by Lord Chelmsford in a manner which justified all his plans. The final engagement which for ever shattered the power of Ketshwayo took place close to Ulundi, the chief royal kraal, on July 4, and the closing episode of the capture of the fugitive king occurred on August 28, 1879. A sad and deeply regretable incident of this unhappy war was the death of the Prince Imperial of France, which took place on June 2, while he was engaged in a reconnoitring expedition. He and the small party which he accompanied were surprised by a number of Zulus. All saved themselves by flight except the brave and unfortunate Prince, whose body was subsequently found pierced by many assegais, all in front.

It is perhaps to be regretted that the Home Government should have so far shared in or been influenced by the virulent clamour of a section of the English public as to send out Sir Garnet Wolseley to virtually supersede Lord Chelmsford in his position of commander-in-chief. Fortunately, however, Lord Chelmsford was able to complete his work according to his own plans before his supersession actually took place. It remained for Sir Garnet Wolseley to take up the difficult question of settling the country and giving it a government in the place of that of the tyrannical Ketshwayo. This he promptly did by subdividing it into thirteen districts, twelve of which are respectively assigned to twelve chiefs of the Zulu nation, the thirteenth, which is much the largest and adjoins the Natal frontier, being placed under the celebrated John Dunn. The chiefs are appointed under certain conditions and stipulations, and a British resident is appointed to reside in the country as 'the eyes and ears of the British Government,' to see,

hear, and report as to the manner in which these conditions and stipulations are fulfilled.

Sir Garnet Wolseley firmly believes that the abolition of the office of king, and the breaking up of the cohesion of the country on the plan he has carried out, will preclude for the future all, or almost all, possibility of any reunion of its inhabitants under one rule. Opinion in the colony does not at present seem greatly to favour Sir Garnet's scheme.

There can be no doubt, however, that the ordeal through which South Africa has thus far successfully passed will be productive of incalculable blessing to all its tribes and people. The supremacy of the white races there really means the regeneration of a whole quarter of the globe, and in this view of recent events Sir Bartle Frere merits, and will undoubtedly receive, the praise and honour of all true men for the part he played in the great emergency which confronted him.

Area and Boundaries.

Limits.

As seen on a map Natal is a well-defined territory, compact and regular in its shape. It is as much like a diamond as Italy is like a boot, or the Morea like a mulberry leaf. Its four sides are not much out of proportion. Its sea-coast is about 150 miles long; its opposite landward side is about 120 miles; its side towards Zululand is 150 miles, and that towards the Cape is 175 miles long. The line of greatest distance is that from the southern angle, at the mouth of the Umtamvuna, to the northern, at the source of the Buffalo, a diagonal of about 250 miles along. The area is reckoned to be 17,000 square miles, or 11,000,000 acres. It is bounded on the south-east by the Indian Ocean, on the north-east by the rivers Buffalo and Tugela, which divide it from the Transvaal Republic and Zululand; on the south-west by the Drakensberg Mountains, the upper waters of the Umzimkulu and the Umtamvuna, which separate it from the Basutoland and Nomansland districts of the Cape Colony and Pondoland; and on the north-west by the Drakensberg, which divides it from the Free State.

Population.

Population.

The population of Natal presents several conditions of a peculiar character. Its total number is, for South Africa, large when compared with area. The last census shows that it has within its boundaries upwards of 325,000 persons, all races included. This gives almost exactly nineteen to the square mile. Now, in the Cape Colony, the population rate per square mile is not quite four. The next peculiarity is the smallness of the white portion of the population when compared with the black. Of the total 325,512 only 22,654 are of European descent. Thus there are in Natal fourteen blacks to one white; while in the Cape Colony the proportion is four to one. Variety of race is also one of the characteristics of the Natal population. Englishmen, Dutch, Germans, Zulus, other African natives, Hindu coolies, Chinese, and emigrants from the island of St. Helena make up its motley human kind. In this respect, however, Natal does but resemble all the other South African territories.

The following list represents an approximate estimate of these varieties:—

English, Dutch, and Germans, about	. .	22,654
Zulus and other South Africans	„ . .	290,035
Hindu and Chinese coolies St. Helena emigrants	„ . .	12,823
Total	„ . .	325,512

More than half the whites live in the towns and villages, leaving but a very scanty number for rural occupation. There can be but little doubt that the colony would be greatly benefited by the introduction of more Europeans.

The English and Dutch.

The English in Natal are to be found chiefly in the towns of Durban, Maritzburg, Verulam, Pinetown, Richmond, Ladismith, York, and Greytown, and on the sugar plantations of the coast. Some of them are sprinkled over the upland agricultural and grazing districts. Many Dutch are residents in Maritzburg, but they are to be found chiefly on the farm-lands of the northern districts. Near Pinetown, about fifteen miles from Durban, there is a settlement of Germans, originally, in 1848, about 200 strong.

Coolies.

The Hindu coolies were first introduced in 1865, with the express intention of supplying suitable labour for the coast plantation industries. For although the colony is in some districts almost crowded with African natives, field labour is difficult to obtain on any permanent arrangement. In 1875 the importation of coolies from India was renewed. Many of those people, after their term of service has been completed, resort to the towns, where they become domestics. About the close of 1873 the coloured people of St. Helena, females especially, were invited to leave that island, in which much distress was then experienced, and to resort to Natal. Between two and three hundred persons accepted the offer and proceeded to Durban, where many of them are engaged in household service.

Zulus.

The Zulus of Natal, as the South African natives in the colony are commonly called, have a history of their own, which could be told in several chapters, but it is their present condition and existing relations to the settlement which are the topics more especially suitable to the pages of this work. They are to be found in greater or less numbers in all parts of the colony; but their most densely populated locations are in the Victoria County, the district on the sea-coast nearest the Tugela river. In the Inanda and Tugela divisions of that county there are upwards of 62,000 of these people. In the Klip River division, an upland district, there are more than 17,000; in the Midland county of Weenen there are nearly 38,000; while in the two South-western Coast counties of Alexandra and Alfred there are about 42,000. As a rule the Natal natives are barbarians; and yet, having for many years been protected by the British power, subjected to the personal rule of an officer of the Colonial Government, brought under a system of taxation, and accustomed to the ways of a settlement, having also been the objects of an active missionary agency, they are one degree removed from the savageism of their kindred who still rejoice in a freedom from European restraint. They are polygamists, believers in witchcraft, inclined to cruel practices, fond of a free, idle life, exact labour from their women, whom they consider to be a better sort of cattle, and wear but very scanty clothing. Physically they are a fine people; in disposition gay, and they are not without intelligence.

As, to a very large extent, they are refugees, or the children of refugees, who have taken shelter under British rule from the violence of more warlike tribes, their character has been influenced by their circumstances in this respect. They have lost something of the warlike spirit of their race, and have given but comparatively little trouble to their rulers. That in them which has been and is most unsatisfactory to the colonists is their disinclination to give their services readily and continuously to the industries of the settlement. They are, it is true, to be found in domestic service in the towns, on farms and plantations, in stores, and on the beach and wharves, but not in numbers sufficient to keep abreast of the demands of colonial enterprise and requirement. Hence, although there are fourteen African natives to one white, the planters are driven to invite Amazwazi and Amatongu from the region about Delagoa Bay, and to import, at heavy cost, thousands of Hindus from Calcutta and Madras. This aversion to labour on the part of the natives, their occupation of land that the colonists could utilise, and the formidable increase to the numbers from year to year, cause the scanty and harassed settlers to regard their neighbours with less favour than they would otherwise award them. The natives are undoubtedly Natal's difficulty, and yet with a very ordinary inclination to industry they would be a most important element in the material progress of the colony. Whether the recent changes in the native system will have a salutary influence on the habits of this people remains to be seen.

Census.

The following is the census taken in 1877. To the numbers given an estimated increase must be added for natural growth:—

Population in 1877.

County or Division, with Area in Geographical Miles	Whites		Coloured		Total	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Borough of Pietermaritzburg (45 geo. miles)	2,536	2,188	2,741	572	5,277	2,760
County of Pietermaritzburg (1,853 geo. miles)	1,240	1,124	15,072	16,022	16,312	17,146
Borough of Durban (10 geo. miles)	2,852	2,460	3,700	1,476	6,552	3,936
County of Durban (846 geo. miles)	825	800	11,883	9,533	12,708	9,333

Population in 1877—continued.

County or Division, with Area in Geographical Miles	Whites		Coloured		Total	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
County of Klip River (5,170 geo. miles) :—						
Klip River Division .	503	435	7,956	9,428	8,099	9,863
Newcastle Division .	799	670	4,479	5,601	5,278	6,271
County of Victoria (1,428 geo. miles) :—						
Iuanda Division . .	670	541	12,892	12,597	13,562	13,138
LowerTugelaDivision	375	278	18,479	18,178	18,854	18,456
County of Umvoti (1,580 geo. miles)	817	655	15,660	19,210	16,477	19,887
County of Weenen(2,640 geo. miles)	616	490	17,031	19,344	17,697	19,334
County of Alexandra (1,600 geo. miles) . .	315	238	10,289	9,913	11,104	10,151
County of Alfred (1,562 geo. miles)	113	53	9,328	11,000	9,441	11,053
Umsinga Division (2,916 geo. miles)	108	116	7,773	15,511	7,881	15,627
Upper Umkomanzi Division (900 geo. miles)	330	289	8,778	8,780	9,108	9,061
Ixopo Division (1,600 geo. miles)	129	89	(Included in Upper Umkomanzi.)			
Total 21,150 miles	12,228	10,426	145,701	157,157	157,929	167,583

Physical Geography.

Natural features.

The physical geography of Natal presents many features of interest. The colony lies wholly between the eastern rim of the great interior tableland of South Africa and the Indian Ocean. At the Drakensbergen the vast plateau is arrested abruptly, and by a descent, at first almost precipitous, then in rugged steps and now in gentle slopes, the land inclines to the ocean shore. Between the rim and the strand there is an average distance of 130 miles. Travelling inland from the coast, the edge of the tableland has the appearance of a lofty mountain range, the highest point being no less than 10,000 feet high. This is the Mont aux Sources, so called because it is a most prolific watershed. Another point on the ledge, as the Drakensbergen really is, known as the Champagne Castle, is 9,500, while the Giant's Castle is 9,000 feet above the level of the sea. The aspects of the great precipice along its whole length are grand and romantic; and as the land at its foot does not subside to the sea by easy levels but by broken steps, tumbled hills, and sweeping undulations, Natal is every-

where picturesque in its land forms. The region on the right of the road from Durban to Maritzburg, after Pinetown has been passed, is remarkable for its fantastic assemblage of sugarloaf hills—sugarloaves with their tops cut off. The midland districts have in many parts the look of downs—rolling sweeps of grass. The coast lands are singularly beautiful, with their rounded bosses, rich in bush and glade; while the shore presents a bold outline with projecting bluffs thickly covered with jungle, and long stretches of land broken by rocky floors and reefs, on which the majestic surf of the Indian Ocean perpetually breaks. Amongst the rivers which skirt or pass through the colony are the Tugela, the Umvoti, the Umgeni, the Iloyo, the Umkumanzi, the Umzimkulu, and the Umtamvuna. Not one of these is navigable. Some of them, however, especially in the rainy season, are considerable streams, and all of them have their tributaries, so that the land abounds in watercourses. Cataracts are numerous, and the Umgeni Falls, ten or twelve miles north of Maritzburg, are famous for their beauty. Granite, trap, and sandstone underlie the beds of shale and vegetable soil which form the land surfaces; and here and there those rocks, especially trap, show themselves in bare and eccentric forms. Table-mountains frequently appear, and one of the finest objects to be seen from Maritzburg is Taffel Berg, a splendid specimen of its class, about sixteen miles from the city.

Climate.

The climate of Natal is one of the boasts of its inhabitants. Nearer the tropics than the Cape, its mean annual temperature is but little in excess of that of the more southern colony. At Maritzburg it is 64° to 71°, while on the coast the general range of the thermometer is from 53° to 90°. The winter is bright and comparatively cool, and the summer heat is softened by a clouded sky and frequent rains. The spring and autumn are agreeable periods of the year. Thunderstorms are of frequent occurrence during the summer months, and it is to these that the moderated heat of November, December, January, and February are due. Occasionally a hot wind from the land side blows over the colony, but seldom lasts two or three days in succession. The following table gives an abstract of meteorological observations for the year 1875, taken at the Natal Botanic Gardens, Durban.

Abstract of Meteorological Observations for 1875.

1875	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Yearly Abstract
Barometer:—													
Highest Reading	30 185	30 245	30 385	30 445	30 315	30 525	30 595	30 665	30 485	30 605	30 345	30 285	30 665
Lowest Reading	29 865	29 905	29 785	29 745	29 355	29 995	30 055	29 775	29 785	29 775	29 825	29 895	29 355
Range of Month	320	340	600	700	1 160	530	540	890	700	830	520	390	1 310
Mean Daily Pressure	30 070	30 070	30 106	30 147	30 216	30 234	30 326	30 217	30 194	30 163	30 116	30 086	30 162
Thermometer:—													
Highest Reading	89	89	87	94	83	78	77	82	99*	82	87	87	99*
Lowest Reading	63	63	61	55	52	50	47	45	46	50	56	57	45
Range	26	26	26	39	31	28	30	37	53	32	31	30	54
Mean Temperature of Month	75 3	72 75	74 075	70 000	67 55	63 11	61 74	64 193	64 800	66 838	70 883	74 274	69 042
Greatest Daily Range	23	20	23	34	22	24	25	25	34	25	27	23	34
Least Daily Range	10	8	12	11	15	11	8	16	9	9	7	11	7
Mean Daily Range	16 3	15 5	16 35	17 23	18 5	18 3	18 83	20 19	16 86	17 09	16 30	16 76	17 35
Approx. Mn. Daily Temp.—													
Highest	78 5	81	79	77	73 5	67 5	66 5	72 5	82	69 50	76 50	77 5	82
Lowest	70	69	67 5	64 5	61	56	56	56 5	56 50	59	62 50	68 5	56
Dry Bulb, Mean	78 245	78 5	77 1	67 9	73 5	66 27	66 58	66 54	69 53	70	73 90	76 93	72
Wet Bulb, Mean	73 95	74	73 3	69 3	68 2	63 39	63 87	62 03	65 60	65 83	71 16	73 70	69 52
Cloud, Daily Mean	5 45	4 655	4 073	4 00	3 85	4 08	4 06	2 72	6 41	6 33	6 96	5 19	4 815
Rainfall, Days of Fall	11	10	14	10	6	7	6	2 5	15	16	19	15	131
Inches Fallen	3 64	3 80	6 06	2 11	0 22	2 05	5 57	0 27	5 56	3 35	16 62	5 53	54 78
Greatest Fall in 24 hours	1 20	1 33	1 89	0 67	0 06	0 96	3 58	0 19	2 85	1 23	8 57	1 83	8 57
Evaporation:—													
Inches of Water Evaporated	5	4 46	3 31	2 18	2	1 74	1 35	1 93	2 13	3 13	2 80	4 44	34 47

Wind—Direction :—														
N. 9 A.M.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N. 3 P.M.	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N.E. 9 A.M.	13	13	13	12	0	15	11	9	8	13	12	10	139	
N.E. 3 P.M.	14	10	13	15	19	16	11	13	9	12	7	13	152	
E. 9 A.M.	1	0	0	1	7	3	4	6	1	0	2	3	28	
E. 3 P.M.	1	4	2	3	1	0	0	4	3	3	3	2	26	
S.E. 9 A.M.	4	1	0	2	12	9	7	9	10	1	3	4	82	
S.E. 3 P.M.	6	2	1	4	9	11	12	11	9	7	9	6	87	
S. 9 A.M.	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	4	1	10	
S. 3 P.M.	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	1	1	2	9	
S.W. 9 A.M.	11	14	14	9	1	3	8	5	10	16	8	13	112	
S.W. 3 P.M.	9	12	15	7	1	2	5	3	9	8	10	8	89	
W. 9 A.M.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
W. 3 P.M.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
N.W. 9 A.M.	0	0	2	4	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	8	
N.W. 3 P.M.	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
Calm 9 A.M.	1	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	7	
Calm 3 P.M.	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
Force—Mean Force 9 A.M.	3 09	2 28	1 8	1 6	1 45	1 63	1 67	2 22	2 60	2 74	2 06	2 54	2 14	
,, ,, 3 P.M.	3 06	3 00	3 25	2 4	1 70	1 9	3 06	3 41	3 63	4 35	2 63	3 58	2 99	
Ozone—Mean of Month 9 A.M.	5 4	5 28	5 6	5 5	5 35	6 4	6 64	6 29	6 40	6 27	5 30	4 83	5 77	
,, ,, 3 P.M.	2 38	2 40	3 3	2 6	3 12	3 6	4 09	4 03	4 16	4 41	3 53	3 61	5 43	
Daily Mean	3 89	3 84	4 45	4 08	4 23	5 03	5 36	5 16	5 28	5 34	4 41	4 22	4 60	
Storms :—														
Thunder and Lightning	3	5	7	2	2	6	4	1	3	2	6	5	46	
Thunder without Lightning	0	2	0	3	1	0	0	0	4	4	2	0	16	
Lightning without Thunder	4	4	1	1	0	1	5	3	4	2	5	7	37	
Lunar Haloes	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	5	
Hail	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	

* 21st Sept.—Hot Wind at 12 noon, N. [Anemometer 1·65 miles in 12 minutes]; Force, 5·00 estimated; Cloud, 0; Barometer, 29·805; Attached Thermometer, 87·; Maximum in Shade, 99·; ditto in Sun, 150·; Dry Bulb, 99·; Wet Bulb, 73.

Comparative Rainfall at Merebank for Nine Years.

From observations taken by Mr. G. McLeod in the second fortnight of January 1876, about the hottest period of the year, at Byrne, nearly 3,000 feet above the sea-level, boiling water 206° verified. The maximum in sun is taken in *vacuo*, and reads higher than an ordinary thermometer.

Month	1866		1867		1868		1869		1870		1871		1872		1873		1874	
	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches	No. of days Rain fell	Inches
January . .	5	1·01	5	1·11	11	3·26	8	1·96	11	4·35	11	2·29	4	1·90	7	3·42	12	4·01
February . .	11	2·87	8	5·41	14	44·70	3	3·83	9	8·38	12	4·97	7	0·76	7	2·51	15	4·41
March . .	9	20·19	9	3·66	12	5·36	13	7·77	8	4·86	11	3·42	17	3·34	11	5·85	12	7·86
April . . .	2	1·20	6	6·89	5	2·49	7	1·98	4	5·12	8	8·09	18	17·48	7	1·97	6	4·31
May . . .	4	2·41	1	0·70	—	—	5	0·72	1	0·17	6	1·92	10	3·57	3	1·10	5	0·88
June . . .	—	—	3	1·26	2	0·23	1	0·53	2	0·80	2	0·30	5	3·86	2	0·15	1	2·35
July . . .	3	1·21	2	0·16	6	2·38	1	0·15	—	—	2	0·51	5	4·21	4	0·54	1	0·48
August . .	4	2·13	4	0·43	5	17·15	3	3·62	2	2·28	4	2·37	3	0·30	2	1·93	1	0·30
September . .	8	3·98	6	2·21	7	2·14	2	1·02	7	1·49	2	0·45	11	3·90	5	2·73	6	1·32
October . .	6	4·37	10	4·24	10	6·69	13	6·80	11	5·74	15	6·22	8	2·90	12	3·42	10	1·21
November . .	7	5·76	10	5·49	12	6·10	10	6·51	14	6·81	6	2·34	13	7·06	16	4·57	15	4·52
December . .	6	3·61	7	1·52	6	2·42	10	2·67	7	2·90	19	8·04	5	3·11	15	8·42	16	11·12
Total .	65	48·74	71	33·08	90	62·92	76	37·56	76	42·90	98	40·92	106	52·39	91	36·61	100	42·77

The following table represents the comparative rainfall at Merebank for nine years, taken by Mr. Lamport. Merebank is situated eight miles S.W. of Durban, at a distance of two miles from the sea, and 30 feet above its level.

January 1876	Rain in 100ths of inch entered, including previous day	Maximum in Shade	Minimum in Shade	Maximum in Sun in Vacuo	Minimum in Night on grass	Wind at Seven A.M.	Wind at Seven P.M.	Standard Barometer at Seven P.M.	Attached Ther.	Standard Barometer at Two P.M.	Attached Ther.	Dry Bulb, Two P.M.	Wet Bulb, Two P.M.
17	·13	70	54	141	50	SW	E	26·674	64	26·690	71	69	65
18	·06	79	54	144	50	E	SW	·640	62	·586	73	77	71
19	—	83	61	150	56	N	SE	·480	68	·444	76	80	72
20	1·96	64	60	—	64	E	S	·500	66	·470	66	61	61
21	·92	59	54	—	60	E	E	·594	62	·580	64	54	54
22	1·48	61	49	—	—	S	E	·710	58	·680	64	61	58
23	·03	76	50	141	46	S	E	·602	60	·544	69	76	69
24	—	79	54	142	54	SE	S by E	·584	65	·604	73	79	71
25	—	85	51	144	47	N	N	·582	64	·560	75	84	67
26	—	83	59	145	—	NE	E	·608	67	·642	76	81	72
27	—	87	59	149	62	N	N	·660	70	·654	77	85	69
28	—	86	56	147	51	N	E by N	·556	69	·500	80	84	70
29	·08	65	62	—	—	E by S	E	·582	68	·632	70	65	60
30	·11	71	57	139	—	SE	N	·784	64	·752	70	71	66
31	·01	88	54	147	50	N	N	·630	64	·566	80	88	73
2d½m	4·78												
1st½ ,,	2·40												
Total	7·18												

Observations.—January 17, fine rain, 3 P.M.; 18, fine rain, distant thunder; 19, heavy hail, 3 P.M.; 20, rain all day; 21, rain all day; 22, slight rain; 23, fine; 24, fine; 25, fine; 26, fine; 27, fine; 28, fine, very hot; 29, rain, 7 P.M.; 30, slight rain; 21, fine. Nine fine days, six wet days.

1866.—Great flood of February—February 28 to March 3, 15·37 inches.

1868.—Flood of February—February 19 to 22, 8·17 inches.

1868.—Great flood of August—August 28 to 31, 17·11 inches (Maritzburg, 12·47 inches). During this disastrous flood 15·60 inches fell in 48 hours.

1872.—Flood of April, 12·57 inches. From 1 P.M. on the 11th to 2 P.M. on the 13th, 8·23 inches fell.

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1873.—Flood of March. On the night of the 4th 4·40 inches fell.

1874.—Flood of December. From the night of the 7th to the morning of the 9th, 5·85 inches fell. Though not ranking among the 'great floods,' the bed of the river Umhlatuzan was scoured to an additional depth of 50 feet, and the weir, if not destroyed, was covered with sand, which still remains.

Elevations.

The following is a table of heights along the road between Durban and the Drakenberg pass into the Orange Free State, taken by Mr. Middleton, in November 1876, from an aneroid with an index-plate of 3½ inches, which was set in West Street, Durban, at an estimated elevation there of 50 feet above sea-level :—

Table of Heights.

	Feet.
Sea-level	0
Westville	650
Pinetown—Murray's	1,500
Gillet's	2,100
Inchanga	2,600
Nicolai's	2,600
Camperdown—High Level	2,700
P. M. Burg—Royal Hotel	2,210
Top of Town Hill	3,850
Howick	3,450
High Level	4,200
Currie's	4,570
Karkloof—South	5,100
„ Bottom	4,760
„ North	5,120
Mooi River	4,620
High Level	5,070
„ „	5,130
About Col. Lloyd's—Bushman's River	3,930
„ „ Blauw Krantz	3,490
Tugela—Colenso	3,430
Dew Drop	3,750
Dori's	3,850
H. Smith's	4,470
Foot of Drakensberg	4,400
Top „ „	5,450

Wild Animals.

Natural history.

Our space will permit only of a mere list of the wild animals now to be found in Natal. The elephant and

the lion, once numerous, are now rarely to be met with. The leopard (*Felis leopardus* or *Felis pardus*), the tiger-cat (*Felis jubata*), the serval (*Felis serval*), and Kaffir cat (*Felis Caffra*) are common enough. The buffalo (*Bubublus Caffer*) is seldom seen, and the rhinoceros never. The hippopotamus still haunts the lower reaches of some of the rivers, and 'sea-cow lakes' have yet 'sea-cows' in them. Hyænas (*Crocuta rufa* and *H. maculata Capensis*) are plentiful, and the jackal is an inhabitant of the wilder lands. The aarde-wolf (*Proteles Lalandii*), the prairie-pig or wart-hog, the bosch-vark, and the porcupine are not uncommon. The cane-rat, squirrel, mole, and weasel are familiars of the colony, as are also the hare (*Lepus Capensis*), and the burrow-hare (*Lepus arenarius*). Rats and mice abound. The ant-eater is frequently to be found. Antelopes, of ten varieties, are plentiful, and amongst them are the harte-beeste, the eland, the bushbok, and the blesbok. The gnu is to be seen occasionally in the uplands. The chacma, a baboon, dwells in the mountains and kloofs. Crocodiles infest the rivers, and iguanas are numerous. Lizards, chameleons, and tree-frogs are common. Amongst the Natal serpents are the python, the imamba, and the puff-adder. Amongst the birds are the South African vulture, several varieties of the eagle, the secretary bird, the hawk, the crow, the Kaffir fink, the emerald cuckoo, the honey guide, the kingfisher, bee-eater, partridge, pheasant, quail, pigeon, paauw or wild turkey, crane, stork, pelican, and small flamingo. River fish are not abundant.

The Bay at Durban is rich in most of the edible fish known at the Cape, and already mentioned in the description of that colony. Natal abounds in insect life.

To this catalogue we append a lively narrative of

Sport in Natal.

A sketch of sport.

The following spirited narrative, written by R. B. and J. S. Woodward, of Natal, is from the 'Zoologist':—

'Large numbers of bucks and other game are annually destroyed by the natives, who during the winter months turn out with their dogs to scour the woods for meat. It may be worth while here to describe the last

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bush hunt which took place on our land: it occurred in the winter of 1873. Having the day previously informed our neighbours that we intended to call a hunt, we sent word to the 'indunas,' or heads of the principal kraals round us, to assemble their men the next day. After an early breakfast, we took our guns and started for the woods, followed by a boy carrying ammunition, as we wished to arrive on the ground before the rest of the party. After wading the river, which felt unpleasantly cold at such an early hour, we tramped for some distance through the long grass and reeds. At last we reached our destination, and sat down on a fallen log to wait for our companions. It was a beautiful spot. In the deep green forest convolvuli and other flowering creepers had formed themselves into fantastic arches more lovely than art could fabricate. The silence of this secluded retreat is broken by the notes of many birds, some of which well merit the name of songsters; the cry of the partridge issues from the scrub, and we particularly distinguish that of the lourie, hornbill, and trogon, whilst the rocks overhead resound with the bark of baboons and the cries of crows, starlings, and hawks, which nest in the crevices. Monkeys may also be heard chattering in the distance, making an agreeable chorus. All the gentlemen having arrived, we each chose a good position, and impatiently awaited the Kaffirs. We soon heard them chanting their wild hunting song on the hill opposite, which, mingled with the barking of dogs, grew louder every moment. Now the sport began in earnest; the natives, armed with assagais, or spears, and knobbed sticks, formed themselves in a long line, and the dogs were let loose into the bush to rouse up the game. The dogs are a species of mongrel hound, who, having little scent, hunt by sight. Small bucks started up on all sides, numbers of which were easily knocked over or caught in the fangs of the dogs. It was now our chance, who were stationed ahead, and our barrels were soon emptied upon the flying quadrupeds. The excitement was intense, as we heard the rustling of some larger animal, and a full-grown male bush-buck burst through the thicket, breaking down everything before him. The natives had already caught sight of him, and the dogs were close upon his heels, so that

it was dangerous to discharge our guns. One of our party, however, imprudently fired, killing a dog and slightly wounding a Kaffir in the leg. Now came the stampede of white men, Kaffirs, and dogs, the unclothed natives having the advantage, the 'vach-an-bechie' or 'wait-a-bit' thorns terribly retarding our progress. The shouts of the natives soon informed us that the antelope was down, and on emerging into an open space we saw them assembled around him; having been struck by a spear in the side, the animal had been outrun and dragged down by the hounds. After some more bucks had been killed we fell in with the spoor of a herd of wild pigs; the ground had evidently been turned up by them. On we went at a tearing pace, the woods re-echoing the shouts of the savages. Scrambling up the opposite side of a deep ravine, we came up with two of the herd, one of our party having the good fortune to shoot one of them—a ferocious-looking boar of great size. Being by this time satisfied with our day's sport, and pretty well fatigued, we left the Kaffirs, whose voices soon faded in the distance. It was past noon, and the heat was very great, so we were glad to rest near a small stream oozing out of the gigantic cliffs which form a back to the forest. What a contrast was the stillness there reigning to the commotion just experienced! It was to us peculiarly enchanting, although to some it would have been oppressive. Nature seemed to have hushed all her creatures to sleep, and the monotonous din of insects invited us to repose. In this hunt there must have been killed nearly a hundred antelopes, as well as monkeys, cane-rats, iguanas, and ichneumons, besides the pigs mentioned. No leopards were killed this day, but in a similar hunt some time ago a large one was shot whilst lying across the branch of a tree.'

Plants.

Vegetation.

Amongst the native vegetable productions of Natal are the wild bananas (*Strelitzia angusta*), wild palms (*Phœnix reclinata*), the tree euphorbia, the *Candelabra spurge*, the *Caput-Medusæ* euphorbia, the Natal plum, the Kaffir broom (*Erythrina Caffra*), the fire-lily, an amaryllid of the genus cyrtanthus, the Natal lily (*Ama-*

ryllis belladonna), the hæmanthus, the calla (*Reichardia Ethiopica*), the Natal white arum, the aloe, earth-growing orchids, the leonotis, and mimosæ. True grasses are very numerous. The yellow-wood, sneeze-wood, the stink-wood, the black iron-wood, white iron-wood, lance-wood, white peartree, white milk-wood, South African ash, saffron-wood, South African elder, are counted among the Natal timber-trees. The ferns of Natal are in great variety.

Productions, Industries, &c.

Minerals.

Minerals.—No proper geological survey of Natal has been made, and its mineralogical wealth has yet to be discovered. Coal measures of an excellent quality and fair quantity have been more than indicated in the district of Newcastle, on the north-eastern side of Klip River. The distance of the site from the sea and the large markets of the colony have been unfavourable to coal mining. It is hoped that the railway system will, before long, reach the Newcastle coal-fields and bring them into play. Anthracite coal crops out at Morewood's Bay, on the coast. Extensive deposits are supposed to exist in the neighbourhood of the Umhlali, in Victoria County, and a vein has been discovered about 15 miles from the mouth of the Umvoti. Indications of gold are not wanting, but there is no reason to anticipate a discovery of any value. A few years ago experimental digging and prospecting were not attended by any encouraging success. Iron is abundantly present, Signs of copper show themselves on the Illovo. Alexandria is known to possess valuable beds of slate and marble. Slate has again been found at Edendale, not far from Maritzburg. Granite crops out at 'the Half-way-house,' between Durban and the capital, while good building stone is to be had in large quantities at the Umhlatuzan quarries. The time will come when the Natal minerals will be of the greatest importance to the wealth and industries of the colony.

Plantation produce.

Plantation Produce.—The climate and soil of the coast islands of Natal are more or less favourable to the growth of plantation produce, such as sugar, coffee, arrowroot, spices, tobacco, cotton, flax, silk, and tropical

or semi-tropical fruits. It must not be supposed, however, that all these articles have been raised with success. At the present stage of the industrial and economical progress of Natal it is premature to speak of absolute failure or success in connection with its plantation enterprises. The probabilities are that as capital becomes more readily available, knowledge increases with experience, and labour is more disciplined and pliant, the difficulties which now often wait upon and discourage first attempts will be removed. At present cotton and coffee are not considered to be as attractive as they were at one time expected to be. The mulberry grows readily enough, but silk-growing is not to be classed amongst the thriving industries of Natal. Arrowroot does fairly well, but is not now produced in any quantity; it is the same with tobacco, as well as pepper. Bananas and pine-apples can be produced in abundance. But sugar commands the largest share of the Natal planter's attention. In 1875, after the domestic and up-country markets had been supplied, Natal exported 155,515 cwt. of sugar, valued at 169,815*l.*, and also, after supplying the home consumption of rum, had 22,701 gallons of that spirit to spare for outsiders.

Sugar.

It was in 1849, or twenty-seven years ago, that Mr. Morewood first planted the sugarcane in Natal. In 1852 the same enterprising colonist crushed out the first juice and manufactured the first pound of sugar. Now there are not less than 30,000 acres of plantation, yielding 10,000 tons, employing thousands of coolies and natives, and giving work to about seventy mills worked by steam, as well as several distilleries. Land and sites suitable for the cultivation of the cane are not to be found everywhere on the coast, but only in certain spots to be selected with care and judgment. In the early days of sugar-growing each separate estate was furnished with its own mill, but central mills are now at work, or in course of erection, at which the whole cane grown in the neighbourhood is crushed. The mere cultivation of cane requires no special knowledge, and settlers possessed of small means only may engage in it with profit, if they carefully select their land within a practical distance of a mill. It is, of course, necessary to conclude an agreement with the miller before planting. The miller, as a rule, carries the cane from the field and

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takes half the sugar, or returns two-thirds of the sugar if the cane is carried by the planters.

Importance of coolies.

With respect to the present condition and prospects of the Natal sugar industry the *Natal Mercury* says:—'If only coolie immigration be continued we see no limit to the extension of the sugar interest. Since the introduction of the Calcutta men in 1874 every estate in the division has had new life imparted to it, and the large planting in 1875 is the result of reliable labour.

'We have no hesitation in affirming, notwithstanding the present monetary pinch, that the majority of estates were never in better order or on a firmer footing for future returns than at present.'

Average yield.

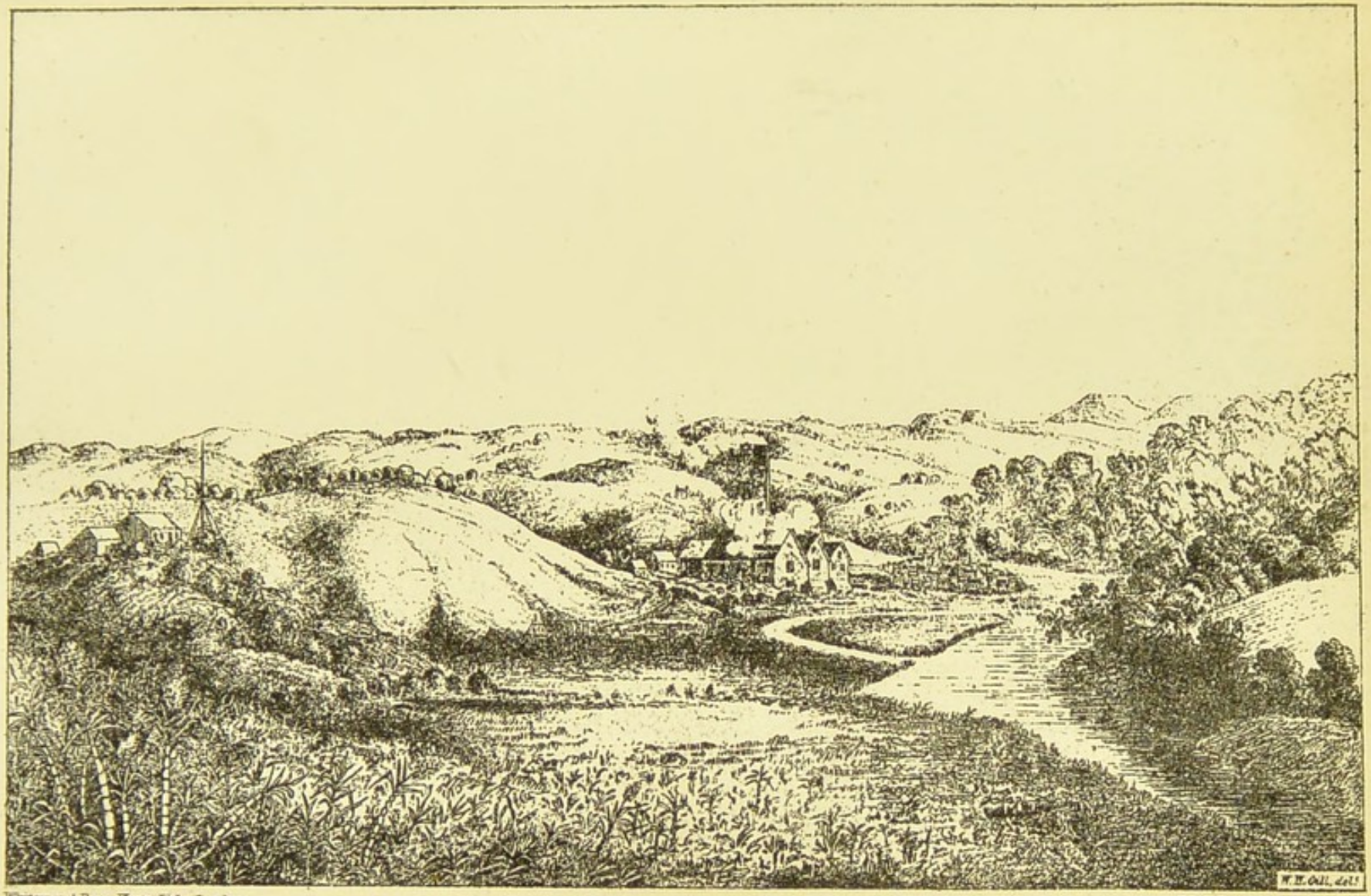
The average yield of sugarcane in Natal is 3,360 lbs. of sugar per acre, which at $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. gives 35*l.* per acre gross. The average rate of carriage to the port is not over $\frac{1}{8}d.$ per lb. The cost of production varies considerably, but the average is low enough for a fair profit, supposing the original outlay does not entail heavy interest. A statement given by Dr. Mann admits of the following analysis:—

CAPITAL ACCOUNT.

	£
700 acres, at £3 an acre	2,100
House	150
Horse at £20, and 60 oxen at £8 each	500
Fencing plantation of 50 acres	50
Machinery	2,400
Sugar house, battery, clarifers, sheds	650
Four carts	100
Total	£5,950

WORKING EXPENSES.

Ploughing and planting 50 acres, at £7 per acre	£350
Weeding and dressing crop, at £2 per acre	100
Salary of superintendent, one year	150
Wages for four months' crushing, boiling, &c., £70 a month	280
Carriage of 100 tons produce, at £2 per ton	200
Loss on sugar bags at 10*s.* per ton	50
Wood for raising steam and sundries	80
Total	£1,210
Interest on capital and expenditure, at £6 per cent.	429
	£1,639



Whiteman & Bass, *Photo-Litho* London.

S.W. Silver & Co, Cornhill.

SUGAR PLANTATION & MILL,

NEAR DURBAN, NATAL.

GROSS PROCEEDS.

100 tons of sugar, at £24 per ton	£2,400
Treacle	210
	2,610
Deduct outlay and interest	1,639
Net profit	£971

This represents a return on first outlay of a little more than 13 per cent., in addition to 5 per cent. for interest, or, taking both rates together, of nearly 20 per cent. This may be taken to represent a successful beginning. Subsequent returns would be increased by the produce of the ratoons.

Another estimate.

The latest estimate of the results of sugar-growing which has been published is given as follows from the *Natal Mercury*, in April of this year (1876):—'We shall not enter into the argument whether sugar thrives here or not, for all our readers, who have visited the coast, must have remarked the heavy crops of cane to be seen in the fields, of two, three, and even four tons of sugar per acre. With ordinary cultivation, and on moderate land, an average yield of 1½ ton of sugar per acre may be expected from plant cane and first ratoons, without fear of disappointment. On this basis we propose to show that a person beginning with sufficient capital will find that the sugar enterprise in Natal will yield him, not a fortune perhaps, but at any rate a handsome percentage on his outlay:—

Capital required for commencing a sugar estate capable of turning out 700 tons per annum	£20,000

EXPENSES ON FIRST YEAR'S CROP.

To cultivation of 330 acres of cane, at £8 per acre	£2,640	
Manufacture of 500 tons from above acreage, at £6 per ton	3,000	
Wear and tear	1,000	
Manure (not required first years, but made an annual charge)	660	
Interest on capital at 8 p. cent.	1,600	
		8,900

RECEIPTS.

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500 tons of vacuum-pan sugar, at £21 per ton net at the mill	10,500
Profit after paying interest	£1,600

'When the planter begins to reap ratoon crops his expenditure is less, whilst his out-turn of sugar ought then to be equal to the full capacity of his mill; therefore his profits will rise much above the figures given above. The figures we have quoted under the head of expenses are, if anything, high. Cultivation costs less than 8*l.* per acre on many estates, whilst again on others manufacturing is done for less than 6*l.* per ton. When we look around us we see that these men, some years ago called "the little men," who built their mills according to their acreage under crop, are now in independent circumstances, whilst, on the other hand, four-fifths of the "great men," who had erected large fabrics and forgotten the planting, have mostly passed away. The reason why is apparent. In one instance sugar has paid, and in the other failed. The extensive planting of last season—the first that Natal has ever known—will, in 1877, bring the out-turn of nearly every mill in this division up to its full working capacity. Thus, for the first time in the history of sugar-planting in Natal the conditions are favourable for the successful development of the enterprise.'

It is scarcely necessary to say that figures like the foregoing cannot be accepted as indicating certainty, and are not put forth as an inducement to intending emigrants to embark in sugar cultivation at Natal. Careful examination of facts on the spot is the only safe course to be pursued by anyone thinking of venturing capital in this industry.

Sheep and wool.

Sheep Farming.—The midlands and upper country are adapted to sheep farming, which is now declared to be a far more successful avocation than at one time was anticipated. A recent controversy as to the comparative profitableness of the sugar and wool growing industries have brought out statements of which we give the following instances:—

A Natal farmer, writing in March 1876, with the

view of showing that sheep farming had paid in one case, says :—'The farm is about twelve hundred acres, one hundred acres in cultivation; about ninety head of breeding cattle and oxen, a few pigs, &c. The owner commenced with sheep in January 1874, and sheep have gone up in price since; and the manure is used on the farm, which is of great value :—

	£	s.	d.
January 1874, bought 145 sheep	108	19	0
May 1875, bought ewes and 76 ewe lambs	49	16	0
Cost of herding, shearing, cleansing, &c.	50	0	0
Three rams	9	0	0
	£217	15	0

	£	s.	d.
1874, sold wool	21	9	0
1875, sold 45 wether lambs	31	10	0
1875, sold wool	36	15	0
1876, sold 50 wether lambs	33	15	0
1876, sold and killed 20 fat sheep	20	0	0
1876, now on the farm, 302 sheep, with six months' wool on	270	0	0
1876, 200 young lambs this month	50	0	0
	463	9	0
Original cost of sheep	217	15	0
Profit	£245	14	0

This is, of course, an incomplete balance-sheet, as the rent of the farm, or the interest on price, if the farm had been bought, is not included. Probably, however, not more than 40*l.* or 50*l.* should be added to outlay on account of rent or interest on purchase-money, as such a farm is not wholly occupied with sheep.

Another farmer submits the following estimate :—

'From 2,000 good ewes the owner has a right to expect in the year—

1,500 lambs, worth when weaned 10*s.* each	£750
Wool	200
	£950

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Expenses of production would be :—

Rent of 6,000 acre farm	£84	
Herding	30	
Shearing and carrying wool	20	= £134
		£816

'In case of the flock getting the scab the cost of dipping would have to be added to the above. I have charged the sheep with the whole rent of the farm and house; but it must be remembered there will be cattle and horses on most, and that butter and young stock are no small items to the profit side—to say nothing of agricultural produce in the shape of mealies, &c. Of course there are farms which are not adapted for sheep, on which they do not thrive, and where a loss of twenty-five per cent. may be exceeded, but my own loss never reached more than the figure given. There are unfortunate localities afflicted with Kaffir dogs and native thieves, the losses by which it is impossible to average—losses for which it is to be hoped a remedy will be found ere long. But on taking into consideration the relative profits accruing from sheep-farming and sugar-planting it must be borne in mind that the capital of the farmer produces itself. I don't know any sheepowner in the district who started with a capital of 500*l*. invested in stock, but I know many who are getting an annual income of twice the amount of the original outlay in sheep. Nearly all sheep farmers started as poor men. They had not sufficient capital to do anything else. Of course there are exceptions; but the great majority have done well, and as a rule are by no means anxious to make out a good case for themselves. Their flocks are steadily on the increase and they find they want more room, and land is rising in value rather too fast to please them, or to induce them to say much that would bring about increased competition for what is left.'

This is a useful statement, but it needs enlargement. No reference is made to original cost of sheep. This may be included as follows :—

CAPITAL.

Cost of 2,000 sheep, at 15*s*. each	£1,500

OUTLAY.	
Rent of 6,000 acres	84
Herding, shearing, carrying	30
Interest on cost of sheep at 6 per cent.	80
	£194

GROSS PROCEEDS.	
1,500 lambs, at 10*s.* each	£750
Wool	200
	£950
Deduct	194
Apparent profit	£756

Here again it is desirable to accompany these figures with a caution. The average of several years must be carefully calculated before a just opinion can be formed of the results of sheep farming.

Cultivation.

Agriculture and Grazing.—Natal affords a large acreage for the cultivation of wheat, barley, oats, and maize, and has extensive grass lands for horned cattle. At present, however, the colony imports a large portion of its breadstuffs, and dairy produce is not abundant.

Districts and Towns.

Districts.

The colony is divided into nine districts, called counties—three on the coast, Victoria, Durban, Alexandria and Alfred; two in the mid-territory, Umvoti and Pietermaritzburg; and three in the upland region, Newcastle, Klip River, and Weenen. Magistrates reside in all these divisions.

Towns.

The towns of Natal are—Pietermaritzburg, the capital; Durban, the seaport; Verulam, Pinetown, Newcastle, Ladismith, Weenen, Colenso, Estcourt, Greytown, York, Richmond, and Victoria.

Pietermaritzburg.

Pietermaritzburg is remarkable for the fineness of its site, the length and regularity of its streets, and the abundance of its water supply. It is the seat of Government, the residence of the Bishop of the Anglican Church and of the Judges of the Supreme Court. It is also the head-quarters of the military. Amongst its religious communions are the Church of England, the

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Church of Rome, the Church of Scotland, and the Wesleyan and Congregational Churches. It has several good schools, two newspapers, public gardens, a public library, and a museum; a spacious market square, banks, a subscription club, several hotels, annual races, and other sporting institutions. It is about sixty miles from Durban, with which it is connected by a regular passenger line of coaches, a mail service, and a telegraph wire. The river Umgeni flows close by it. Maritzburg is a municipality, and has a Mayor and Town Council. The following census of the town, taken in January 1876, shows a considerable advance upon the figures of 1867 given in the general table for that year :—

Census of Maritzburg, January 1876.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites	2,240	2,050	4,290
Mounted police	23	—	23
Hindus	119	131	250
Kaffirs	2,282	217	2,499
St. Helenas	32	36	68
Hottentots	27	47	74
Chinese	53	—	53
Togt natives	210	—	200
	4,986	2,481	7,457

Total No. of houses and stores occupied by whites in the city	799
Ditto on town lands	100
Empty	12
	911
Occupied by coloured people	76
Total	987

Durban.

Durban is the only seaport of Natal. In population it exceeds Pietermaritzburg, the total number of its inhabitants being now close upon 10,000. It is, indeed, the third city in all South Africa, ranking next after Capetown and Port Elizabeth. It is the gate of the colonial commerce, and shares largely in the import and export traffic of the Transvaal, the Free State, and the Diamond-fields. Its trade will be still more considerable when the harbour works, long since begun,

have overcome the difficulties of the bar, and the railway system, now projected and commenced, has made transport along the coast and to and from the interior regular and comparatively easy. A small railway connects the wharves with the town, and a line to Maritzburg is being constructed. Durban is a place of trade, and is well furnished with banks, insurance offices, and other commercial institutions. Its stores are numerous and spacious. Almost all British churches are represented by congregations. Its botanical garden is celebrated for the variety and wealth of its vegetation, while the suburban hilly range, called the Berea, is one of the most beautiful of sites for residences. It has two newspapers.

Government.

Political Institutions.

The Government of Natal is singular in its character. The chief officer of the Administration is the Lieutenant-Governor, and the other members of the Executive are the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Secretary for Native Affairs, and the Protector of Immigrants. In addition to these officers the Lieutenant-Governor is empowered to call to the Executive Council two non-official members of the Legislative Council, with the view of giving increased influence to the popular element. The Legislative Council is composed of twenty-eight members, the five Executive officers already mentioned, eight nominees of the Government, and fifteen members elected by the two principal towns and the several counties. Thus the Government is a curious mixture of official, nominee, and electoral authorities. The eight nominees are to be possessed of a high property qualification, and their names must have been on the voters' roll for two years. The new Council of twenty-eight members assembled for the first time on Sept. 30, 1875.

The following are the present chief officers of the Natal Government:—

His Excellency Sir George Pomeroy Colley, C.B., Governor in and over the Colony of Natal, Commander-in-Chief and Vice-Admiral of the same, and of the north-eastern provinces of South Africa.

Colonial Secretary, Hon. Major C. B. H. Mitchell.

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Secretary for Native Affairs, Hon. J. W. Shepstone.
Attorney-General, Hon. M. H. Gallwey, Esq.
Treasurer-General, Hon. J. Bird.
Protector of Immigrants, Major S. Graves.

Tariffs of Government Duties.

Customs.

(Under authority of Law No. 1, 1867, which came into force on July 1, 1867.)

SCHEDULE A.

Customs Tariff.

	£	s.	d.
Ale or beer (in bottle and wood), per gallon	0	0	6
Beads, per pound	0	0	4
Candles, per pound	0	0	1
Cheese, per pound	0	0	2
Coffee, per cwt.	0	6	0
Cotton blankets, whether in the single article, in pairs, or in pieces, at per £100 value	15	0	0
Dried fruits, per pound	0	0	1
Guns and gun-barrels, each barrel	0	10	0
Gunpowder, per lb.	0	0	6
Hoes, adze-hoes or part thereof, not classified as Kaffir hoes, each	0	0	6
Jackets or coats made of blanketing or baize or twilled baize, at per £100 value	15	0	0
Picks or hoes, called Kaffir picks or hoes, or any pieces of iron made or fashioned so as to be easily convertible into Kaffir hoes or picks, each pick or hoe, and each portion of iron convertible as aforesaid into one pick or hoe, each	0	1	0
Pickles, sauces, bottled fruits, jams and jellies, potted fish and meat, at per £100 value	12	0	0
Pistols, pistol-barrels or set of barrels, each	0	5	0
Salt beef and pork, at per £100 value	10	0	0
Spirits of all sorts not sweetened, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, at per gallon	0	8	0
Sweetened spirits, liqueurs or cordials, at per gallon	0	8	0
Sugar (not refined), per cwt.	0	3	6
Sugar (refined) and candy, per cwt.	0	12	0
Tea, per pound	0	0	6
Tobacco (not manufactured), per cwt.	2	2	0
Tobacco (manufactured), per pound	0	1	6
Tobacco (cigars), per pound	0	4	0
Wine, in wood or bottles, per gallon	0	2	0

	£	s.	d.
Woollen blankets, railway rugs, and manufactures of wool, or a mixture of wool and cotton, commonly used as woollen blankets, whether in the single article, in pairs, or in the piece, for every £100 value	15	0	0
Goods, wares, and merchandise not otherwise charged with duty, not prohibited to be imported, and not declared by Schedule B of this law to be free of duty, every £100 value	6	0	0

SCHEDULE B.

A Table of Goods Duty Free, excepting Registration Charges as set forth in Schedule C.

Free list.

Animals, living.

Agricultural implements, that is to say, ploughs, harrows, reaping machines, winnowing machines, and all other machines and implements employed in agricultural pursuits.

Books and music (printed). Maps and charts, except reprints of works protected by the English Copyright Act, or prohibited to be imported. Bread stuffs. Bricks and fire-bricks. Casks, staves for casks. Heading for casks. Hoops and hoop-iron. Coin and bullion. Coals, coke, and patent fuel. Cement, Portland and Roman. Diamonds. Flour and meal (wheaten). Fresh fruit and fresh vegetables. Grain of all kinds. Grain bags, gunny bags and bagging. Guano and other manures. Ice. Lime. Machinery used exclusively in the preparation and manufacture of any of the productions of the soil and in sawing timber, and in the making of bricks and tiles. Peas, beans, and pulse of every kind. Printing presses and type. Pig-iron. Provisions, stores, and articles of every description imported for the use of Her Majesty's land and sea forces or for the Colonial Government, provided the duty otherwise payable thereon would be paid or borne by the Treasury of the United Kingdom or the Government of this Colony. Railway carriages. Rice. Salt. Slates, for roofing. Seeds, bulbs, and plants, and specimens of natural history. Tiles.

Uniforms and appointments imported by and for the use of any officers of Her Majesty's civil, military, or naval service, serving on full pay in this Colony, or for any militia or volunteer forces in this Colony.

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Vacoa bags and wool bags, made up.

Wines and spirits, as imported or taken out of bond for the use of the Lieutenant-Governor, and for the use of Her Majesty's military officers serving on full pay in this Colony, and also for the use of the officers of Her Majesty's navy on full pay, and serving on board any of Her Majesty's ships, subject, however, to such regulations as the Collector of Customs shall think fit to make. Provided, however, that if any such wines or spirits so imported shall be subsequently sold in this Colony, except for the use or consumption of any of the officers aforesaid, the same shall, unless duty be first paid thereon, be forfeited.

SCHEDULE C.

Registration Charges on Free Goods.

Registration fees.

	£	s.	d.
Flour, meal, rice, grain, peas, beans, &c., imported, each bag or barrel	0	0	2
Bricks, tiles, slates, coals, coke, patent fuel, pig-iron, cement, manure, lime, salt, per ton	0	1	0
Machinery, agricultural implements, and all other free goods not specified by preceding rates, except goods the property of, and imported for, the Imperial or Colonial Governments, at the option of the Collector of Customs, at 1*s.* per ton or per package .	0	0	6

SCHEDULE D.

Articles Prohibited to be Imported.

Prohibited articles.

Books, drawings, paintings and prints, and photographs of an immoral or indecent character. Coin, base or counterfeit.

Inland Bonded Warehouse.

Bonded charges.

Under section 10 of Law No. 18, 1866, there is leviable upon any home consumption entry, in addition to the customs duties payable thereon, a further charge of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. upon the total amount of duty on the goods specified in said entry.

Steam-tug Fund.

Steam-tug charges.

By Law No. 2, 1871, passed for the purpose of raising funds to repay the Steam-tug Loan, it is enacted

that on every bill of entry provided for by sections 32 and 39, Ordinance 6, 1855, for goods imported, or to be delivered from Crown or bonding warehouses, and upon which import duties shall be due and payable, there shall be charged and paid on the total amount of the import duties set forth in such entry a further sum of 3*d.* for every pound and proportion of a pound sterling of such total amount of duties; and on every bill of entry for goods imported free of duty on which registration charges shall be due or payable there shall be paid, in addition to the fees and charges set forth in Law No. 1, 1867, Schedule C, fees and charges at and after in the rate set forth in the following schedule:—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Flour, meal, rice, grain, peas, beans, &c., imported, each bag or barrel	0	0	1
Bricks, tiles, slates, coals, coke, patent fuel, pig-iron, cement, manure, lime, salt, per ton	0	0	6
Machinery, agricultural implements, and all other free goods not specified by preceding rates, except goods the property of and imported for the Imperial or Colonial Governments, at the option of the Collector of Customs, at per ton	0	0	6
At per package	0	0	3

Law No. 2, 1872.

Under authority of Law No. 2, 1872, which came into force on July 4, 1872, the following duties are leviable in lieu of the duties heretofore payable under Law No. 1, 1867, on the articles mentioned in the following schedule:— New duties.

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Spirits of all sorts, not sweetened, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so on in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, at per gallon	0	6	3
Spirits (sweetened), liqueurs or cordials, at per gallon	0	6	3
Potted fish and meats, salt beef, pork, pickles, sauces, bottled fruits, jams and jellies, refined and candy sugar, beads, for every £100 value	6	0	0
Cheese, per pound	0	0	1½
Picks, each	0	0	6

Law No. 2, 1872.

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New duties.

Under authority of Law No. 2, 1872, which came into force on December 31, 1872, the following duties are leviable in lieu of duties heretofore payable under Law No. 1, 1867, on the articles mentioned in the following schedule :—

	£	s.	d.
Machinery to be employed in agricultural, manufacturing, and mining operations, also in distillation and other chemical processes, as well as the cleaning, pressing, and otherwise preparing of any article for exportation, at the option of the Collector of Customs, at per package	0	0	6
Or per ton weight or measurement	0	1	0

Revenue and Expenditure.

Revenue and expenditure.

The revenue of Natal is chiefly derived from customs. The tariff is given in a previous section. The next important source is the native contribution in the form of hut tax. Land sales and rents yield comparatively little. The revenue proper for 1877 was 272,473*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* At present expenditure is slightly in excess of revenue. The following comparative statement gives revenue and expenditure for 1876 and 1877 :—

	£	s.	d.
Expenditure proper, 1877	283,823	12	8
Revenue	272,473	12	10
Excess of expenditure	11,349	19	10
Expenditure proper, 1876	261,933	17	4
Revenue	265,551	15	4
Excess of revenue	£3,617	18	0

The following table shows the revenue from the year 1861 :—

1861	£114,087	1870	£126,049
1862	109,299	1871	125,628
1863	113,087	1872	179,429
1864	152,241	1873	208,086
1865	176,295	1874	249,248
1866	191,894	1875	260,271
1867	142,631	1876	265,551
1868	94,113	1877	272,473
1869	111,231		

It will thus be seen that the revenue has more than doubled itself in fourteen years.

The following table shows the revenue and expenditure in 1874:—

Revenue Proper of Natal for 1874.

	£	s.	d.
Customs	109,724	18	2
Excise	8,132	2	4
Lighthouse dues	491	11	6
Port and harbour dues	3,955	10	0
Land sales	1,710	15	5
Land revenue	7,736	3	0
Transfer dues	9,274	19	4
Auction dues	2,375	9	2
Stamps	3,048	13	2
Native hut tax	27,683	19	3
Mail Service	7,983	12	9
Telegraph	377	17	0
Fines, forfeitures, and Fees of Court	5,437	14	10
Fees of office	1,483	13	8
Fees on native marriages	13,648	10	0
Sale of Government property	827	2	8
Immigration	650	10	10
Reimbursements in aid	792	18	0
Ammunition	12,119	4	6
Miscellaneous receipts	1,729	15	10
Interest	3,105	13	0
Receipts from sales, &c., Harbour works	807	7	1
Special receipts	22,577	10	10
Sums refunded	522	0	1
Receipts on account of Native Reserved List	1,061	6	5
Revenue proper	£247,259	5	10

Sources of revenue.

Receipts and Sums not actual Revenue for 1874.

	£	s.	d.
Advances repaid (general)	888	15	0
Deposits	9,516	9	11
Savings' Bank	5,502	18	1
Money orders	—		
Remittances	69,401	4	4
Drafts between stations	9,788	0	5
Receipts on account of Cape Government	139	3	8
Bills receivable and Exchequer Bills	4,192	3	9
Investment Account	13,000	0	0
Total general account	£359,688	1	0

Expenditure Proper for 1874.

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Detailed expenditure.

	£	s.	d.
Establishments	59,771	19	10
Pensions, retired allowances, gratuities	981	4	9
Administration of justice	1,339	0	6
Education	4,792	0	4
Transport	135	3	6
Mail Service	9,632	15	7
Telegraph	1,684	9	2
Works and buildings	20,703	19	2
Roads, streets, and bridges	35,106	12	4
Miscellaneous Services	4,587	11	5
Legislative Council	4,273	14	6
Colonial defence	6,813	13	7
Crown Agents	306	16	9
Ammunition	16,746	0	3
Excise	1,471	9	1
Aborigines	279	14	0
Immigration	6,807	0	10
Gratuities	2,025	0	0
Colonial allowance	4,312	19	2
Interest	404	15	1
Special payments	31,835	13	2
Native purposes	4,759	0	5
Sums refunded	434	8	9
Interest and Sinking Funds, public loans	24,285	0	0
Harbour works	5,479	14	0
Mounted Police	4,969	17	10
Loan to Indian Trust Board	52,425	0	1
Expenditure proper, 1874	£306,364	14	1

Sums and Payments on Account, not actual Expenditure, for 1874.

	£	s.	d.
Advances made	7,947	1	1
Deposits withdrawn	5,066	19	11
Savings' Bank	3,129	9	11
Remittances and drafts	72,210	7	2
Payments on account of the Cape	135	17	11
Bills receivable and Exchequer	4,690	19	0
Total	£93,180	15	0
Expenditure proper	306,364	14	1
Total expenditure	£399,545	9	1

Treasury Statement for 1875 *and* 1874.

Treasury Statement.

The following Treasury Statement for 1875 has appeared in the *Natal Government Gazette*, with a comparison of same items for the year 1874:—

Revenue and other Receipts.

	Total Receipts into the Treasury between 1st Jan. and 31st Dec. 1875. £ s. d.	Total Receipts for last year. £ s. d.
Balances	39,969 10 7	68,977 11 3
Actual revenue . . .	255,282 9 2	254,236 12 5
Other receipts . . .	48,100 6 6	52,847 6 11
Total receipts . . .	303,382 16 8	307,083 19 4
Totals, including balances .	£343,345 6 3	£376,061 10 7

Expenditure and other Payments.

ACTUAL EXPENDITURE—

	Total Payments out of the Treasury between 1st Jan. and 31st Dec. 1875. £ s. d.	Total Payments for last year. £ s. d.
In the Colony . . .	241,829 19 11	256,474 14 9
Remittances to Crown Agents	31,728 0 0	50,000 0 0
Total actual expenditure .	273,557 19 11	306,474 14 9
Other payments . . .	41,218 11 11	29,624 5 3
Total disbursements . .	£314,766 11 10	£336,099 0 0
Balances	26,568 14 5	39,962 10 7
	£343,345 6 3	£376,061 10 7

Liabilities and Assets.

The following statement of the finances of the Colony was laid on the table of the Legislative Council in May 1875 :—

LIABILITIES.

Public Debt.

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Harbour Works Loan, 1860 .	98,500 0 0	
Coolie Loan, 1864 . . .	69,000 0 0	
Consolidated Loan, 1871 . .	161,100 0 0	
		331,600 0 0
Deposits (Masters' and others) .	12,776 10 5	
Savings' Bank	9,141 14 1	
		21,918 4 6
Balance of £65,000, raised under Consolidated Loan Law (bridge over Tugela River, wharves, &c., and incidental expenses)		14,505 16 4
		£36,424 0 10
Excess of assets over liabilities . .		120,463 6 8
		£156,887 7 6

ASSETS.

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Sinking Fund.

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Harbour works	37,910	8	1			
Coolie	14,020	12	2			
Consolidated	4,130	8	7			
				56,061	8	10
Balance in Banks	£22,434	3	4			
Balance in Treasurer's and Sub-Accountant's hands	2,668	9	10			
				25,102	13	2
Surplus funds invested				53,700	0	0
Loan to Indian Immigration Trust Board	50,000	0	0			
Loan to Natal Railway Company	1,500	0	0			
				51,500	0	0
Released Sinking Fund				26,584	14	4
				£156,887	7	6

Imports and Exports.

Trade.

Natal imports almost every variety of British manufactures and some food stuffs, and exports in quantity aloes, arrowroot, butter, coffee, cotton, feathers (ostrich), hides, ivory, skins, rum, and wool, and many other articles in small amounts. The following shows the value of imports and exports for the last ten years :—

	Imports. £	Exports. £
1868	317,000	271,000
1869	380,000	363,000
1870	429,000	382,000
1871	472,000	562,000
1872	825,000	622,000
1873	1,011,465	651,028
1874	1,121,948	770,034
1875	1,268,838	835,643
1876	1,022,890	657,390
1877	1,167,402	644,165

From this list it will be seen that, in nine years from 1868, Natal has increased its imports by four times, and its exports by more than three times. The rapidly increasing figures from 1871 are to be mainly attributed to the share Natal has secured in the trade of the Diamond and Gold Fields, and also in that of the Transvaal and the Free State.

Principal Imports every alternate Year for Ten Years, ending 1872.

Description	1862	1864	1866	1868	1870	1872
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Cotton manufactures . .	28,496	54,346	22,783	42,209	51,952	102,377
Cotton blankets and sheets	12,624	4,090	5,427	10,721	13,968	20,042
Linen manufactures . . .	5,417	6,304	3,483	4,557	7,047	2,397
Woollen manufactures . .	6,025	19,387	7,734	9,349	12,048	18,842
Woollen blankets	4,592	7,824	5,466	11,729	12,169	28,447
Leather manufactures . .	10,302	22,370	6,149	9,990	15,957	33,557
Apparel, &c.	24,538	34,606	16,045	23,753	36,147	63,656
Haberdashery	25,685	42,044	28,002	22,216	42,348	77,546
Saddlery	5,813	11,218	1,814	1,534	3,710	14,776
Cabinet & upholstery ware	9,469	9,568	2,662	2,166	1,267	8,866
Agricultural implements .	5,077	4,558	1,069	3,611	2,191	4,224
Machinery	12,219	9,796	9,405	9,558	15,204	18,363
Iron of all kinds	11,776	24,230	2,757	7,394	10,457	28,437
Ironmongery, cutlery, &c.	31,740	33,073	10,091	10,370	21,118	33,898
Ale and beer	19,406	13,328	8,927	9,490	8,957	17,595
Spirits	11,884	22,612	6,196	3,644	7,377	20,313
Wine	8,320	14,603	5,624	3,987	5,753	14,587
Coffee	14,622	23,150	14,443	10,719	11,817	3,666
Tea	7,313	7,726	3,399	5,546	5,266	9,791
Sugar, raw and refined . .	3,038	2,241	883	283	828	833
Oilman stores	13,640	16,406	5,330	4,209	9,179	10,447
Tobacco and cigars . . .	2,295	6,560	1,459	1,046	1,462	4,428
Flour and meal	20,143	31,320	22,631	6,511	12,364	17,009
Grain of all kinds	1,762	6,918	2,838	494	435	3,256
Rice	6,096	9,716	10,520	9,403	7,747	19,871

Principal Exports every alternate Year for Ten Years, ending 1872.

Description	1862	1864	1866	1868	1870	1872
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Arrowroot	1,547	2,848	5,744	5,501	4,696	5,647
Grain	4,970	788	7,511	10,022	1,119	853
Butter	11,381	5,650	11,114	6,842	7,298	5,178
Hides	5,514	4,783	5,471	9,501	24,573	45,026
Skins	728	2,083	1,052	16,117	45,271	92,344
Ivory	27,059	26,254	6,673	6,077	12,051	9,392
Ostrich feathers	2,510	6,972	10,921	8,839	6,364	9,745
Salt, meat, bacon, & hams	183	3	1,672	6,559	4,102	—
Coffee	—	—	—	2,425	7,512	8,516
Rum	—	—	—	300	2,051	1,277
Cotton	62	2,646	4,699	2,263	3,479	1,579
Sugar	21,178	94,208	66,191	90,387	111,451	153,978
Wool	38,432	61,720	71,433	91,630	120,771	254,495

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Exports.

Exports in Quantity and Value for 1875.

Articles		Quantity	Value
			£
Aerated Waters	pkgs.	26	75
Ale and Beer			
Aloes	cwt.	23	50
Animals (Live), viz.:—			
Horses	number	2	25
Wild Fowls	,,	3	75
Arrowroot	cwt.	1,727½	2,327
Bacon and Hams	,,	1	3
Bones, viz.:—			
Ox and Cow	tons	19½	91
Giraffe	pieces	687	161
Butter	cwt.	1,005	2,019
Bricks			
Cabinet and Upholsteryware			
Carriages, Wagons, and Carts			
Coffee	cwt.	316	1,586
Curiosities	pkgs.	18	226
Feathers (Ostrich)	lbs.	648	4,057
Flour and Meal (Maize)	qrtr.	1	3
Fruit, viz.:—			
Fresh	pkgs.	90	23
Preserved	,,	116	363
Grain, viz.:—			
Beans and Peas	qrtrs.	118	419
Maize	,,	180	297
Gum (Euphorbia)			
Hair (Angora)	lbs.	28,025	1,494
Hides, viz.:—			
Buffalo	number	4,444	2,248
Ox and Cow	,,	297,365	98,533
Horse	,,	33	7
Hide-parings	pkgs.	1	3
Horns, viz.:—			
Buck	pkgs.	16	157
Ox and Cow	number	23,412	412
Rhinoceros	,,	17	15
Ivory	lbs.	23,912	8,289
Lard Oil	gallons	205	76
Meat (Salted and Cured)	cwt.	2	3
Pickles	pkgs.	36	40
Plants and Bulbs	,,	9	28
Pictures			
Potatoes	cwt.	69½	81

Exports in Quantity and Value for 1875.—Continued.

Articles		Quantity	Value
			£
Sauces	pkgs.	2	2
Saddlery and Harness	,,	22	354
Seeds, viz.:—			
Indigo			
Garden	,,	2	11
Skins, viz.:—			
Calf, Sheep, Buck, &c.	number	70,260	4,914
Wildebeeste, Quagga, &c.	,,	193,970	41,028
Spice, viz.:—Pepper	cwt.	48½	337
Specimens illustrative of Natural History	pkgs.	49	199
Spirits, viz.:—Rum	gallons	22,701	4,259
Sugar, viz.:—			
Raw	cwt.	155,515	169,815
Molasses	,,	6	5
Tobacco (Manufactured)	lbs.	20	2
Tails (Wildebeeste)	pkgs.	1	4
Wool, viz.:—			
Cotton	lbs.	6,603	203
Sheep's	,,	8,108,397	389,257
Woodenware and Houses	pkgs.	8	57
Boats			
Colonial Produce			£733,642
Miscellaneous Goods, not Colonial			102,001*
Total			£835,643

* Note.—In the above amounts are included Gold Dust and Bars £28,443

Imports in Value for 1875, 1874, *and* 1873.

Articles	Year ended Dec. 31, 1875	Year ended Dec. 31, 1874	Year ended Dec. 30, 1873
	£	£	£
Agricultural Implements	4,959	11,716	14,523
Ale and Beer	23,868	20,514	19,961
Apparel and Slops	109,613	93,915	78,547
Beads	5,720	6,853	5,566
Cabinet and Upholstery-ware	19,534	16,446	21,797
Coffee	34,118	9,662	3,167

Imports in Value for 1875, 1874, and 1873.—Continued.

Articles	Year ended Dec. 31, 1875.	Year ended Dec. 31, 1874.	Year ended Dec. 31, 1873.
	£	£	£
Cotton, viz.:—			
Manufactures	98,275	85,246	86,824
Blankets and Sheets	22,592	24,614	39,135
Flour, Meal, and Bran	33,243	38,099	23,027
Grain, viz.:—			
Barley and Rye	Nil	44	Nil
Gram	265	Nil	6
Maize	8,271	980	2,082
Oats	3,905	1,560	1,698
Peas and Beans	211	Nil	645
Wheat	150	1,924	38,430
Guns and Pistols	24,121	28,316	10,335
Gunpowder	847	15,140	96,286
Haberdashery and Millinery	134,040	101,381	
Iron of all sorts	56,439	30,410	18,257
Ironmongery and Hardware	86,062	83,893	71,551
Leather (Manufactured)	70,854	51,057	40,188
Linen	12,090	9,128	10,476
Machinery	31,335	25,124	32,410
Oilman's Stores	18,142	17,909	8,101
Rice	20,739	23,376	10,781
Saddlery and Harness	25,567	25,220	27,150
Spirits of all sorts	27,401	29,008	15,722
Stationery	14,058	10,422	10,376
Sugar (Refined)	1,138	1,464	1,123
Tea	10,474	7,203	8,261
Tobacco, viz.:—			
Manufactured	3,353	1,950	1,837
Unmanufactured	472	622	325
Cigars	2,783	4,754	3,442
Woollen, viz.:—			
Manufactures	19,961	15,520	23,872
Blankets and Rugs	27,635	33,785	39,163
Wines	16,772	17,356	14,996
Total value of the above Articles	£969,457	£844,611	£780,060
Total value of all other Articles	299,381	277,337	231,405
Total value of Imports	£1,268,838	£1,121,946	£1,011,465

Shipping.

Ships Inwards, Ports, and Imports for 1875.

Countries from which the Goods have been imported	Ships		Declared value of Goods imported
	No.	Tons	
Europe, viz. :—			£
United Kingdom . .	57	15,932	1,076,057
British Colonies.			
Asia, viz. :—			
Calcutta . . .	7	6,831	13,746
Gopaulpese . . .	1	476	—
Africa, viz. :—			
Cape Colony . .	66	28,280	59,229
Mauritius . . .	9	1,938	16,513
Australia, viz. :—			
Adelaide . . .	11	2,465	33,468
Melbourne . . .	*Viâ* Adelaide		4,422
Foreign Countries.			
Europe, viz. :—Sweden .	10	2,515	13,111
Africa, viz. :—			
Delagoa Bay . .	22	8,488	16,892
Inhambane . . .	2	353	3,216
Madagascar . . .	1	336	902
Mozambique . .	1	613	574
St. John's River . .	6	456	5,561
Quillimaine . . .	1	131	154
Zanzibar . . .	*Viâ* Delagoa Bay		2,845
America (N.), viz. :—			
United States . .	2	670	12,651
America (S.), viz. :—			
Brazil	*Viâ* Cape Colony		9,497
Totals . .	196	69,484	£1,268,838

Ships Outwards, Ports, Exports, and Value, 1875.

Destination	Ships No.	Tonnage	Value	
			Colonial	Not Colonial
Europe, viz.:—			£	£
United Kingdom	38	11,760	578,366	60,721
British Colonies.				
Asia, viz.:—				
Calcutta	2	1,139	Nil	8
Ceylon	1	200	Nil	Nil
Rangoon	1	240	Nil	Nil
Africa, viz.:—				
Cape Colony	73	29,208	142,526	7,865
Mauritius	21	6,374	1,194	2,087
St. Helena	1	198	1,412	12
Australia, viz.:—				
Adelaide	9	1,969	4,825	19
Freemantle	2	532	Nil	2
Sydney	1	268	Nil	1
Foreign Countries.				
Europe, viz.:—				
Marseilles	1	476	Nil	Nil
Asia, viz.:—				
Batavia	2	517	Nil	Nil
Guano	3	593	5	3
Africa, viz.:—				
Delagoa Bay	23	8,996	3,877	14,071
Inhambane	2	152	295	2,254
St. John's River	6	456	1,051	11,833
Mozambique	1	200	15	1,238
Zanzibar	1	651	76	1,867
Quillimaine	1	191	Nil	13
United States, viz.:—				
New York	2	3,363	Nil	6
Wilmington	1	200	Nil	1
Totals	192	67,743	£733,642	£102,001

Market Prices.

Maritzburg, May 1880.

		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Angora Hair	per lb.	0	1	$2\frac{1}{8}$	to	0	1	$5\frac{7}{8}$
Assorted Vegetables	,, basket	0	2	0	,,	0	4	0
Butter, rolls,	,, lb.	0	2	9	,,	0	2	11
,, tub,	,, ,,	0	1	1	,,	0	1	6
Bacon	,, ,,	0	0	10	,,	0	0	11
Boer Tobacco	,, ,,	0	0	$9\frac{1}{2}$	,,	0	0	10
Bananas	,, doz.	0	0	0	,,	0	0	5
Beans	,, cwt.	0	9	0	,,	0	9	6
Buckwheat	,, ,,	0	12	0	,,	0	15	0
Cauliflowers	each	0	1	0	,,	0	1	6
Coal	per cwt.	0	4	0	,,	0	4	1
Cabbages	,, dozen	0	9	0	,,	0	13	0
Cucumbers	,, ,,	0	4	6	,,	0	5	3
Carrots	,, bunch	0	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$	,,	0	0	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Celery	,, ,,	0	1	9	,,	0	2	0
Dried Peaches	,, lb.	0	0	6	,,	0	0	7
Ducks	,, pair	0	6	0	,,	0	7	0
Eggs	,, dozen	0	2	5	,,	0	3	0
Eschalots	,, bunch	0	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$	,,	0	0	2
Firewood (thorn)	,, cwt.	0	2	0	,,	0	2	3
,, (bush)	,, ,,	0	1	8	,,	0	1	11
Forage	,, ,,	0	4	6	,,	0	15	9
Fowls	each	0	1	7	,,	0	2	2
Flowers (bouquets)	,,	0	1	0	,,	0	1	9
Geese	,,	0	7	0	,,	0	7	6
Goat Skins	,,	0	1	0	,,	0	2	3
Green Peas	per bucket	0	2	0	,,	0	2	6
Green Beans	,,	0	1	0	,,	0	1	9
Green Mealies	per dozen	0	0	3	,,	0	0	4
Green Barley	,, cwt.	0	6	6	,,	0	7	0
Grenadillas	,, 100	0	1	9	,,	0	2	0
Guavas	,, bucket	0	2	0	,,	0	2	$5\frac{1}{2}$
,, China	,, ,,	0	2	0	,,	0	2	0
Hay	waggon load	0	15	0	,,	2	1	0
Hides, Ox and Cow	per lb.	0	0	$5\frac{1}{8}$	,,	0	0	$5\frac{7}{8}$
Lard	,, ,,	0	0	10	,,	0	1	6
Limes	,, 100	0	2	6	,,	0	3	3
Lemons	,, ,,	0	8	0	,,	0	12	0
Mealies	,, cwt.	0	5	0	,,	0	5	11
Mealie Meal	,, ,,	0	5	2	,,	0	5	3
Mealie Cobs	,, sack	0	1	0	,,	0	1	1
Nartjes	,, 100	0	5	0	,,	0	6	0
Neckstrops	,, dozen	0	5	0	,,	0	5	6
Onions	,, lb.	0	0	5	,,	0	0	6

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		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Onions	per cwt.	0	16	0	to	0	17	3
Oranges	„ 100	0	4	6	„	0	5	3
Potatoes	„ cwt.	0	15	0	„	0	19	6
„	„ bucket	0	2	0	„	0	2	3
„ (seed)	„ cwt.	0	3	0	„	0	4	0
„ (sweet)	„ „	0	5	0	„	0	5	9
Pumpkins	„ dozen	0	4	6	„	0	4	9
Pineapples	„ „	0	2	6	„	0	4	0
Pigeons	„ pair	0	1	6	„	0	1	9
Reims	each	0	0	9	„	0	0	10½
Rhubarb	per bunch	0	1	6	„	0	1	9
Radishes	„ „	0	0	1	„	0	0	1½
Sugar (crystallised)	„ lb.	0	0	4	„	0	0	4¼
Slabs of Timber	waggon load	4	15	0	„	5	12	6
Skins (goats')	each	0	0	11	„	0	1	0
Turnips	per bunch	0	0	5	„	0	0	6
Tomatoes	„ bucket	0	1	0	„	0	2	0
Turkeys	each	0	9	6	„	0	15	6
Vegetable Marrows	per dozen	0	6	0	„	0	7	6
Wheat	„ cwt.	0	16	6	„	0	16	9
Wool, grease	„ lb.	0	0	6⅞	„	0	0	8
„ washed	„ „		—		„	0	1	0⅞
Whipsticks (small)	„ „	0	7	0	„	0	7	9
Yellow-wood (scantling)	„ 800 ft.		—		„	5	10	0

Rates of Goods Carriage.

Transport rates.

The following are the quotations at the end of March 1876 :—

Rates are fully 25 per cent. higher at present.

			£	s.	d.
Durban to Pietermaritzburg	per cwt.	2s. to	0	2	6
Pietermaritzburg to Durban	„	1s. „	0	1	6
„ Ladismith	„		0	5	0
„ Newcastle	„		0	6	0
„ Harrismith	„		0	6	0
„ Heidelberg	„		0	12	0
„ Cronstadt	„		0	11	0
„ Winburg	„		0	11	0
„ Bloemfontein	„		0	15	0
„ Potscherfstroom	„		0	15	0
„ Pretoria	„		0	14	0
„ Middleburg	„		0	18	0
„ Diamond Fields	„		0	18	0
„ Leydenberg	„		0	17	6
„ Gold Fields	„		1	5	0
„ Bethlehem	„		0	8	0

Distances in Natal.

Distances Measured by Trochiameter.

				MILES.
From	Pietermaritzburg	to	Liversage's Drift, Umgeni River.	11·5
„	Do.	„	Bayne's Drift, do. .	9·3
„	Bayne's Drift	„	Ecomanzi	21·7
„	Liversage's	„	Do.	23·
„	Ecomanzi	„	Umvoti Drift	7·27
„	Umvoti	„	Grey Town	8·03
„	Grey Town	„	Van Rooi's	7·45
„	Van Rooi's	„	Top of Tugela Cutting . .	18·25
„	Tugela Cutting	„	Across to Tugela Drift . .	5·6
„	Mooi River Drift	„	Tugela River Drift . . .	12·2
„	Tugela Drift	„	C. Hatting's	16·25
„	C. Hatting's	„	Dutchman's House, marked .	14·
„	Job's Kop	„	Umzom's Kraal, under Job's Kop	7·4
„	Umzom's Kraal, under Job's Kop	„	Gregory's House, Sunday's River	13·5
„	Gregory's House	„	Lombaard's Kop . . .	12·3
„	Lombaard's Kop	„	Knight's House, Sunday's River .	20·
„	Knight's House	„	Meliestuin River . . .	10·5
„	Meliestuin	„	Where road crosses ridge of Bigger's Berg	6·5
„	1st Ingagane Outspan	„	Stretch's House	19·
„	Stretch's House	„	Salt Lake	13·7
„	Do.	„	Zeekoe Lake, by Western Road .	34·50
„	Do.	„	Incandu River	13·
„	Do.	„	Shepstone's Lake . . .	17·
„	Incandu River	„	Dutch Laager to the Ingoga River	13·
„	Ingoga River	„	Upper Drift Buffalo River, through Uitrecht District .	13·57
„	Stretch's House	„	Cotze's House	26·
„	Cotze's House	„	Inienti Spruit	16·04
„	Inienti Spruit	„	Rourke's House	10·
„	Rourke's House	„	C. Hatting's	22·
„	Pietermaritzburg	„	Krants Kop, by Liversage's Drift	61·9
„	Do.	„	Durban, Port Natal . . .	54·
„	Do.	„	Bruyn's Farm, near a source of Umkweka River, by Bain's Drift	27·
„	Bruyn's Farm	„	Top of Little Noodsberg . .	17·98
„	Little Noodsberg	„	Applebosch	11·4
„	Do.	„	Great Noodsberg . . .	9·
„	Great Noodsberg	„	Esidumbini Mission Station .	11·
„	Esidumbini Mission Station	„	Umvoti River Drift, Kaffir Location	9·

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			MILES.
From	Umvoti River Drift	to Moussi Kraal	1·7
„	Moussi Kraal, in Kaffir Location	„ Main Road from Krantz Kop to Fort Williamson . . .	8·
„	Mapumulo Mission Station	„ Cross Roads near Krants Kop .	21·77
„	Pietermaritzburg	„ Lidgetton	25·
„	Lidgetton	„ Mooi River Drift . . .	16·
„	Mooi River Drift	„ Bushman's River Drift . .	18·1
„	Bushman's River Drift	„ Blaau Krantz River Drift . .	12·66
„	Bushman's River Drift	„ Colenso	9·75
„	Colenso	„ Ladismith	18·5
„	Ladismith	„ Klip River Drift, Nelson's Kop Road	18·
„	Klip River Drift	„ Top of Drakenberg, De Beer's Pass	8·

Railways.

Railways.

Natal was the first colony in South Africa to introduce steam as a locomotive power in connection with a railway. The short line from Durban to the wharves was constructed by a company about twenty years ago. During that time various efforts have been made to extend this small beginning under Government arrangements; but it is only recently that actual operations have been entered upon. The works are in progress inland from Durban to Maritzburg, from Durban to Verulam along the coast northwards, and from Durban to Umlazi southwards. These are the first sections of two grand trunk lines. The one to Maritzburg is to be carried northwards towards Harrismith, in the Free State, with an extension from Ladismith to the coal district of Newcastle; and that to Verulam, on the coast, is to be extended through Victoria County to the north-east frontier. The south coast line is projected as far as Isipingo. At present, however, provision has been made only for the sections mentioned. The contractors for the Natal Government lines are Messrs. Wythes and Jackson. Mr. Browning is their representative in the colony. The following is a summary of the conditions of the contract drawn up and

signed by the Crown Agents on the part of Natal and the contractors :—

(*a*) Main Line.—For the Railway from Durban to the City of Pietermaritzburg, and all accessory works as herein provided, the gross sum of . .	£606,749
(*b*) North Coast Line.—For the Railway from the Umgeni to the town of Verulam, and all accessory works and things as herein provided, the gross sum of	223,854
(*c*) South Coast Line.—For the Railway from the intended line of Railway (*a*) to the village of Isipingo, and all accessory works and things as herein provided, the gross sum of	55,934
And the sum of £12,500 is to be added for the cost of surveys and sections, plans, drawings, estimates, and preliminary expenses incurred by the contractors, which sum is to be paid in full with the first certificate to be given by the Resident Engineer, as hereinafter provided	12,500
Total	£899,037

Railway contract.

The contract consists of eighty clauses, and provides seemingly for every possible contingency. The whole mileage of the lines is set down at 101, and the works are to be done in the most perfect and permanent manner, all avoidance of 'extras' or supplementary payments being rigorously guarded against. The gauge is 3 feet 6; the weight of rails, 40 lbs.; the bridges, of which there are many, of iron; the stations, simple but solid and commodious; the culverts all of substantial masonwork; the curves never sharper than 300 feet; the gradients never severer than one in thirty. Government has secured the most complete powers of supervision and check through its engineers. The contractors lodge a deposit of 50,000*l.* as security, and are liable to a penalty of 150*l.* per week in case of non-completion within the stipulated periods. Two-thirds of the labour employed has to be imported, and the contractors are bound to maintain the lines for one year after they are opened for traffic. The cost is fixed at an average of 9,600*l.* per mile, including rolling stock, the heaviness of the rate being caused by the exceptional engineering difficulties of the coast sections. The Maritzburg line runs through a tract of rapidly-rising hills, and attains an elevation of

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3,000 feet within forty miles of the coast. The average cost of each may be set down as follows:—

Victoria line	. .	19¾ miles	. . £11,190
Isipingo „	. .	7¼ „	. . 7,700
Maritzburg „	. .	78 „	. . 7,778

It has been already noted that the construction of the Isipingo line has been deferred. It is expected that the railway to Maritzburg will be in working order in 1880.

Harbour Works, the Electric Telegraph, &c.

The harbour.

The Bay of Port Natal, when the tide is in, presents an appearance of remarkable beauty, being surrounded for the most part by hills and slopes well wooded to the margin of the water. But the entrance to this almost land-locked basin is rendered difficult and capricious by a sandbar, which has been but little, if at all, affected for the better by the harbour works which, then by one plan and then another, have been projected. In 1860 a loan of 98,500*l.* was authorised for the construction of piers to be carried out into deep water, and some of the borrowed money has been expended. A tramway to a stone quarry on the River Umgeni has been made for the purpose of conveying materials for the sea-walls. The depth of water varies. Sometimes the water is deep enough for vessels of heavy tonnage, and then for many days it is almost impassable for the lightest seagoing craft. The outer anchorage is an open roadstead. A steam-tug is attached to the port.

Durban is connected with Maritzburg by an electric telegraph, with Cape Colony *viâ* King William's Town, and with England by submarine cable *viâ* Aden.

Conveyances.

Conveyances.

The Natal Railway runs from the wharves to Durban, and thence to Pinetown. From Durban to Maritzburg there are daily lines of passenger omnibuses, the journey being made in one day. Maritzburg to Orange Free State once a week; to Transvaal, twice a week.

The Mail Service.

Mail service.

The Legislative Council has agreed with the Union Steamship Company and Messrs. Donald Currie & Co. for two mails a month each, which secures a weekly mail. Letters are sent by the Cape packets to and from England, the ocean service of the Currie Company being supplemented by coasting steamers regularly running from the Cape ports to Durban. The rates are the same as those for the Cape.

Ecclesiastical.

The Churches.

Almost every Church has its representative organisation in Natal, and numerous mission stations are in operation throughout the colony, including American and Hanoverian agencies. The Church of England is presided over by Bishop Colenso, and the Church (Anglican) of the Province of South Africa, Diocese of Maritzburg, is under Bishop Macrorie. Grants in aid are made to a few of the Natal clergy of the Anglican, Scottish, and Dutch Churches.

Education.

Schools.

The Natal Government spends a sum of nearly 6,000*l.* in grants in aid of education, and this assistance leads to the establishment and maintenance of schools in almost every district in the colony. At Maritzburg and Durban there are High Schools as well as first-class boarding schools for boys and girls. There are seventy-three European schools, with an average attendance of 2,052 pupils; and forty-two native schools, with an average attendance of 1,503 pupils.

Newspapers.

Newspapers.

The newspapers of Natal bear a high character. Durban has two papers—the 'Natal Mercury,' established in 1853, and published daily by Messrs. Robinson & Vause; and the 'Natal Colonist,' published thrice a week by James P. Davis & Sons. Maritzburg has the 'Natal Witness,' established in 1845, published three

times a week by Messrs. Davis & Sons; the 'Times of Natal,' established in 1864, published thrice a week by Messrs. Keith & Co.; and the 'Natal Mercantile Advertiser,' established in 1868, published daily by Messrs. Davis & Sons.

Besides these there are the 'Government Gazette;' the 'Umgaba,' published, in the Zulu language, by T. L. Cullingworth; and the 'Monthly Natal Templar.'

Weights and Measures.

Weights and measures.

The proportion generally made use of, in comparing Dutch and English weight, is 92 lbs. Dutch to 100 lbs. English; the true rate is considered to be 91·80 Dutch to 100 lbs. English, or advoirdupois.

The muid is sometimes used as a corn measure; it is equal to three imperial bushels; four schepels are a muid.

A schepel is $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches square by $8\frac{1}{2}$ deep.

The weight of a muid of oats is 105 lbs.; barley, 104 lbs.; wheat, beans, peas, and mealies (or maize), 180 lbs.

The aum contains 16 gallons, the quarter-cask 28 gallons, and the hogshead 54 gallons.

Banks and Public Companies.

Banks, &c.

The Natal Bank, Pietermaritzburg — Branch at Durban.

Standard Bank of British South Africa, Pietermaritzburg.

Oriental Bank.

Bank of South Africa.

Natal Government Savings Bank.—Deposits received at the Treasury, Maritzburg, and at the offices of the resident Magistrates of districts.

Natal Chamber of Commerce.

Natal Permanent Building, Loan, and Investment Association.

Natal Land and Colonization Company.

Natal Boating Company.

Waterloo Estate Company (Limited).

Natal Electric Telegraph Company.

Natal Railway Company.

Information on Natal.

The following are some of the sources of information on Natal:—Dr. Mann's 'Emigrant's Guide,' published by Lockwood & Co.; Mr. Robinson's 'Notes on Natal;' 'The Natal Almanac,' published by P. Davis & Son, Maritzburg; Holden's 'History of Natal;' and Mr. Henry Brooks's 'Natal,' edited by Dr. Mann, a valuable and interesting work, just published.

Emigration.

The Colony of Natal is represented in London by an Emigration Agency at 5 West Street, Finsbury, E.C., and the following particulars are issued at the office :—

The Government of Natal grant free passages to the Colony to married and single artisans, mechanics, and farm labourers, also to single domestic servants.

Lodging and rations for the space of seven days from date of landing in the Colony are provided, free, for all emigrants, but no other assistance whatever is rendered by the Government, nor are emigrants bound in any way as to what employers they may choose.

All applicants must state their name and age in full, as also that of their wives and children (if any), and forward references where enquiries may be made as to respectability, &c.

Should the application be accepted, due notice will be given to the intending emigrant of the date upon which he can embark, as also the place of embarkation, and other necessary particulars.

Names and addresses must be written in full and legibly.

Applications for forms and further particulars to be made, either personally or by letter, to the Emigration Agent for Natal, 5 West Street, Finsbury, London, E.C.

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ORANGE FREE STATE

History of Free State.

The Orange Free State, or, as it is more frequently called, the Free State, is the older of the two republics which fill so large a space in the interior of South Africa. The history of this territory—its first settlement by emigrant Dutch farmers, its subjection to British sovereignty, its abandonment by the British Government, its independence, its wars with the Basutos, and its dispute with the British Government over the possession of the Diamond Fields—is not without interest; but in these pages events can only be chronicled and not discussed or described in detail.

It was in 1836—not long after the abolition of slavery, and about the time that the reversal by Lord Glenelg of Sir Benjamin D'Urban's policy, after the war of 1835, was announced—that large bodies of Dutch farmers resolved to quit a country the government of which was so little to their taste. In September of that year they waited upon Lieut.-Governor Stockenstrom, at Uitenhage, and learnt from him that there was no legal or political impediment to their contemplated movement. In 1837 the great migration began. Selling their lands and much of their property for a song, hundreds, then tens of hundreds, of the Dutch inhabitants of the eastern districts set out for the at that time unfamiliar country north of the Orange. It is said that at least 6,000 emigrants crossed the river on foot, horseback, and wagon. One of the leaders of the band was Pieter Retief, whose fate is recorded in the story of Natal. Before quitting their native country they enumerated the causes of their departure, as follows:—'Unrestrained vagrancy, pecuniary losses sustained by the slave emancipation, wholesale plunder by Kaffirs and Hottentots, desolating and ruining the frontier divisions; and the unjustifiable odium cast upon the inhabitants by interested persons whose testimony is believed in England to the exclusion of all evidence in their

favour.' Many of these emigrants found their way to Natal and the regions beyond the Vaal, but larger numbers settled down on the wide plains immediately north of the Orange, and laid the foundations of the present Free State. ORANGE FREE STATE

For a few years the emigrants were left to themselves. The British Government did not at once follow them over the Orange or attempt to assert any authority over them or the land on which they had settled. In 1842, however, Mr. Justice Menzies, one of the Judges of the Cape Colony, who at that time was on circuit at Colesberg, twenty miles from an Orange River drift, had it brought to his notice that the Boers were about to assert their independence by the erection of a monument of sovereignty over the new land. He at once crossed the river, told the puzzled people that they were still British subjects, and proclaimed the territory to the 25° S. lat. and 22° E. long. to be subject to Her Majesty the Queen of England in all things. This act, however, which was performed in October, was disallowed in November by Sir George Napier, the Governor of the Cape. About the same time, however, British troops were marched to the north, on account of the attitude of the Boers, perplexed to know their true position. In 1845 a little war arose between the emigrants and the Griquas; and as there was a treaty of alliance between that tribe and the British Government, troops were sent up to keep the peace. In 1848 Governor and General Sir Harry Smith proclaimed Her Majesty's sovereignty over the territory from the Orange to the Vaal. This, however, was not done until the battle of Boomplats, on the 22nd of July, had shown that the Boers were willing to fight for their independence. On the defeat of the emigrants and the proclamation of the Sovereignty, as the country was sometimes called, a large body of them under Pretorius crossed the Vaal River and founded the South African Republic of the Transvaal. In 1854, at the Orange River Convention, Sir George Clerk, acting as Commissioner for Her Majesty's Government, abandoned the territory which six years before Sir Harry Smith had proclaimed to be British, and transferred the government to certain representatives of the inhabitants. This act has ever been considered by the colonists of the Cape to

Abandonment of the Sovereignty.

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have been unworthy the British Government and injurious to the general interests of South Africa. In 1868, after a long struggle with the Basutos, a large tract of Basutoland was added to the Free State, and, at an earlier date, some of the territory occupied by Adam Kok and his section of the Griquas had been annexed under arrangements with the British Government. In 1867 the territory now known as Griqualand West was found to be rich in diamonds, and the Free State, claiming a large portion of it on both sides the Vaal, placed a magistrate and commissioner at Pniel, as also subsequently at Du Toit's Pan, and for some time exercised jurisdiction in those parts. The Griqua chief Waterboer, however, declared that the land was in his right, and, after some attempts at settlement, ceded his claims to the British Government.

The Diamond Field dispute.

In 1871, on October 27, Griqualand West was proclaimed British territory, and the Free State magistrates withdrew under protest. The Free State continued to claim a part of the Diamond Fields, and in May 1876 the President, Mr. Brand, visited England at the request of the Secretary for the Colonies, and succeeded in making an amicable arrangement of the dispute.

With varying fortunes the Free State has reached a position of fair prosperity, especially during the presidency of His Honour Mr. John Brand, who has filled the office of Chief of the State for nearly fifteen years with great efficiency.

Area and boundaries.

The Free State contains an area of about 70,000 square miles. It is about 300 miles from the southernmost bend of the Orange River to the point in the north at which the Klip River runs into the Vaal, and about 250 miles from Jacob's Drift, on the west, across which Griqualand West is entered, to Bezuidenhout's Pass, on the east, which is one of the gateways into Natal. These are the two longest lines the country presents for length and breadth respectively. The State is an oval in shape, and is nearly 1,000 miles in circumference. It will thus be seen that it is by no means an inconsiderable country in size. Its boundaries are as follows:—On the north, the Klip River and the Vaal, which separate it from the Transvaal; on the west, the Vaal and a line from the Platberg to Ramah, which divide it from the

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Transvaal and Griqualand West; on the south by the Orange River, which separates it from the Cape; and on the east by the Caledon River and the Drakenberg, which divide it from British Basutoland and Natal.

Inland.

It will be seen from this description that the Free State is wholly an inland country. Its nearest point to the Indian Ocean is at a distance of 150 miles. The point at which the Orange River leaves it is, in a direct line, about 500 miles from the Atlantic Ocean. It is thus wholly on the eastern side of South Africa.

Natural features.

The Free State is part of the tableland of Southern Africa. On its eastern side are the Drakenberg and Maluti ranges, in the former of which one point, the Mont aux Sources, reaches an elevation of 10,000 feet. From this rim, the average height of which is about 6,000 feet, the Free State descends in more or less gentle slopes and vast plains towards the Vaal and the Orange, the general level being about 5,000 feet above the sea. The 'flats' of the Free State are characteristic features of the country. Wide stretches of grass land appear to be without bound but the distant horizon. Occasionally there are undulations, and, in some parts, conical hills, the sides of which are covered with large and rounded stones. Very little wood or bush appears anywhere, except along the winding river lines. Great herds of deer graze upon the unfenced lands, and are, at certain parts of the year, to be seen close to every road.

Climate

The air of the Free State is remarkable for its dryness. This arises from the surroundings of the country. On the side towards the Indian Ocean the Drakenberg hems it in and receives on its lofty eastern slopes the moisture which the easterly winds would otherwise bear to it. The Stormberg range, in the Cape Colony, acts in the same way on the southern side of the plateau; while to the north-west and on the west are the arid and sunburnt wastes of the Kalahari desert. One result of this environment is the frequency of droughts, another is a suitability of climate to especial forms of chest disease. The elevated position of the country has also its share in making the Free State one of the healthiest parts of the world. Dr. J. A. Ross, late physician to the Newry Infirmary and Fever Hospital, who has recently visited South Africa for his

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health and published the results of his enquiries, says: 'I have a strong feeling in favour of South Africa, possibly because I know it; but even that is a testimonial, for how often, on examination, do we find that, concerning climates, as concerning other things, we have been building castles in the air. I know what good has been effected by it. Europeans who have resided in the Cape Colony speak highly of its climate, yet the colonists themselves consider the Free State much superior, and send their invalids there.' In another place he alludes to a case 'remarkably illustrating the superiority of the *hill climate* of South Africa—that of a gentleman who had tried Australia without relief, but who recovered at Bloemfontein, the chief town of the Free State. Many years afterwards he returned to England, and again became affected, but recovered after going back to his African home, where he now lives, and enjoys good health.' In winter the cold is sometimes severe, and in summer heavy thunder-storms occasionally occur.

Rivers.

The Free State is almost surrounded by rivers. The Klip, a little tributary of the Vaal, the Vaal itself, the Orange, and the Caledon, form quite five-sixths of its boundary-line. With the exception of the Caledon, which flows into the Orange, the streams which traverse the State run from the Drakenberg and the Malutis, on its eastern side, into the Vaal, on the west and north-west. These are, the Wilge, the Valsh, the Sand, the Vet, the Modder, and the Reit. They are not navigable, and at present are but little used in irrigation. In the dry season all of them can be forded, and some of them have then but little water. During the rainy season they are deep and rapid, making travelling difficult, as there is not at present a bridge over any one of them. Reservoirs for saving water are common features of the homesteads, and without them farming operations could not well be carried on.

Population.

No census has at any recent time been taken of the Free State, hence but little can be said with accuracy about population and many other subjects of interest. Some years ago rough returns showed that there were about 13,000 whites and 7,000 blacks in the land, but those numbers are far below any adequate estimate of present numbers. There are probably 45,000 persons in

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the State, more than one-half being of European descent. The whites are Dutch, English, and German; and the blacks are Bechounas, Hottentots, Basutos, Koranas, Bushmen, and representatives of miscellaneous South African tribes.

Products.

The chief articles of production are wool and agricultural produce. The Free State is at present a grazing country, and sheep are herded in flocks on every farm. Each homestead has its orchard and vegetable garden, in which peaches, grapes, melons, oranges, and figs are grown; and enclosed ploughed lands for grain and forage are common. Cattle are kept for draught, and in the neighbourhood of Harrismith especially horses are bred with success. The territory about the Caledon, conquered from the Basutos in the last war, is good for agriculture. Land throughout the State is rising in value, and is likely to do so, as there is no longer any portion left unowned. Prices vary, of course, according to position in relation to markets and ports, and also according to quality. The cheapest farms are on the north-west side. In May 1875, 28,810 acres were sold in lots for 11,943*l.*; one lot of 4,400 acres was sold at 10*s.* the acre, and another of 6,000 acres for the same price. Another good farm went for 6*s.* 9*d.* the acre, and another for 7*s.* 6*d.* A short time ago these properties were considered to be all but useless to the grazier, as it was covered with large game. One-seventh of the purchase-money was paid down at once, and the remainder stood at interest for short dates.

Land prices.

Minerals.

Amongst the mineral products of the Free State are diamonds, garnets, and other precious stones. The chief diamond centre is in the immediate neighbourhood of Fauresmith, one of the principal towns of the State.

In order to meet the scarcity of wood an annual reward is about to be offered for the encouragement of tree-growing; and indications of coal are attracting the attention of Government.

Government.

The Free State is a republic. Its President is elected every four years. The Legislature is named the Volksraad, which consists of members returned by the electoral districts into which the country is divided. The Supreme Court is presided over by three judges, a chief and two puisnes, who administer Roman-Dutch

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law. Every district has its magistrate. The revenue of the Free State for 1874 was 103,092*l.* and the expenditure 95,683*l.* Some time back the Government issued notes to the amount of 100,000*l.*, quite one-half of which has been paid off, and the balance will shortly be redeemed. As the exports and imports of the State pass through the Cape and Natal ports, and are included in the returns for those colonies, and as no drawback is made to the Free State for its contribution to the colonial custom dues, it is impossible to give any statement of its commercial position. It no doubt sends away large quantities of wool, and consumes a considerable amount of British merchandise.

Trade.

Ecclesiastical.

The prevailing religious denomination in the Free State is the Dutch Reformed Church. The Church of England is, however, represented by a Bishop and a complete ecclesiastical and educational organisation. The Wesleyans have several mission stations and churches, and other British societies are represented. At the capital there is a High School of good repute, in which English is taught as well as Dutch. In 1874 a sum of 18,000*l.* was expended on education out of the public funds, of which 300*l.* was paid for a first-class girls' school, and 4,652*l.* for district and parish schools and itinerant teachers. The Postmaster-General has reported that in 1874, 193,789 letters, 175,768 newspapers, and 8,976 books were received, and 207,345 letters, 153,533 newspapers, and 6,505 book parcels were despatched. Two newspapers are published at Bloemfontein, each of which divides its columns equally between the two languages—English and Dutch. The official and general language of the country is Dutch.

Postal.

Divisions.

The Free State is divided into the following districts:

1. Bloemfontein
2. Boshof
3. Winburg
4. Kronstadt
5. Smithfield
6. Rouxville
7. Harrismith
8. Bethlehem
9. Fauresmith
10. Philippolis
11. Bethulie
12. Jacobsdal
13. Lady Brand

Pniel, in Griqualand West, is also claimed by the Free State as one of its districts, and in 1870 and 1871

a magistrate, who was also a commissioner, was resident there and exercised jurisdiction.

Towns.

The chief towns of the Free State are Bloemfontein, the capital; Bethulie, or the Orange River drift of the Burghersdorp (Cape) route to the interior; Philippolis, about 20 miles north of Botha's drift, on the Colesberg (Cape) route; Smithfield, about the same distance north of the Aliwal North drift; Fauresmith and Jacobsdal, on the direct Colesberg road to the Diamond Fields; Reddersburg, on the direct Aliwal North road to the Diamond Fields; Harrismith, close to the Natal border; Winburg, half-way between Bloemfontein and the Transvaal boundary; Boshof and Brandford, on the west side; Lady Brand, Wepener, and Ficksburg, in the territory taken from the Basutos; and Bethlehem, Bethany, and Kronstadt.

Bloemfontein.

Bloemfontein, the capital of the Free State, is one of the most thriving of South African towns. It is pleasantly situated, and has an attractive appearance. It is the seat of the Government and the head-quarters of the ecclesiastical, judicial, educational, and commercial as well as political institutions of the State. The President of the Republic, the chief clergy of the Dutch Reformed Church, the Bishop of the Anglican Church, the General Superintendent of the Wesleyan Church, the Judges of the Supreme Court, the Public Prosecutor, and the professors of the College School reside in the town. The sessions of the Volksraad are held there. It has a well-attended morning market and a joint-stock bank. It numbers six churches, a college, two large hotels, three billiard-rooms, and about forty stores and shops. The Anglican Bishop, Dr. Webb, has established a sisterhood of English ladies in the town for various ecclesiastical, educational, and benevolent purposes, and he is now arranging for a sanatorium for consumptives. Bloemfontein has long been held in the highest repute as a place of health for consumptive patients. House-rent is, however, high, and for a considerable part of the year vegetables are scarce and dear. The following is a list of April 1876 market prices, taken from the local paper: Quinces, 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per 100; figs, 6*d.* to 9*d.* per lot; apples, 9*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per lot; carrots, 3*d.* to 9*d.* per bunch; beet, 3*d.* to 9*d.* per bunch; turnips, 3*d.* to

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6*d.* per bunch; cabbage, 6*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* each; cauliflowers, 1*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* each; pumpkins, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* each; water melons, 3*d.* to 1*s.* each; sweet melons, 6*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* each; mealies, 6*d.* to 1*s.* per lot; beans, 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per lot; peas, 1*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per lot; radishes, 3*d.* to 6*d.* per bunch; lettuce, 11*d.* per lot; butter, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 3*d.* per lb.; dry peaches, 9*d.* per lb.; tobacco, 9*d.* per lb.; fowls, 1*s.* 2*d.* to 2*s.* each; ducks, 2*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.* each; turkeys, 5*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* 6*d.* each; mealies, 11*s.* to 14*s.* per bag; wheat, 14*s.* to 15*s.* per bag; Kaffir corn, 10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* 6*d.* per bag; potatoes, 7*s.* to 11*s.* per bag; grapes, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* per lot; forage 6*d.* to 9½*d.* per bundle; wood, 40*s.* to 100*s.* per load.

Live stock.

The following list of live stock prices is from a recent report of a sale in the district of Harrismith: The horses realised from 10*l.* up to 33*l.* each; sheep, to take not less than 50 and not more than 500, from 10*s.* to 17*s.* 6*d.* Breeding cattle fetched from 6*l.* to 12*l.*; draught oxen, from 7*l.* 10*s.* to 11*l.* 10*s.*; half-Angora goats, 15*s.*

Roads.

The levels of the Free State render road-making comparatively easy, but an expenditure on bridges is very necessary. Punts are found at some of the drifts. Provision has been made by the Cape Parliament for the construction of four bridges over the Orange River. The State has not as yet been brought into telegraphic communication with either the Cape or Natal. Passenger carts run between Bloemfontein, the Diamond Fields, and Port Elizabeth. The Free State has a regular postal service in connection with the three neighbouring colonies and the Transvaal.

Government.

The following are the members of the Government and Executive Council:—His Honour J. H. Brand, Esq., President. Official members: His Honour the President, Chairman, the Landdrost of Bloemfontein, the Secretary to Government. Unofficial members: M. Steyn, J. J. Venter, F. W. Salzmann, H. Broecker, Secretary; Chief Justice, F. Reitz, Esq.

THE TRANSVAAL.

The Transvaal.

THE Transvaal, formerly the South African Republic, more generally called 'The Transvaal Republic,' to distinguish it from the other republic in South Africa, traces back its origin to the great northern migration of the Dutch from the Cape Colony in 1836. The causes and effects of this remarkable movement have already been described in the chapters on Natal and the Free State. It is only necessary here to say that, unlike the Free State, the Transvaal was at no time claimed or occupied as British territory. Its founders were British subjects, but as early as 1852 the country in which they had settled was acknowledged to be an independent state. This was done at the Sand River Convention held in that year, and to which the representatives of the British Government and the Republic were the contracting parties. The progress of the country since that time has been remarkable, almost every year adding some new evidence of its great and various wealth. The recent discovery of gold fields on its eastern side has increased its importance and attracted to it the attention of emigrants and capitalists. In 1875 the President of the Republic, his Honour Dr. Thomas Burgers, visited Europe, and entered into arrangements with the Portuguese Government and a company in Holland for the construction of a line of railway between Delagoa Bay, a Portuguese possession on the East Coast, and Pretoria. The Portuguese customs tariff at Lorenzo Marques, in Delagoa Bay, has been modified to favour the commerce of the Transvaal. At various times the boundaries of this State have been modified, and in some instances the changes have been made the subjects of dispute, now with some native neighbour, now with the sister Republic, and now with the British Government, as protector of native interests or as arbitrator; but, as the cases are complicated and some of them are still undecided, it has been thought better to pass them by in this

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sketch, which is intended chiefly to be descriptive of existing conditions.

Time rolled on, and the infant Republic had a somewhat chequered career. The principles of finance were not properly understood, and the state entered into liabilities which might have taxed the energies and credit of a much more flourishing country. In 1876 war was declared againt Sekukuni, a rebel chief, resident within the limits of the territory; but he could not be conquered for a considerable time, during which things went from bad to worse. President Burgers and his Executive found themselves at the head of affairs with heavy claims to meet on all sides, but with an empty treasury, and the Republic was in a state of hopeless bankruptcy, when, on April 12, 1877, at Pretoria, Sir Theophilus Shepstone, armed with the necessary authority from the English Government, annexed the country as British Territory. The change was welcomed by a large proportion of the more intelligent of the inhabitants.

For a more detailed account of the events which preceded and followed the annexation the reader is referred to the 'Handbook to the Transvaal.'

Area and boundary.

The following statement of the limits and area of the Transvaal is general, and not intended to be authoritative on any boundary question in dispute. Its northern line approaches 22°, and its southern passes beyond 28° south latitude. Its extreme eastern point overlaps 32°, and its extreme western point extends to about 25° east longitude. The range of the territory is, therefore, considerable, stretching over six degrees of latitude, and seven of longitude. It will be seen, also, that it passes to the north of the Tropic of Capricorn. The northern boundary is the Limpopo, which forms also part of its western frontier line. The southern boundary is the Vaal and the Buffalo. On the east is an irregular line beginning at about the junction of the 32nd meridian with the 22nd parallel, and curving inwards as it passes to the south, or, according to some authorities, the Lobomba range. On the west is the Hart river, which runs southward into the Vaal, the Nuoguare river, which runs northward into the Limpopo, and a line between the sources of those streams, skirting the Kalahari

desert. The territories adjacent to the Transvaal are Griqualand West (the Diamond Fields), the Orange Free State, and Natal, on the south; Zululand, Amatonga and Amaswaziland, and the Portuguese settlements, on the east; various native districts on the north; and on the west the country of the Batlapins, Barolong, and Bamongwato. The area of the Transvaal is estimated to be 120,000 square miles. The greatest distance from point to point is that from the Griqualand West boundary to the junction of the Shashi, a length of about 500 miles. From the junction of the Buffalo with the Blood river, on the Natal side, to the Shashi is 425 miles. From the Vaal, where the Wilge joins it, to the Shashi is 320 miles. The foregoing lengths are from south to north. From the boundary near Hermansburg, on the west, to the Leydenberg boundary, on the east, is about 375 miles.

Population.

No authentic census returns of the Transvaal are published, and statements can only be made in the form of estimates. The white population, including the Gold Fields, is supposed to be 50,000, while the natives of various tribes are, according to a return recently obtained by Sir G. Wolseley, said to be 775,000. The whites are chiefly the emigrant farmers and their descendants, Cape (Dutch) colonists who have since 1852 joined their relatives and friends, some English, Hollanders, and Germans. The language in common use is the Dutch, but English is spoken in the larger towns and on the Gold Fields. The Dutch Reformed Church is the dominant ecclesiastical institution, but the Anglican and Wesleyan Churches have their representatives in the Republic. At the chief towns are to be found schools at which English as well as Dutch is taught, commercial institutions, markets, and newspapers. It will, however, be seen, from a comparison of population with area, that the Transvaal conditions of life are generally rude, and that much of the country is in its originally wild state, more especially in the regions remote from the larger towns and off the chief lines of communication. The two chief towns—Pretoria and Potscherfstroom—are, however, on an equality in most respects with the towns of the third class in the Cape Colony, and Potscherfstroom

Institutions.

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is noted for its agreeable position, as will be seen from the paragraphs in which it is described.

Position.

The Transvaal, like the Free State, is entirely inland territory. Nowhere does it touch the sea, from which its nearest point is quite 100 miles. Like the Free State, it is also on the eastern side of South Africa. It is, however, unlike its neighbour in the power of territorial growth. It is the most northern of all the States and Colonies of South Africa, and between it and the Zambesi there is no hindrance to growth but the opposition to be presented by native tribes, some of which are formidable. Already there are squatters, traders, and missionary stations beyond the Limpopo, and a great migration of Boers from the Republic is now in contemplation.

Natural features.

The elevation of the country is from 5,000 to 7,000 feet above the level of the sea, and on this account the climate is very healthy, although the temperature, in some parts especially, is favourable to the production of tropical plants, and the northern districts are above Capricorn. Being well watered with numerous tributaries of the Vaal, the Limpopo, and the sources of the Maputa and Umvolosi, and above the region of frequent droughts, this country is the most beautiful of the interior lands of South Africa. In some parts it is well wooded, almost everywhere it is green, and its mountain forms are picturesque. It is also remarkable for its fruitfulness, and no less so for its mineral wealth. If the Transvaal is fortunate in the public management of its affairs it will in a very few years be one of the most flourishing parts of South Africa.

Seasons.

No scientific observations have been as yet kept relative to the rainfall. The wet season begins in September, and lasts till April, during which months a plentiful supply of rain falls. From May to October, during the winter months, there is little or no rain.

Government.

The Government of the Transvaal is unlike that of either of the other colonies. The chief officer is the Administrator, and the other members of the executive are the senior military officer for the time being in the province, the Government Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Secretary for Native Affairs, and such other persons, not exceeding three in number, as the Governor may appoint. These form the Executive

Council. The Legislative Assembly is composed of the Governor, the Administrator, the Chief Justice, the members of the Executive Council, and such other persons, not exceeding six at any one time, as the Governor may at the beginning of each session of the Assembly summon to be members.

The present Governor is Sir George Pomeroy Colley, C.B.; the Administrator is Colonel W. O. Lanyon, C.B., C.M.G.; Government Secretary, M. Osborne; Secretary for Native Affairs, H. C. Shepstone; Attorney-General, — Morcom; Judge of the High Court (Chief Justice), L. G. Kotze, LL.B.

Revenue.

The revenue of the Territory, derived chiefly from land sales, quitrents, licences, stamps, transfer dues, capitation tax, and Kaffir tax, was, in 1878, 105,130*l.*, and the expenditure 152,000*l.* 10*s.* In 1872 the revenue was only 36,698*l.*, and the expenditure 33,321*l.* The public debt amounted in 1874 to 60,000*l.*, consisting of Government notes issued for that amount, which is secured by 1,000 Government farms of 6,000 acres each. A loan of hard cash has been made by the Cape Commercial Bank to redeem the notes, which are now at par.

Mineral wealth.

The mineral wealth of the Transvaal is remarkable. The Gold Fields of Leydenburg and Marabastad are being tested by actual mining operations, some of the results of which are stated in a subsequent paragraph. Lead and cobalt are being mined in considerable quantities. Silver is another valuable product, to which may be added iron and plumbago, saltpetre and sulphur. The lead works established by Messrs. Bray are turning out that useful article by the ton, while Mr. Herbert H. Browne, of Havre Klep, reports the existence of a splendid coal mine on his farm near Pretoria, and coal is commonly burnt at some of the townships. The following is an extract from the report of an agricultural show held in Potscherfstroom in 1876: 'We believe there is no other country in the whole world that could have presented to the public gaze such a variety of minerals, &c., as were seen in the room set apart for their exhibition, and which, upon first entering, reminded one more of a charming museum; and all these minerals and earthy substances, we are informed, were the products of this country. We saw gold, both quartz and alluvial—not

in small quantities, but pounds in weight—coal by the ton, silver, iron, lead. We do not know what to say about this last mineral, but there it was, not in small lumps, as previously exhibited, but immense quantities of ore, and molten bars by the hundred.'

Wood. The Transvaal is in some parts well wooded, particularly in the districts of Wakkerstrom and Utrecht, also to the north of the Magaliesberg and Drakenberg ranges, and from the 25th degree of south latitude.

Live stock. As a grazing country the Transvaal is unsurpassed in South Africa. Sheep, cattle, and horses thrive generally, and certain districts are especially suited to one or other class of live stock. The Cape Colony receives considerable contributions to its cattle market from this favoured country.

Products. The Transvaal is considered to be the granary of the interior, being rich in corn land. It is also favourable to sugar, coffee, and cotton, as also to almost all tropical fruits.

The following list of articles under which entries were made at a recent agricultural show in Potscherfstroom will afford some evidence of the variety of products the country yields: Wool, ostrich feathers, ivory, white meal, mealie meal, maize, oat hay, bread, potatoes, apples, dried fruit, butter, cheese, tobacco, gold quartz, alluvial gold, silver ore, cobalt, lead and lead ore, earth colours, plumbago, ornamental stone, umber, nickel, iron, firewood, horses, sheep, pigs, horned cattle, and poultry.

The show at which these articles and animals were exhibited was considered to be a failure, on account of the absence of many important products from the list.

The districts. The following description of the productive character of the various districts of the Transvaal has been issued by the authority of the Transvaal Society for Promoting Agriculture, Stockbreeding, and Industry, of which his Honour Mr. Burgers, late State President, is the patron.

Potscherfstroom. *District of Potscherfstroom.*—The district of Potscherfstroom, though the most thickly populated, possesses still a number of unoccupied farms that may be obtained from their respective owners either on lease or by purchase. The soil of this district is eminently suited to the growth of all cereals, of which two crops may be obtained in the year, the culture of tobacco, indigo, vege-

tables of all kinds, vine, fruit and forest trees that are grown in a temperate and semi-tropical climate, besides which its extensive pasture lands of good quality offer the best facilities for the breeding of horned cattle, sheep, and Angora goats; most of the farms are likewise well adapted for ostrich farming and for silk culture.

Potscherfstroom, the chief town of the district, possesses two printing offices, at which the 'Transvaal Advocate' and 'Transvaal Argus' are published weekly; twenty general stores; three Dutch churches; two English churches; a Freemasons' Lodge, 'The Flaming Star of South Africa;' the office of the Portuguese Consul; a branch of the Cape Commercial Bank; Referee's office for the Northern Assurance Company; a Government school for instruction in the Dutch and English languages; several private schools conducted in the English tongue; a Reading Room; a Municipality; the station for the passenger waggons between Cape Town and the Leydenburg Gold Fields *viâ* Diamond Fields, where conveyance to either terminus or intermediate stations can be obtained; two public hotels and several private houses of accommodation; a brewery, &c., &c. Potscherfstroom possesses a good trade, has an excellent daily market, which affords the best facilities for the disposal of the several products of the country, both at the Diamond and Gold Fields, from which it is about equidistant.

The beautiful Mooi River takes its source about forty miles from the town, where several mills are already erected. This and the fact that eight more are situated at the north entrance to the town that are either already at work or in course of construction, proves that the water power the town possesses in this magnificent stream can be turned to very great advantage by its enterprising citizens.

Pretoria.

Pretoria.—The suitability of the soil of the Pretoria district for agricultural purposes and stock farming is very similar to that of Potscherfstroom, with this advantage, however, that the northern part of this district, by enjoying a warmer climate, can produce (besides the different cereals, tobacco, indigo, and the orange tree) also coffee, the sugarcane, cotton, and the different kinds of tropical and semi-tropical products; added to which

various minerals have been found in the Witwatersrand, and very good coal on the high tablelands.

Pretoria is the seat of government and the chief town of the district; it possesses a printing office, from which are weekly issued the 'Staats Courant,' or Government Gazette, and the 'Volksstem;' two Dutch churches; one English church; a branch of the Cape Commercial Bank; a Freemasons' Lodge, 'Aurora;' a Government school, where the Dutch and English languages are taught; several public institutions; and a public market, with a flourishing trade. The passenger and mail waggons pass through this town on their way from Cape Town *viâ* the Diamond Fields to the Leydenburg Gold Fields.

Rustenburg.

Rustenburg.—This district, having its chief town of the same name, may in truth be called the Garden of the Transvaal; besides all the products of a temperate climate those of a tropical nature can be cultivated to very great advantage in some parts of this district. The breeding of horned cattle answers admirably, but all parts of the district are not suitable for the breeding of small stock, excepting goats; Angora goats are most likely to answer well. Various kinds of minerals have been found in the district. Rustenburg has two Dutch churches, one English church, and a Government school.

Leydenburg.

Leydenburg.—See 'Gold Fields.' It is in this district that the celebrated Gold Fields are situated. The chief town of the district has the same name, and has become a very lively place since the discovery and working of the Gold Fields, from which it is situated at no great distance; it possesses a Dutch and English church, and a Government school. Property in this district has risen very considerably in value of late, and will probably still more increase.

The township of Pilgrim's Rest has lately been projected on these Fields, and already possesses a first-rate market. The *Gold News* is published here once a week; there are two English churches, and several large stores, two banks, and several public institutions. It is distant about 150 English miles from Delagoa Bay, which will ultimately become 'The Port' for that and other parts of the territory.

The district of Leydenburg has ever been acknowledged to be one of the best districts for the growth of

wheat, and for the breeding both of horned cattle and small stock. The town at present possesses a good market, and agriculturists there resident have fine prospects of success. The country to the north and north-east of the Gold Fields is eminently adapted for the growth of coffee, the sugarcane, cotton, and other products of the same nature.

Besides gold this district is rich in other minerals, but is especially noted for its coal beds.

Marico.

Marico.—This district is as well suited for agriculture as the breeding of stock; for the culture of tobacco and indigo, all kinds of vegetables, the vine, orange and forest trees; wheat, mealies, oats, barley, and other cereals; the breeding of large and small stock likewise holds out strong inducements, as being very profitable. On several farms have been found various mineral ores, also beautiful slate slabs and good building stone; and should this district be thoroughly explored it bids fair to rival the district of Rustenburg for minerals.

Zeerust, the chief town in Marico, though recently laid out, already possesses a Dutch church and English church and school, a reading room, and four general stores: a thriving trade is being carried on here, principally with the neighbouring powerful and opulent native chiefs, whose subjects begin to appreciate the comforts of civilised life, being brought in close contact therewith. The position of Zeerust is a very commanding one, being on the high road between the Diamond and Tatin Gold Fields.

Christiana.

Christiana (Bloemkof), *Heidelberg*, *Wakkerstroom*, *and Utrecht.*—All these districts have a chief town, where a thriving trade is carried on in wool, butter, and hides, and are besides well suited for the breeding of cattle and sheep; the last three districts producing likewise large quantities of grain. Wakkerstroom is specially suited for the breeding of horses, and supplies likewise the different markets of the Transvaal and Orange Free State with building timber; at Christiana several diamonds have been found. Coal is plentiful in the Wakkerstroom and Utrecht districts.

Waterbergen and Zoutspansbergen.

Waterbergen and Zoutspansbergen.—Besides being large grain-producing districts a variety of other produce of various kinds can be grown, such as tobacco,

indigo, fruit, and vegetables, and in several parts coffee. The sugarcane and cotton also thrive remarkably well. These districts still possess a large number of unoccupied farms, owing mainly to the former condition of the country previous to the discovery of the Gold Fields; these farms having been considered as too far distant from the then established and most frequented markets. These districts are without doubt rich in minerals and various kinds of valuable woods, and the farms there situated, being on the whole well provided with timber, and having an ample supply of water, have a fine future in store, and offer to the man of small means, endowed with energy and industry, a guarantee of success, whether he be agriculturist or stock farmer.

Nijlstroom is the chief town of the Waterbergen, and Marabastad of the Zoutspansbergen, the last-mentioned being situated in the immediate neighbourhood of those gold reefs where Mr. Edward Button has erected a quartz-crushing machine; both are not far from the Leydenburg Gold Fields.

Nazareth.—This district, having a chief town of the same name, is but of recent origin; notwithstanding which, however, its success has been unprecedented. The post and passenger waggons and the whole traffic to the Leydenburg Gold Fields pass through this town, in consequence of which several places of business have been started. Like all the other chief towns of the several districts of the Territory, this town possesses a court house, church, and school. The district of Nazareth formerly constituted part of the district of Leydenburg, and possesses most of the properties of that district in regard to agriculture and stock farming, as well as soil.

Land prices.

Land prices in the Transvaal vary with the districts, and are governed by title, survey, distance from market, and natural qualities. Properties near the larger towns and of ascertained character command from 500*l.* upwards, according to size. In the northern and north-western districts large tracts of country can be obtained at 6*d.* to 9*d.* the acre, and in some instances less. But purchasers sometimes find it difficult to identify and use their property. Surveyed farms are always to be pre-

ferred, as in their case there is no trouble about position and boundaries.

Food prices.

The price of foodstuffs in the Transvaal is, in respect to many necessary articles, ridiculously high, considering the capabilities of the soil and climate. The cause of this is to be traced to the difficulties of the labour market and the habits of the emigrant Boers. The following is a statement of Potscherfstroom prices in the months of February and March :—

For the week ending Feb. 10.—Potatoes, per muid, 15*s.*; meal, do. 34*s.*; Kaffir corn, do. 14*s.*; mealies, 15*s.* 3*d.*; onions, do. 9*s.* 6*d.*; forage, per 100, 44*s.*; firewood, per load, 46*s.*; corn, per muid, 26*s.*; butter, per lb., 1*s.* 7*d.*; tobacco, do., 9*d.*; tanned skins, each, 6*s.* 6*d.*; goats, 10*s.* each; oxen, 8*l.* each; seed oats, per muid, 19*s.* 6*d.*; brandy, per half-aum, 7*l.* 10*s.*; spokes, 6¼*d.* each; felleys, 1*s.* 6*d.* each; tongues, 13*s.* each; veldshoes, per pair, 7*s.* 3*d.*; karrosses, 13*s.* 6*d.*; biltong, 14*s.* 6*d.* per sack; eggs, per dozen, 1*s.* 6*d.* Thirty-one waggons.

Feb. 16 to 23, 1876.—Potatoes, per muid, 15*s.* 6*d.*; butter, per lb., 2*s.*; brandy, per half-aum, 6*l.* 15*s.*; eggs, per dozen, 2*s.*; forage, per 100 bundles, 46*s.* 9*d.*; firewood, per load, 54*s.* 6*d.*; Kaffir corn, per muid, 11*s.*; corn, per muid, 32*s.*; meal, per muid, 37*s.*; mealies, per muid, 15*s.*; cows and calves, 16*l.* 15*s.*; oxen, each, 7*l.*; yellowwood planks, 14*s.*; tobacco, per lb., 10½*d.*; salt, per muid, 12*s.*; whip-sticks, each, 2*s.* 6*d.* Highest prices only given. There were nineteen waggons on the market.

March 2 to 8.—Potatoes, per muid, 16*s.*; peas, per bucket, 2*s.*; cabbages, each, 9*d.*; tobacco, per lb., 9¼*d.*; butter, per lb., 2*s.* 6*d.*; eggs, per dozen, 2*s.* 5*d.*; grapes, per lb., 6*d.*; raisins, per lb., 8¼*d.*; brandy, per half-aum, 140*s.*; walnuts, per lb., 9½*d.*; mealies, per muid, 14*s.*; mealie meal, per muid, 17*s.* 6*d.*; Kaffir corn, per muid, 12*s.* 9*d.*; meal, per muid, 31*s.* 6*d.*; wool, per waggonload, 67*s.* 6*d.*; blesbock skins, each, 1*s.*; dried apricots, per lb., 9*d.*; corn, per muid, 27*s.* 6*d.* There were twenty-one waggons on the market. Highest prices only given.

Beef, per lb., is quoted at 3*d.*; mutton, 5*d.*; pork, 9*d.*; and flour, 200 lbs. for 30*s.*

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Distances.

The following is a table of distances relating to places in the Transvaal and the neighbouring territories :—

			Miles.
From Durban (Natal)	to	Potscherfstroom	419
„ „	to	Marabastad Gold-fields	580
„ „	to	Leydenberg Gold-fields	436
„ Delagoa Bay	to	„	150
„ Potscherfstroom	to	„	332
„ Pretoria	to	„	225
„ Capetown	to	Pretoria	1,024

Projected railway from Delagoa Bay.

The projected line of railway from Lorenzo Marquez, Delagoa Bay, to the Transvaal, is to pass through the Leydenburg Gold Fields. The Portuguese Government had agreed to meet one-half the cost of the line through its territory, which reaches to the foot of the Lombobo mountains, a distance of about thirty miles. The second section, from the Portuguese territory to the point in the Gold Fields at which the terminus was fixed, is about 100 miles. For the purposes of construction a loan of about 300,000*l.* was partly raised in Holland by the Government of the Republic.

The following is the President's letter on the loan proposals :—

The President's proposal.

'Transcript of a letter from his Honour the State President of the South African Republic to Messrs. Insinger & Co., dated January 12, 1876.

'Gentlemen,—Being authorised by the Volksraad of the South African Republic, by resolutions dated November 16 and 17, 1874, to negotiate a loan for the sum of 3,600,000*f.* (300,000*l.*), I have the honour to request you to open a subscription for the same, upon the conditions set forth in the annexed prospectus.

'The close connection in which my compatriots stand by the affinity, "stam verwanten," to Holland, and the sentiment of national unity which animates them, as well as the liberal reception which has been accorded to me from so many highly respected persons in this land, and with which I desire to acknowledge a reciprocal sympathy, encourages me to trust that this loan will receive a favourable reception by the Netherlands public.

'The proceeds of this loan is to be applied to a railway connection between the S. A. Republic and the

Portuguese possessions at Delagoa Bay. A treaty which I have concluded with the Portuguese Government assures me that the untrammelled access to the sea, for which the Republic has so great a need, will be secured by this railway. Up to this time all transport must pass either through the Cape Colony or Natal; in consequence of which not only is merchandise burdened with heavy expenses for carriage, but also with the enormously high custom duties which are exacted by the English Colonies. The improved intercourse with the coast will undoubtedly cause the development of the great riches of the land to advance with giant strides.

'The financial position of the Republic is already such that the taxes which will arise under the obligations of this loan can be provided by the population with the greatest ease. For so far as the money required may not be provided by the ordinary revenue the Volksraad has resolved to impose a special tax, for the purpose of this loan, of 1*l.* on every quit-rent farm, and of 1*l.* on every burgher, subject, or resident of the State who is not owner of such a farm; which tax is destined and will be exclusively used for that object. Besides which five hundred surveyed Government farms of 3,000 morgen each will be pledged as security for the obligations of this loan. I may add that these lands form part of the best lands of the Republic, that they already represent a high money value, and that this value will increase according as the population increases, and so soon as the railway shall be completed, in the immediate neighbourhood of which the most of these farms lie.

'The prosperity of the Republic, so rapidly being developed, renders these securities more than sufficient. But still greater certainty than any material security can provide will the money giver find in the good faith and honour of the population: the Old Dutch virtue, which they have preserved, together with the language of their fathers!'

The loan was taken up to a considerable amount, but it remains a mystery what has become of the money. The railway at all events is still a thing of the future.

Improvement.

Very great improvement has of late years taken place in the social aspects of the Transvaal. Its political position is now much more satisfactory; with a new Execu-

tive, at the head of which is a man of energy, all hope for the best. With returning credit there is renewed ardour; fixed property is rising in value, and everything is looking up. The large influx of Europeans and colonists of more advanced education than that of the original settlers of the country has produced and is producing very marked effects. The whole course of past, of recent, and of passing events seems to indicate, with a probability nearly amounting to certainty, that a very few years indeed will see the Transvaal territory occupy a most important position in Southern Africa.

Sources of information.

There is at present but little published information about the Transvaal. Mr. O. U. A. Forssman issued a little 'Guide' in 1872. The local newspaper offices have printed almanacs with official lists, and Messrs. P. Davis & Son, of Natal, have done the same. The Potscherfstroom and Pretoria papers ably represent the Colony professionally, but it is difficult to obtain files in England. We have been indebted to Mr. J. J. Pratt, formerly Consul-General for the Republic, for important assistance in collecting material for the foregoing sketch.

THE TRANSVAAL GOLD FIELDS.

The Gold Fields.

It is now nearly ten years ago since the traveller Caarl Mauch and the hunter Hartley discovered the presence of gold in the region north-west of the Transvaal. The news from the banks of the Tate, a tributary of the Shashi, attracted the attention of all South Africa and reached England. In 1868 Sir John Swinbourne's prospecting expedition took place. In 1872 there was a rush to Marabastad, a place not far from Potgieter's Rust, in the centre of the northern part of the Transvaal. Mr. Button, of Natal, and the late Mr. Thomas Baines about this time gave their attention to the introduction of crushing machinery. In 1873 the Leydenburg Fields, on the eastern side of the Transvaal, about 150 miles north-west from Delagoa Bay, were discovered. In this region the work of gold-digging has been carried on by fluctuating numbers with various success to the present time. Experience has shown that gold exists in quantities sufficient to warrant continued effort; but there are not at present as many miners on the Fields as there were when the first edition of this Handbook was published, and this must be accepted as indicating the necessity of caution. It will be as well to add to the information given in the first edition some statements more recently obtained, and which will represent the views of those who take opposite views of the question of success.

The following is part of the statement made in the first edition of the Handbook:—

Facts in 1875.

The *Eastern Province Herald* (1875) says:—'Mr. H. H. Solomon has brought down to Port Elizabeth 140 lbs. weight of beautiful gold, the chief part in large nuggets. The finest nugget of the lot was one taken out of Miss Russell's claim at Pilgrim's Rest—a big lump, weighing 4½ lbs. of almost pure gold. Another large nugget lying alongside of this was a singular specimen. Quartz

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was apparent on both its sides, as though the quartz had been melted and run through the gold instead of the gold round the quartz. Another paper contained the result of one man's digging for a week, about 4½ lbs. of gold, chiefly small nuggets about the size of a pea, with a sprinkling of larger lumps. Yet another small paper, and we were shown 12 dwts. of gold taken out of the washing of three pans by Mr. Sampson, Jun. An iron deed-chest, about eighteen inches long and twelve inches deep, was about a third full of nuggets, large and small together. This was the box in which they were brought down from the Fields; and not being full, the whole had been thoroughly shaken together, and presented a dusty appearance. Beside this gold were a couple of bags of quartz, brought down as specimens for the purpose of analysis. We heartily congratulate Mr. Solomon on his safe return, and on the success which has attended his visit to the Gold Fields. From all accounts prospects there are encouraging. There is no room yet for a rush, but diggers are on the whole doing well, and there cannot be a doubt that even richer fields will be discovered. We trust that these Gold Fields will yet be the means of bringing population and prosperity to this country. There is a wide field for enterprise, both literally and metaphorically. We are as yet but on the threshold of discovery.'

Shipments of gold.

The *Natal Mercury* (1875), of a late date, says:—

'The Transvaal Gold Fields are rapidly making a name in the world. There can be now no possible doubt of the richness of the alluvial but patchy deposits. One thing is certain, the Natal Bank has shipped, per Royal Mail steamer *Basuto*, 1,184 ounces of gold-dust and nuggets, including among the latter one of 42 ounces weight. A 23-ounce nugget of gold, received from the Transvaal by the Cape Commercial Bank, is now to be seen at the bank's office.'

Statements in 1876.

The foregoing paragraphs are all it is necessary to quote from the Handbook for 1875. The following are gathered from the Natal and Gold Fields papers of 1876, and the first quotation is from a disappointed digger, George James Neale, who wrote as follows to the *Natal Colonist*, January 24, 1876:—

Unfavourable.

'Now, sir, as to the general decay of the Fields, there is no doubt; before long we shall see them designated a

"sham," and handed down to history as a thing of the past. You would naturally ask why such a statement, and what explanation have I to give. I will give facts, and let them speak for themselves. Nearly 1,000 diggers were at the commencement upon these Fields (I include all camps, viz. Pilgrim's Rest, Mac-Mac, Waterfall, and Blyde River). Early last year the number was 500, and now the digging licenses do not reach half that number. Here you will notice the gradual fall-off. Gold there is, certainly, but not in payable quantities. Sometimes a large nugget is unearthed. Take one, for instance, recently exhibited in Durban, weighing 214 ozs. Young men frantically rush to see it, and immediately imagine the country is covered with gold, and are eager to leave a fair "billet" and start for the Fields. Deceived humanity! Let them be wise men only for five minutes and ask themselves this question: "How much did that nugget cost the finder, and how many don't find a nugget at all?" I possess a quantity of gold that cost me over 18*l.* the oz., whereas the market value is from 3*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* 18*s.* the oz. I am neither an Australian nor a Californian miner; but always having been in partnership with the latter, I have had the benefit on the Fields of their experience, and I claim to be a practical miner.

'Prospecting around the country was an occupation to which myself and an experienced Californian miner devoted some considerable time. There are no indications of gold, and the formations of the surrounding country are so different to anywhere else and don't call for gold. Sandstone seems to form the chief "bottom;" and what experienced miner I would like to know ever found a good gold field with a sandstone "bottom?" Gold, I have no doubt, there is, and an abundance too, in South Africa, but it is nowhere in the vicinity of Pilgrim's Rest. Had our great traveller, Mr. Baines, lived, and been able to have gone into the Matabililand, with his machinery, doubtless some payable gold fields would have been opened, and South Africa have had cause to rejoice and "rush."

'Labour on the Fields is scarce. Kaffirs are paid twenty shillings a month, and receive the usual diet—mealie meal—the general average of which is 3*l.* a muid, though sometimes it reaches the exorbitant price of

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eighty-five shillings per muid!—a price which I have had the pleasure of paying on several occasions. A few claims (very few admit of it) employ white labour, but very little demand for it, when we consider only one-eighth of the diggers are paying expenses. The unhappy majority are anxiously waiting for means and an opportunity to visit Natal, Delagoa Bay, the Diamond Fields, or, as I have heard a great number myself say, "anywhere away from here."'

The author of these gloomy and discouraging sentences was preparing to leave for California at the moment that he wrote them.

The editor of the *Gold Fields Mercury* replied to Mr. Neale in a lengthy article, from which the following is an extract:—

Favourable report.

'That the Fields have in them the elements of progress ought to be apparent to all who have, from time to time, heard and read of the large finds made here. The facts that nuggets of from 1 lb. to 15 lbs. have been found—not solitarily, but with a vast amount of other gold—that some claims have yielded a very considerable return to the workers—that much ground, such as that at and above the top bend of the creek, such as that at "the Company's reef" and on the Columbian's hill, such as that at Australian's gully, Mac-Mac, and several other places, has proved to be extraordinarily rich—that considerable parcels of gold are exported hence every week, and that one Natal institution alone, the Natal Bank, exported over 36,000*l.* worth of virgin gold from these Fields last year, while the Cape Commercial Bank's export must have amounted to over 70,000*l.*—these facts and others that might be mentioned ought to be sufficient to convince thinking men that these Fields have already, even sparsely populated and inefficiently worked as they are and have been, yielded a very great quantity of gold—and that, for the sake of all South Africa, it would be better to encourage people—people who *will work*—to come here to assist in developing the hidden wealth of this district, rather than to throw dampers upon the place and embrace every opportunity that offers to create amongst people abroad an unfavourable impression about it. Circumstances are against these Fields just now, but when that influx of population

takes place which assuredly will take place sooner or later, the people of Natal and other places will be astonished to see the rapid rate at which these Fields shall advance, and the impetus they will give to the progress and prosperity of South Africa.'

Recent success.

The following is the Gold Fields paper's account of a recent success :—

'Considerable commotion was caused in camp last Monday forenoon by receipt of the news that Mr. Van Breda and party had found extraordinarily well that morning in their ground on the Columbians' reef. The first report was that they had come upon a rich spot, on the very brow of the hill, out of which, in two hours, they took about 8 lbs. gold, including a nugget weighing 4½ lbs. As soon as convenient we made it our business to proceed to the spot to inspect the ground and ascertain for ourselves. We found Mr. Breda there, and he pointed out to us the place in which he had found the gold. It is on the top of the high, steep hill just beyond the Blyde River, and not many yards below where Messrs. Stanley and party and Felt and party are sinking for the reef. The space of ground in which he found the quantity of gold is certainly not more than eight feet square, and the digging not deeper than a foot and a half. The ground is composed of broken quartz, with a little iron-stone and a considerable quantity of decayed slate, in blocks. The exact amount of gold found was 68 oz., including a nugget of about 40 oz., and smaller gold to the amount of about 28 oz. The whole was found in less than two hours' time. The gold is quite pure, and of a beautiful bright yellow. The 40 oz. nugget has not a bit of quartz in it, and scarcely any dirt; but it is rugged and honeycombed, as if it had but just dropped out of the quartz. It is very large for its weight, and if solid would certainly not be much lighter than 7 lbs.

'The ground is, as we have said, situated on the top of the highest range of hills to the west of the Blyde River. The work is all surfacing, and it is the general belief that the gold is a "blow out" from a reef. Indeed, there is no other reasonable way of accounting for such a rich deposit of gold at such a high elevation. It is remarkable that where this gold is being found is just in

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a line, running N.W. and S.E., with Charlie Brown's rush, the other side the Blyde River, with the lower part of Robus' rush, with Dernin & Rogers' reef, and the rich ground at MacMac.'

The truth seems to be that there is reason to carry on the experiment of gold-mining in the Transvaal, but that at present it is not desirable that there should be any rush to the place of persons who cannot afford to work and wait. The country is healthy and pleasant. Food is, however, dear, and the conditions of life rough.

The best routes.

Durban, Natal, is the nearest available port to the Fields, the journey being about 400 miles. From the Griqualand West Diamond Fields there is a line of passenger carts, the fare being about 20*l*., and the time of travelling seven or eight days. Delagoa Bay is much nearer to the Fields, and endeavours are being made to open up a route from that place, and although the railway project fell through under the mismanagement of the Republic, it is hoped that under better auspices it may yet become an accomplished fact. The Lourenço Marques Service's line of traffic to Delagoa Bay is now in thoroughly good working order. The first goods that went up all the way from Delagoa per ox-waggon were delivered at the Fields in February 1875. The waggons made a quick trip of two and a half days from Pretorius Kop to Pilgrim's Rest. Mr. Nellmapius, the general manager of the service, received good news from his stations all along the line, where everything was reported to be going on well. The thorough establishment of this service would be a great boon to people doing business there. It must, however, be remembered that the Bay is very unhealthy.

Delagoa Bay (Lourenço Marques).

DELAGOA BAY

General description.

Delagoa Bay is the name under which the Portuguese settlement of Lourenço Marques is distinguished in English maps. For some time the possession of half of the Bay and its shores was disputed by England. The question was submitted to arbitration, and the President of the French Republic, in 1875, decided in favour of the claims of Portugal. The southern boundary of the settlement is the line 26° 30′ S. lat.; the Lobombo Range, about 25 miles inland, is the western boundary; the Bay itself is on the eastern side, while on the north the limits are undefined. The Portuguese call the settlement 'Lourenço Marques,' after its discoverer, who sailed into its waters in 1544. The little island of Inyak is situated in the mouth of the Bay, on the southern side. The Bay is spacious, and will in course of time become important as a South African harbour. Its great drawback is the unhealthiness of its climate.

Lourenço Marques is a district of the Portuguese province of Mozambique, but has a governor of its own, who is assisted by a secretary and other officers. A small military force is stationed there. In 1864 the population was 1,098. The capital of the district is situated on the north side of an inner harbour, 26° S. lat., into which the river Tembe flows. A wagon-road has been opened up to the Gold Fields.

Present importance.

Delagoa Bay has recently become of special importance on account of its nearness to the Transvaal Gold Fields at Leydenburg, and the projected line of railway, of which the town of Lourenço Marques is to be the starting-point. In the chapter on the Transvaal the conditions of the loan for the construction of this line have been stated. The following is a translation of the treaty relating to the same work, and also to customs duties made between Portugal and the Transvaal Republic:—

DELAGOA BAY

Customs treaty.

'The transit of the produce of the soil and the industry of the South African Republic through Portuguese territory, as also the transit through the same territory of merchandise, of whatever origin or nationality, imported through the port of Lourenço Marques with destination to the said Republic, will in principle *be totally exempt from all duties, of whatever nature.*

'His Majesty the King of Portugal reserves the right to prohibit or subject to special regulations the import and transit of arms and munitions of war, with this understanding, that he binds himself to allow the transit of arms and munitions when they are destined for or demanded by the Government of the South African Republic.

'The produce of the soil and of the industry of the S.A. Republic which are exported through the port of Lourenço Marques *will be exempt from all duties, of what nature soever.* They remain, however, the same as the products of Portuguese origin, subject to the wharf, lighthouse, and harbour dues which are there imposed. As long as the revenue of the railway is not sufficient to cover the expenses of harbour works, &c., articles of merchandise, of whatever origin, which will be imported through the harbour of Lourenço Marques, and are destined for the S.A. Republic, may be subjected to an import duty of 3 per cent. If the revenue of these duties is insufficient to furnish a guarantee for the payment of interest, and for the amortisation of the capital required for the subsidy of a railway from Lourenço Marques to the boundary of the S.A. Republic, and for the realisation of other improvements tending to the benefit of the trade of both countries, His Majesty the King of Portugal will have the right to increase this duty to 6 per cent. When, on the other hand, the indicated capital has been amortised, the import duty on goods destined for the S.A. Republic will be reduced to 1½ per cent. The following articles of merchandise are exempt from import duties:—Live animals of all kinds, hides, meal from wheat, maize, barley, rye, and oats, seeds, fresh fruit, vegetables of all kinds, coal, coke, ice, guano and other manures, rosin, lime, building stone, slates or stones for the roofs of houses, tiles of all kinds, tools for trades, arts, agriculture, and

mining operations, books bound and stitched, and printing in whatever language, music and musical instruments, typographical presses and type, geographical maps and plans, all kinds of objects for museums, specimens for scientific collections and for all art collections not destined for trade, foreign money in gold and silver, Portuguese money in silver and copper from Portuguese harbours, ships of whatever kind and in whatever condition, steamers.

'It was further agreed:

Portuguese contribution to railway.

'That the King of Portugal will contribute to the making of the railway, to commence at the harbour of Lourenço Marques, or at a point on the right bank of the river of the same name where the navigableness ceases up to the S.A. Republic; that he will for that object concede to the enterprise or the company which will be formed for that purpose: (1) a subsidy equivalent to half the cost of the works; (2) the ground belonging to the State and required for the construction and exploiture of the said railway; (3) free import during fifteen years of all the fixed and rolling stock for construction and exploiture; (4) preference for the construction of the branches of the railway which will be undertaken afterwards; (5) the exclusive exploiture of that railway and of the respective electric telegraphs during ninety-nine years; moreover the King of Portugal allows the import duty-free of all the fixed and rolling stock destined for the construction and exploiture of the continuation of the said railway in the territory of the S.A. Republic.

'On their side the Government of the S.A. Republic undertake to carry on the railway to a centre of production and consumption which can secure the development of the international trade; further, to furnish all facilities to the enterprise or company to which the construction of the Portuguese portion will be entrusted in case the construction of the S.A. Republic's portion of the railway be conceded to the same enterprise or company, such as by name: (1) free disposition of the requisite grounds; (2) guarantee of 5 per cent. on the borrowed capital, or, if it may be required, a subsidy equal to that which is given by the Government of Portugal.

'Finally, it is agreed that if the same company obtains

DELAGOA BAY

the concession of the two portions of the railway, the Governments of both countries will, in union with one another, use the means calculated and adapted to force that company to carry out the engagements entered into, and on both sides to neglect nothing which may secure the speedy completion of an undertaking of so much importance for both countries.'

A treaty of friendship and commerce between Portugal and the Orange Free State was signed in London on March 10, 1876, by the respective plenipotentiaries, Viscount Duprat, Chargé d'Affaires of Portugal to the South African Republics and Consul-General in London, and His Honour M. Hamelberg, Political Agent and Consul-General of the Orange Free State in Holland.

APPENDIX.

Table showing Derivation of Nomenclature of Districts, Towns, and Villages in South Africa.

Name	District or Town	Date of Formation	Derivation
Adelaide . .	Province, now British Kaffraria.		Queen of William IV.
Albert . .	District	1848	Prince Albert.
Aliwal, N. & S.	,,	,,	From victory of Sir H. Smith.
Albany . .	,,	1820	From Scotch title of Duke of York.
Alexandria .	Division	1848	From name of Queen Victoria.
Bathurst . .	Town and division	,,	Earl Bathurst, Colonial Secretary.
Beaufort, N. .	,,	1818	From family title of Governor Lord C. Somerset.
Fort Beaufort .	,,	1848	,, ,,
Burghersdorp .	Town	,,	Named by Boers Citizens' Village.
Caledon . .	District	1813	Earl of Caledon, Governor.
Calvinia . .	,,	1848	From Calvin the Reformer.
Clanwilliam .	,,	1814	From family title of Hon. Col. Meade, Governor.
Cradock . .	,,	,,	Sir J. Cradock, Governor, afterwards Lord Howden.
Colesberg . .	,,	1825	Sir Lowry Cole, Governor.
Fort Elizabeth .	,,	1820	Elizabeth, wife of Sir R. Donken, L.G.
Frazersburg .	,,	1847	Rev. C. Frazer, Dutch Pastor.
George . .	,,	1811	From name of Prince Regent.
Graaf-Reynet .	,,	1784	Compounded of names of Van der Graaf, Governor, and Reynet, that of his wife's family.

Towns and Villages in South Africa—continued.

Name	District or Town	Date of Formation.	Derivation
Graham's Town	City	1820	Col. Graham, Commandant on E. Frontier.
Hope Town .	District and village	1850	Col. Hope, Civil Service.
Malmesbury .	,,	1829	Lord Malmesbury, Colonial Secretary.
Middelburg .	,,	1848	From its central position.
Murraysburg .	,,	,,	From its Dutch Pastor.
Fort Peddie .	,,	,,	Col. Peddie, 72nd Regiment.
Paarl . .	,,	1784	From granite boulder on hill above it.
Piquetberg .	,,	1848	From mountain range above it.
Queenstown .	,,	,,	From Her Majesty's title.
Simonstown .	,,		From Simon Van der Stell.
Stockenstrom .	,,		From Sir Andries Stockenstrom, D.G.
Stellenbosch .	,,	1690	From Simon Van der Stell.
Swellendam .	,,	1784	From Swellengrebel, Governor.
Tulbagh . .	,,	1848	From Ryk Van Tulbagh, Governor.
Worcester . .	,,	1820	From title of Beaufort family.
Natal . .	Separate colony	1842	Discovered on Christmas Day by Portuguese.
Pietermaritzburg	Capital	1843	From Christian name of Piet Retief, and surname of Gert Maritz the founders.
Durban . .	Town	,,	From Sir B. Durban, Governor of Cape.
Lady Smith .	Village	,,	From Lady of Sir H. Smith.
Bloemfontein .	Sovereignty	1846	Name of farm built on.
Faure Smith .	,,	,,	From Rev. Mr. Faure, Dutch Minister, and Sir H. Smith.
Smithfield . .	,,	,,	Sir H. Smith.
Harrissmith .	,,	,,	,, ,,
Transvaal:	,,	,,	
Pretoria . .	,,	,,	Andries Pretorius, President.
Leydenburg	,,	,,	From Leyden in Holland.
Potscherfstroom	,,	,,	Compound of part of names of Potgieter and Stockenstroom.

Table of Geographical Nomenclature used as Local Terms in the Cape Colony.

Local Terms	Language	Corresponding English Expression
Agter . . .	Dutch	Behind, as Agter Roggeveld (behind the Roggeveld).
Baai . . .	,,	Gulf or bay.
Baaken . .	,,	A landmark.
Bad . . .	,,	A hot spring.
Berg . . .	,,	A mountain.
Bergen . . .	,,	Mountains.
Bergjies . .	,,	Little mountains.
Bokkeveld . .	,,	A country fit for the rearing of goats.
Bosch . . .	,,	Thicket or forest.
Boschjes . .	,,	Little bushes (as Boschjesveld, a country covered with low bushes).
Bron . . .	,,	A spring.
Burg . . .	,,	A town.
Dal . . .	,,	A vale or dale.
Dorp . . .	,,	A village.
Drift . . .	,,	A ford.
Droogeveld . .	,,	A dry country or pasturage.
Duin or Duinen .	,,	Sand-hills covered with bushes.
Eyland . . .	,,	An islet (as Robben Eiland).
Fontein . .	,,	A fountain or spring.
Gat . . .	,,	A deep reach or hole in a river.
Gebergte . .	,,	A large system of mountains.
Grasveld . .	,,	A grassy region.
Grensveld . .	,,	A frontier or border region.
Hangklip . .	,,	A rock or mountain which appears to overhang its base.
Hardeveld . .	,,	A hard or rocky country.
Heuvel . . .	,,	A height.
Heuveltjie . .	,,	A little height.
Hoek . . .	,,	A retired valley (literally, corner).
Hoogeveld . .	,,	A high region.
Hoogte . . .	,,	A height or eminence.
Kaap . . .	,,	Cape.
Kamma . .	Hottentot	Water (the affix to many rivers, as Keiskamma).
Karroo . . .	,,	A dry desert covered with certain low scrubby plants.
Klein . . .	Dutch	Little (applied to certain districts, as the Klein Roggeveld, i.e. the lesser).
Klip . . .	,,	A large isolated rock (as the Paalklip, Hondeklip).

Table of Nomenclature, &c.—continued.

Local Terms	Language	Corresponding English Expression
Kloof . . .	Dutch	A pass through a mountain range, or between two ranges of mountains, — generally the bed of a river (literally, a cleft or split).
Kolk . . .	,,	A hole or pit.
Kop . . .	,,	A small isolated hill (literally, head).
Kopjies . .	,,	A group of small hills.
Koudeveld . .	,,	A term applied to a high Alpine region (literally, cold field).
Kraal . . .	,,	A native village or cattle inclosure (literally, a tribe).
Kranz . . .	,,	A rocky precipice nearly perpendicular (literally, a crown or wreath).
Kuil . . .	,,	A hole or cave.
Laagte . . .	,,	A low situation or valley.
Land . . .	,,	An extensive region or country outside the colony, as Kaffirland.
Moeras . . .	,,	A bog or marsh.
Mond . . .	,,	A river's mouth.
Nek . . .	,,	A ramification of a mountain range, or a depression in the same.
Om or Um . .	Kaffir	A prefix, signifying river (as the Umtata).
Omtrek . .	Dutch	A certain extent of country.
Pan . . .	,,	A depression in the surface in which water or salt collects, well known in the diamond fields as being rich in gems.
Plaats . . .	,,	Location or place.
Poort . . .	,,	A passage or opening in a mountain range (as Meirings Poort—literally, gate).
Puit . . .	,,	A well or pit.
Rand . . .	,,	The highlands lying at each side of a river valley (as the Fish River Rand, &c.,—literally, edge).
Rivier . . .	,,	A river, great or small.
Roggeveld . .	,,	A country well adapted for cultivating rye.
Rug . . .	,,	A rough, low hill (literally, little back).

Table of Nomenclature, &c.—continued.

Local Terms	Language	Corresponding English Expression
Ruggens . .	Dutch	A country covered with ridges
Spitzkop . .	,,	A sugar-loaf or peaked hill.
Spruit . . .	,,	A head or feeder of a large river.
Strandveld . .	,,	A region lying along coast.
Tafelberg . .	,,	A flat-topped mountain, as Table Mountain.
Thab' . . .	Kaffir	Mountains, as Thab' Inkulu.
Trekveld . .	Dutch	A country not yet divided into farms, into which the farmers occasionally migrate.
Uitkyk . . .	,,	A locality from which an extensive view is obtained (literally, outlook).
Vallei or Vlei .	,,	A collection of water or a hollow place, generally of natural formation, as De Beer's Vallei or Vlei (literally, valley).
Veld . . .	,,	A large extent of country (as the Nieuweveld, Roggeveld, &c.,—literally, field).
Vlakte . . .	,,	Flats or low plains.
Waschbank . .	,,	A country covered with white quartz and other rocks, looking, at a distance, like clothes drying.
Winterveld . .	,,	A region in which farmers have their winter locations.
Witte . . .	,,	White (a local term generally applied to mountains whose tops are covered with snow during the winter season).
Zandveld . .	,,	A sandy region.
Zee . . .	,,	The ocean.
Zoeteveld . .	,,	A country covered with sweet pasturage.
Zuurberg . .	,,	A name given to ranges of mountains of small elevation, covered with sour pasturage.
Zuurveld . .	,,	A country covered with sour pasturage.
Zwarte . . .	,,	Black (a local denomination of many mountains).

Latitudes and Longitudes of Principal Localities in the Colony.

	Latitude	Longitude
	° ′ ″	° ′ ″
Royal Observatory . . .	33 56 3·20	18 28 45·00
Rogge Bay (Table Bay) . .	33 55 16·217	18 25 31·14
Robben Island, Church Tower	33 48 39·16	18 22 51·01
Dassen Island, Big Klip . .	33 25 54·895	18 5 26·994
Saldanha Bay, North Bay, Trig.	33 2 9·696	17 55 46·311
Hondeklip	30 18 33·797	17 16 20·860
Cape Point	34 21 6·806	18 29 46·855
Cape Hangklip Pile . .	34 21 59·220	18 50 46·710
Mudge Point	34 23 53·010	19 9 2·930
Danger Point	34 35 31·586	19 22 52·630
Cape L'Agulhas Lighthouse .	34 49 45·70	20 0 40·000
Struzs Point, Trig. . . .	34 41 4·542	20 10 21·537
Cape Infanta	34 26 8·269	20 49 19·868
Fish Bay	34 18 1·988	21 54 49·890
Mossel Bay Lighthouse, Cape St. Blaize	34 11 10	22 9 31
Cape Seal (Plettenberg's Bay)	34 6 15·097	23 24 6·694
Cape St. Francis Bay . .	34 10 57·075	24 45 37·668
Cape Reçif Lighthouse . .	34 1 43·584	25 42 12·231
Bird Island Lighthouse . .	33 50 30·227	26 17 22·478
Kowie Windmill . . .	33 33 23·00	26 53 42·00
Groenfontein	33 33 35·344	26 59 22·054
Newcastle, Old . . .	33 26 14·019	27 8 52·07
Cape Morgan	32 41 55·684	28 21 55·774
Fort Glamorgan, East London	33 1 50·000	27 54 25·00
Natal Lighthouse . .	29 53 00	31 2 20

Public Debt on December 31, 1878.

Statement of Loans raised by Debentures and Stock for the Service of the General Government.

Authority	For what Service	When Redeemable	Rate per Cent.	Existing Debt on Dec. 31, 1878		
				£	s.	d.
Act 8 of 1860	Public Works	Jan. 1, 1891	6	131,300	0	0
Act 9 of 1860	Immigration	June 1, 1881	6	19,000	0	0
Act 14 of 1863	General Purposes	April 15, 1891	6	122,000	0	0
Act 18 of 1863	Kowie Harbour	Oct. 15, 1884	6	20,800	0	0
Act 8 of 1864	General Purposes	Dec. 31, 1900	5	209,200	0	0
Act 23 of 1864	Kowie Harbour	Dec. 31, 1900	6	18,100	0	0
Act 8 of 1865	Ditto	Dec. 31, 1900	6	17,600	0	0
Act 11 of 1866–'67	General Purposes	Oct. 15, 1900	6	174,400	0	0
Act 13 of 1869	Redeeming Loan	Perpetual Ann.	4½	54,807	11	0
Act 7 of 1871 & 26 of 1875	East London Harbour	Ditto	4½	70,500	0	0
Act 13 of 1871	Redeeming Loan	Ditto	4½	49,650	19	9
Act 13 of 1873	Construction of Railways	Ditto Drawings (*a*)	4½	649,800	0	0
Act 7 of 1870	Consolidated Debt	Ditto	4½	143,800	0	0
Act 15 of 1872	Railway Purchase	Ditto	4½	694,500	0	0
Do. Sched. 1, Clause A.	Cape Town and Wellington Railway Company's Debentures issued under Imperial Acts 18 & 19 Vict. c. 140, and Acts 30 & 31 Vict., Session 1867	Dec. 1, 1876	6	(*b*) 200		
		Oct. 1, 1879	6	4,800		
		Dec. 1, 1879	6	5,400		
		April 1, 1880	6	..		
		April 1, 1882	6	31,600		
				£42,000		
Act 19 of 1874	Construction of Railways	Drawings (*a*)	4½	976,700	0	0
		Ditto	4½	987,100	0	0
		Ditto	4½	1,000,000	0	0
		Ditto	4½	1,000,000	0	0
Act 26 of 1874	Orange River Bridges	Ditto	4½	297,900	0	0
Act 8 of 1876	Wynberg Railway Purchase	Dec. 31, 1899	4½	*58,300	0	0
Act 12 of 1876	East London Harbour	Drawings (*a*)	4½	100,000	0	0
Act 13 of 1876	Kowie Harbour	Ditto	4½	148,900	0	0
				6,986,358	10	9

(*a*) The principal to be repaid at par by the application to annual drawings of a 1 per cent. Cumulative Sinking Fund.

(*b*) Bond not yet presented for payment, ceased to draw interest.

* Act 8 of 1876.—Debentures issued by Colonial Government at 4½ per cent., expiring December 31, 1899 . £51,300
Stock issued January 1, 1877 7,000
£58,300

The Cape Copper Mining Company (Limited).

The Company's ore and regulus obtained from middle of 1863, when it first commenced work, until end of 1873—10½ years—have realised 1,580,000*l.* Of this 1,030,000*l.* was obtained during the last 5 years, 1869 to 1873 inclusive. The dividends paid by the Company on the total raisings to end of 1873 have amounted to 305,625*l.* The ores are of very rich quality. After classification and dressing they average an assay of about 32 per cent.

The chief mine (Ookiep) is about 90 miles from the sea. A light railway of 2·6 gauge connects it with Port Nolloth.

The harbour (Port Nolloth) is about 400 miles N.W. of Cape Town.

The Company employs about 1,500 people in its works. These people are made up of very mixed classes, being Cornish and Welsh miners, ordinary labourers from Cape Town and elsewhere, St. Helena men, and African natives of various tribes.

The Company's landed estates are about 300,000 acres. Efforts have been and are still being made to utilise the surface by goat, sheep and ostrich farming, but no material advantages have as yet been gained from these operations, the real value of the territory having as yet proved to be in its copper mineral.

Foreign Consuls Residing in the Colony.

Country	Names of Consuls	If confirmed, the date of his Exequatur
Austria . .	W. J. Anderson, Cape Town	Nov. 22, 1869
	N. Adler, Port Elizabeth .	March 8, 1872
	(A. Allenberg, Acting)	
Belgium . .	W. C. Knight, Cape Town .	March 18, 1865
	V. Ancion, Port Elizabeth	
Brazils . .	C. S. Poppe, Cape Town .	Jan. 8, 1864
Chili . . .	W. G. Anderson, Cape Town	Jan. 8, 1868
	D. F. Stewart, Port Elizabeth	Nov. 9, 1869
Denmark . .	G. Myburgh, Cape Town .	May 22, 1876
	H. W. Dalldorf, Port Elizabeth	
	F. H. S. Hugo, Simon's Town	
France . .	M. Louis Reynaud, Cape Town	March 14, 1870
	F. H. S. Hugo, Simon's Town	
	W. M. Farmer, Port Elizabeth	
	(A. L. Blackburn, Acting)	

Foreign Consuls—continued.

Country	Names of Consuls	If confirmed, the date of his Exequatur
Germany . .	C. S. Poppe, Cape Town	July 28, 1871
	W. H. J. Schabbel, Port Elizabeth	July 28, 1871
	P. D. Martin, Simon's Town	
	E. B. Hall, Mossel Bay	
	R. L. Bertram, Port Alfred, Vice-Consul	
	R. Walker, East London, Vice-Consul	
Italy . . .	W. C. Knight, Cape Town	June 23, 1874
	W. J. Knight, do.	
	J. Simpson, Port Elizabeth	
Netherlands .	G. Myburgh, Con.-Gen., Cape Town	Dec. 31, 1870
	R. Myburgh, Vice-Con., Cape Town	
	P. J. Hugo, Simon's Town	
	C. T. Jones, Port Elizabeth	Oct. 31, 1877
Portugal . .	Eduardo A. de Carvalho, Con.-Gen., Cape Town	Oct. 18, 1872
	T. Watson, Vice-Con., Cape Town	Jan. 27, 1864
	———, Simon's Town	
	J. Simpson, Port Elizabeth	
	J. F. Hudson, Mossel Bay	
Russia . .	W. C. Knight, Cape Town	Feb. 17, 1875
Spain . . .	W. C. Knight, Cape Town	
Sweden and Norway	C. G. Akerberg, Con.-Gen.	May 6, 1865
	J. F. Hudson, Mossel Bay	
	A. L. Blackburn, Port Elizabeth	
Turkey . .	H. Myburgh, Acting Consul-General	
	J. M. Hoets, Simon's Town	
United States of America	W. W. Edgecomb, Cape Town	June 15, 1871
	J. Murison, Deputy and Vice-Consul, Cape Town	
	P. D. Martin, Simon's Town	
	A. Taylor, Port Elizabeth	
Venezuela . .	C. G. Akerberg, Cape Town	March 4, 1870
Uruguay . .	J. C. Kemsley, Port Elizabeth	June 15, 1875

PRICES OF PROVISIONS IN CAPE COLONY.

The following Return shows the Prices of the principal Articles of Provisions in the several provinces of the Colony according to the latest Returns.

Article	Western	North-Western	South-Western	Midland	South-Eastern	North-Eastern	Eastern
Bacon, per lb.	1/ to 1/6	1/ to 1/9	/8 to 1/6	/11 to 2/	1/ to 1/3	/9 to 1/9	/8 to 1/6
Bread ,,	/3	/3 to /6	/2 to /5	/6 to /9	/3 to /4	/3 to 1/	/3½ to /6
Butter, Fresh, per lb.	2/ to 2/6	1/6 to 3/	1/6 to 2/9	1/6 to 3/6	1/9 to 3/6	1/6 to 3/	1/ to 3/
Butter, Salt ,,	1/9 to 2/	1/1 to 2/6	1/3 to 2/	1/6 to 2/9	1/3 to 2/6	1/ to 3/	1/ to 2/6
Candles ,,	/9 to 1/	1/3 to 1/6	1/ to 1/6	1/6 to 2/	/9 to 1/3	1/3 to 1/6	/8 to 1/6
Cheese ,,	1/1 to 1/6	1/6 to 2/	1/6 to 2/	1/6 to 2/6	1/3 to 1/6	1/9 to 2/	1/6 to 2/6
Rice ,,	/2½ to /3	/3 to /6	/3 to /4½	/5 to /9	/3 to /4	/4 to /6	/4 to /8
Coffee ,,	/11 to 1/2	1/ to 1/6	1/ to 1/3	1/2 to 1/9	/11 to 1/	1/3 to 2/	1/ to 1/6
Herrings, per tin	3/3 to 4/6	1/ to 4/	1/ to 7/6	1/6 to 5/	/9 to 3/9	1/ to 4/6	1/ to 4/6
Flour, per lb.	/2½ to /3	/3 to /6	/2 to /5	/6	/3 to /4	/5 to /6	/4 to /8
Milk, per bottle	/3 to /4	/3 to /6	/2 to /4	/3½ to /9	/6	/3 to /5	/4 to /9
Mutton per lb.	/5 to /6	/5 to /6	/6 to /9	/6	/6 to /7	/6 to /7	/6 to /8
Beef ,,	/6 to /8	/5 to /6	/5 to /9	/6 to /7	/6 to /9	/6 to /8	/5 to /8
Pork ,,	/6 to /9	/7 to /10	/8 to 1/6	/8 to 1/6	/6 to 1/	/6 to 1/	/6 to 1/
Dried Fruits ,,	/4 to /9	/3 to /8	/2 to /6	/6 to 1/	/6 to /9	/6 to 1/	/6 to 1/
Sago ,,	/5 to /7	/6 to 1/	/6 to 1/6	/8 to 1/	/6 to /9	/10 to 1/	/6 to 1/
Sugar ,,	/4 to /4½	/4 to /8	/5 to /6	/6 to /8	/5 to /6	/6 to /9	/6 to /9
Tea ,,	2/6 to 3/6	3/6 to 4/6	3/6 to 4/	4/	3/ to 3/6	3/6 to 4/6	3/6 to 4/6
Tobacco, Colonial, per lb.	/9 to 1/	1/ to 2/	/4½ to 1/6	/6 to 1/6	/9 to 1/	/8 to 2/	1/3 to 2/6
Wine ,, per gallon	1/6 to 3/	1/6 to 7/6	1/ to 10/	6/ to 15/	3/6 to 12/	7/6 to 12/	4/ to 14/
Beer ,, per bottle	/4 to /6	/4 to /9	/6 to /9	1/6	/9 to 1/	1/6	/9 to 1/6
Potatoes, per bushel	5/ to 8/	4/ to 12/6	2/6 to 16/8	10/3 to 20/	6/ to 7/6	6/8 to 10/	per bag 7/ to 25/
Mealies ,,	5/ to 7/6	6/ to 8/	7/ to 25/	15/ to 20/	8/ to 15/	7/ to 14/	,, 10/ to 40/
Pumpkins, each	/6 to 1/	/4 to 1/3	/4 to 1/	/6 to 1/	/7 to 1/	/6 to 1/	/8 to 1/6
Fowls or Ducks, per lb.	4/ to 6/	3/ to 4/	2/ to 6/	2/6 to 4/6	2/ to 7/6	2/ to 5/	2/ to 4/6
Geese or Turkeys ,,	8/ to 4/	4/6 to 15/	5/ to 20/	10/ to 15/	7/6 to 25/	7/ to 20/	5/ to 15/

Vegetables generally are dearer in Cape Colony than in England; whilst fruits are very much cheaper.

PRICES OF CLOTHING IN CAPE COLONY.

The following Return shows the Current Prices of Clothing, &c., in the several Provinces of the Colony, according to the latest Returns.

Article	Western	North-Western	South-Western	Midland	South-Eastern	North-Eastern	Eastern
MEN'S.							
Shoes, per pair	5/6 to 10/6	7/6 to 13/6	6/ to 18/	7/6 to 12/	8/ to 14/	5/6 to 14/6	10/ to 15/
Jackets	7/6 to 15/	9/ to 20/	6/ to 20/	13/6 to 20/	15/ to 18/	10/ to 25/	8/ to 20/
Hats	2/3 to 7/6	4/ to 7/6	3/ to 7/6	5/ to 7/6	3/ to 6/	5/ to 7/6	4/6 to 10/
Waistcoats	2/6 to 6/	4/6 to 7/6	3/ to 9/	5/6 to 7/6	4/6 to 7/6	5/ to 10/6	4/ to 7/6
Shirts, per dozen	17/ to 36/	18/ to 30/	18/ to 36/	16/ to 30/	24/ to 32/	18/ to 40/	30/ to 60/
Shirts, Flannel, each	4/ to 10/6	7/6 to 12/	5/ to 11/	7/6 to 10/	1/ to 7/6	7/6 to 10/	7/6 to 12/6
Trowsers	7/6 to 10/6	7/6 to 15/	5/ to 18/	10/ to 15/	9/ to 15/	10/ to 15/	8/ to 20/
Coats, Doeskin	15/ to 45/	15/ to 30/	15/ to 50/	20/ to 25/	15/ to 25/	16/ to 30/	17/6 to 45/
Socks, Woollen	/5 to 1/3	1/ to 1/6	/9 to 1/6	/9 to 2/	/9 to 1/6	1/ to 1/6	1/ to 1/6
WOMEN'S.							
Calico, per yard	/4 to /7½	/6 to /9	/6 to 1/	/6 to /9	/4½ to 1/	/6 to /9	/6 to 1/6
Flannel ,,	1/6 to 2/6	1/6 to 3/6	1/6 to 3/6	/9 to 3/	1/9 to 4/	1/9 to 2/6	2/ to 3/6
Print ,,	/5 to /8	/6 to /9	/6 to 1/	/8 to 1/	/6 to /10	/7 to 1/	/7 to 1/6
Handkerchiefs, each	/4 to 1/	/6 to 1/	/6 to 1/	/9 to 1/	/6 to 1/	/8 to 1/	/6 to 1/
Boots, per pair	5/6 to 10/6	7/6 to 12/	7/6 to 12/	7/6 to 15/	6/ to 16/	5/ to 10/6	9/ to 15/
Sheetings, per yard	1/3 to 3/6	1/6 to 2/6	1/6 to 2/6	2/6 to 3/	1/3 to 2/	2/ to 3/	1/9 to 3/6
Shawls, each	7/6 to 20/	4/6 to 25/	12/6 to 25/	10/ to 30/	7/6 to 30/	12/ to 20/	12/6 to 50/
Bonnets, Straw	2/6 to 5/	2/6 to 5/	2/6 to 7/6	2/ to 5/	1/6 to 5/	1/6 to 3/6	1/6 to 5/
Blankets, per pair	8/6 to 30/	7/ to 30/	30/6 to 50/	20/ to 25/	12/ to 25/	2/6 to 30/	15/ to 36/
Mattresses	9/ to 45/	20/ to 50/	30/ to 50/	25/ to 50/	25/ to 30/	36/ to 50/	20/ to 80/
Counterpanes	5/3 to 30/	6/ to 20/	5/ to 30/	12/ to 30/	6/ to 16/	7/6 to 15/	6/6 to 20/

WAGES TABLE FOR CAPE COLONY.

The following Return shows the current Rate of Wages in Cape Colony at the date of the last advices:—

Trade or Calling	Western	North-Western	South-Western	Midland	South-Eastern	North-Eastern	Eastern
Bookbinders (per week)	40/	—	—	42/	45/ to 51/	48/	48/ to 60/
Compositors	40/ to 50/	—	—	—	50/ to 60/	£125 per ann.	50/ to 60/
Machine-Minders	60/ to 80/	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lithographers	40/ to 50/	—	—	—	50/ to 60/	—	50/ to 60/
Carpenters and Joiners (per day)	7/6 to 10/6	7/6 to 8/6	8/ to 10/6	8/6 to 10/6	10/ to 12/6	10/ to 15/	10/ to 15/
Stonemasons	7/6 to 10/6	8/ to 10/6	8/ to 10/6	10/ to 15/	10/ to 12/6	10/ to 20/	10/ to 15/
Bricklayers	7/6 to 10/6	8/ to 10/6	8/ to 10/6	10/ to 15/	10/ to 12/6	10/ to 20/	10/ to 15/
Plasterers	7/ to 9/	—	—	—	—	—	—
Building Labourers	5/ to 7/	—	—	—	—	—	—
Painters and Glaziers	7/6 to 9/	7/6 to 12/	8/ to 10/	9/ to 10/	8/6 to 10/	10/ to 12/6	10/ to 12/6
Stone Cutters	7/6 to 10/6	7/6 to 11/	8/ to 10/	10/ to 15/	10/ to 12/6	10/ to 15/	10/ to 12/6
Plumbers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Gasfitters	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Coachsmiths	10/	—	—	—	10/	—	—
Blacksmiths	8/ to 10/	8/ to 12/	8/ to 10/	9/ to 15/	9/ to 15/	10/ to 20/	10/ to 15/
Waggon Builders	8/ to 10/	8/ to 12/	8/ to 10/	9/ to 15/	9/ to 15/	10/ to 20/	10/ to 15/
Blacksmiths' Strikers	5/6 to 6/	—	—	—	5/6 to 6/	—	5/6 to 6/
Turners	8/ to 9/	—	—	—	9/ to 10/	—	9/ to 10/
Boiler-makers	8/ to 9/	—	—	—	9/ to 10/	—	9/ to 10/
Engine-fitters	10/ to 11/	—	—	—	11/ to 11/6	—	11/ to 11/6
Engine-drivers	10/ to 11/6	—	—	—	11/ to 11/6	—	11/ to 11/6
Brass-moulders	9/ to 10/	—	—	—	9/ to 10/	—	9/ to 10/
Coppersmiths	9/ to 10/	—	—	—	9/ to 10/	—	10/ to 11/
Brickmakers	6/6 to 8/	6/	7/6 to 10/	7/6 to 10/	8/6	10/	8/ to 12/
Railway Carriage-builders	9/ to 10/	—	—	—	9/ to 10/	—	10/ to 10/6

Wheelwrights	9/	—	—	—	9/ to 10/	—	10/ to 15/
Shipwrights	8/ to 10/	—	—	—	9/ to 12/	—	—
Sawyers	6/ to 8/	6/6	6/ to 8/	10/	7/ to 10/	10/	8/ to 10/
Tailors	6/6	6/ to 10/	5/ to 8/	7/6 to 15/	7/6 to 10/	10/ to 15/	8/ to 15/6
Printers	6/6 to 8/	—	—	—	—	—	7/ to 8/
Shoemakers	6/6	6/ to 10/	5/ to 8/	7/6 to 15/	7/6 to 10/	10/	8/ to 15/6
Tanners	6/ to 8/6	5/6	5/ to 10/	10/	7/6 to 9/	10/	9/ to 10/
Saddlers	5/ to 10/	6/ to 8/	6/ to 9/6	7/ to 10/6	9/ to 10/6	8/ to 10/6	9/ to 10/6
Tinsmiths	6/6 to 9/	6/6 to 9/	6/ to 10/	7/ to 15/	6/6 to 10/	7/6 to 10/	8/ to 10/
Millwrights	8/ to 10/	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cabinetmakers	9/ to 10/	—	—	—	10/ to 15/	—	10/ to 15/
Bakers (per week)	8/ to 10/ with lodging	—	—	—	45/ to 50/ with lodging	—	30/ to 50/ with lodging
Engravers	60/ to 80/	—	—	—	—	—	—
Milliners and Dressmakers (per month)	80/ with board and lodging	—	—	—	—	180/ to 220/	100/ with board and lodging
Hatters	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Jewellers and Watchmakers (per month)	260/ to 300/	—	—	—	200/	—	—
Millers (per week)	40/ to 50/	—	—	—	—	—	—
Miners	—	9/	—	—	—	—	—
Servants, &c. — Cooks (Private Houses)	40/ to 60/ per month with board and lodging	40/ to 70/ Ditto	40/ to 50/ Ditto	40/ to 50/ Ditto	40/ to 90/ Ditto	40/ to 50/ Ditto	40/ to 60/ Ditto
Cooks (Hotels)							
Laundresses							
House, Nurse, and Parlour Maids							
General Servants							
Hospital Nurse	—	—	—	—	70/ to 80/ do.	—	—
Grooms and Coachmen	40/ to 100/ do.	—	—	—	20/ to 100/ „	—	—
Gardeners	60/ to 120/ „	—	—	—	60/ to 120/ „ 140/ no board	—	—

WAGES TABLE FOR CAPE COLONY—*continued.*

Trade or Calling	Western	North-Western	South-Western	Midland	South-Eastern	North-Eastern	Eastern
Farm Hands. Farm Labourers	20/ to 30/ per month with board and lodging	20/ to 30/ do.	20/ to 40/ do.	25/ to 30/ do.	30/ to 50/	20/ to 30/ do.	30/ to 80/ do.
Shepherds (Head) and Overseers	50/ to 80/ do.	60/ to 100/ „	40/ to 100/ „	50/ to 100/ „	60/ to 100/ do.	50/ to 150/ „	40/ to 120/ „
Cattle Herds and Useful Boys	30/ to 35/ do.	20 to 30/ „	15/ to 40/ „	20/ to 30/ „	12/ to 40/ „	20/ to 30/ „	20/ to 70/ „
Day Labourers, with food	2/6 to 3/6	1/6 to 2/	1/6 to 3/	2/ to 3/6	3/ to 5/	2/ to 5/	3/ to 5/6
Monthly Rent of Labourers' Cottage	20/	5/ to 30/	5/ to 30/	10/ to 70/	5/ to 70/	20/ to 50/	30/ to 70/
Town Lodging for Mechanic's Family	40/ to 50/	10/ to 40/	10/ to 100/	20/ to 70/	50/ to 120/	30/ to 60/	40/ to 100/

*** The Electoral Divisions constituting the respective Provinces of the Colony are as follows :—

WESTERN PROVINCES :—Cape Town, Cape, Stellenbosch, Paarl.
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES :—Malmesbury, Piquetberg, Namaqualand, Clanwilliam, Worcester.
SOUTH-WESTERN PROVINCES :—Swellendam, Riversdale, Caledon, Oudtshoorn, George.
MIDLAND PROVINCES :—Graaf-Reynet, Beaufort, Victoria West, Richmond.
SOUTH-EASTERN PROVINCES :—Albany, Victoria East, Uitenhage, Port Elizabeth.
NORTH-EASTERN PROVINCES :—Fort Beaufort, Albert, Somerset East, Cradock, Colesberg.
EASTERN PROVINCES :—King Williamstown, East London, Queenstown, Aliwal North, Wodehouse.

TIDE CONSTANTS.

The time of high water at the undermentioned ports and places may be approximately found by adding to, or subtracting from, the time of high water in Table Bay the quantities annexed :—

	h. m.		h. m.
Delagoa Bay . .	add 0·57	St. Lucia Bay . .	add 0·55
Port Natal . .	„ 0·48	St. John's River .	„ 0·43
Mazeppa Bay . .	„ 0·34	East London . .	„ 0·36
Kowie . . .	„ 0·33	Algoa Bay . .	„ 0·29
Knysna . . .	„ 0·18	Mossel Bay . .	„ 0·15
Simon's Bay . .	„ 0·0	Saldanha Bay . .	subt. 0·2
Porth Nolloth . .	subt. 0·6	Walvisch Bay . .	„ 0·17

THE MERIDIAN.

At 12 o'clock noon, in Cape Town, the clock stands as follows in the undermentioned places :—

	h. m.		h. m.
Mossel Bay . .	0·15 p.m.	Beaufort West .	0·17 p.m.
Graaf-Reynet . .	0·26 „	Port Elizabeth .	0·29 „
Grahamstown . .	0·32 „	King Williamstown .	0·36 „
Bloemfontein . .	0·29 „	Kimberley . .	0 30 „
Pretoria . . .	0·41 „	Maritzburg . .	0·48 „
Delagoa Bay . .	0·57 „	Port Louis . .	2·36 „
Alexandria . .	0·46 „	Bombay . . .	3·37 „
Calcutta . . .	4·40 „	Canton . . .	6·19 „
Sydney . . .	8·51 „	San Francisco . .	2·36 a.m.
New York . .	5·50 a.m.	London . . .	10·46 „

NOTES ON THE MONTHS.

January in the Cape summer season corresponds with July in Europe, and is usually the hottest month of the year. South-easterly winds are the most prevalent, and occasionally blow with much force and continuance.

February in the colony corresponds with August in Europe, and is, therefore, the third summer month. South-east winds are frequent, but a slight rain-fall may be expected.

March commences the Cape autumn, and corresponds with September in Europe. During this month smart showers of rain usually occur, and the heat gradually moderates towards the end, although extreme heat is not unusual for a few days.

April in the Cape autumn corresponds with October in Europe, and is one of the pleasantest months of the year. The south-east winds now begin to moderate. North-westerly winds become more frequent, and the rain-fall increases.

May is the concluding month of the Cape autumn, and corresponds with November in Europe. The temperature during this month is moderate. Northerly winds are the most prevalent, and frequently cause heavy swells to set into Table Bay. In most districts the rain-fall now shows a considerable increase.

June ushers in the South African winter, as does December the European. Usually this is the wettest month of the year, but as the rain is seldom continuous, a fair proportion of the month is generally fine. The south-east wind is seldom felt, the prevailing winds being from the north and north-west.

July in the colony is the corresponding month to January in Europe. Usually the lowest temperature is known this month. The wind is mostly from the north and north-west, but occasionally veers round to the north-east, when a heavy sea rolls into Table Bay.

August, although the last month of the Cape winter, and therefore equivalent to February in Europe, is sometimes the coldest and most stormy of the season. As a rule, however, the temperature is higher than the two preceding months, and the rain-fall shows a reduction. The prevailing wind is north-westerly.

September commences the spring season, and, as such, compares with the European month of March; although, perhaps, the actual state of the weather more resembles the European April—fine warm weather, with frequent showers of rain, being the most probable to be experienced. The wind is usually from the west-south-west or north-west, and is very variable.

October in the Colony is the middle spring month, as is April in Europe. In this month rain falls now and then. The winds are rather variable, and generally from the north-west, but in some years the south-east winds do much injury to tender crops

November, as the precursor of the South African summer, compares with May in Europe. The south-east wind now begins to prevail, and there falls but little rain. Locusts and grasshoppers sometimes do much damage to the crops, particularly in the Midland and Eastern Districts.

December commences the Cape summer proper, as does June the European. This and the following month are usually the driest and hottest months of the year. The south-east wind blows at intervals during the month with much strength.

SOUTH AFRICAN CONFEDERATION.

South African politics began to attract more than usual attention in England, in consequence of an important despatch from Earl Carnarvon, bearing date May 4, 1875, and addressed to the then Governor of the Cape Colony, Sir H. Barkly.

In this dispatch the Earl proposes a conference of delegates from three British dependencies, Cape Colony, Natal, and Griqualand, the two Republics north of the Orange River, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal, to discuss (1) the advisability of a common native policy and (2) the confederation of the States under the British Crown. His lordship refers to 'recent troubles' in Natal as having brought these questions prominently before him, and expresses the general opinion that up to the present time 'it has been, from many causes, difficult for the Governments of South Africa to make any effectual approach towards a clear and complete understanding on many points.'

The dispatch further nominates Mr. Froude, the eminent historian, as a representative of Great Britain, and commends him to the regard of the Cape Government as eminently fitted to take part in negotiations, from his strong interest in colonial questions and the particular attention he had paid to South African affairs.

This movement of the Home Government gave rise to considerable discussion, and ultimately to considerable agitation at the Cape, and indeed threatened a Ministerial crisis. The Cape Ministry, believing that no useful purpose could be served by the conference, declined to further it, and were supported in this determination by a considerable majority of the Legislative Assembly.

Mr. Froude, therefore, arrived in Cape Town only to find the proposal for a conference declined. Lord Carnarvon's policy, however, was on various grounds strongly supported in the colony; and Mr. Froude, denied access to the conference, eloquently advocated the Imperial policy at a series of public meetings. This course, while warmly approved by many of the colonists, was opposed by others as unusual and unconstitutional, on the alleged ground that it was an appeal to the public against the Queen's Ministers by a representative of the Imperial Government.

It is unnecessary, in a brief review of these proceedings, to follow the controversy between the Cape Ministry on the one hand, and the proceedings within and without the walls of the Cape Parliament on the other.

In the Session held in the summer of 1876 a resolution was passed in the Assembly authorising Mr. Molteno to visit London for the purpose of conferring with the Secretary for the Colonies on the settlement of Griqualand West, the President of the Free State having previously proceeded to England at the request of the Earl of Carnarvon, with a view to an amicable arrangement of the claims of the State to a part of the Diamond Fields. In July 1876 the question between the Free State and Griqualand West was settled, the State relinquishing all its claims for a money consideration of about 90,000*l*. Mr. Molteno, on arriving in England in August, found that the boundary dispute had been removed, and that his part in the deliberations with the Colonial Office was narrowed to that of receiving a statement from the Earl of Carnarvon of the wishes and plans of the Imperial Government with respect to Griqualand West, for the purpose of submitting them to the Cape Government.

In August 1876 a conference on South African affairs was held at the Colonial Office, presided over by the Earl of Carnarvon and attended by the President of the Free State, Sir Theophilus Shepstone, Mr. Ackerman, and Mr. Robinson, the Natal delegates, and Mr. Froude, nominated by the Colonial Minister, as the representative of Griqualand West. Mr. Molteno did not attend, as he had no authority to do so, and President Brand informed the conference that he was by the terms of his instructions from the Volksraad precluded from taking any part in the discussion of confederation. After several sittings in the early part of August the conference was adjourned to September 1876. On the 20th of August the President of the Free State left England for South Africa, and for three years no progress was made in the matter. In the meantime the bridging of the Orange River at several points, the rapid extension of railways towards the interior, and the annexation of native territory between Natal and the Cape Colony, were silently preparing the way for a closer intercourse, and bringing about a greater identity of political and material interests between the various governments and dependencies of South Africa. Less gentle arguments, however, in favour of the movement, were shortly to be brought to bear. Languid despatches and plausible objections were felt to be no longer endurable in presence of a Gcaleka revolt and a Zulu war, and now at last there seems to be fair ground for believing that the long-desired confederation of South Africa will ere long be an accomplished fact.

GAZETTEER

OF THE

NAMES OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS, VILLAGES, MOUNTAIN RANGES, &c. OF THE CAPE COLONY AND THE ADJACENT REGIONS.

[NOTE.—For the Rivers, see Table of Rivers and their Affluents. Nearly all the principal towns can be reached by railway and post-cart from Cape Town.

ABERDEEN. A village in the Division of Graaf-Reynet, situated in the Camdeboo Country, about 30 miles S.W. of Graaf-Reynet Town. An important discovery of coal in this District, July 11, 1878, by Mr. E. J. Dunn.

ADAMANTIA. A name recently applied to the Diamond Fields of South Africa by travellers, but not generally recognised.

AGULHAS BANK. A large bank round the southern extremity of Africa, extending from near Natal to Saldanha Bay, with a varying width averaging 40 miles, and soundings 40 to 60 fathoms, while from its edge the water deepens rapidly. The great Mozambique current sweeps along it from E. to S.W., but there are various eddying currents in other directions found in different places along the shore, which make its navigation very treacherous, and are the cause of various wrecks. It abounds in all kinds of the fish tribe found in the African waters, a source of wealth as yet very imperfectly developed.

AGULHAS CAPE. The most southern point of the African Continent; is situated in the Division of Bredasdorp, in lat. 34° 49′ S. and long. 20° 0′ 40″ E. It is considered a highly dangerous locality for shipping, being rocky to a considerable distance seaward, and subject to fogs and uncertain currents. There is a lighthouse erected close to the point, but which it is intended, we believe, to remove to a better site.

ALBANIA. The name given to the S.E. angle of the territory of Griqualand West, on the right bank of the Orange River, between it and the Vaal River.

ALBANY. A Division of the Eastern Province, formed

and settled by the British emigrants in 1820, a part of which now forms the district of Bathurst. Its boundaries are—on the N., Bedford and Fort Beaufort Division; E., the Great Fish River, and W. Alexandria, and the ocean to the S.E. It is naturally divided into two parts, the coast region, called the Zuurveld or Lower Albany, being principally adapted for cattle-grazing and agricultural purposes, and Upper Albany well adapted for sheep-farming. It is watered by the Great Fish, Kat, and Koonap Rivers. Many descendants of the old settlers of 1820 still remain on their original locations. (*Vide* Grahamstown.) Its area is estimated at 1,833 square miles, and its population of all races at 16,499. Grahamstown is the seat of magistracy (q.v.). Riebeck, Salem, and Sidbury are villages in the Division.

ALBERT. The Division of Albert was formed in 1848, and includes the region forming the northern slopes of the Zuurberg, and Bamboesberg Mountains, extending to the Orange River, between the Stormberg Spruit on the E. and the Oorlog Port River on the W., an area of about 3,834 square miles, which was formerly called the New Hantam district. It is well watered, although its rivers or rather torrents with a short and impetuous course. Its population is 12,069. The climate is healthy, and sheep thrive, although from its high elevation it is very cold in winter. Its principal town is Burghersdorp (q.v.).

ALEXANDRIA. A Division, formerly a part of the Uitenhage Division, and includes a rich agricultural portion of country about 1,519 square miles in area, formerly known as 'Olifant's Hoek,' a thickly wooded and fertile district; capital for cattle-farming and agricultural purposes. Its population by last census was 6,030. It is bounded on the S.E. by the ocean, on the N. and E. by Albany, and on the W. by the Uitenhage Division. The seat of magistracy is the village of Alexandria. Its distance E. of Cape Town is about 650 miles.

ALFRED PORT. The name of the port at the mouth of the Kowie River, about 28 miles S.E. of Grahamstown; formerly known as Port Francis. Government harbour-works are being constructed here, and the port is connected by telegraph-wire with Grahamstown. It is the seat of the Bathurst magistracy.

ALGOA BAY. The principal bay on the S.E. coast of the Cape Colony is, like nearly all the other bays in the same locality, open to the S.E., while sheltered from the heavy N.W. gales that so unfavourably affect all the bays on the W. coast except that of Saldanha. Its W. horn, Cape Recife, on which stands a lighthouse, is in lat. 34° 1′ 44″ S.; long. 25° 42′ 12″ E. Several groups of rocky islets stand inside the bay, especially the Bird Island group, on which there is a lighthouse, and St.

Croix, the first land discovered by B. Diaz when he rounded the Cape in 1486. Port Elizabeth (q.v.) stands in the S.W. angle of the bay, and is the principal commercial port of the Eastern province.

ALICE. The seat of the magistracy, in the Division of Victoria E. It was formerly known by the name of Block-drift, and afterwards, in 1848, when a large military port was established there, by that of Fort Hare. Its site is an excellent one, having a plentiful supply of water from the 'Chumie River, and it, in a military point of view, commands all the outlets of the Amatola Mountains, formerly the great strongholds of the Gaika tribes. Alice is about 14 miles E. of Fort Beaufort, and 36 W. of King Williamstown.

ALIWAL N. A Division E. of the Division of Albert, and including the country between the Stormberg range and the Orange River; it has an area of 2,263 square miles, and is a region well watered by the Kraai, Stormberg Spruits, and other streams running into the Orange River. Its population is 29,922. The country lies high, and is cold in winter. The chief town, Aliwal North, is built close to the Orange River, over which a fine bridge is thrown at this point. It lies 666 miles N.E. of Cape Town, and 306 N. of Port Elizabeth, and contains 1,229 inhabitants. A branch of the Standard bank is established at Aliwal N.

ALIWAL S. More familiarly known as Mossel Bay. Is the chief town of the Division of Mossel Bay. It has 1,361 inhabitants and is 270 miles E. of Cape Town. The town is the seat of a considerable trade, and the bay has good anchorage and a lighthouse on Cape St. Blaise.

AMAPONDO. The Kaffir tribes inhabiting the N.E. portion of the Transkeian territories bordering on Natal.

AMATOLA MOUNTAINS. A mountain group in the King Williamstown Division, an eastern prolongation of the Katberg, celebrated in the history of our Kaffir wars, and from whose densely wooded kloofs spring the waters of the Keiskamma, 'Chumie, and Buffalo Rivers. The Kaffirs have long since been expelled, and it is now peaceably inhabited by British and German settlers. The highest point is the Amatola Peak, or Hog's Back, 6,373 feet. The scenery of the whole region is picturesque and romantic in the extreme, and the climate delicious. It is within a few hours' ride of either Fort Beaufort or King Williamstown Territory.

AMAXOSA. The Kaffir tribes formerly inhabiting the country bordering on East London Division, Gaikas, and T'Slambies, and recently removed to a new location in the Transkei.

AMAZULU. The Kaffir tribes living beyond the Natal frontier to the N.E.

ANTONIES BERG. A mountain range in the Division of George at the eastern extremity of the Zwarteberg, where the Olifant River passes through the mountains.

AUGHRABIES FALLS. The native name of the great falls on the Orange River, first noticed by G. Thompson in his journey along its course. Situated about half-way between the junction of the Orange River with the Vaal and its mouth on the west coast. These falls appear to owe their origin, in the opinion of Livingstone, to the same natural convulsion which produced the Victoria Falls on the Zambesi, opening an outlet which no doubt drained the Kalihari and Sovereignty Plains from the waters of the vast inland sea which once covered them. Of course these falls present a much more striking sight when the river is only partially in flood than when in full rush of waters, but in the absence of any trustworthy scientific observations, we are unable to give any details of the total fall, width of channel, &c. The late lamented Robert Moffat, son of the venerable missionary, visited these falls, but we are unable to trace his notes, which would have given full information on a very interesting subject worthy of the attention of travellers who intend to explore the little-known regions between Pella and the Diamond Fields, and indeed the whole course of the Orange River generally.

BALFOUR. A village in the Stockenstrom Division (the old Kat River Settlement), about 26 miles N. of Fort Beaufort.

BAMBOES BERGEN. A mountain range forming the W. extremity of the Stormbergen and the boundary between the Cradock and Albert Divisions; they attain an average height of 5,000 feet.

BASUTOLAND. The country in the vicinity of the upper waters of the Orange and Caledon Rivers, which here rise in the Maluti Mountains. It is an elevated rugged region, but very healthy and productive. It includes the tribes formerly under the rule of the once celebrated chief Moshesh, but it is now a part of the Cape Colony. Several stations of the Paris Mission Society exist in this country, and a full account of it will be found in the works of Arbousset, Dyke, and Casalis. The natives are a highly intelligent race, and of the same stem as the Bechouanas. They are sometimes called Eastern or Mountain Bechouanas.

BATHURST. A fiscal Division formed from the district of Albany, comprising what was formerly called Lower Albany, an agricultural and cattle-producing country, with an area of about 670 square miles, and a population of about 5,855. It was in this part of Albany the agricultural settlers of 1820 were principally located. The seat of magistracy is Port Alfred, about 28 miles S.E. of Grahamstown. Port Alfred enjoys a delightful climate and fine coast scenery. Albany is its N.

boundary, the Great Fish River its E., and the Bushman River its W., while its S.E. is the Indian Ocean. Cotton may be advantageously grown in this Division. Bathurst, Cuylerville, Southwell, and Clumber are other villages in this Division.

BAVIAAN KLOOF. A primitive and little visited valley in the Uitenhage Division, behind the mountain range; a little stream runs through it, which joins the Gamtoos River; its population is 1,768; and the land is fertile in corn, wine, and tobacco.

BEAUFORT FORT. A Divisional fiscal and electoral, formed in 1848 out of the northern portion of Albany, with an area of 733 square miles, and a population of 14,748. It has Stockenstrom Division to the N., Bedford E., Victoria East W., and Albany forms the S. boundary. It is well watered by the Kat, Koonap, and other streams rising in the Kat and 'Chumie Mountains. It is a country well adapted for sheep-farming, and the hills are well wooded. Its principal town is Fort Beaufort, on a bend of the Kat River, formerly a military station of great importance. It is well supplied with water, and is a well-built and rising town, with 1,146 inhabitants, good stone bridge over the Kat River, several churches, barracks, hospitals, banks, and other public buildings; it is 42 miles N.E. of Grahamstown, and about the same distance W. of King Williamstown. It was attacked by the Kaffir and rebel Hottentots on January 3, 1851, but their leader, Hermanus, was killed, and they were repulsed with great loss.

BEAUFORT WEST. A large Division of the Western Province, from which has been formed the districts of Prince Albert, Hope Town, Frazersburg, and Victoria W. It has an area of 8,536 square miles, and a population of 8,322. It includes a vast expanse of mountain and karroo country, but is an excellent sheep-farming region, and by the formation of dams the scarcity of water is fast becoming remedied. Its principal town and seat of Government offices is the town of Beaufort West, near the foot of the Nieuwveld Mountains, founded in 1820, and has now 1,585 inhabitants; it is well watered, and the seat of considerable trade. It is 338 miles N.W. of Cape Town, and is the terminus of the Western district lines of railway *viâ* Worcester. Beaufort Division is watered, or rather drained of its waters, by the channels of the Dwika, Gamka, Salt, and other watercourses, by which millions of tons of much-required water now run to waste, which, however, present in many places fine sites for dams, or rather artificial lakes. All watercourses N. of the Nieuwveld and Roggeveld Mountains flow into the Orange River; those S. of the mountains, into the Indian Ocean; the watershed line of this part of the continent running over their summits. The town of Beaufort is accessible to Cape Town by railway in a journey of about twenty-four hours.

BEAUFORT PORT. A village and port near the mouth of the Breede River and division of Swellendam, where, however, there is very little trade.

BECHOUANALAND is the vague name given to the vast country N. of the Vaal River and Sovereignty extending N. to the Zambesi, and N.W. as far as the confines of Loando, stretching along the E. edge of the Kalihari Desert; inhabited by various tribes of Bechouanas, a species of the human race that ethnologists consider closely allied to the Kaffir tribes both in language and personal appearance, although less warlike. These tribes are now greatly broken up, and much of the territory formerly occupied by them is now in the jurisdiction of the Transvaal and Free State. For a complete description of the Bechouana race we refer our readers to Wood's 'African Tribes,' Burchill, Barrow, Moffat, the French Missionary Memoirs, and the travels of Baines, Chapman, Gordon Cumming, Livingstone, McKenzie, and many other writers. As a compact and powerful nation the Bechouanas exist no longer, but merely remain in scattered portions of broken tribes, attaching themselves to such chiefs as are powerful or rich at the present moment. It would be useless to attempt to give any detailed nominal lists of the present tribes, which are getting every day more and more reduced, both from the extension of the Transvaal, and the attacks of the Matabile Kaffirs, the people of the late Moselikatze. As a people the Bechouanas built better houses, were more ingenious, and on the whole more civilised than the adjoining tribes of Kaffirs, but must hardly be considered as a separate race; and if the present disintegrating influences continue, they will in a few years probably be driven into the far regions N. of the Zambesi River. North of Lake Ngami the Bechouanas gradually merge into the real Negro race, and probably Livingstone's Makololo form the boundary tribe or link between the two races. The Basutos (q.v.) are merely a variation of the Bechouana race, influenced by living in a mountainous region.

BEDFORD. A Division formerly part of Somerset E., and includes all the fine and fertile valleys of the Kaga, Great Winterberg, and Kromme ranges, well wooded, and fit for agricultural purposes. Its area is 1,550 square miles, and its population 8,768. Its principal town is Bedford, with 833 inhabitants, at the foot of the Kagaberg Mountains, about 25 miles W. of Fort Beaufort, and 50 miles N. of Grahamstown. It is well watered, and substantially built, having several saw-mills, &c.

BELVIDERE. A handsome village in the Division of the Knysna, about 350 miles E. of Cape Town; it affords facilities for shipping timber from the adjacent forests.

BETHELSDORP. A missionary village of 400 inhabitants, 10 miles from Port Elizabeth.

BETHULIE DRIFT. In the Albert Division. A great bridge here crosses the Orange River.

BLANCO. A village in the district of George, near the entrance to Montagu Pass, and about three miles from the town of George.

BLOEMFONTEIN. The principal town and seat of Government of the Orange River Sovereignty; is 680 miles N.E. of Cape Town. It is situated in a high but healthy region, and is in a tolerably central position, with a good supply of water, but a bad one of fuel. It is the seat of a bishopric, has several churches, banks, and other public institutions, and will no doubt become the seat of considerable trade now that the new bridges are erected over the Orange River. The towns of the Free State are now easily reached both from Cape Town and Port Elizabeth by rail and waggon.

BLOEMHOFF. A district on the extreme western side of the Transvaal, skirted on the east by the Vaal, and is traversed by the Harts. On the south it touches Griqualand West. It contains considerable areas of pastoral and agricultural land.

BOKKEVELD COLD. A high region, about 4,000 feet above the sea-level, bounded on the E. by the Great Karroo, and on the W. by the Olifant River Mountains. It possesses a fine though rather cold climate, and is a region well adapted both for sheep and cattle. It is accessible from Cape Town by rail as far as Ceres Road. English fruits ripen in the Cold Bokkeveld to great perfection.

BOKKEVELD WARM. A fertile region in the Tulbagh Division, lying behind the second range of mountains at the head of Mitchell's Pass, producing cereals and wine abundantly. The village of Ceres is situated in this region, which is well watered, and its farms are of great value.

BOSJESVELD. The name of a locality in the Division of Worcester, between the first range of the mountains and the Breede River. So called from the profusion of low bushes which cover the surface when uncultivated.

BRANDVLEI. A remarkable thermal spring, about an hour's drive from Worcester.

BREDASDORP. A Division formerly included in the Division of Caledon, having an area of 1,697 square miles, and a population of 4,306. It lies along the coast E. of Caledon, in the country formerly called the Strandveld; its E. boundary is the Breede River; it is principally a sheep-grazing country, and a few ostriches and bontebucks are still to be found on some of the farms, where they are preserved. Bredasdorp is the seat of the magistracy, while other villages are formed at

Napier and Villiersdorp. Cape L'Agulhas is, with its lighthouse, in this Division; lat. 34° 49′ S.; long. 20° 0′ 40″ E. There are no rivers of any importance save the Breede and Zondereinde. A few isolated mountains form some remarkable groups, especially that called Babylon's Tower or the Tower of Babel, the Potteberg, and several others.

BROWN FORT. A fortified post near a bridge over the Great Fish River, formerly called Hermanus Kraal, about 14 miles N.E. of Grahamstown on the road to Fort Beaufort. It is in the midst of the thickest of the Great Fish River bush, and has in summer an intensely hot though healthy climate.

BURGHERSDORP. The principal town in the Division of Albert, situated on the Stormberg Spruit, about 20 miles S. of the Orange River; it is 630 miles N.E. of Cape Town, and is the seat of magistracy, with 1,349 inhabitants.

BUSHMANLAND. An elevated plateau N. of Calvinia and Frazersburg, and E. of Little Namaqualand, at a level of about 3,800 feet over the sea, or nearly that of Table Mountain, of which some geologists consider it to be a continuation before the violent denudating forces took place on the African continent. It extends N. to the Orange River, and is a barren and waterless region, except after heavy rains, when a large crop of tall grass, said to be very nutritious, covers it. Its only inhabitants are a few families of migratory Boers and a few wandering Corannas, Namaquas, and Bushmen. Near the banks of the Orange River the plateau gets broken up into fearful precipices; to the S. it dies away into the elevated region of the Roggeveld and Hantam Districts.

CALEDON. A division of the Western Province, situated behind the first mountain range, and with that of Bredasdorp (q.v.) comprehends the country between the ridge of the Zondereinde Mountains on the N. and the ocean on the S. The country is excellent for sheep-farming, and timber also appears to thrive well. It has an area of 1,519 square miles, and a population of 11,335. Its principal town, Caledon, has some excellent hot baths, and is situated 70 miles E. of Cape Town on the Great Coast High Road from the Cape to Port Elizabeth over Sir Lowry's Pass. The principal river is the Zondereinde, running E. from the coast mountain range into the Breede River. Villiersdorp is another village in this Division. The Moravian Mission Station of Genadendal (Vale of Grace) is also in this Division, and is well worth a visit.

CALVINIA. A division N.E. of the Western Province, formed out of a part of Clanwilliam Division, and including a vast extent of that barren region called Bushman Land; has an area of 26,083 square miles, and a population of 7,394. It is a vast grazing country, liable to severe drought, and devoid of any constantly running streams. That portion of it near the

edge of the Roggeveld, called the Hantam, is better watered, and considered healthy for horses and cattle; from thence the country slopes down along the dry plateaux of Bushmanland to the Orange River, which forms the N. boundary. The large watercourses marked on the map of South Africa in this neighbourhood are generally dry channels, seldom with any current unless after heavy thunderstorms.

CAMDEBOO. The country along the foot of the Sneeuwberg range, in the Division of Graaf-Reynet, is so called from an old Hottentot word. It is an excellent sheep-farming region of broken pasture, and good for either sheep or cattle; its principal town is Aberdeen. Vast coal-fields exist in the district.

CANGO. The name of some very fine caves in the Zwarteberg Mountains, Division of Oudtshoorn, visited and described by Mr. G. Thompson in 1824, and Lieut. Sherwill, E.I.C.S., in 1835. They may rank with some of the finest natural caverns in the world, as far as they have been explored.

CAPE COLONY. The boundary of the Cape Colony has been extended since its formation in 1652 from Salt River, almost a gun-shot from Cape Town, gradually as far N. as Walvisch Bay, and E. to the Mont aux Sources, an area of nearly 300,000 square miles; the successive extension of the boundary line would seem forced on it, as it were, by the interests of both the Colony and the frontier tribes. A full description of its physical features will be found given in the body of this work under the respective headings 'Physical' and 'Political.'

CAPE DIVISION includes the country in the neighbourhood of Cape Town and slopes of Table Mountain, and the earliest settled district in the Colony. It has an area of only 722 square miles, and a population of 57,319. It includes the villages of Mowbray, Claremont, Papendorp, Rondebosch, Wynberg, Newlands, and Green Point, besides numerous villages and country seats of the richer mercantile classes of Cape Town, and presents a succession of beautiful and romantic scenery.

CAPE TOWN, the seat of the Colonial Government, was founded by Van Riebeck in 1652, and, like all mediæval towns, at first included only a few groups of houses erected for protection under the shelter of the castle, which latter, although built with severe regard to the then existing rules of fortification as practised in the Low Countries, yet, being on all sides commanded by the surrounding hills, was, in a military point of view, although supplemented by various detached forts and lines, perfectly useless, and was unable to offer any resistance to the British troops when they captured the Colony in 1795 and 1806. It is the principal town of the Colony, and contains a

population of 33,239 souls, including several thousand Mohammedan Malays, the descendants of the former slaves of the Dutch East India Company and its servants. It is the seat of an episcopate, has several episcopal, Dutch and Lutheran Churches, a Roman Catholic cathedral, several banking institutions and insurance companies, a museum and library, and botanic gardens, gasworks, patent slip, hospital, besides the fine and commodious docks and breakwater, lately formed, at a cost of nearly a million sterling. The local affairs of Cape Town are managed by a municipality. Cape Town is well supplied with provisions, and its suburbs are healthy and picturesque. From Cape Town all the principal towns in the Colony may be reached by rail, post-cart, or waggon. To Port Elizabeth, Natal, and the principal bays along the coast, steamers are always available. Various information on the educational institutions, &c., of Cape Town will be found in other parts of the present volume.

CARNARVON. A new fiscal district and village lately formed out of the northern parts of the Frazersburg district. It is the seat of a magistracy. It is a country similar to that of the northern parts of Victoria West and Hope Town. (*Vide* Schietfontein.)

CEDAR BERGEN. A high mountain range on E. side of Olifant River Valley, division of Clanwilliam, producing some good plantations of Cape cedar in its kloofs; the highest summit is Sneeuwkop, 6,335 feet.

CERES. A village in the Tulbagh Division, near the head of Mitchell's Pass, and on the high road from Cape Town to Beaufort West, where it is a convenient halting-place. It is 75 miles N.E. of Cape Town, in a high and healthy district, called the Warm Bokkeveld. It is well laid out and watered by a spruit of the Breede River, and is easy of access by the magnificent road through Mitchell's Pass, at the head of which it is situated, and by railway *viâ* Ceres Road.

'CHUMIE, a river dividing the district of Victoria East from that of King Williamstown.

CLANWILLIAM. A division of the Western Province N. of Cape Town, and formerly embracing a vast area (but from which the Divisions of Piquetberg, Calvinia, and Namaqualand have been separated); includes the fertile valley of the Olifant River West, and a vast extent of mountain and karroo on either side of it. The climate is very hot in summer, although cold in winter; and the situation is rather unfavourable for communication, owing to its deep sandy roads and rugged surface, with other parts of the Colony. Its principal village and seat of magistracy is Clanwilliam, situated on Jan Dissels River, a tributary to the Olifant River. In summer,

owing to its locality between high mountains, its heat is intense.

CLAREMONT. A village in the Cape Division, about five miles E. of Cape Town, having many gentlemen's villas and a pretty Gothic Episcopal church; it is overshadowed by the most picturesque part of Table Mountain.

COGMAN'S KLOOF. A pass in the Langebergen, Division of Robertson, at the end of which is situated the village of Robertson. The road affords access to the lower country from the elevated region called Kanna Land, or the Little Karroo. The trade in this direction will be considerably increased by the opening of the road through Seven Weeks Poort (q.v.).

COLESBERG. The most northern division of the Eastern Province; is bounded N. by the Orange River, E. by Albert, W. by Hope Town, and S. by Middelburg and Graaf-Reynet Division. It has an area of 5,762 square miles, and a population of 10,368, and presents generally a vast elevated plain devoid of wood, studded over with numerous kopjies, or little hills (spitz or tafelbergs, according as they are of the pointed or flat-topped shape). These plains were formerly tenanted by immense herds of the larger game, and were a favourite resort of the now scarce gemsbock. It is an excellent sheep- and ostrich-farming country. Colesberg, the principal town and seat of magistracy, with 1,312 inhabitants, is situated on the high road to Bloemfontein, both from Cape Town and Port Elizabeth; it is 540 miles distant from the former, and 410 from the latter; the stage-coach from Port Elizabeth to the Diamond Fields passes through it. It is situated about 12 miles S. of the Orange River, near a strange-looking mountain called the Toverberg. It is tolerably well supplied with water and firewood from the Orange River banks, but timber for building purposes is scarce and dear. A bridge has been thrown over the Orange River at Bethulie Drift, the point nearest to Colesberg, the trade of which with the interior will be much increased thereby. The country between the hills is so level that no great difficulty in the formation of a continuation of the Cape railways so far will be found.

COMETJIESDRIFT is situated on the Great Fish River, 24 miles E. of Grahamstown, on the high road to King Williamstown. It was formerly a military post of importance, but the barracks and town, erected in 1845, are, we believe, now demolished, and their materials used in the erection of a bridge across the Fish River. The country round is flat and densely bushed, which rendered it a favourite haunt of Kaffirs in war time. Stock thrives well in it.

COMPASSBERG. A high mountain in the Graaf-Reynet District, forming the culminating point in the Great Sneeuwberg range. It is 7,800 feet high, presenting a steep face to the

coast; from its flanks flow in all directions the waters of the Great Fish, Zeekoe, Sunday, and Buffels River; hence its name. It is easily ascended from the back or N. side, which is quite a gentle slope. Modern observations have reduced its height from 10,000 to 7,800 feet.

CRADOCK. A division of the Eastern Province N. of the Great Winterberg range, which separates it from Bedford and Fort Beaufort. It has Somerset and Graaf-Reynet and Middelburg on the W., Colesberg and Albert to the N., and Queenstown on the W. It has an area of 3,247 square miles, and a population of 12,084 souls. Its physical formation is that of an elevated plain, about 3,000 feet above the sea-level, surrounded on all sides by mountain ranges, perhaps 2,000 feet higher. Its climate is universally acknowledged as excellent, especially for those afflicted with pulmonary disease. Its principal town is Cradock, founded in 1826, eligibly situated on the Great Fish River, 550 miles from Cape Town, 180 from Port Elizabeth, and 115 from Grahamstown; it has a population of 1,712, possesses several churches, banks, and other public institutions. It is one of the greatest wool-producing divisions in the Colony, but timber is scarce, although the mountain kloofs surrounding are admirably adapted for producing it. It will shortly be connected with Port Elizabeth by railway.

DANS HOOGHTE. A high land near Fort Beaufort, formerly the site of one of the telegraph stations erected by the late General Lewis. It is situated about 6 miles S. of Fort Beaufort, and is now abandoned.

DARLING. A village in the Malmesbury Division, about 24 miles N. of Cape Town, formed in the year 1850. A periodical Court is held here.

DEBE NEK, the scene of a great battle amongst the Kaffirs, is situated about 12 miles W. of King Williamstown.

DIAMOND FIELDS. See Griqualand.

DISSELSDORP. A mission station in the district of Oudtshoorn, about 3 miles west of the village of that name, with 544 inhabitants, principally of the Hottentot race.

DONKIN BAY. A bay on the west coast of Colony, N. of Saldanha Bay, and Division of Piquetberg; has rather an exposed anchorage, but carries on a trade in corn with a few cutters to and from Cape Town, from whence it furnishes supplies for the Clanwilliam and Calvinia Divisions. It is open to N.W. gales, though sheltered from those of the S.E.

DONKIN MOUNT, or ROUND HILL, is rather a striking landmark in Lower Albany showing where the Zuurberg range gradually sinks into the plain near the coast. A signal station, now disused, was formerly erected there.

DORDRECHT. The seat of the magistracy of the Division

of Wodehouse, on the N. slope of the Stormbergen, about 30 miles S.E. of Burghersdorp. It is well supplied with water, and has 800 inhabitants, and a branch of the Standard bank. A valuable coal field exists on the Indwe, which has been named Sprigg Town in honour of the present Premier of the Colony.

DRAKENSBERG. A name given to a portion of the Quath or Katlamba range of mountains, forming the boundary between Natal and the Free States and Basutoland. They present a steep outline on the coast face, and rise to a height in some places of 9,000 feet; their topography is but imperfectly known. Several passes exist by which the trade of the interior is carried on with Natal and the coast. The Orange, Vaal, Tugela, Unzimculu, and several other large rivers, have their origin in the culminating heights of this range, forming with the Maluti Mountains the region known to the French missionaries as the 'Mont aux Sources.' The range is generally composed of the old sandstone formation of the Cape.

DRAKENSTEIN. A fertile locality in the Paarl Division and adjacent mountain range, watered by the Berg River, and rich in wine and corn. Its population is about 1,200 souls; its distance from Cape Town 36 to 40 miles, with which it is connected by rail.

DURBAN. A village in the Cape Division, on the road to Malmesbury, containing 750 inhabitants. It is situated about 10 miles from Cape Town. A periodical Court is held there.

DURBAN. The principal, if not the only, port in the Colony of Natal, in lat. 29° 50′ S., long. 31° 10′ E. The town is regularly built, possesses municipal institutions, and has a population of 13,218. The harbour has had large sums spent on improving it, not always successfully. A lighthouse is erected on the bluff at its entrance, and a line of rail connects the landing-place with the town and with Verulam (20 miles), and Botha's Hill (31½ miles). Durban was founded in 1842, and is the oldest town in the Colony.

EBENEZER. A mission station in the Clanwilliam District, near the mouth of the Olifant River, belonging to the Rhenish Society, with a native population of 289, principally of the Hottentot race.

ECCA PASS and ROAD. A romantic pass and road, constructed at the expense of the Home Government in 1840–2, on the high road from Grahamstown to Fort Beaufort *viâ* Fort Brown, and is an admirable specimen of colonial road engineering, made chiefly by military labour under the direction of the late A. G. Bain.

EERSTE RIVER. A station on the Cape Town and Wellington line of railway, so called because it is the first river crossed on leaving Cape Town for the interior.

ELIM. A mission station in the Bredasdorp Division, about 10 miles S.W. of Bredasdorp Village, with a native population of 936 souls, of whom but 18 are of the Hottentot race.

ELIZABETH PORT. A district of the Eastern Province, with an area of 251 square miles, and a population, exclusive of the town, of 1,479. It is but poorly watered and wooded, and the scenery is uninviting. Walmer and Korsten are two pleasant villages in the neighbourhood of Port Elizabeth. Bethelsdorp is a well-known mission station of the London Society, with 400 residents.

ELIZABETH PORT. The capital of the Division and the principal seaport and commercial town of the Eastern Province. It was founded in 1820, and now contains a population of 13,049 inhabitants. It is a thriving, active, bustling town, and within recent years a great many handsome stores and other buildings have been erected therein. It has three or four banks, a public library, several insurance companies, a hospital, several churches of all denominations, gasworks, barracks, and other public buildings, but its docks, an absolute necessity, are as yet things of the future. The water-supply, moreover, is still defective, owing to local difficulties. Port Elizabeth is the terminus of the Midland and the North-Eastern Railways. The anchorage is unfortunately exposed to gales from the S.E., and so far the sums expended on harbour improvements have not yielded favourable results. The inhabitants, who are justly proud as being the most enterprising, active, business-like body of Anglo-Saxons on the African continent, enjoy the pleasure of local government for municipal affairs. They are also a very hospitable people, and always glad to give a warm and hearty reception to any strangers from the old country who may visit them. The town, owing to physical causes, has from the sea rather a bare and desolate appearance from the want of foliage. Nearly all the trade of the Eastern frontier and the interior passes through Port Elizabeth, and its streets and markets afford a fine picture of colonial life and activity not witnessed in many other towns in S. Africa.

ENON. An old Moravian mission station in a densely wooded country on the flanks of the Zuurberg and Division of Uitenhage. It is well described by Pringle and Latrobe. Wild elephants and buffaloes are still found in the adjacent forests.

FAURESMITH. The name of a Division and village in the Free State District, about 50 miles S.W. of Bloemfontein, situated on a branch of the Kromme Ellibog Spruit on the high road between Colesberg and Bloemfontein.

FRANSCHE HOEK. A locality in the Division of the Paarl, so called from being the place where the first Huguenot refugees, who came to the Cape after the revocation of the

edict of Nantes, were located; many places thus famous in the district still bear the original names of the French settlers. It is well inhabited, and contains 1,150 inhabitants.

FRAZERSBURG. A Division formerly part of the Division of Beaufort West, includes a vast extent of barren country N. of the Roggeveld and Nieuwveld Mountains, with an area of 23,149 square miles, and a population of 9,060 souls. It is bounded S. by the Roggeveld Mountains and the Great Karroo, N. by the Orange River, W. by Namaqualand and Calvinia, E. by Beaufort, Victoria W., and Hope Town Divisions. It includes a region sometimes called the 'Trekveld,' inhabited by migratory Boers, who roam with their flocks up and down seeking fresh pastures. The country is a vast inclined plain, sloping from the mountain ranges down to the Orange River, intersected by the dry channels of the Hartebeest, Zak, and other periodical streams. The village and seat of magistracy is Frazersburg, on the N. slope of the Nieuwveld Mountains, about 60 miles N.W. of the town of Beaufort West, and 400 from Cape Town. Owing to the remoteness and difficulty of access, Frazersburg is not much visited by strangers, but the increased traffic in sheep and cattle has caused a great deal of trade in this region. Frazersburg can be reached by post-cart from Beaufort West or by special waggon across the Karroo from Ceres *viâ* the Roggeveld Pass. It lies on Burchill's old track into the interior to the Orange River. The formation of dams on the Hartebeest and Zak Rivers would wonderfully increase the productive power of this rather barren and uninviting region.

FRAZER'S CAMP. An old military station, about 24 miles E. of Grahamstown, on the road to Fort Peddie, long since abandoned. A telegraph tower was erected there in 1844. The dense bush beneath Frazer's Camp was formerly a favourite resort of elephants, whose bones are still often found in the neighbourhood.

GAIKAS KOP or LUHERI. A well-known mountain and landmark (6,543 feet), lying between the Kat River and Amatola Mountains, famous for the signal fires usually displayed on it at the breaking out of the various Kaffir wars. It derives its name from the chief Gaika, and the view from the summit is magnificent.

GAMTOOS. A considerable river draining a great tract of the Karroo and flowing through the Uitenhage and Humansdorp Divisions; empties itself into the Indian Ocean at St. Francis Bay.

GENADENDAL. A celebrated Moravian mission station in Caledon Division, pop. 2,524.

GEORGE. A Division of the Western Province, lying along the S. Coast, between it and the first mountain range,

with an area of 2,600 square miles and a population of 10,658. It is bounded on the N. by Oudtshoorn D. and Lange Kloof; S. by the Indian Ocean; E. by the Knysna; and W. by the Gauritz River and Mossel Bay Division. It is considered one of the most fertile Divisions of the Colony, and is both well wooded and watered. Many torrents of inconsiderable size intersect the coast line, rendering travelling along it difficult. The high-road from Cape Town to the frontier runs along Lange Kloof, which is ascended from the coast by Montagu Pass in the Outeniqua Mountains. The town of George is situated about 6 miles N. of the coast, and 290 due E. of Cape Town; is well planted and watered; is the seat of magistracy, and has several public institutions. It has a population of 2,000 souls. Several lakes or lagoons occur along the coast between George Town and the Knysna, affording good fishing and pleasing scenery.

GOUDINE. A fertile tract in the Division of Worcester, lying along the Breede River, celebrated for the fine quality of its raisins. It is one of the few names of Hottentot origin still remaining in the Western Province.

GOVERNOR'S KOP. A well-known eminence (2,775 feet), about 10 miles E. of Grahamstown, at nearly the E. extremity of the Zuurberg; it is crowned by a telegraph tower now abandoned, and affords a splendid view over Lower Albany and the Fish River Bush.

GRAAF-REYNET. One of the most important, and formerly one of the largest, Divisions of the Cape Colony, which formerly had only four, namely Cape, Stellenbosch, Swellendam, and Graaf-Reynet. It is considered to belong to the E. Division, and has an area of 3,792 square miles, and a population of 16,940. A considerable portion of the surface is mountainous, the Great Sneeuwberg Mountains rising in some places to a height of 7,000 feet or (Compassberg, q.v.) more, and the valleys are all well watered. Along the foot of the mountains extends a Karroo region, called the Camdeboo, excellent for sheep. On the mountain tops the country is called the Koude (Cold), or Winter Veld. It is badly wooded, and very cold in winter, lying high. The Divisions of Murraysburg and Richmond have both been formed of portions of Graaf-Reynet. The principal stream is the Sunday River and its affluents.

GRAAF-REYNET TOWN is situated in a valley of the Sneeuwbergen on a branch of the Sunday River. It is 489 miles distant from Cape Town, and 160 miles N. of Port Elizabeth, and 150 W. of Grahamstown. It is a flourishing inland town, founded in 1784. The streets, like nearly all colonial Dutch towns, are laid out at right angles, planted with trees, and watered with streams led out from the river. Its proximity to the high mountain range makes the climate very

hot in summer, though cold in winter. It contains 4,562 inhabitants, 3 banks, several churches, and other institutions. Graaf-Reynet forms the terminus of the line of railway from Port Elizabeth *viâ* Uitenhage.

GRAHAMSTOWN is the principal town of the Eastern Province, and is situated in the Division of Albany, in a cup-like elevated plain 1,728 feet above the sea-level. It is about 600 miles E. of Cape Town, 28 miles from the coast, and 116 from Port Elizabeth, with which town it is now connected by railway. It contains 6,903 inhabitants; is the seat of an episcopate, and has numerous churches, military barracks, banks, and other public buildings. Water is abundant, but no gas-works yet exist. It is the centre of a considerable trade with the interior, and a line of railway is projected to connect it with the main line to Graaf-Reynet and Port Elizabeth. The newly-formed Port Alfred, at the mouth of the Kowie, is 28 miles distant, and is probable that a short line may be eventually formed, connecting it with Grahamstown. Excellent waggon-roads to King Williamstown, Cradock, and Fort Beaufort lead from Grahamstown, whose inhabitants are not unnaturally disappointed at having a place on a branch line in the new railways instead of being on the trunk line.

GRIQUALAND WEST. A district N. of the Orange River, annexed to the British Empire in October 1871, is better known as the region of the Diamond Fields. It was formerly the country of Waterboer, a Griqua chief, who has transferred his rights to Her Majesty's Government. It contains about 2,500 square miles. It is bounded—on the S. by the Orange River; on the N. by Bechouanaland; on the E. by the Free State; and on the W. by the Kalihari and Langebergen. The diggings are divided into wet and dry; the first include Pniel, Cawoods Hope, and Robinson, on the S. bank of the Vaal River, and Hebron Klip D. and Gong Gong on the N. Most of these are now deserted. The dry diggings, about 25 miles to the S.E., include Du Toit's Pan, De Beer Rush, and Bultfontein. Kimberley, in the immediate neighbourhood, is the seat of Government. The following are the distances from the principal places in the Colony to the Diamond Fields:—

1. *Diamond Fields to Cape Town.*

From Cape Town to Beaufort West, by rail .	338	miles.
Beaufort West to Victoria West . . .	80	„
Victoria West to Hope Town . . .	140	„
Hope Town to Klipdrift	100	„
Total	658	„

2. *Another route branches off at Beaufort W.* viâ *Richmond and Hanover, 750 miles.*

3. *From Algoa Bay* viâ *Cradock.*

Port Elizabeth to Middleton, by rail . .	110 miles.
Middleton to Cradock	40 „
Cradock to Colesberg	120 „
Colesberg to Fauresmith	70 „
Fauresmith to Pniel	100 „
Total	440 „

4. *From East London* viâ *Queenstown.*

East London to Cathcart, by rail . . .	109 miles.
Cathcart to Queenstown	70 „
Queenstown to Burghersdorp . . .	80 „
Burghersdorp to Fauresmith	81 „
Fauresmith to Pniel *viâ* Jacobsdal . .	105 „
Total	445 „

5. *Grahamstown to Fields* viâ *Queenstown.*

Grahamstown to Queenstown . . .	120 miles.
Queenstown to Pniel	276 „
Total	396

6. *Port Natal to Fields.*

Durban to Maritzburg	54 miles.
Maritzburg to Harrismith	153 „
Harrismith to Bethlehem	50 „
Bethlehem to Wynberg	80 „
Wynberg to Bloemfontein	60 „
Bloemfontein to Pniel	70 „
Total	467 „

Well-appointed carriages convey passengers along these routes, averaging perhaps a rate of 100 miles a day of twenty-four hours, but varying according to weather and state of roads.

GRIQUAS or BAASTARDS. A mixed race, sprung from the intercourse of the colonial Boers with their Hottentot slaves, migrated from the Colony in the commencement of the present century, and under the chiefs Waterboer and Kok, settled along the right bank of the Orange and Vaal Rivers. Kok's people again migrated in 1852, and now occupy the country called Nomansland, on the Kaffirland side of the Wittebergen Mountains, bordering on the Amapondo country. Arrangements have now been made to annex this district to the Colony. The territory inhabited by Waterboer's people now forms Griqualand West, or the Diamond Fields (q.v.). The whole subject is treated more at large in the body

of this work. As a people, the Griquas appear to possess all the vices with but few of the virtues of both races; but the Hottentot character appears much more stamped on their appearance and intellects than the European. (*Vide* Wood's 'African Races.')

GROENE KLOOF. An old Moravian mission station in the Division of Malmesbury, about 60 miles N. of Cape Town, where are collected several hundred natives, principally Hottentots. It is self-supporting, and is well worth a visit.

HANKEY. A mission station of the London Missionary Society, in the Division of Humansdorp, with a population of 1,081 souls, who, by the construction of a tunnel through a neck of hard rock, have led out water enough from the Gamtoos River to irrigate arable land to the extent of from 300 to 500 acres, an example we would heartily wish to see followed in other parts of the Colony.

HANOVER. A village in the Colesberg Division, with a population of about 541. It is situated on the Zeekoe River, about 40 miles S.W. of the town of Colesberg. A periodical Court is held there.

HANTAM EAST. A district in the Western part of the Division of Albert, consisting of high-lying mountain tops, considered healthy for horses in time of horse-sickness.

HANTAM WEST. A similar sort of country, in the Division of Calvinia, to which the Boers send their horses when an epidemic of horse-sickness occurs. It is a large mountain with a flat top.

HARDVELD. A barren and mountainous region, N. of the Olifant River West, in the Division of Clanwilliam; a country very dry and barren, yet well adapted for ostrich culture. The high-road from the Cape to the copper mines of Namaqualand passes through it.

HARRISMITH. A village on the Orange River Free State, near the edge of the plateau of the Drakensberg, on the high-road between Natal and the Sovereignty. It is the seat of a magistracy, and is 150 miles N. of Pietermaritzburg. The country round it is bleak and uninteresting, although a good grazing region.

HEALDTOWN. A mission station of the Wesleyan Society, in the Fort Beaufort Division, situated in a fine position, about 8 miles E. of the town. It has a settlement round it of 2,579 souls, principally Fingoes, and is one of the most important mission stations in the Colony. It was burnt in the Kaffir war of 1848, but has since been rebuilt.

HEERENLOGEMENT. A mountain spring and outspan place in the Division of Clanwilliam, on the road between Cape Town and the copper mines. Here is a cave where may be

seen the names of Le Vaillant, Alexander, and other old travellers, inscribed on its stone walls and floor.

HEIDELBERG. A village in the district of Swellendam, on the great high-road to the Eastern frontier from Cape Town, about 170 miles E. of same. It is the seat of a periodical Court, and a post town.

HEIDELBERG. A district of the Transvaal. It occupies a middle position amongst the five southern districts of the territory. It is along its southern frontier that the Vaal begins to be a boundary river. It shares in the general elevation of the Hooge Veldt to which it belongs. It is rich in grass-lands, is good for pastoral and agricultural farming, is favoured with a healthy climate, and has easy communication with the Free State. A high-road runs through it connecting it with Pretoria on the north. Heidelberg, the chief town, is about 50 miles from Pretoria and 100 from Wesselstroom on the south-east. Coal is found on its eastern side.

HELENA BAY. A large bay on the W. coast, N. of Saldanha Bay, into which the Breede River disembogues itself. It is open to N.W. gales, but sheltered from the S.E. It is situated in the Division of Piquetberg, and carries on a considerable trade with small cutters between it and Cape Town.

HERTZOG. A village in the Kat River Settlement, or district of Stockenstroom, about 32 miles N. of Fort Beaufort.

HONDEKLIP BAY. A bay on the Western coast in Division of Namaqualand; formerly the great shipping port for the ores from the copper mines in the neighbourhood, but which are now generally shipped from Port Nolloth (q.v.). It is a very barren and waterless locality, with but indifferent anchorage, and possesses but little trade. It is the seat of a magistracy.

HOPE TOWN. A division in the N. of the Eastern Division formed of part of the district of Beaufort West, with an area of 5,154 square miles, and a population of 6,143. In surface and soil it resembles the Divisions of Colesberg and Victoria West. It is bounded—N.E. by the Orange River; S. by Richmond; E. by Colesberg; and W. by Victoria West and Bushmanland. The village of Hope Town, 580 miles N.E. of Cape Town and 400 from Port Elizabeth, is situated close to the Orange River, and since the discovery of the Diamond Fields is becoming a place of much importance. It has a population of about 493 souls. (*Vide* Boyle's 'Notes on Diamond Fields.') A bridge across the Orange River will probably be constructed in the immediate neighbourhood.

HUMANSDORP. A division in the Eastern Province, formerly part of the Division of Uitenhage; has an area of 2,430 square miles, and a population of 7,587. It is a broken

and mountainous region, lying between the coast and Winterhoek Mountains. The village of Humansdorp lies about 4 miles from the shores of Cape St. Francis, and 40 miles W. of Port Elizabeth; is the seat of magistracy, and has a population of 377 souls. There is a good deal of valuable timber in the Division in the Zitzi Kamma forests. The resources are principally agriculture and rearing of cattle. The high-road from Cape Town to Port Elizabeth passes through the Division.

JANSENVILLE. A village and post-town in the Division of Uitenhage, on the left bank of the Sunday River, about 100 miles N. of Port Elizabeth, in the region called Zwarte Ruggens. Its population in the last census was 407. The principal inhabitants, as of many other remote Dutch villages, being the neighbouring Boers, only visit it at the time of Nachtmaal, or Sacrament, just as English shopkeepers visit the seaside in the summer season, and lock up their houses the remainder of the year.

KAFFRARIA, now called the **TRANSKEIAN TERRITORIES,** is the country extending from the Kei River, to the boundary of Natal, and which has been recently annexed to the Cape. Very much of it presents a broken surface, especially near the coast, where the river generally runs in deep beds. It is well watered and wooded, and generally has a rich and fertile soil. No constructed roads or bridges exist in these parts, which render communication very precarious after heavy rains. We have no reliable information as to the number of Kaffirs still independent, but the best authorities consider they do not exceed 220,000. None of the rivers are navigable. The coast is rocky and dangerous, and the anchorages are unsafe. The Amapondo Kaffir tribes inhabit that part of the country next Natal. The Amagcaleka Kaffirs inhabit the coast region, next the Kei. It is only a question of time as to when all the Amapondos will be brought fully under British authority, and so form a connected British colony from Table Bay to Natal, and one day perhaps to Delagoa Bay. The Transkeian Territory, occupied by Fingoes, is already British, as are also Tambookieland, Nomansland, or Griqualand East, the Idutwya Reserve, Gcalekaland, and Bomvanaland.

KAFFRARIA, BRITISH. The region between the Keiskamma and Kei Rivers, annexed to the Colony, but with a separate jurisdiction, by Sir H. Smith's Proclamation of December 23, 1847, but since united to the Colony, in 1866, of which it forms the two Divisions of King Williamstown and East London (q.v.), which are represented in the Cape Parliament. The name 'British Kaffraria' is now no longer used. The districts of King Williamstown and East London are remarkably fit for both grazing and agriculture. The port of East London is one of the most thriving in

the Cape Colony. These districts are as beautiful as they are fruitful.

KAGABERG. A mountain range, an offshoot of the Great Winterberg range, the most remarkable point of which lies over the town of Bedford (E.P.). It is a densely wooded range, from whence many of the towns of the Eastern Province derive their supplies of rough building timber.

KALIHARA is the name given to a vast extent of dry and sterile country extending N. from the Orange River, in lat. 29° S., to near Lake Nyassa in lat. 20°, with an average width of 6° of longitude, or an area of nearly 200,000 square miles. It is a region of red sand, resting on a bed of tufaceous lime, or perhaps Dunn's glacial conglomerate, and covered with a dense low bush. It has no running streams, although the few Bushmen who inhabit it discover water here and there in the dry beds of streams, forming what are known as sucking places. Owing to this want of water, the Kalihara is seldom traversed, even by the natives. For further information on this subject we must refer our readers to the travels of Baines, Andersson, and Livingstone; also to Moffat and G. Thompson.

KALK BAY. A small bay and watering-place on the W. coast of False Bay, about 18 miles from Cape Town, a favourite place of resort in the summer months to the inhabitants of Cape Town. Abundance of excellent fish are caught there, many of them species not found in Table Bay.

KAMIESBERG. A lofty mountain on the edge of Bushmanland and Little Namaqualand, about 70 miles N. of the Olifant River, the highest point of which, called Welcome, is 5,130 feet above the sea. Near the summit is situated the Wesleyan mission station, Lily Fontein, where a large tract of productive ground is under cultivation. The view from the top of the Kamiesberg, to anyone who is an admirer of desert scenery, is very fine indeed, as N., S., E. and W. nothing but desert is visible.

KANNALAND or LITTLE KARROO is an elevated plain between the Langeberg and Zwarteberg range of mountains, about 2,000 feet above the sea, and lower than the Great Karroo, which is the next step in the ascent to the interior. It is comprised generally in the Divisions of Robertson and Riversdale, and is reached from the Breede River Valley through the pass of Cogman's Kloof, and the road northward reaches the Great Karroo through the difficult defile called Seven Weeks Poort, through which an excellent road has been lately formed. In it are situated the lately formed villages of Montagu and Lady Smith, and the mission stations of Amalienstein and Zoar. The Gauritz River, running in a deep rocky channel, which the old travellers

describe as one of the most awful scenes of nature, bounds the region to the East.

KARREEBERG. The name of several mountain ranges of little elevation, rising out of the Karroo plains; one in Clanwilliam N. of the Olifant River runs from the Olifant River near to the Kamiesberg, and is a continuation of the mountains on the left bank of that river's ally. Another long flat-topped range of isolated hills crosses the Frazersburg and Victoria West districts, about 70 miles N. of the Nieuwveld Mountains. They rise directly from the plains, and the country between them is quite flat. (For a sketch of them consult Burchill.)

KARROO is an old Hottentot name signifying dry or barren, and has been from the earliest times applied to that arid and barren plateau in the Western Province lying between the Roggeveld and Nieuwveld Mountains on the N., and the Lower and Great Zwarteberg on the S., drained by the dry channel courses of the Dwyka and Gamka Rivers in the centre, the Buffels River to the E., and the Doorn and Tanqua Rivers to the W. We have in another part of this work described the physical geography of the Karroo, to which we refer our readers; also to the works of Lichtenstein, Barrow, and Pringle. As a generic name, Karrooveld is applied to all barren lands of the same nature as the Great Karroo in every part of the Colony, composed of hard-baked red clay, lying in a bed of blue schistose slate.

KARROO POORT. A pass in the mountain range called the Wittebergen. When emerging from the Cold Bokkeveld we get a glimpse over the extensive plain of the Great Karroo. (*Vide* Pringle and Lichtenstein.) The great postal road to Beaufort West passes through it.

KATBERG. A range of lofty and precipitous mountains, which bound the Kat River region to the N., and rise to a height of about 5,000 feet. They are a continuation of the Great Winterberg range on the West, and join the Amatola and 'Chumie range on the East. Their coast face is well wooded and steep, but the northern or inland slope, like that of nearly all Cape mountains, is on an easy incline and devoid of timber. The outline is broken and picturesque in the extreme. (*Vide* Kat River Settlement.) A very good road has within the last few years been constructed across these mountains, and is a public work of much utility, as in the winter months these mountains were all but impassable.

KAT RIVER. The old Hottentot settlement formed in 1819, after the expulsion of the Gaika tribe of Kaffirs. After the Hottentot rebellion of 1851–2 it was broken up, and now forms the district of Stockenstroem. It has an area of 240 square miles, and a population of 6,509 souls of all races. It

is a highly fertile and picturesque country, and lies in several valleys round the roots of the lofty and well-wooded Katberg, about 26 miles N. of Fort Beaufort. It comprises several villages and mission stations. Seymour is the seat of the magistracy. Other villages are Readsdale, Philiptown, Buxton, Balfour, and Blinkwater. The high-road from Fort Beaufort to Queenstown lies over the Katberg. Nearly the whole of this Division is capable of irrigation, and can support a very large population. Its agricultural capabilities have been much increased since the introduction of European farmers, as formerly the population were exclusively of the Hottentot race. For early information, &c., see Pringle's and Dr. Philip's works.

KEISKAMMA HOEK. Valleys in the Amatola Mountains, whence spring the head waters of the Keiskamma River, and formerly the great stronghold of the Gaika Kaffir tribes. It is now inhabited by German and English settlers, and is one of the best-watered and wooded places in the Colony, enjoying a delightful climate and splendid scenery. It lies about half-way between King Williamstown and Fort Beaufort.

KIMBERLEY, the seat of Government in Griqualand West, or the Diamond Fields, is identical with the diggings of New Rush. The census taken in 1877 gives its population as 13,190, including the Newton and De Beer townships. It is situated about 20 miles S. of Pniel, on the Vaal River.

KING WILLIAMSTOWN. A Division formed in 1866 of the Northern part of British Kaffraria, with an area of 1,781 square miles, and a population of 106,640 principally of Kaffir origin. It is both well wooded and watered. Several German villages have been formed both in King Williamstown and East London from the mountains along the course of the Buffalo River to the sea, including Stutterheim, Braunschweig, Potsdam, Berlin, and some others, where the disbanded men of the late German legion have been located.

KING WILLIAMSTOWN is a large town, the capital of the division of the same name, where it is the seat of both civil and military authorities. It possesses large barracks, stores, magazines and other military buildings, and is agreeably situated on the banks of the Buffalo River, which is led out for irrigation purposes. It is 80 miles E. of Grahamstown, on the road to which a new bridge has been lately erected across the Great Fish River. It has upwards of 5,000 inhabitants, is a place of considerable trade, and is now connected with the port of E. London by a line of railway.

KLIP DRIFT, on the N. bank of the Vaal River, is one of the places where large quantities of diamonds have been

found. It is as yet merely an encampment, and is situated 100 miles N.E. of Hope Town, immediately opposite Pniel.

KNYSNA. A Division formerly comprised in the Division of George, and including a great extent of fine forest, extending between the sea and the Outeniqua Mountains, and still affording cover to numerous elephants and buffaloes. It has an area of 524 square miles, and a population of 3,218 souls. Plettenberg Bay, a good shipping port for timber, is situated in this district, where are also the villages of Melville, Belvidere, Newhaven, and Redbourne. The lagoon of the Knysna forms the best natural harbour in the Colony for the coasting trade. An excellent new road has been formed across the mountains, from the harbour to Lange Kloof, thus giving access to the forests, which are strictly preserved, as well as the elephants, by the Colonial Government. The Knysna is easily reached by coasting vessels or steamers from Cape Town or Port Elizabeth.

KOONAP is a tract of country in the Division of Fort Beaufort, lying on the Koonap River, and containing some of the best sheep-farms in the Eastern Province. It is well watered, and produces abundance of sweet grass.

KORANNAS. A tribe of Hottentot descent, found wandering along the course of the Orange River, Bushmanland, and the country N. of it, without any fixed habitations.

KOUDEVELDBERG. A mountain range in the vicinity of Graaf-Reynet and Murraysburg, the climate of which in winter is exceedingly cold.

KROOMIE MOUNTAINS and BUSH. A continuation of the Kagaberg, connecting it with the Katberg. It is situated in the districts of Fort Beaufort and Bedford, and produces some fine timber, especially yellow-wood and sneezewood, which here grows to a large size.

LADY SMITH. A village in the Division of Riversdale or Kannaland, near the entrance to Seven Weeks Poort. It has a population of about 400, and is situated about 250 miles N.E. of Cape Town.

LAMBERT'S BAY. A small bay on the west coast a few miles S. of Donkin's Bay (q.v.), which it resembles in every particular. It is situated in the district of Piquetberg, a large grain-producing country, whence it is shipped to Cape Town.

LANGEBERGEN. The important range of mountains next the coast which run E. and W. from the Breede to the Gamtoos River, separating the coast region from the plateau above it. Some peaks attain the height of 5,000 feet. The kloofs on the coast side are in parts well wooded. The high-road from Cape Town to the frontier runs along the foot of

these mountains. There is another mountain range of the same name north of the Orange River.

LANGE KLOOF. A long and narrow pass in the Division of George between the first and second range of coast mountains through which runs the high-road from Cape Town to Port Elizabeth; it is in fact a narrow plateau about 2,000 feet above the sea, ascended by the road constructed through Montagu Pass, a few miles from the town of George. All the streams which intersect it run N. into the Olifant River. The farms are very valuable, and produce much wine and tobacco. A new road, lately formed, affords it communication with the Knysna Forests.

LESSEYTON. A Wesleyan mission station in the Queenstown Division, a few miles N.E. of Queenstown, with 479 residents.

LEYDENBERG. A village in the Transvaal Republic, about 180 miles N.E. of Pretoria in lat. 25° 11′ S., long. 30° 30′ E. The discovery of veins of gold-bearing quartz rock in its neighbourhood has lately conferred on it some degree of importance. It is about 180 miles N.W. of Delagoa Bay, situated on a plateau estimated at 3,000 feet above the sea level, and the construction of a railway is now seriously contemplated. The coast region, however, intervening is considered very unhealthy.

LILY FONTEIN. A mission station of the Wesleyan Society, situated nearly at the top of the Kamiesbergen in Namaqualand, founded in 1819; it has collected round it nearly 1,300 natives, principally Hottentots, who cultivate the soil, which is fertile, and make it nearly self-supporting.

LION'S HEAD. The name of one of the three principal culminating points of Table Mountain, and so called from its resemblance to the head of a lion couchant. It is formed of horizontal layers of Cape old red sandstone reposing on an eruptive mass of granite with clayslate on its lower flanks disturbed by the eruption. Its height is about 2,200 feet. The old Dutch Government formerly kept a gun for signal purposes on it, but it has been long since discontinued. The view from it is very fine, and the ascent, if properly directed, not very difficult, although a few accidents have occurred occasionally to inexperts.

LONDON EAST, the seaport of the Division of the same name, lies at the mouth of the Buffalo River, about 36 miles S.E. of King Williamstown. It was formerly called Fort Glamorgan. The anchorage is open and exposed, but extensive harbour works for its shelter are now in progress. It is situated about 700 miles E. of Cape Town and 150 by sea from Port Elizabeth. East London is the terminus of the line of railway to Queenstown. The trade of the port both for

imports and exports has improved in a wonderful manner during the last few years.

LONDON EAST, DIVISION OF. Formerly the East part of British Kaffraria, but now forming a separate Division since 1866. It has a general resemblance to the coast region of the East frontier, being plentifully intersected by deep and wooded defiles, through which flow numerous rivers. It has an area of 1,225 square miles, and a population of 15,514. Several German settlements have been formed, both in East London and in the adjoining Division of King Williamstown. A line of railway runs from the port to Queenstown, a distance of about 180 miles.

LYNDEN GLEN. A romantic valley in the district of Bedford, about 18 miles N.W. of it, celebrated as being the original location of the Scotch party under the poet Pringle and his brothers, many of the descendants of whom still occupy farms in the neighbourhood. The hills in which the glen is situated are offshoots of the Great Winterberg.

MAGALIESBERGEN or CASHAN MOUNTAINS. A lofty range in the Transvaal country running E. and W. about 100 miles N. of Vaal River, said to abound in rich mines of copper and lead. They are described by Harris.

MALMESBURY. The name of a fertile division of the W. Province N. of the Cape Division which bounds it on the S. On the E. and N. it has the Breede and Twenty-four Rivers, on the W. the Atlantic Ocean. It has an area of 2,808 square miles and a population of 18,096 souls, including the dwellers at several large mission stations in the Division. The soil is fertile, and much corn is grown, especially in the country called Zwartland. Horses and cattle are also raised. The seat of magistracy is the village of Malmesbury, 45 miles N. of Cape Town, with which it is connected by a branch railway. It has a population of 1,840.

MALUTI MOUNTAINS. A lofty chain of mountains of Basutoland, near the sources of the Orange River.

MAMRE. A large Moravian mission station, a few miles S. of the village of Darling, and about 40 miles N. of Cape Town, in the Division of Malmesbury, better known as Groene Kloof. It has a population in connection with it of about 1,300, and is, we believe, self-supporting.

MANCAZANA. A fertile valley and settlement in the Bedford Division, 28 miles W. of Fort Beaufort, with 1,800 inhabitants.

MARICO. The extreme western district of the Transvaal. Its southern portion comes within the Hooge Veldt, and the northern within the Bosch Veldt, which, however, is broken by extensive grass flats about the 25th parallel, which here, as in the neighbouring town of Rustenburg, passes through ele-

vated plains lifted above the general level of the wooded plains. The district is well suited for agriculture; all cereals, tobacco, indigo, coffee, and sugar; the vine and orange; forest trees; and all kinds of vegetables may be cultivated. Large and small stock may be bred with advantage. Various minerals, slate slabs and good building stone have been found. There is no Tsetse in Marico.

MARTINUS WESSELSTROOM. The capital of the district of Wakkerstroom, in the Transvaal, is perched on the Drakensberg at an elevation of 5,300 feet. It possesses a church, a market, and a trade in timber, horses, hides, wool, and butter. A waggon road connects it with Natal, being 40 miles from Newcastle.

MAZEPPA. An exposed anchorage and landing place, 7 or 8 miles E. of the mouth of the Great Kei River on the E. coast, where small cutters sometimes discharge and take in cargo. Large forests exist in the neighbourhood.

MEIRING'S POORT. A pass on the Great Zwarteberg range through which a new road, opened in 1858, has been cut leading from the port of Mossel Bay to Prince Albert and Beaufort West. It opens to traffic a vast extent of country formerly of little value, but now every day increasing in production.

MELVILLE. A village in the Division of the Knysna opposite to Belvidere on the W. side of the Knysna harbour, with 660 inhabitants. It is very romantically situated.

MIDDELBURG. A central Division of the E. Province formed by portions of the Divisions of Colesberg, Cradock, and Graaf-Reynet, with an area of 2,252 square miles, and a population of 5,976. In surface it resembles the Divisions it once formed a part of, and is an excellent pastoral country, producing much wool. It is watered by some of the head branches of the Great Fish River. The seat of magistracy, Middelburg, is situated at about an equal distance from the towns of Cradock, Colesberg, Graaf-Reynet, and Somerset East, and is 552 miles N.E. of Cape Town and 222 N. of Port Elizabeth, from which it is reached *viâ* Cradock.

MIDDLEBURG. A district of the Transvaal, formerly a part of Lyndenburg, and once called Nazareth. It occupies a central position, but dips far to the south. In its southern highlands the Olifant finds its fountain streams on one side, and the Vaal, its earliest tributaries on the other. It is a pastoral and agricultural country of the first class, and amongst its minerals are, besides coal, iron, copper and cobalt.

MITCHELL'S PASS. A difficult defile, formerly called Mostert's Hoek, in the second range of mountains which hem in the Breede River Valley in its upper course, through which an excellent road was formed in 1853 by the late Mr. A. G.

Bain, and in connection or rather continuation of the line through Bain's Kloof *viâ* Wellington forms one of the most important links of communication between Cape Town and the interior; the village of Ceres lies at its E. extremity, from which the road continues *viâ* Karroo Poort to Beaufort West.

MONTAGU. A village in the district of Robertson, situated at the head of a pass in the Langeberg range called Cogman's Kloof. It has 1,176 inhabitants, and is in the centre of a rich and productive country.

MONTAGU PASS. A defile in the Outeniqua Mountains in the Division of George, by which the Cape road ascends from the coast region to the more elevated plateau of Lange Kloof. It was opened in 1848, and cost 35,800*l*. The executive engineer was Mr. C. White.

MONT AUX SOURCES. The loftiest part of the Quathlamba range, from whence spring the waters of the Orange, Vaal, Umzimvoobo, Tugela, and other rivers, described by the French missionaries, and its height estimated at 10,000 feet.

MOSSEL BAY. A division in the south-western province, bounded on the W. by Riversdale; N. by Oudtshoorn; E. by George, and S. by the Indian Ocean. It has an area of 859 square miles, and a population of 5,072.

MURRAYSBURG. Formed from part of the Division of Graaf-Reynet; is a high upland region lying between the Rondeveld and Sneeuwberg ranges about 4,000 feet above the sea; it is traversed by what is called the Upper Road to Beaufort W., and has an area of 2,200 square miles, and a population of 3,771. The village is about 60 miles N.E. of Graaf-Reynet, and 100 E. of Beaufort W.; is situated in a well-watered though badly timbered region, very cold in winter, but with a fine healthy summer climate.

NAMAQUALAND, GREAT, is the region inhabited by the Namaquas N. of the Orange River, extending N. to Walvisch Bay, between the coast and Kalihari Desert.

NAMAQUALAND, LITTLE. A division in the N. part of the Western Province, bounded—on the N. by the Orange River; S. by the Divisions of Clanwilliam and Calvinia; E. by Bushmanland; and W. by the Atlantic Ocean; with an area of 20,635 square miles, and a population of 12,233. It is a vast expanse of barren and rugged country, perfectly waterless, with an almost rainless climate, and chiefly valuable for its immense mineral wealth, as yet but partially developed. Along the coast the country is covered with deep sand, making transport difficult, but a railway across the desert conveys the copper ores of the mountains to the port of shipment. The seat of magistracy is Springbok Fontein, about 60 miles from the coast, where was formerly a very rich copper mine, no longer

worked. Other mines are Ookiep, Concordia, Spektakel, and Kodas, near the Orange River. There are mission stations at Lily Fontein (Wesleyan), Steinkopf, and Komaggas (Rhenish), and at Pella, on the Orange River (London Missionary Society).

NATAL. Natal, declared a British Colony in 1842, has been fully described in another part of this work; it includes the country bounded on the E. by the Tugela and Buffel Rivers to their source on the Drakensberg, then along the mountains' summits in a S.W. direction to the Umtamvuna River, thence to the sea, which forms its coast boundary. It is considered to have an area of 12,500,000 square acres, or somewhat the size of Scotland. It consists of a series of terraces gradually rising from the coast, thus affording a variety of climates, from the tropical—producing coffee, sugar, and cotton—almost to the Alpine on the top of the passes. It has an ample supply of water, also of bush, for building and fuel purposes. The chief town is Pietermaritzburg (q.v.). Durban is the port town. Other towns and villages are Verulam, Lady Smith, Greytown, Weenen, Byrne, and Richmond. The principal mission stations are Emmaus, Edendale, Hermansburg, besides many others connected with the principal Christian denominations. Natal is so called from its having been first sighted by the Portuguese navigators on Christmas Day.

NEWCASTLE. A village in the district of Fort Peddie, near the mouth of the Great Fish River, where a sheltered anchorage exists, and goods may in fine weather be safely landed.

NEWLANDS. A village about 4 miles from Cape Town, at the base of Table Mountain, on the road to Wynberg, with some very beautiful scenery and handsome villas.

NEW SCOTLAND. The southern part of the Leydenburg district of the Transvaal. It is 500,000 acres in extent, was selected by an enterprising Scotchman—Mr. McCorkindale—as the site of a Scotch settlement, and is well adapted for pastoral and agricultural pursuits. It is about 110 miles from Delagoa Bay, and McCorkindale's scheme was to approach this bay by a road leading to the Maputa river, which, at its mouth, is navigable by small vessels. In working out his plan the founder of the settlement exposed himself to the Delagoa Bay fever, to which he fell a victim in 1871. New Scotland itself is remarkably healthy.

NIEUW KLOOF. A pass in the Berg River Mountains, leading to the town of Tulbagh, through which the prolongation of the line of railway from Wellington passes the first mountain range on its way to Worcester.

NIEUWVELD MOUNTAINS. An important mountain range in the Cape Colony, forming a continuation of the Roggeveld Mountains on the W., and continuing E. until it

joins the Koudeveld or Sneeuwberg Mountains, forming the buttress, as it were, to the highest plateau, and known to old geographers by the name of the backbone of South Africa. Although the face on the coast side is less steep than those of other parallel ranges nearer the sea, yet it slopes, like them, very gradually on the inland side, forming large elevated plains, affording perhaps the best sheep pasturage in the Colony. The highest point, Bulbhouders Bank, a few miles from the town of Beaufort West, is 7,300 feet above the sea level, and the average height of the range may be estimated at 5,000 feet, or 2,000 feet above the Karroo, which stretches along the foot of it. All waters rising on the N. slope of the Nieuwveld run into the Orange River, and thence into the Atlantic; those from the S. faces run into the Indian Ocean, through vast chasms in the intermediate mountain chain of the Zwartebergen, &c. These mountains are singularly devoid of timber, which it is considered might be advantageously planted on their slopes and in their kloofs, and afford also great facilities for the formation of dams.

NOLLOTH. A port and custom house on the coast of L. Namaqualand, in lat. 29° N.E. and long. 16° 50′ E., the principal shipping port of the ores of the Cape Copper Mining Company. A railway runs from the port to the foot of the coast mountain range, a distance of 91 miles, and a jetty, landing-place, lighthouse, and water supply have been constructed. The country in the neighbourhood is sandy and barren in the extreme. It has a population of about 450 of all colours.

NOMANSLAND or GRIQUALAND EAST. An extensive tract of about 8,000 square miles of grazing and pastoral country on the coast slope of the Stormbergen or Quathlamba Mountains, N.E. of the Queenstown Division, forming a part of Independent Kaffraria, although on account of the severity of its climate in winter not occupied by the Kaffirs. Its population is estimated at nearly 100,000. The Griquas, about 15,000 in number, under Adam Kok, some years ago, being tired of their neighbours, the Boers of the Sovereignty, migrated there in a body, where they have remained since peaceably enough, and have accumulated large flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. The country is elevated, and though well grassed is in some parts rather bare of timber, although well watered. The large game formerly found in this region have nearly all been driven away. The principal village is Kokstadt, which has a large trade, a bank, and a considerable number of white inhabitants. It is the head-quarters of the left wing of the Cape Mounted Riflemen.

OLIFANT RIVER EAST. A long fertile valley, lying between two high mountain ranges, in the district of Oudtshoorn, well watered, and productive of wine and tobacco.

OLIFANT RIVER WEST. A long narrow valley in the Clanwilliam Division, bounded on the E. by the Cedar Bergen, and on the W. by the Olifant River Mountains; very fertile, but with a very hot climate in summer. It is well watered by the Olifant River, which irrigates a considerable extent of land.

OOKIEP. A mine in L. Namaqualand, a few miles from the village of Springbok Fontein, which is considered one of the most important copper mines in existence, its annual production of very rich ore being nearly 12,000 tons, and the deeper the shafts are sunk the more extensive appears the area of ore-producing ground. The mine is now sunk to a depth of 80 fathoms, but exhibits no sign of decreasing production. The ores from it are conveyed by waggons to the foot of the mountain plateau on which the mines are situated, and from thence by rail to Port Nolloth (q.v.), the port of shipment. These Ookiep ores are found in Europe to be easier smelted than the ores of any other mine whatever, and the deposit of copper ore in the locality seems quite unlimited.

ORANGE RIVER FREE STATE. The denomination of one of the Dutch Republics N. of the Orange River, and comprised between it and the Vaal River, which forms the boundary between it and the Transvaal Republic. It contains approximately an area of 50,000 square miles. It consists chiefly of vast undulating plains, which slope down from the Maluti Mountains to the Vaal River, dotted over, however, in many places with rocky hills called kopjes, although in the northern parts hundreds of square miles are found with hardly a break on the horizon. The Orange River Free State is politically divided into the following districts:—

District.	Chief Town.
Bloemfontein	Bloemfontein
Boshof	Lady Brand, Boshof
Wynberg	Wynberg
Cronstadt	Fickburg
Smithfield	Smithfield
Rouxville	Wepener
Harrismith	Harrismith
Bethlehem	Bethlehem
Fauresmith	Fauresmith
Bethulie	Heidelberg
Philippolis	Philippolis
Jacobsdal	Jacobsdal

OUDTSHOORN. A district of the Western Province, formerly part of the Division of George, and is situated at the W. extremity of the valley of Olifant River East, bounded —on the N. by the Great Zwarteberg range; on the S. by the

Outeniqua Mountains and Lange Kloof; on the W. by the Gauritz River; and on the E. by the Antonies Berg. It has an area of 1,781 square miles, and a population of 15,181 souls. It possesses a most fertile soil, producing the best brandy and tobacco in the Colony, and has great facilities for irrigation. The seat of magistracy, the village of Oudtshoorn, is situated on the Olifant River, about 50 miles N.W. of Georgetown, and has a population of 1,837. The mission station of Dysselsdorp, in this Division, has a population of 544, chiefly Hottentots.

OUTENIQUALAND is the Hottentot name for that portion of the George Division which lies between the mountains and the sea.

OUTENIQUA MOUNTAINS are the mountain range next the coast, which runs E. and W. through the George Division, towards its E. end. It is covered with dense forest, still the resort of the elephant and buffalo, and producing abundance of excellent timber.

OVAMPOLAND. A region in N.W. Africa, lying north of Great Namaqualand, and inhabited by a race forming a link between the Kaffir and true Negro. It was first explored by Alexander; afterwards by Galton, Andersson, and Bain, to whose travels we refer our readers. Its boundaries are—W. the ocean; N. the Cuanene River; E. the desert; and S. Damara and Great Namaqualand.

PAARL. A very fertile and fruitful Division in the Western Province. So called from a gigantic granite boulder resting on the top of a mountain near the principal town or village. Has an area of 627 square miles, and a population of 18,076. It is watered by the Great and Little Berg Rivers, and from numerous streams rising in the adjacent mountains. It is the great wine-producing country of the Cape Colony.

PAARL, the principal place and seat of magistracy, is 38 miles E. of Cape Town, with which it is connected by rail; is a well-built, pleasant village, the houses generally having large gardens surrounding them, which makes it an agreeable residence after the heat and dust of Cape Town. It has a population of 5,760. It was founded in the beginning of the eighteenth century, and many of the French Huguenot refugees are settled in its neighbourhood and in that of Stellenbosch.

PATRYSBERG. A mountain which forms the S. horn of S. Helena's Bay, 800 feet over the sea-level.

PEDDIE. A district lying along the coast, forming the S.E. portion of what was formerly called the Neutral Territory, lying between the Great Fish and Keiskamma rivers. It has an area of 497 square miles, and a population of 16,886, the majority being Fingoes or Kaffirs. It is a rather elevated

region, well watered, and fertile. The seat of magistracy is Fort Peddie, an old military post and tower, about 36 miles E. of Grahamstown, with a population of about 300. The Wesleyan mission stations of Durban and Newtondale are in this district, where there are also several locations of Fingo and Zulu Kaffirs, whose chiefs exercise a sort of patriarchal authority, under supervision, over them.

PELLA. A station of the London Missionary Society, near the banks of the Orange River, and on the N. extreme edge of Bushmanland, with about 800 dwellers around it. (*Vide* Thompson, Backhouse, and Campbell's travels for particulars as to this locality.)

PHILIPPOLIS. A village in the Free State, the principal place in the old Griqua Territory; now occupied by the Boers; is about 30 miles N. of Colesberg, and 15 N. of the Orange River on the road to Bloemfontein.

PIETERMARITZBURG. The chief town of Natal, compounded of the names of the Boer leaders, Pieter Retief and Gert Maritz, is situated 54 miles N. of Durban, on the high road to the interior. It has a population of 6,700. It is built on a high plain, well supplied with water, and in summer is subject to violent thunderstorms, involving the necessity of a lightning-conductor almost to every house. Omnibuses run daily between Maritzburg and Pinetown to meet the railway, thence to Durban.

PIQUETBERG. A Division in the Western Province, formerly part of the Division of Clanwilliam, with an area of 1,854 square miles, and a population of 8,239. It includes an isolated range of mountains, standing out, as it were, as a sentinel from the Olifant River range of mountains, whence its name. That part of the district near the Berg River called the Twenty-four Rivers is highly fertile, and produces much corn, wine, and tobacco. Two or three bays on the coast, St. Helena, Lambert's, and Donkin's, afford facilities for shipping produce, but the heavy state of the roads militates against the advancement of this district. The seat of magistracy, the village of Piquetberg, is situated at a considerable elevation on the E. face of the mountain, and has 353 inhabitants. It can boast of possessing one of the finest iron bridges in the colony. The mission stations, Wittewaters and Goede Verwacht, are situated in this district, with about 600 inhabitants.

PLETTENBERG BAY. A large and exposed bay on the S. coast, a few miles E. of the Knysna Harbour, much used for the shipping of timber from the adjacent forests. It has a population of 700 principally wood-cutters.

PNIEL. A mission station on the left bank of the Vaal River in the territory of Griqualand West, and celebrated formerly as one of the most productive centres of the Diamond

Fields; being in a state of transition, no statistics to be depended on can be given. It is situated 700 miles from Cape Town, 470 from Port Elizabeth, 400 from East London, and 470 from Natal.

POTSCHERFSTROOM or MOOI RIVER DORP. A town or village in Transvaal, about 25 miles N. of the Vaal River. Its name is a strange compound of the names of Potgieter, Scherf, and Stockenstroom, popular characters with the Boer Republicans; it is picturesquely situated and admirably watered, branches of the Mooi, or Pretty River, running through the streets, which are all planted with trees. It is 960 miles N. of Cape Town, and 720 from Port Elizabeth.

PRETORIA. A town and seat of Government of the Transvaal Republic, is situated about 90 miles N.E. of Potscherfstroom, near the E. extremity of the Magaliesbergen; a branch of a Cape Town Bank has been lately opened here; and the Leydenberg gold fields have given a great impulse to trade in this region. Pretoria is about 1,050 miles distant from Cape Town by land, and can be easiest reached *viâ* Natal.

PRINCE ALBERT. A Division of the West Province, lies along the N. face of the Great Zwarteberg range, and extends some distance into the Karroo. It is bounded—N. by the Beaufort West Division, S. by the George Division, W. by Worcester Division, and E. by Uitenhage. It has an area of 3,980 square miles, and a population of 6,257 of all races. The farms at the foot of the mountains are very fertile. The village of Prince Albert is the seat of the magistracy, and is distant 282 miles E. of Cape Town. A good road to the port of Mossel Bay is formed through the Zwarteberg and Meirings Port, from this division opening out a rich and fertile country.

QUAGGA FLATS. A large plain in the district of Alexandri, crossed by the road from Port Elizabeth to Grahamstown. Formerly, but no longer, the haunts of large herds of quaggas; hence its name.

QUATHLAMBA or KAHLAMBA. The name of a lofty range of mountains, apparently a continuation of the Stormbergen, increasing in height and ruggedness as it trends to the N.E., until in the Natal territory it attains a height of 8,000 to 10,000 feet; are also known in parts as the Maluti Mountains, and further on as the Drakensberg; they continue until they seem to decline into the plains N. of Delagoa Bay. In an ethnological point of view, they are remarkable as forming the line of separation between the Kaffir races dwelling on the coast and the Bechouana tribes of the interior. Gardiner, in his 'Travels in the Zulu Country,' well describes the broken country at the foot of these mountains. No direct waggon-road yet exists from the Basuto Country across these moun-

tains to Natal, although doubtless footpaths exist. They are called the Maluti Mountains by the French Missionaries and the Basutos.—*Vide* Arbousset, Casali's and Dyke's Travels. De Beers and Bezuidenhoots are the principal passes across these mountains between Natal and the Orange River Sovereignty.

QUEENSTOWN. An important division of the Eastern Province, once the country of the Tambookie Kaffirs, from which they were driven in the war of 1852. It is bounded N. by the Stormberg range, S. by the Amatola, W. by the Cradock Division, and E. by the Indwe River, to its junction with the Great Kei, an area of 3,604 square miles, with a population of 50,890 souls, it being one of the most populous Divisions in the Colony. The country is well watered, and the rivers flow in a manner favourable for irrigation purposes, not being sunk in the deep channels in which nearly all our colonial streams flow. It has large native locations and mission stations at Shiloh, Goshen, Hackney, and Engotine of the Moravian, Wesleyan, and London Mission Societies. The principal town is Queenstown, on a branch of the Klaas Smits River, a town well laid out, and supplied with water; distant 640 miles E. of Cape Town, and 205 N. of Port Elizabeth; contains about 2,320 inhabitants; has several banks, churches, and other public institutions. The Mountain Hangklip (6,800 feet) is a striking feature in the scenery of this Division; the fantastic shape of many of its mountains presenting some curious features. Queenstown, the capital, is the present terminus of the border line of railway from East London.

RHENOSTERBERG. A mountain in the district of Middelburg; an offshoot to the N.E. of the Sneeuwberg.

RICHMOND. A division of the Eastern Province, bounded—N. by Hope Town, S. and E. by Graaf-Reynet, and W. by Victoria West. Has an area of 4,463 square miles, and a population of 7,624 souls. It is an entirely pastoral country, depending for water on the formation of dams, and at the cold upland region badly supplied with fuel. Its principal village and seat of magistracy is Richmond, with 995 inhabitants. Four hundred and fifty miles from Cape Town and 245 from Port Elizabeth. It is situated in the Cold Upland Region, behind the Sneeuwbergen, called the 'Winterveld,' and owes its importance to its being the depôt for the wool of the surrounding sheep farms. It lies about half-way between Graaf-Reynet Town and Colesberg.

RIEBECK'S CASTEEL. A lofty isolated mountain in Malmesbury Division, 3,109 feet high, and a well-known landmark as seen from Cape Town. It is one of the few places named after the illustrious Van Riebeck, the founder of the Cape Colony. There is a village called Riebeck in Albany, a few miles W. of Grahamstown, with 108 inhabitants.

RIETBERG. A mountain in Little Namaqualand, a few miles from the Concordia Mines, presenting strong indications on its summit of a rich deposit of copper ore, but which has as yet not realised the expectations raised by its appearance.

RIVERSDALE. A Division of the Western Province, formerly part of Swellendam, of which it formed the eastern portion, comprehends the country between the Zwartebergen and the sea; bounded, E. by the Gauritz River, and W. by Krombek River, and a line reaching to the mountains; an area of 2,462 square miles, and a population of 12,721. This part of the country is also known by the name of the Grasveld, from its abundant pasturage. Riversdale village is 202 miles E. of Cape Town, on the high road to the frontier, and contains 1,177 inhabitants. The mission institutions, Zoar and Amalienstein, are in this district; also the village of Lady Smith, near the entrance to Seven Weeks Poort, through which a new road has been constructed.

ROBERTSON. A district of the Western Province, formerly part of the Division of Swellendam, with an area of 1,089 square miles, and a population of 8,031. It comprises the country known by the name of Kannaland, or the Little Karroo (q.v.). The principal village is Robertson, on the Breede River, also 40 miles N.W. of Swellendam, with a population of 1,104. Also the villages of Montagu in Cogman's Kloof and Lady Grey.

ROGGEVELD is the rocky and barren table land in the Calvinia and Frazersburg districts on the top of the Roggeveld Mountains which bound the Great Karroo to the N.E.

ROGGEVELD MOUNTAIN. A long escarped mountain range, about 5,000 feet high, which extends N.W. and S.W. from the Komsberg (5,300) nearly to the village of Calvinia. From a distance it looks like an immense wall, and in an extent of nearly 200 miles there are only one or two available passes. This mountain range, as well as the country about it, is well described by the old Cape travellers Barrow, Lichtenstein, and Burchill. The old Dutch manners and customs are still preserved in their primitive simplicity in these regions, which are seldom visited by modern travellers.

RUSTENBURG. A village in the Transvaal Republic, on the north slope of the Magaliesbergen or Cashan Mountains, about 60 miles west of Pretoria.

SAINT BLAISE CAPE. The headland forming the S.W. horn of Mossel Bay, in lat. 34° 11′ 48″, long. 22° 6′ E. A lighthouse is erected on it.

SAINTE CROIX. A rocky islet in the bight of Algoa Bay, so called from a stone cross erected on it by Bartholomew Diaz, who landed on it in 1486; no remains of the cross, however, exist at the present day.

SALDANHA. An extensive bay on the W. coast of the Cape Colony, in lat. 33° S., about 80 miles N. of Capetown. It has admirable anchorages and wharfs formed, as it were, by nature, sheltered from all winds, but is unfortunately deficient in fresh water, and the country surrounding it is sterile and uninviting. It has been proposed, as early as the times of Barrow, to lead fresh water from the Berg River into it, a task that presents but few engineering difficulties, but as yet no efforts have been made to accomplish it, although Saldanha is a bay capable of sheltering all the fleets of the world. There is not even a village on its shore, though its waters abound in fish.

SALEM. A village and mission station in the Division of Albany, about 18 miles S.W. of Grahamstown, with 690 inhabitants.

SCHIET F'N. Formerly a mission station on the Karree Berg, about 60 miles N. of the Nieuveld Mountains. The surrounding country has been lately formed into a new Division called 'Carnarvon,' of which Schiet F'n, near Carnarvon village, is the seat of magistracy. The country resembles Hope Town and Victoria West Divisions, and is barren and uninteresting, although good for sheep-farming.

SEVEN WEEKS POORT. A difficult defile at the western end of the Langeberg range, where it joins the Zwarteberg, through which an excellent road has been formed, giving access from the Little to the Great Karroo.

SEYMOUR. A village in the Division of Stockenstroom, and seat of the magistracy. It is about 26 miles N. of Fort Beaufort, near the old military post of Elands River, with 233 inhabitants.

SHILOH. A Moravian mission station on the Ox Kraal River, Division of Queenstown, with 792 residents.

SIMON'S BAY. A small sheltered anchorage on the west side of False Bay, where are the Admiralty dockyards and magazines for the naval stations on the E. coast of South Africa.

SIMONSBERG is a lofty point of the Cape peninsula, just above Simon's Town, with an average height of 3,200 feet.

SIMON'S TOWN is a magisterial Division, part of the Cape Division, about 25 miles S.E. of Capetown, at the base of a lofty mountain. It possesses a naval yard and dockyard establishment, military barracks, several forts and defensive buildings, and has a population of nearly 2,447 inhabitants. It is the only naval depôt Great Britain possesses south of the Equator in the Indo-Pacific Ocean, and is sheltered from the effects of all the violent winds.

SIR LOWRY'S PASS. A well-executed line of road

over the first coast range of mountains, designed by the late Colonel Mitchell. It was opened to the public in 1830, and lies on the high road between Capetown and Port Elizabeth. Along with the improvement of Montagu Pass in the George Division, this work removed the greatest impediments that could be conceived in our most important colonial line of road, although the name of the talented engineer is, we regret to say, almost forgotten.

SNEEUWBERGEN. The name of a large mountain group in the central region of the Cape Colony; E. of the Nieuwveld range, where the mountains reach their greatest height, is the peak Compassberg (q.v.), 8,000 feet, and from thence they branch off in several nearly parallel chains to the N.E. and S.E. Deeply intersected by fertile and well-watered valleys, the Sneeuwbergen present a most valuable and interesting district, mostly included in the Graaf-Reynet Division.

SOMERSET EAST. An important Division of the Eastern Province, with an area of 3,876 square miles and 10,877 inhabitants. It is intersected by several lofty mountain ranges; the most northern, called Zwagers Hoek Mountains, is a continuation of the Sneeuwbergen, connecting that range with the Great Winterberg. Another range parallel to it is the Boschberg (4,880 feet), running E. and W., between the Sunday and Great Fish Rivers, at the foot of which is situated the town of Somerset East, a well-watered village, with 2,231 inhabitants and several churches, banks, a college, and other public institutions. It lies about 80 miles W. of Grahamstown and 547 E. of Capetown. Somerset Division is bounded—on the W. by that of Graaf-Reynet, on the N. by Cradock, on the E. by Bedford, and on the S. by Uitenhage, the Zuurberg Mountains forming the division line. Owing to its hilly surface it presents some fine romantic scenery, and possesses some of the most valuable farms in the Colony, particularly those lying in the rich glen or valley called Zwagers Hoek. The town or village was formerly the seat of a commissariat farm, and was founded in 1825. The seat or farm of the late Mr. Hart, called Glen Avon, lies in the neighbourhood, and is well worth a visit, as showing of what high farming is capable in such a climate. (*Vide* Pringle.)

SOMERSET WEST. A village in the region called Hottentots' Holland, and near the shore of False Bay and foot of Sir Lowry's Pass, about 20 miles E. of Capetown. It is a favourite summer resort of the inhabitants of that city, and near it was the country residence of that arbitrary old man Governor Van der Stell.

STELLENBOSCH. A now small and unimportant Division of the Western Province, containing an area of only 503 square miles and a population of 10,539, although it formerly

comprised nearly the whole of the Western Province as far east as Swellendam, the whole Cape Colony at the period of the English mission in 1795 being divided into only three divisions, namely, Stellenbosch, Swellendam, and Graaf-Reynet. Stellenbosch Division is very fertile, and well watered by the Berg River and its tributaries. It lies along the feet of the Drakenstein Mountains, and has much beautiful scenery. The town of Stellenbosch is one of the oldest of the Colony, being founded in 1684; is a well-built place, with wide streets at right angles to each other, well shaded and watered, something in the style of Salt Lake City. It has with its environs about 4,000 inhabitants, mostly of Dutch descent. The French Huguenot refugees nearly all settled in the neighbourhood, and their names, but not their language, may still be traced. Stellenbosch is connected with Capetown by rail.

STOCKENSTROEM (KAT RIVER SETTLEMENT, q.v.). A Division comprising the old Kat River Settlement, with an area of 240 square miles, and a population of 6,509, of whom 1,400 are Europeans, it being no longer the exclusive seat of a Hottentot race. The country at the base of the Katbergen is wonderfully fertile and well watered, and calculated to support a much larger population than as yet inhabits it. It also, in the kloofs of the mountains which surround it, possesses a good supply of building timber and also material for fuel. (*Vide* 'Kat River Settlement;' also the history of foundation, &c., in the works of Pringle, Philip, &c.) The history of the Kat River Settlement forms an interesting chapter in the romance of the Cape Colony, both in its founding and its dispersion.

STORMBERG MOUNTAINS, in Wodehouse Division. Important discovery of coal in this district by Mr. North in July 1878.

SWELLENDAM. One of the old Divisions of the Cape Colony, now reduced to an area of 2,954 square miles, including the country between the sea and the Langeberg Mountains, bounded on the W. by the Breede River and on the E. by the boundary of the Riversdale Division, with a population of about 10,000 souls, about half of whom are of European descent. The town of Swellendam is 140 miles E. of Capetown, on an affluent of the Breede River, and has a population of rather more than 2,000. It was founded in 1745, and for a colonial town thus possesses a considerable antiquity. The general character of the Division is of an agricultural and pastoral nature. Its climate resembles generally that of the coast region between the sea and the first mountain range. The Langebergen rise in some points to a height of 5,000 feet. The London mission station Zuurbrak is in this Division, with 1,207 dwellers. Other villages in the Division are Heidelberg, Malagas, and Port Beaufort. The high road from Capetown

to the frontier traverses this Division from W. to E., and the deep river beds occasionally make travelling dangerous. The kloofs of the Langebergen are in many places well wooded. (*Vide* Latrobe and Lichtenstein.)

TAMBOOKIELAND. The country formerly inhabited by the Tambookie tribes of Kaffirs, and from which they were expelled for their participation in the Kaffir and Hottentot rebellion of 1850–1. It now forms the Division of Queenstown.

TANDTJIESBERG. A serrated mountain range (Teeth Mountains) connecting the Sneeuwbergen with the Zwagers Hoek Mountains, in the Division of Somerset East.

TARKASTADT. A village in the Cradock Division, formerly the military post of the Zwarte Kei, a few miles N. of the Great Winterberg Mountains.

TRADOUW. A kloof and river in the Swellendam Division.

TRANSVAAL. The second Dutch Republic north of the Vaal River, founded by those Boers who refused to submit in 1848, when Sir Harry Smith received the allegiance of the Sovereignty Boers, annexed by British Government, April 12, 1877. It comprises a large and valuable territory, bounded on the S. by the Vaal River, on the N. by the Limpopo, on the E. by the mountains, a continuation of the Drakenbergen, and on the W. by the country of the Bechouanas and the Kalihari desert. Its area and population cannot be given with any degree of exactness, but the discovery of rich gold fields in the region adjacent to Delagoa Bay has invested this country with a considerable degree of importance. Its principal towns are Pretoria (q.v.), Mooi, Riversdorp, Rustenburg and Leydenberg. (See also Harris, 'Baines' and Chapman's Travels,' and the body of this work.)

TROMPETERSDRIFT. An old military post on the Great Fish River, on the road from Grahamstown to Fort Peddie; the scene of several conflicts during the Kaffir wars of 1835 and 1848; now a Kaffir police station.

TULBAGH. A Division of the Western Province, lying in the mountains forming the buttresses to the plateaux of the Cold and Warm Bokkeveld. It has an area of 4,976 square miles, and a population of 9,923 souls. It is well watered, and contains a large proportion of fertile soil. The seat of magistracy is the village of Tulbagh, 80 miles N. of Capetown, in a deep valley overhung by the Winterhoek and Wittenberg Mountains. It is an old-fashioned Dutch village, preserving the primeval habits to a considerable extent. It derives its name from the one-eyed, though single-hearted old governor, Ryk Van Tulbagh, who might have served as a model for Irving's Peter Stuyvesant.

TWENTY-FOUR RIVERS. A fertile and well-watered district, partly in the Tulbagh Division, and partly in that of Piquetberg, so called from the numerous streams which issue out of the adjacent mountain ranges and run into the Berg River. It produces excellent wine, corn, and tobacco, and the farmers are generally comparatively wealthy. The German mission stations Steinthal and Saron lie in this neighbourhood.

UITENHAGE. A Division of the Eastern Province, bounded—N. by Zwarte Ruggens, S. by Port Elizabeth Division, E. by Humansdorp, and W. by Albany and Alexandria; having an area of 6,233 square miles, and a population of 21,392. It is traversed by a lofty range of mountains called the Winterhoek Mountains, rising in some places to a height of 7,000 feet, and affording well-known landmarks to vessels approaching Port Elizabeth. The country to the north, called the Zwarte Ruggens, consists of long low ranges of hills, covered with a prickly bush, and very arid and nearly waterless. The mission station Enon (Moravian) is situated in a densely wooded country at the foot of the Zuurberg, and remains pretty much as it was described by Pringle half a century ago.

UITENHAGE TOWN, distant 18 miles N. of Port Elizabeth, and 500 E. of Cape Town, is well laid out and abundantly watered, each house situated in a large and well-planted garden. It was founded in 1804, and has 3,693 inhabitants. Wool-washing is extensively carried on in Uitenhage, and promises to contribute to the prosperity of the district. The town has good water, fruit and vegetables, and is the *locale* of the Locomotive shops of the Midland and North-Eastern Railway systems.

UTRECHT, the most southerly and easterly district of the Transvaal, is, at its extreme point, not more than 100 miles from Durban as the crow flies. Its capital, Utrecht, is about 30 miles from Newcastle in Natal, with which town it is connected by a road and drift over the Buffalo river. The interior part of the district climbs to the summit of the Drakensberg range; the highest point being not less than 4,000 feet. It is well suited for pastoral and agricultural farming. Cattle and sheep thrive there, and it is good for grain. It produces wool, hides, and butter. It has coal in abundance for the getting.

VICTORIA EAST. A Division formed out of the northern part of the old neutral territory, having an area of 576 square miles, and a population of 8,894 souls, including several locations of Fingoes. It is well watered, and includes in it the fertile valley of the Tyumie. The principal place is Alice (q.v.). Dovedale mission station is in this district.

VICTORIA WEST is a Division in the N.W. of the Eastern Province, formed out of a part of the Old Beaufort

Division, with an area of 15,815 square miles, and 13,247 inhabitants. In soil, climate, &c., it resembles the adjacent districts of Richmond, Hope Town, and Frazersburg. The principal place and seat of magistracy is Victoria West, 410 miles from Cape Town, and 300 from Port Elizabeth, with 754 inhabitants. North of Victoria West is a vast expanse of barren country, thinly inhabited, in which a few Bushmen and Korannas still wander. The region is described by Lichtenstein and Burchill.

WAKKERSTROOM. A district of the Transvaal, north, and partly to the west of Utrecht. It touches Natal on the south, and on the west it is separated from the Free State by the Klip River. Its northern boundary is the Vaal. It is very mountainous, lying on the western slopes of the Drakensberg. The scenery is very grand. It possesses dense woods of valuable timber, and excellent grass lands well watered by the Vaal and its numerous tributaries. It is especially suited to horse breeding, which is a branch of farming well worthy the attention of capitalists. It is also well adapted for cattle and sheep, and produces large quantities of grain. On its eastern side it is rich in coal.

WATERBURG. The largest of the districts of the Transvaal. It has the Limpopo for its northern and north-western, and pays for this proximity by being infested by the Tsetse throughout a belt varying from 20 to 80 miles deep along the whole course of the river, a length of more than 200 miles, being quite one-third of the whole area of the district. The remainder of the district is suitable for agriculture and it also promises well for minerals. On the south-east it has an immense plain called the Springbok Flats where water and wood are plentiful.

WEENEN. A village of Natal, about 70 miles N.E. of Pietermaritzburg on the Bushman River, so called (weeping) from a massacre of Dutch emigrant Boers there by Dingaan in 1838.

WELLINGTON. An agreeable village in the Paarl Division, 45 miles from the Cape, and is a principal station of the Railway to Beaufort West. It is well laid out and watered, has several good houses, and 2,192 inhabitants.

WHITTLESEA. A village in the Queenstown Division, near the mission station of Shiloh, on a branch of the Zwarte Rei River by which it is irrigated; it has 139 inhabitants.

WILLOWMORE. A district and village lately formed out of the eastern portion of the district of Prince Albert. It is well watered and fertile, although including a great deal of karroo veld.

WINTERBERGEN. The name of a lofty mountain range in the E. Province, dividing the district of Cradock from the

of Fort Beaufort and Bedford. It is a continuation on the W. of the great mountain range of Zwager's Hoek and the Sneeuwberg, while on the E. it joins the Katberg and Amatola. The highest point is Great Winterberg Peak, 7,806 feet.

WINTERHOEK MOUNTAINS. There are two important mountain ranges called Winterhoek—one in the W. Province, a continuation of the Cedar Berg on the E. of the Olifant River Valley, with its culminating point above the village of Tulbagh (6,840 feet). The other is in the Division of Uitenhage and runs E. and W. from the Gamtoos to the Sunday River; its highest peak, the Cockscomb, is estimated at 8,000 feet, and is visible 60 miles off at sea.

WITTEBERGEN. The name of several mountain ranges in S. Africa—one in the W. Province bounds the Cold Bokkeveld to the E., another in the E. Province in the district of Wodehouse, and a third in the Free State almost synonymous with the Maluti Mountains. They are all of considerable height, and so called from being often capped with snow in winter.

WODEHOUSE. A district lately formed, in 1871, of the E. part of the district of Aliwal N., in which are located numerous bodies of Fingoes and other natives. It comprises the slopes of Wittebergen and Orange River Valleys. The principal place is Dordrecht, with 800 inhabitants and seat of magistracy (q.v.). Its population is 25,948, with an area of 2,849 square miles. The climate, as this region lies high, is very severe in winter.

WORCESTER. A Division on the W. Province, situated behind the first or coast line of mountains through which flows the upper course of the Breede River. It has an area of 6,531 square miles, and a population of 9,734. It is traversed by several ranges of lofty mountains, forming those of the Breede River Valley, &c. The principal town is Worcester, agreeably situated near the mouth of the Hex River Kloof, well planted and watered, with a population of 3,788. It is 80 miles N.E. of Cape Town, with which place it is connected by rail and also with Beaufort West. The climate is agreeable, but subject to heavy thunderstorms.

WYNBERG. A beautiful village, 8 miles from Cape Town, with which it is joined by rail on the S. side of Table Mountain. Here is produced the celebrated wine of Constantia. It has a population of 2,504.

ZANDVELD. A sandy region lying along the coast W. of the Breede River in the district of Bredasdorp covered with low sand hills.

ZITZIKAMMA. A forest region lying along the coast E. of the Knysna Forests in the district of Humansdorp, and traversed by a range of mountains called the Karadouw. A mission station of blacks lies in this neighbourhood, which has

a population of 800, principally of wood-cutters. A few elephants still exist in these forests.

ZONDEREINDE MOUNTAINS. A range of lofty mountains in the division of Caledon running E. and W. along the course of the Zondereinde River, which runs at their feet. They have an average height of 4,000 feet.

ZOUTPANSBERG. A north-eastern district of the Transvaal, but little occupied by settlers, its remote position, more tropical climate, and propinquity to unquiet native tribes having discouraged colonisation. The south-western section of the district, however, having several gold centres, has been more frequented. The district promises to be very wealthy in minerals. It is also capable of producing large quantities of grain, sugar, coffee, cotton and tobacco. It has much valuable timber, and an ample supply of water.

ZULULAND is the region E. of Natal, extending to Delagoa Bay, inhabited by the still independent Zulu tribes.

ZUURBERGEN. A name for several ranges of mountains, in the Cape Colony, generally on moderate height, with rounded tops covered with sour grass fit for cattle-grazing. We subjoin a few:—1. Zuurbergen, between Uitenhage, Albany and Somerset, in the E. Province. 2. Zuurbergen on W. edge of Karroo in Tulbagh Division W. Province. Zuurbergen, a continuation to the W. of the Bamboabergen, between Cradock and Albert Division.

ZUURVELD is a colonial name for a tract of country covered with sour grass only fit for cattle, in contradistinction to Karroo, Gebroken, or Zoetveld, fit for sheep, or both. Thus Lower Albany is popularly known as the Zuurveld in the historical account of the various Kaffir wars.

ZWAGERS HOEK. A fertile valley behind the Boshberg, in the Division of Somerset East, containing some of the best farms in the E. Province. It has a population of 2,024.

ZWARTEBERGEN. The name of several important mountain ranges, as that in the district of Riversdale and that bounding the Olifant River Valley on the N. in Oodtshoorn and George. They have an average height of 5,000 feet, and are penetrated by the passes of Seven Weeks and Meiring's Poort (q.v.).

ZWARTLAND. A fertile region in the division of Malmesbury, extending N. to the Berg River, producing much fine corn.

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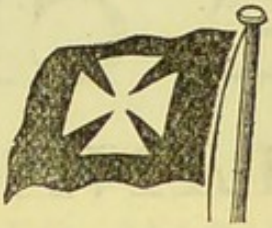
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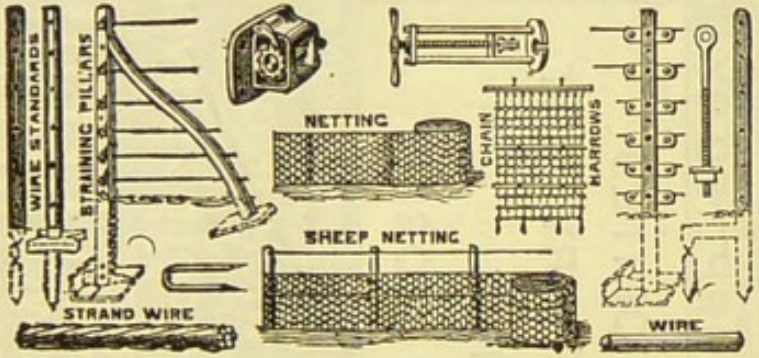
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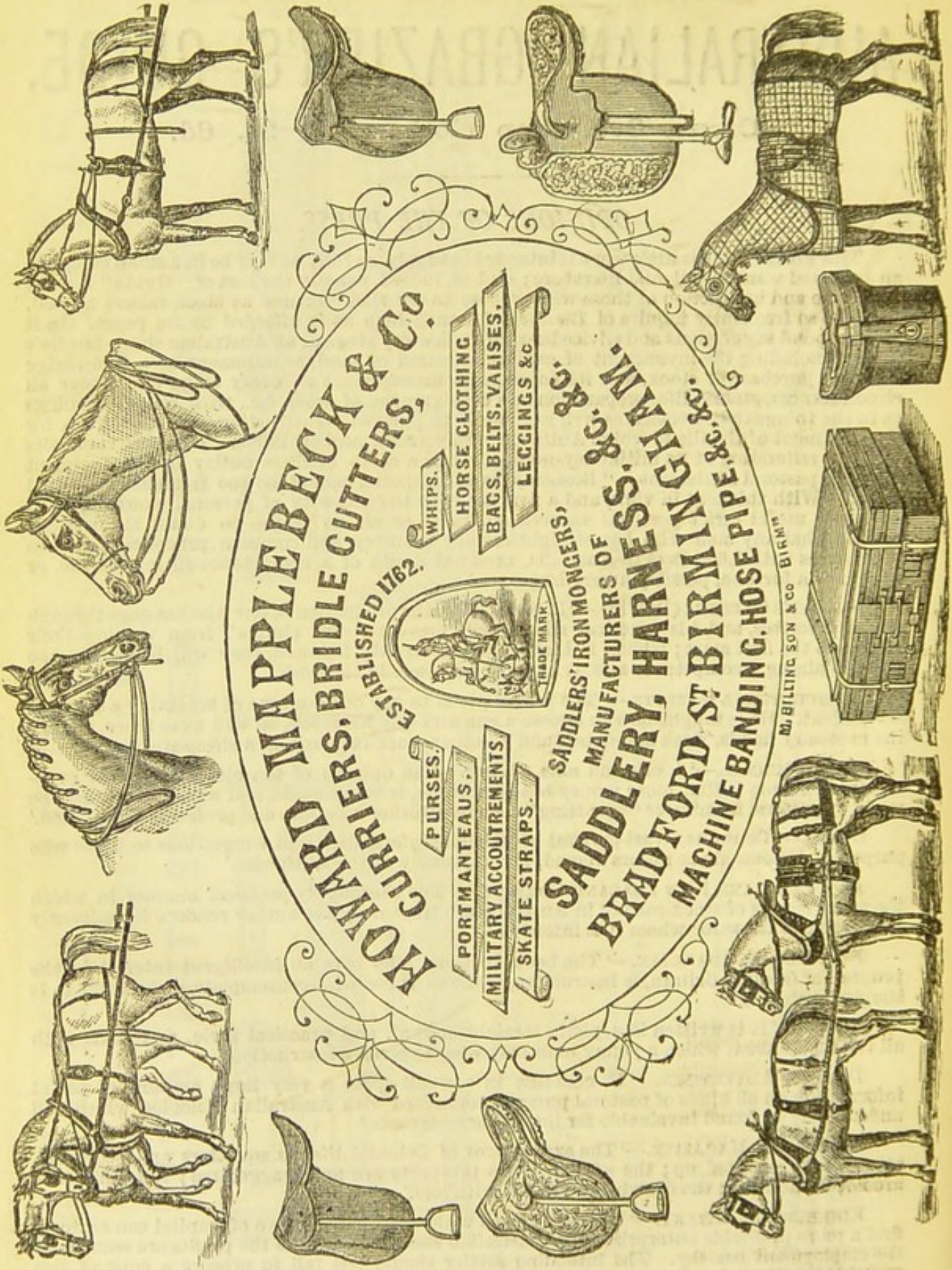
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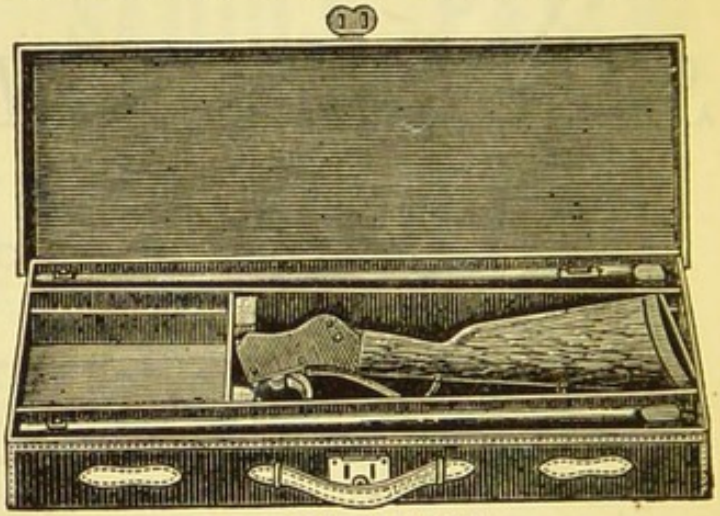
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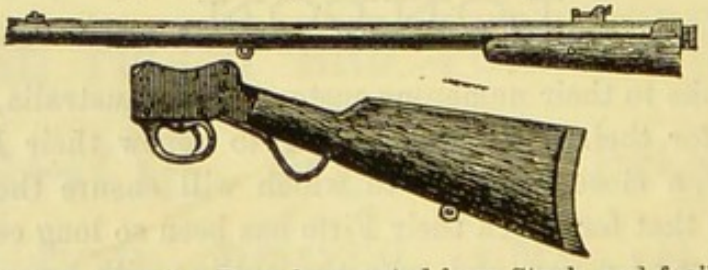
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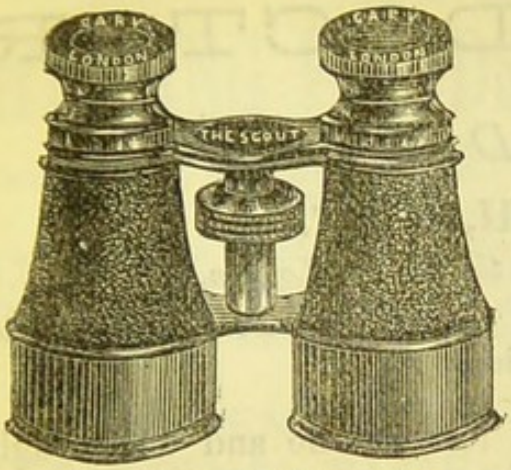
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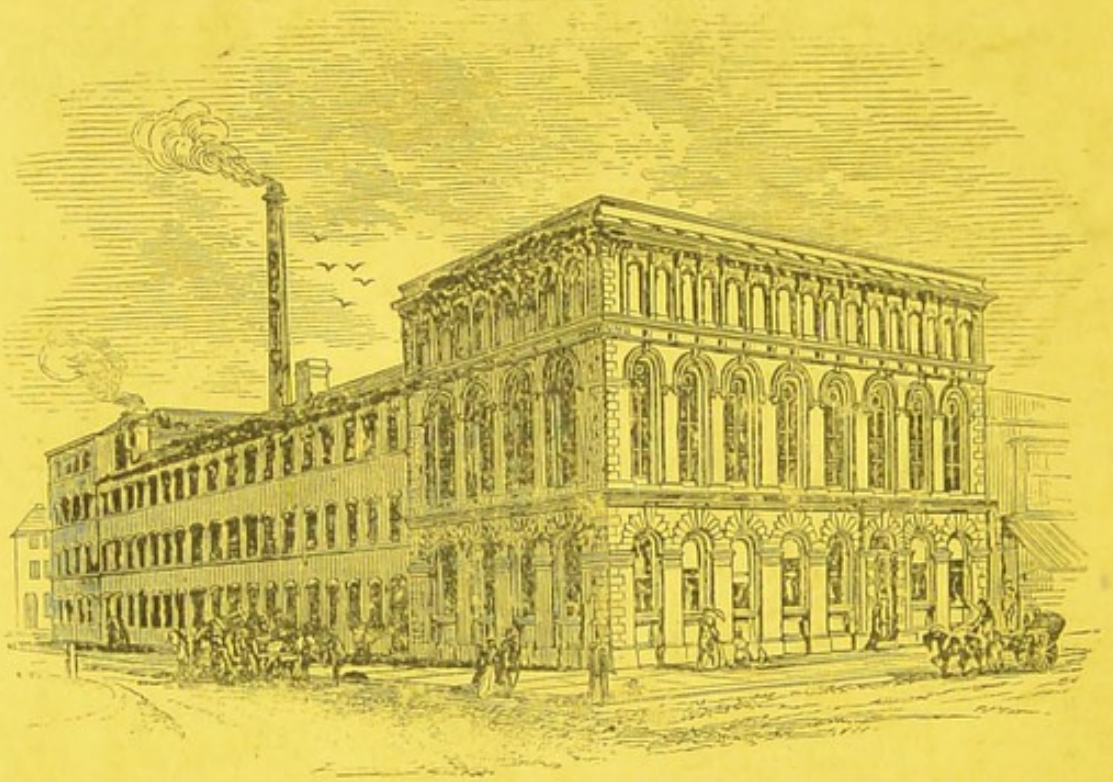
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