HISTORICAL ATLAS
OF
SOUTH AFRICA

BY
ERIC A. WALKER

HUMPHREY MILFORD
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NOTE

This atlas is intended primarily to illustrate the history of South Africa south of the Zambezi, but, as it is impossible to understand that history in isolation, maps have been inserted to show the connexion between Africa and the East Indies from the fifteenth to the early nineteenth century. Maps showing the bearing on South African history of the European partition of Africa in the later nineteenth and twentieth centuries, economic maps explaining that partition, and a map of the world in terms of population are also included.

My late colleague, Mr. J. L. W. Stock, collected most of the material for Map 5. He was to have collaborated with me throughout, but he was killed east of Arras in May 1917. The completion and publication of the atlas have naturally been delayed by the war.

I hereby tender my thanks to the many friends in South Africa and in England who have given me their help.

ERIC A. WALKER.

University of Cape Town.
June 1921.
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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE NOTES


Records — Theal, *Records of South East Africa* [9 vols., 1898–1903].


J. — Leibbrandt’s *Précis of Governor’s Journal* [6 vols., 1896–1902].

Lett. Rec. — Leibbrandt’s *Letters Received* [3 vols., 1896–9].

Lett. Desp. — Leibbrandt’s *Letters Despatched* [3 vols., 1900].

Annals — Bird’s *Annals of Natal* [to 1845; 2 vols., 1888].

Govt. Gazette — Cape of Good Hope Government Gazette.

Geog. Mitt. — Petermann’s *Geographische Mittheilungen* [1855 onwards].

Hertslet — Hertslet’s *Map of Africa by Treaty* [1896].

Map No. S38 (80) = No. 838 in the Inventaris der Verzameling Kaarten berustende in het Rijks-Archief’s, Gravenhage, and No. 80 in the Cape Archives [duplicate of No. 838].
I. EUROPE, BRAZIL, AFRICA, AND THE EAST INDIES

CIRCA 1560

The map illustrates the discovery of the Cape route to the Indies by the Portuguese, the suppression of the Arabs by the Portuguese as controllers of trade in the Indian Ocean, and the consequent commercial outbidding of the growing Ottoman Empire.

The Portuguese found mixed Arab and Persian settlements scattered along the east coast of Africa from Brava and Mogodo xo to Sofala. The Arabs in their clumsy ships would not go farther south than Cape Correntes in the grip of the Mozambique current. Nor did they go inland except for trade. Most of their settlements were situated on islands, e.g. Mombasa, Zanzibar, Quiloa, Mozambique. They also controlled the Comoro Islands and the north-west coast of Madagascar.1 The monsoons took them from Sofala to Calicut, where they met the Chinese and Japanese junkers, though they soon met them half-way by seizing Malaca. The keys of the western trade routes were also in Arab hands. Aden, Miescat, andOrmuz were theirs, and hence the trade routes ran up the Red Sea to Suez and the Nile Delta, or up the Persian Gulf and so overland to Baghdad and Aleppo. The alternative land routes through Asia are also shown connecting with the mediaeval European trade routes.

Between 1415 and 1460, Portuguese navigators discovered and occupied the islands off the north-west coast of Africa from the Azores to the Cape Verde group, rounded Cape Bojador (1434), reached Rio d'Oro (1435), Cape Verde (1446), the lower reaches of the Senegal (1445), where they gathered authentic news of Timbuctoo (1458), and a year later reached the Gambia. During the next thirty years they explored the Guinean coast, crossed the Equator (1471), and reached the mouth of the Congo (1481). Within the next fifteen years the work was completed. Diogo Cam reached Cape Cross (1485). Bartholomeu Diaz, still clinging to the coast, reached Angua Pequena (Luderitzbucht) and Angra das Voltas near the mouth of the Orange, was blown out to sea and next sighted land at Angra dos Vaquerios (Mossel Bay). Thence he proceeded to Algoa Bay and the mouth of the Infanta river (Great Fish?). On the way home he landed at and named the Cabo Tormentoso (1487). Vasco da Gama struck out boldly from the Cape Verde Islands into the South Atlantic, turned eastward and made landfall at St. Helena Bay. He rounded the Cape, reached Mossel Bay, skirted the coast of Natal, touched at Mozambique and Melinde, and thence sailed over the well-known Arab route to Calicut (1498-9).2

Cabral, besides sharing with Pinzon the honour of discovering Brazil (1500), seized Cochín and Cauçano. D'Almeida by his victory off Diu (1509) made the Indian Ocean a Portuguese sea for a century, and by making the Portuguese masters of Sofala, Mombasa, Quiloa, and Mozambique established their power on the east coast of Africa (1505-8). D'Albuquerque took Brava, Goa, Malaca, and Ormuz, but failed at Aden (1510-11). Two of the doors of the Eastern trade were in the Portuguese hands, while the third, the Red Sea, was partially controlled by the occupation of Socotra (1507).

The Treaty of Saragossa (1529) settled the Hispano-Portuguese spheres of influence along the meridian 17 degrees east of the Moluccas. Spain kept the Philippines, but sold her rights to the Moluccas, and agreed that, on the other side of the world, Portugal should keep Brazil (see inset). Meanwhile the Portuguese had planted themselves at Macao (1520), and before the middle of the century their traders and missionaries were in Japan (1548).

Before the close of the fifteenth century stepping-stones on the way to India were planted at San Jorge de Mina and San Salvador, and during the sixteenth century on the western islands, San Thomé, Princípe, Fernando Po, Annobou, and St. Helena. The grip of Portugal on the west coast south of the Gulf of Guinea was not secure till the foundation of San Paulo de Loanda (1594). No posts were planted on the coasts of South Africa between Angola and Delagoa Bay.

References.—1 Theal, Records of S.E. Africa, iii, p. 93. 2 Theal, Records, vi. (de Barros), pp. 149-215.

II. PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA IN THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

Like the Arabs the Portuguese clung to the coast and the islands. Their chief centres were at Sofala (1505), Mozambique (1507), Quiloa (1505), Sena (1531), and Tete (1555).1 Temporary posts were afterwards established at Inhambane and Lourenço Marques,2 the farthest point southward to which their influence extended. Their hold on the coast was strongest around the rivers of Quano (Zambesi delta), from Mozambique to Sofala. Their only serious efforts to penetrate the interior were made in this area. The Zambesi, either by way of the Quelimane or Lumbo, was navigable for some 270 miles,3 and up it Barreto and Homem marched to the Mazoe in search of the Empire of Monomotapa (1571-2).1 Trading posts were founded along the Mazoe at Luanze, Buzato, and Masapa, only to be abandoned in 1616.1 It was up the Zambesi that Homem marched in search of the ilusory silver mines at Chirwa, where a Portuguese trading station also existed till 1616. Homem, however, reached the Manica goldfields (Untali) by the more direct route up
the Revue. Apart from the Jesuit mission to Otongwe (1560), the efforts of Jesuits and Dominicans followed the line of the coast and the Zambezi.

From a commercial point of view the Portuguese occupations was a long-drawn, expensive failure. Little gold and silver reached the coast. The Portuguese apparently did not know that gold was to be had from the lands between the Sabi and Limpopo, where the ancient ruins and gold-workings are most numerous, since they looked for it only between the Sabi and the Zambezi. 4 Climate and fierce fly were against any effective colonization. Before the close of the sixteenth century the attacks of the Abambo and Amazamba had practically destroyed the hold of the Portuguese on the Zambezi valley, the revival of the power of the 'Arabs' of Muscat had driven them from the coast north of Mozambique (1638), and the seizure of Mauritus (1638) and the Cape (1652) by the Dutch threatened their very existence on the sea.

Sixteenth- and seventeenth-century maps show the Empire of Monomotapa stretching from the Zambezi to the Orange and Fish rivers. The paramount chief at Mount Fura ruled the country around that mountain, and is said to have exercised authority as far as the coast between the Lusabo and Tendancio rivers. The chiefs of Sibia, Quivee, and Manica were certainly not subject to him in the sixteenth century. 5

References. - 1 Theal, Records, i. 11, 62; ii. 33, 122. Solaha, vii. 187. Monomazafa, ii. 13; vi. 288. Quivi, i. 13, 99; iii. 113; v. 382; vi. 246. 2 Ibid., i. 109; ii. 73, 94, 141. 3 Ibid., i. 22. 4 Barret's Journey, 1571-2; Monclans' account, ibid., i. 204-5; vi. 359-90. 5 Posts on Mazoe, ibid., vii. 270. 6 Hosen to Chievo and the Revue: ibid., i. 27-30. 7 On trade and colonizing possibilities of Portuguese East Africa, see especially Theal's Records, i. 22, 50-53; ii. 105; iii. 215, 223, 275, 487; iv. 2, 35, 39, 213, 279, 423; v. 268; vi. 186, 218, 364; viii. 364, 406, 478. Hall, Prehistoric Rhodesia, pp. 48-50, 53-9. 8 Theal, Records, vii. 392. 9 Ibid., iii. 353 et seq.; vi. 396 et seq.; vii. 273 et seq. (Dos Santos).

Mars.—Hall, Prehistoric Rhodesia, p. 127, for list of maps. List of Maps, see infra, p. 26.

III. PROBABLE MOVEMENTS OF NATIVE TRIBES

SOUTH OF THE ZAMBEZI BEFORE 1800

This map is mainly based on the information given in Stow's Native Races of South Africa and Theal's History and Ethnography of South Africa before 1795 (vols. i-iii).

(a) Bushmen. Small groups were scattered over all South Africa from time immemorial. I have disregarded Stow's distinction between the areas occupied by Sculptors and Painters, preferring to follow Theal, who holds that no such local distinction is possible. 1

(b) Hottentots. At some unknown time the Hottentot clans pushed southward down the west coast. In the seventeenth century they were scattered in small groups close to the sea from Walvis Bay to the Umtamvuna river. 2 During the eighteenth century many of the more important clans moved away from the Europeans at the Cape.

(i) Namaquas. By 1823 most of these had crossed the Orange into Great Namakaland. 3

(ii) Kurrans. In 1800 many were still scattered between the Nieuwveld mountains and the Orange, but the bulk of them were living either in the valley of the middle Orange or near the junction of Vaal and Harts rivers. 4

(iii) Griquas. Backwards and Hottentot Griquas collected at the Piquetberg early in the eighteenth century. About the year 1750 they moved to the Kamiesberg, and thence to Pella and the Orange valley. At the beginning of the nineteenth century they gradually gathered round the London Missionary Society stations in what is now Griqualand West. 5

In the Colony itself by 1800 the Hottentot tribal system, such as it was, had long ago broken down.

(c) Bantu. The Bantu are comparatively recent immigrants in most parts of the Union. From an unknown date, however, Bakalahari and Balala dwelt on the eastern edge of the Kalahari desert, while in the sixteenth century the Makaranga certainly occupied Southern Rhodesia, in the so-called Empire of Monomotapa. About the close of the sixteenth century the Leghoya either enslaved the Bakalahari and Balala or drove them into the desert and established themselves on the Mariee and upper Molopo. Before the end of the seventeenth century the Barotsi broke in upon the Makaranga, and fifty years later Bavenda and Bakwana tribes were in possession of most of the Transvaal and the north-eastern Free State as far as the Little Caledon (c. 1750). During the first half of the eighteenth century the Batlapin and Barolog drove the Leghoya eastwards across the Vaal, where they settled as Bataung along the Vct river. Meanwhile the Baphun established themselves between the Molopo and Kuruman rivers at Old Lithakao, the Barolog on the banks of Harts river.

The Abambo and Amazamba crossed the Zambezi about 1555, and by 1620 the former reached Natal, where they broke up. Scattered tribes pushed over the Drakensberg and settled as Basia and Bapnti round the site of the present Harrismith (1740). Most of the tribes, however, retaining the Amwa prefix, remained in the coast lands as Swazi, Hlubi, Pondon, Tenbu, Xosa, &c. The Xosa and Tenbu pushed south-westward in that order, mixing more or less with the conquered Hottentots. The Xosa crossed the Kei in the early eighteenth century; by 1779 they had crossed the Great Fish river on to the Zunveld. 6

References.—1 Theal, History, i. ch. 1; Stow, Native Races, ch. 1-12. 2 Theal, History, i. ch. 2.; Stow, ch. 13-16. 3 Stow, pp. 259-14. 4 Theal, History, i. ch. 59; Stow, pp. 275-7. 5 Theal, i. ii., pp. 333 et seq.; Stow, pp. 322-7, 344. 6 Theal, i. ch. 5; iii. ch. 47; ib. p. 49; Stow, pp. 296 et seq.
IV. CAPE COLONY, 1660

The settlement occupied the Table and Liesbeeck (Amstel) valleys, from Lion’s Rump to Wynberg Hill (Bosneuvel). The original fort (1653) (inset B) was on the site of the present General Post Office. The Company’s Gardens extended slightly farther to the north and considerably farther to the east than do the present Gardens (inset A). The Company also owned a farm at Roode Doorn Bosjes (Rondevosch), an orchard at Rstenburg, and the Groote Schuur on the site of the present house. Van Riebeeck’s first farm lay behind the Lion’s Rump near Green Point (1657); his second farm, the Wynberg, now Bishop’s Court, lay beneath the Bosneuvel (1658).

The first farms granted to free burghers, the Groeneveld (i) and Hollandsche Tuin (ii), are shown (1657); later grants as they were held in 1660. The numbers are as given in Leibbrandt’s Letters Despatched, iii., 314–38. The four streets shown in inset A, counting from the seaward, correspond to the modern Strand, Castle, Shortmarket, and Longmarket streets. The shore at present extends much farther to the north than it did in 1660.

The defence of the Bay was provided by the fort, a redoubt at Duijnhooop (1654), and the Koornhooop blockhouse close to the Liesbeeck (1657). The line of the Liesbeek was further guarded by blockhouses at Kijckuijt, Kcet de Koe, and Houden Bil. The position of the last is conjectural, but approximately correct. A cavalry post also stood close to the northern edge of the present Camp Ground, Rondevosch. A fence of poles to check Hottentot cattle raiders ran along the western bank of the Liesbeeck on its lower and upper reaches to Leendert’s forest (Kurstenbosch). In a line another fence and a similar hedge were planted along the boundary of the settlement from Kijckuijt to Leendert’s forest. Part of this boundary on Wynenberg Hill is still marked by an almond hedge. The hedge of 1660 marked the last serious attempt to define the eastern boundary of the Colony before 1770.

Key to Map A.

R. Van Riebeeck’s farm, 1657.
W. Van Riebeeck’s farm, 1658.
H. Harman Remageem, 1657.
I. S. Botma (Jansen), 1657.
II. Breukman.
7. H. Boom.
10. P. Visagie.
15. F. Gerrits.
16. S. Botman.
17. J. Theunissen.
27. J. Martens de Wacht.
28. H. Reyniers.
32. C. Chasen and D. Meyer.
33. H. C. Hoogervelt and H. ter Schelhousen.
B Leendert Cornelissen’s Forest.

Key to Inset A.

1, 24, 29. H. Boom.
3, 22. E. D. Diemer.
5, 23. H. Hendriekw.
6, 19. W. C. Mostert.
8, 20. J. Jansen.
9. Company’s Cable-store.

References.—For; J., i. 31–77; Resolutions, 1652–62, p. 26; Lett. Desp. 1652–62; i. 82, 212; J., iii. 154.
2 Gardens: Lett. Desp. 1, 292; ii. 23; iii. 77, 235.
3 Lett. Desp. 1649–62; ii. 60; J., 1662, 60, 166. 4 J., ii. 47; Lett. Desp. iii. 166–23; Abstract, p. 23.
6 J., iii. 91, 111, 139; Lett. Rcc. 1649–62, 236; Abstract, 32.
7 J., Aug. 9, 1659; Feb. 25, 1660; Dec. 20, 1660.
8 Maps.—Notably Nos. 805 (38), 807 (40), 808 (11), 817 (81), 820 (51), 823 (53). See also list of maps, &c., pp. 26 infra.

V. CAPE COLONY, 1679-1712

There were two main stages in the colonization of the Cape under the Company; the period of settlement, roughly up to 1708, and the period of dispersion from 1708 onwards. The map illustrates the expansion of the colony during the former period. Van Riebeeck’s colony included nothing more than the Table and Liesbeeck valleys with Robben Island; fifty years later it had expanded to the base of the Drakenstein mountains, and their northern extension. Even so no part of the colony except the Land of Waveren (Tulbagh) and the Company’s post at Saldanha Bay was more than fifty miles in a straight line from the Castle. The only roads beyond the Mountains of Africa lay over the Hottentots Holland Kloof (Sir Lowry’s Pass), the Olifants’ Pad (the French Hoek—Villiersdorp Pass), du Toit’s Kloof behind Wagenmaker’s Valley (Wellington), and the old Roozeand Pass into the Tulbagh basin. The present road and railway follow the valley of the Klein Berg river.

The farms followed the watercourses. In the Peninsula, beyond Wynberg, the Tokai and Hout Bay valleys were occupied. Beyond the Steenberg, however, the Peninsula formed a mere grazing ground for the van der Stel cattle. North-east of the Castle, the farms ran out along Diep and Elgee’s Kral rivers to the Koeberg and Tigerberg. To the eastward the Peninsula was bounded by some fifteen miles of shifting sand. The settlement leaped the Cape Flats and began again on...
the other side at Stellenbosch (1679) on Eerste river, and the other streams flowing into the north-east corner of False Bay. The Company's post at de Kools (Koks river) was the half-way house between 'the Cape' and 'the Mountains of Africa.' Subsequent expansion followed the course of the Groote Berg river at French Hork and Drakenstein (1687), Wagenmaker's Valle (1688), and finally the Land of Waveren on the Klein Berg river (1699). The Cape Flats, then, marked off the Peninsula and Stellenbosch sharply and vividly as two distinct centres of politics and sentiment.

The Castle (see inset) was founded in 1666, occupied in 1674, and finished in 1676. The five bastions still bear the titles of the Prince of Orange. The original entrance faced the sea, but in 1692 van der Stel built the present gateway. The central line of buildings was erected in 1691 and the centre of the gateway in 1701. The defences of the Bay were further strengthened by the Chavonnes battery begun in 1713 and finished in 1726.

Small parties of troops were maintained at various posts along the roads to Saldanha Bay and Klampunts. After 1701 they followed the extension of the colony along the Berg river.

The map shows the land grants made between 1685 and 1712. The following list gives the names of the owners to whom title-deeds were issued, the years in which these issues were made, and, where possible, the years in which the farms were first occupied. The Company's posts and cattle runs and the farms of officials and burghers who played a leading part in the political and economic troubles of the time are shown on the map. A few farms, certificates for which were issued after 1712, appear. Many of them, notably in Waveren, were occupied before 1712. They were included in the list given me by the late Mr. Stock, and I have retained them. In the Cape Peninsula some of the earlier grants have been omitted as they have already been shown in Map 4. Other names of Peninsular farms are given in brackets. Farms were occupied more or less on these sites, but I cannot absolutely identify them with the later farms whose names are given.

1. PENINSULA.

| Pa | Schoot-Kloof | J. Pauw | 1670 |
| Pe | Abraham's Kloof | A. Hartog | 1697 |
| Pd | Leuwenwold | | |
| Pe | Leuwenwold | | |
| P | Onze-Peke | H. Schreuder | 1707 |
| Ps | W. ten Damme | D. Swart | 1675 |
| Pz | Zonnebloem | P. Christian | 1707 |
| Pr | Leiblomboem | Had | |
| Ps | Roodebloem | H. Visser | 1692 |
| Pk | Mouns | G. van Oldenb. | 1706 |
| Pt | de Wet | | 1701 |
| Pn | Kruis | J. Puyffer | 1676 |
| Pl | Paradis | W. ten Damme | 1676 |
| Pk | Rijswyk | T. Marquart | 1655 |
| Po | Stellenberg | J. Vogel | 1697 |
| Pw | Vredenburg | M. Michiels | 1692 |
| Pr | Kast-en-Werck | J. Harmsz. | 1692 |
| Pz | Klossansbosh | C. van Lenes | 1675 |
| Ps | W. ten Damme | 1675 |
| Pz | J. van Heldersgen | L. Smeul | 1676 |
| Pk | Wineschoen | S. van der Stel | 1685 |
| Ps | Zwanswyk | M. Michiels | 1681 |
| Py | Harmans Knaal | F. Russouw | 1699 |
| Pz | Kronenburg | J. van Deiden and | 1681 |
| Pk | van der West- | L. Smeul | 1697 |
| Pt | W. Basson | 1673 |

2. TIGERBERG.

| Ta | Willem Meershoek | 1712 |
| Te | Wessel | J. Wessels | 1702 |
| Tz | Diemere-del | H. Hune | 1698 |
| Tl | Revente's Krant | O. Bergh | 1698 |
| Te | Lichtenberg | Children of H. Putter | 1701 |
| Tl | Mosselbank | C. H. Pietersz. | 1698 |
| Tz | Klipwijk | Had | 1704 |
| Tl | Oortman's Post | N. Oortman | 1701 |
| Tz | Berg-en-Dal | G. Heins | 1704 |
| Tz | Goede Oombouting | Children of A. van Brakel | 1701 |
| Tk | Klipper's Krant | H. Muller | 1702 |
| Tl | Rondehoecksvijver | E. van Zonneveld | 1705 |
| Tz | Hooge Berg Valley | O. Cornelis | 1698 |
| Tz | Hoogegelegen | A. van Brakel | 1702 |
| Tz | Bloemendal | N. van der Wijck | 1702 |
| Tp | Het ono Westhof | E. van der West- | 1697 |

3. DE KUILLEN.

| Ka | H. van Loon | 1701 |
| Kb | Kruis Paul | L. Lebe | 1712 |
| Ke | Stellenberg | J. Blesius | 1691 |
| Kd | de Kuijlen | O. Bergh | 1675 |
| Ke | Hazendal | C. Hanevink | 1701 |
| Kg | Botshag | J. J. de Bruyn | 1699 |
| Kg | Goede Houd | A. van der Heiden | 1701 |
| Kh | Saxeberg | J. Sax | 1704 |

4. ROTTEILJER.

| Bz | Weyers | H. Rutgenrouw | 1692 |
| Bb | Droste-Hert | M. Geef | 1704 |
| Bc | Spanje | C. Eeresteijn | 1704 |
| Bd | Elzenberg | S. Elzen | 1699 and 1701 |
| Bp | Droestrop | L. Campert | 1695 |
| Bf | Grootenhof | A. Blaks | 1680 |
| Bg | Kromme Roe | H. P. Meldhui | 1685 |
| Bh | Vreugd | J. A. Bronger | 1680 |
| Bf | Bij de Wijk | H. Elberich | 1694 |
| Bu | Uit de Wijk | D. Coetse | 1699 |

5. HOTTENTOTS-HOLLAND.

| Ha | van der Stel | 1699 |
| Hb | Vreugd | W. A. van der Stel | 1700 |
| Hc | Onwerwacht | J. Hartog | 1705 |
| Hd | De Fortuin | A. Dierzen | 1711 |
| He | Lastaite Gift | A. van der Heiden | 1711 |

6. MODDERGAT.

| Ma | A. van Wijck | 1699 |
| Mb | Vreugd | J. B. van der Wijck | 1699 |
| Mc | Bergen Soen | J. van der Driel | 1692 |
| Md | Vogelzang | S. Sars | 1702 |
VI. EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS IN AFRICA AND THE EAST INDIES IN THE LATTER HALF OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

This plate illustrates the rise of the Dutch commercial empire on the mainland of the Portuguese, and the beginnings of Anglo-Dutch rivalry in the East. It thus shows the political and commercial circumstances in which the trading post at the Cape developed into a colony.

On the west coast of Africa Portugal retained her groups of islands and recovered St. Thomé, Princeps, and Angéla from the Dutch (1648). The Dutch West India Company had established itself at Goree (1617-78), Elmina (1637), Axim (1642), and St. Helena (1645-55); the French at St. Louis (1626), Abreda (1678), and Goree (1678); the English at Fort James on the Gambia (1663), Cape Coast Castle (1667), and St. Helena (1655). The Danes occupied three stations on the Gold and Slave coasts, and the Brandenburgers Arguin and a group of small posts round Gross Friederichsburg at Cape Three Points (1685). The last named ultimately passed to the French and the Dutch (1721).

On the south and east coasts of Africa the Dutch East India Company occupied Mauritus (1638) and the Cape (1652). The French appeared in Madagascar at Poulé Point and Fort Dauphin (1642-72) and on the Ile de Bourbon (Mascareñas, 1642). Pirates formed a base at Libertatia, the power of the Portuguese decayed. Swarms of Bantu practically destroyed their hold on the Zambezi valley (1610), the 'Arabs' of Ormuz (1622) and Muscat (1651) recovered their independence and, with the capture of Mombasa by the Sultan of Muscat (1698), the Portuguese were driven south of Cape Delgado.

In India the Portuguese retained Goa and its dependencies on the Malabar coast, Diu, Damaon, and, in China, Macao. The Dutch had a factory at Surat (1617), and had driven the Portuguese from the southern Malabar coast (1653-62) and Ceylon (1658-58). They had also planted themselves on the Coromandel coast at Pulicat (1616) and at the mouth of the Ganges at Chinsura. The French were at Mahé, Pondicherry (1674), and Chandernagore (1676); the Danes at Tranquebar; the English at Surat (1612), Bombay (1661), Fort St. George (Madras) (1640), and on the Hooghly (1654), and at Fort William (Calcutta) (1690).

The Dutch were without much question masters of the far eastern seas. Between 1605-21 they had secured Macassar, A chin, Ceram, part of Timor, Ambon, Banda, and the Moluccas (Ternate and Tidor). Since 1619 their eastern capital had been at Batavia in Java, where four sea-lanes met, one running down between Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula; another from Siam, China, and Japan between Borneo and the mainland; a third up from the Spice Islands past the Celebes, Borneo, and Java; the last between Java and Sumatra. Malacca alone was better suited to secure all these roads, and thus the Dutch took in 1641.

The English lost their footing at Ambon in 1623, but retained it at Bantam (Java) till 1684, when they removed to Bencoolen (Sumatra). Beyond Malacca, however, the Dutch had a post in Siam and another at Firando in Japan as early as 1613. They held Formosa from 1623-42, and, though driven from Firando and nearly all Formosa by the Japanese and Chinese, they clung to their posts at Desima and Fort Zeelandia.

Between 1605-43 Dutch sailors had repeatedly visited the barren northern and western shores of Australia. Tasman discovered Van Diemen's Land, North Island (New Zealand), Tonga, and Fiji, and narrowly missed the more hospitable eastern shores of the 'Southland' (1643-4). Dampier's experience was much the same (1699).
VII. CAPE COLONY, 1652-1806

The way for the dispersion of the eighteenth century was prepared by the explorers of the seventeenth. Attempts to find ‘St. Helena Nova’ (1660) and ‘Dina’ and ‘Marseven’ (1699) failed for the best of all reasons; two voyages northward from Table Bay showed that the coast as far as Portuguese territory was ill-supplied with harbours and backed by utter desolation (1669 and 1677). Eastward attempts to seize Mozambique (1662) and St. Augustine’s (1663) failed, but Cruse landed at Mossel Bay (1668), his shipmates found St. Francis Bay, the coasts of Zululand were explored (1677), Simon van der Stel himself reached Simon’s Bay by sea (1682), the Nood voyaged to Delagoa Bay (1688-9), the mouth of the Kei was reached (1687-8), and finally Port Natal was purchased from the natives (1689). The vessel carrying the deed of sale was lost on the way back on Klippen Point, but the survivors found their way home overland to the Cape. A subsequent attempt to ratify the purchase failed (1705-6), a few years later Mauritius was abandoned (1710), and, apart from a spasmodic attempt to hold Delagoa Bay (1721-30), the Company gave up its plans for extending its hold on the south-eastern coast by way of the sea.

Exploration of the interior took place in two main stages. Between 1655-67 twelve journeys were made northward in search of Monomotapa, the fabled city of Vigiti Magna and the River Cummissa (see Map 6). Beyond the Olifants the travellers found nothing but sand, Bushmen, and Namaquas. Eastwards, however, Cruse crossed the Hottentots-Holland mountains and reached the Gouritz (1667).

Simon van der Stel renewed these efforts in both directions. Drought forced three parties to fall back after crossing the Olifants (1682-4), but next year Simon himself reached the Koperberg (Ookiep) and found wealth in a desert (1685-6). To the east, Schrijver marched to the site of the present town of Oudtshoorn, crossed the Zwartbergen and reached the kraals of the Inquas, probably in the present district of Prince Albert (1689). Finally a party of European cattle-raisers from Stellenbosch came in contact with the Xosa in the Great Fish river.

As early as 1700 the farmers of the Paal, Drakenstein, and Waveren began to drive their cattle over the mountains on to the Little Karoo. Throughout the Colony the mountains are high and steep on the seaward side, but are traversed by many passes, and once the summit of the neck is crossed, the slope on the landward side is short and easy. The rivers, though useless as means of communication, are not serious barriers, and give the necessary supply of water. The plains between the mountain ranges can be crossed in all directions in the ox-drawn trek-wagons. Game was plentiful in those days. The wants of the farmers were few, and as there was no export trade, they had no need to consider means of communication with the coast. The Diaspora continued for nearly three generations before a check was put upon its eastward course by contact with the Kaffirs on the Great Fish river. Geographical conditions and lack of inducement alone set a limit to the northward movement. The Orange river was not crossed till 1760, and it was not until 1779 that Gordon gave it its present name.\(^2\)

The map shows the stages in which the Colony was occupied. At the end of the first fifty years (1700), Europeans had occupied a rectangle between the Cape and the mountains some fifty miles each way (see Map 5). Half a century later farms were dotted along 100 miles of coast northwards from the Castle to the mouth of the Olifants, and some 200 miles eastward to Mossel Bay and beyond.\(^2\) Cattle farmers were already driving their herds on to the Great Karoo and across the confines of the present Calvinia and Namaqualand (1750). Within the next fifty years farms had been built beyond the Hottentotsberg (200 miles to the north-east of the Castle), beyond the Swellendambergen (390 miles), along the Great Fish river, and finally beyond it in the Tarka district (490 miles) (1795).

The most rapid stage of the dispersion was the third. The existence of the Great Karoo helps to explain it. The old name of Droogveld tells why the farmers skirted the Karoo. A thin line of farms to the north of the plains connected the western districts with the eastern frontier by way of the Ghoup and Camdebo. Another line ran down the Breede valley and the Lange Kloof to the mouth of Sunday river. The situation of the drostdies tells the same tale. Three of them were in the south-west corner of the colony; the others, Graaff Reinet and Uitenhage, were near the eastern frontier. What the Cape Flats had been to the social and political development of the Colony in the early days, the Karoo was in the later. When the Company’s power collapsed at the Cape, the republics of Swellendam and Graaff Reinet were in rebellion, and, a generation later, the vast majority of the Trekkers were drawn from the eastern districts.\(^1\)

Another proof of the rapidity of the dispersion was the extreme thinness of the population. In 1708 there were some 1,700 free men, women, and children; in 1756, just over 5,000; in 1810, somewhat more than 30,000, scattered over 100,000 square miles of territory.\(^2\)

The map shows the boundaries of the districts as they were from 1745. Up to that time Stellenbosch had included the whole colony outside the long, thin district of the Cape which lay along the track from Simon’s to Saldanha Bay. The northward extension of Stellenbosch along the Berg river valley and the road leading thence to Piqueniers Kloof to the lower Olifants was natural enough. It is not so easy to understand why the jurisdiction of Stellenbosch was allowed to exist to the south-east of the Hottentots-Holland and Drakenstein mountains after the separate district of Swellendam had been established (1745).

In 1769 the line between Stellenbosch and Swellendam was drawn along the Zwartbergen,
and in 1770 the eastern frontier was fixed along the Bruintjes Hoogte and the Riet and Gamtoos rivers. It was extended in 1775 to the Bushman's and upper Fish rivers; in 1778 van Plettenberg marked the north-eastern corner of the Colony; in 1780 the line was carried up to the lower Fish river. The limits of the new district of Graaff Reinet included the farms along the Tarka (1786).

The northern boundary was never fixed by the Company in the eighteenth century. The British fixed both boundaries in 1798 along the Fish, the Kagagaberg, Bamboosberg to Plettenberg's Beacon; thence to the Tafel Berg, the Riet river, and the mountains to the mouth of the Buffels river. In 1805 Jansen extended the northern line to the Zak river and the Koperberg.2

The district of Graaff Reinet at first included the area lying beyond the Gamka and the eastern outlet of the cattle road through the Lange Kloof. The drewdy was placed roughly half-way between Plettenberg's Beacon and the sea, at the point where the line of farms running through the Ghomp and the Candebo met the upper waters of the Sunday river. The Company's system of posts was extended down the Zonderend valley at the Zickenhuis (1726), the lower Breede river at Riet Vallei (Buffeljags river, 1734), and along the coast to Zwart river in Outeniqualand (1777) and Plettenberg's Bay (1788). These posts were broken up in 1791. None were ever established in Graaff Reinet.

Until 1783 the only churches in the Colony were at Cape Town, Stellenbosch, and Drakenstein. A church was then built at Roodezand (Tulbagh), where the roads from the Oblinants valley, the Bokkeveld, the Roggeveld, and the Breede valley met. Another church was founded at Zwartland (Malmsbury), half-way between Roodezand and Cape Town (1745). The first church in the eastern districts was built at Graaff Reinet (1792). Another was soon built at Uitenhage after that village became the seat of a drewdy in 1804. In that year new districts of Tulbagh and Uitenhage were carved out of the unwieldy districts of Stellenbosch and Graaff Reinet.5

The map shows the routes taken by van der Stel in 1685;6 by van Plettenberg in 1778;7 by Truter and Somerville to the Batlapan kraals at Lithakao in 1801;8 and by de Mist in 1802-4.9 The latter journey shows clearly the post-roads and the chief areas in which farmers were settled.

The inset shows the extent of exploration and temporary annexations in Great Namaqualand and Damara land in 1793.10


VIII. AFRICA, THE EAST INDIES, AND AUSTRALASIA

CIRCA 1815

During the eighteenth century the race for commercial supremacy in the Indies and therefore in South Africa lay between Great Britain and France. In the course of that cycle of Anglo-French wars which ended in 1815, the Cape was once occupied by the French (1781-3) and twice by the British (1795 and 1806). When the Revolutionary wars broke out the Portuguese held Madeira, the Azores, Cape Verde Islands, the Bissagos, St. Thome, Principe, and a thin strip of coast on either side of St. Paul de Leonado. Their East African possessions had shrunk to a belt of coast from Mozambique to Lourenço Marques, with an extension up the Zambezi to Sena. In India they retained Goa, Diu, and Damao; in China, Macao. The Dutch West India Company still held its posts on the Gold Coast; the East India Company retained the Cape, but had long since abandoned Mauritius to the French. In India the Dutch tended to withdraw from the mainland and to concentrate their interests in Java, Sumatra, and the Spice Islands. The Danes owned one or two posts on the Gold and Slave Coasts, as well as Tranquebar.

Meanwhile France had extended her hold over the Senegal, made one or two tentative moves in the direction of Madagascar, and had occupied Mauritius, Bourbon, Rodriguez, and the Seychelles. In India since 1761 the French posts at Mahé, Pondicherry, and Chandernagore remained unfortified. Great Britain, on the other hand, held Gibraltar (1704), the mouth of the Gambia, Sierra Leone (1787), a number of stations on the Gold and Slave Coasts, and St. Helena.

The inset shows the possessions of the English Company in India at the end of Warren Hastings's governorship (1783), the annexations made up to 1805, and the gradual extension of its control over the native princes by means of the subsidiary treaties.

The main map also shows the extension of British interests beyond India, chiefly as a result of the voyages of Cook (1768-79) and Bass and Flinders (1801-3). In 1788 the first convict station was established at Sydney; in 1815 British claims to half a continent were recognized. During the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars Great Britain seized the colonial possessions of France and her allies. In 1802 and again in 1814-15 most of the French and Dutch possessions were restored,
notably the Île de Bourbon and Senegal. Great Britain, however, retained Mauritius, Rodriguez, and the Seychelles, occupied Ascension (1815), and Tristan d’Acunha (1816). The Dutch recovered Banda in exchange for their Malabar possessions, formally ceded the Cape to Great Britain (1814), and by a later treaty gave up their claims on Malacca and Singapore in exchange for British claims on Bencoolen (1819–24). In 1815 Great Britain held the corners of the vast triangle formed by the Indian Ocean. Mauritius secured one side of it, Singapore another, and in addition Singapore controlled the Straits down which came the China trade. Cape Town was the gate to colonizable South Africa. Behind Sydney lay an open continent. New Zealand was to be had for the taking.

IXA. THE CAPE PENINSULA, 1795-1806

The Cape Peninsula was and is the key which unlocks South Africa to any power which has command of the sea. It is defended on three sides by water and on the fourth by the sandy Cape Flats, which, in 1795 and 1806, before hard roads were driven across them, were a much more serious obstacle than they are now. Before the cutting of the Suez Canal it was also the key which opened the gateway to India from the west. It was for this reason that the British took it rather than see it fall into the hands of the French.1

The map shows the lines taken by the two British invasions. The first in 1795 came by way of Simonstown, since winter storms and batteries combined to make direct attack on Cape Town impossible. The critical point at the ‘uncommonly strong pass at Musenburg’ was forced under cover of the guns of the squadron, two skirmishes ensued at Retreat and the Steenberg, and finally the invaders advanced on the sandy track to a final skirmish at Wynberg Hill.2 Preliminaries were signed at Rustenberg (September 15), and next day the British entered the Castle.3 The frontiersmen of Graaff Reinet held out, however, till the surrender of Lucas’s squadron in Saldanha Bay (August 1796).4

The second invasion came from the north in summer time (January 1806). A difficult landing at Leopard’s Bay (16 miles from Cape Town) saved the British a 60-miles march over desolate roads from Saldanha Bay. The action at Blaauwberg, the rally of the defeated force at Riet Vlei, and the surrender at Papendorp (Woodstock) followed (January 10). Janssens retreated to the Hettenrots-Holland Pass, but British troops seized the Roodezand Pass and Stellenbosch, and prepared to go by sea to Mossel Bay and seize the Attakua’s Kloof in his rear. Janssens thereupon surrendered with the honours of war.5

The map shows the main roads and farms existing at that time, as well as those fortifications of the Peninsula which lie outside the scope of Map 9.6

References.1 Theal, C.C. Records, January 25, 1795. 2 Ibid., August 18, 1795. 3 Ibid., September 16, 1795. 4 Ibid., August 1796. 5 Ibid., 1805–6, Dispatches, January 6 and S. Terms, January 9, Capitulation, January 10; also Hertslet, Map of Africa by Treaty, p. 341, Janssens’ Capitulation, January 18. 6 Theal, Bel. Hist. Dok., 1891, Memoire over de Kaap, een het Gouvernement der Fransche Republiek gepresenteerd, pp. 13-30; Memorie over de Kaap, door Ephratus Bergh, pp. 30-121.

Maps.—See list of maps, pp. 26 infra, notably Nos. 86, 87; and Baird’s Atlas, Maps Nos. 88-99.

IXB. CAPE TOWN, CIRCA 1806

The town was bounded roughly north and south by the modern Waterkant and Longmarket streets, east and west it extended beyond Buitengracht Street, Church Square, and the Grand Parade. The main cross streets were Heerengracht (Adderley) and Keijsergracht (Darling) streets. The chief non-military buildings were the Groote Kerk (1704), the new Hospital (1779), the Lutheran Church (1780), and the Burgher Wachtthuis (1767, now the Michaelis Gallery). The Gardens with their famous avenue occupied the ground they still cover.

The water-supply was ample—in those days. The anchorage was by no means ideal as it lay open to the summer south-easters and the winter north-westers (May–November). From 1742 onwards the Company used Simon’s Bay as their winter anchorage, in spite of the long and costly carriage entailed by the sandy track which for 25 miles did duty as a road to Cape Town.

The defences of the Bay consisted of the Castle, the Chavonnes (Mauritius) Battery (1713), Fort Knokke (1743), and the sea-line of four batteries connecting it to the Castle. The last named was also covered by the Imhoff Battery (1744), and some twenty years later the Nieuw Battery was built at the mouth of Salt River. During the French occupation (1781–3) the intermediary battery beyond Fort Knokke was built, and the French lines run up from Knokke to the slopes of the Devil’s Peak. A parallel line running from the Castle was never finished. Between the Castle and Chavonnes the Rogge Bay and Amsterdam batteries were built, while beyond the Chavonnes again a series of works at Kijk in de Pot (Fort Wynyard), Mouille Point, and Kleine Battery at Three Anchor Bay linked up with two more at Camps Bay, and two on the vital Kloof Nek. Just prior to the first British invasion, two batteries, Boetschaar and Zoutman, were erected at Simonstown, and three more, Gordon, Shuykson, and Kleine Gibraltar, at Hout Bay. The three blockhouses on the slopes of Devil’s Peak date from the first British occupation. Of this elaborate system of
defence the Castle and Fort Knouke still survive with remnants of the Amsterdam Battery, the French Lines, and Baird’s blockhouses. More modern forts occupy the sites of Kijk in de Pot and the Nieuwe (Craig’s) Battery.

REFERENCES.—Brivet en Papieren van J. A. Skycken I (Cape Archives); Percival, Record of the Cape of Good Hope; Thiel, C. C. Records, 1765, for Inventory of Fortifications, Public Buildings, and Company’s estates; ibid., 1806, January 12, Details of Armament.

MAPP.—See List of Maps, pp. 20 infra, notably Nos. 862 (80), 830 (67), and Baird’s Atlas, No. 89.


No. 11 is intended to supplement No. 7 and 10. District boundaries are shown as in 1848 after the formation of Victoria East and of British Kaffiraria. The main roads, mission stations, forts, and frontier posts are shown to illustrate the Kaffir wars. The area settled by the English settlers in 1820-2 is also given. No. 12, based on Knobel’s map, shows the farms of the original parties. No. 10 shows the extension of Cape Colony to the Orange and the Kei, the division into the Western and Eastern Provinces, the growing road system, and the beginning of railway construction. The Free State, Griqua, and Bantu states are shown as they existed in 1860, unless specially marked otherwise. No. 13 shows in detail the extension of colonial jurisdiction over the native territories east of the Kei. No attempt is made to show the multiplication of districts within the Colony. No less than nine new districts and sub-districts were set up between 1809-19, during the period of ‘official’ British occupation.1 There is no need to show the process in detail. Chief towns in the districts are given.

On the eastern frontier, in 1819, a neutral belt of land was set aside to act as a buffer between the Kaffirs and the Colony. This ceded territory lay between the Keiskamma, lower Tyeume, the hills to the west of that stream, the Elandskop, Winterberg, junction of the Bavaisans and Fish river, and the old colonial boundary.2

The erection of a military village at Fredericksburg (1829) temporarily disregarded the neutrality of the ceded territory. The northern line of the Colony was in 1824 carried from the junction of the Zak and Riet rivers to the Prawmb,-, and the intersection of the Orange and longitude 24° 20' E., and along the Orange and Stormberg spruit to the Bambosberg, where it met the frontier of the new district of Somerset (1825) running along the Klash-Smits, Zwart Kei, and Koonap rivers. In 1829 the eastern line was still further advanced to the heights west of the Tyeume, the lower Tyeume, and a line meeting the Kat river below Fort Beaufort.3

D’Urban’s boundary was to have run along the Kei, the White Kei, the Stormberg Mountains, the Kraai, and the Orange (1833-6). As a matter of fact, the colonial frontier was fixed by treaty along the Keiskamma and the Tyeume to the point where the latter touches the hills to the west, thence along those hills and the Kaolberg. The Xosa recovered the land in the ceded territory except the Fingo location at Fort Peddie and the Hottentot settlement at Kat river. For practical purposes the colonial boundary ran along the Fish river and the line of 1829.4

Harry Smith’s proclamations (1847-8) carried the northern boundary of the colony up to the Orange from its mouth to Wilge spruit, thence along the Wittebergen, the Kraai, and the Stormberg mountains to meet the new eastern frontier along the Keiskamma, Tyeume, and Kiplaats rivers.5 The new northern boundary was buttressed by the extension of the Queen’s sovereignty over all inhabitants of the territory between the Orange and the Vaal (1848-54).6 It was not until the annexation of Basutoland in 1871 that the colonial frontiers were carried beyond the Orange. Smith’s eastern frontier was covered by the creation of the separate Crown colony of British Kaffiraria between the new line, the Zwart Kei and the Kei (1847).7 The line of the Tyeume was still further strengthened by the military villages of Januasburg, Woburn, Auckland, and Ely. In 1853 Queens-town was founded,9 the frontier advanced to the White Kei, Tebus placed at Berlin, Potsdam, Briedbach, Frankfort, Stutterheim, &c. (see Map 11). The Bontebok Flats were transferred from British Kaffiraria to the Colony (1854),9 and after the ‘cattle-killing ’ the wrecks of Krels’ Xosas were driven across the Bashee into Bonvanaaland (1858). The country between the Kei and Bashee remained almost empty till 1861, when the Gakekas began to trickle back into it. British Kaffiraria was annexed to the Colony in 1866.10

The gradual annexation of the country between the Kei and the Umhlanuvu was foreshadowed by the appointment of European residents in most of the districts. Engoldal and Griqualand East, with the exception of the Xeste lands in Mount Ayliff, were annexed in 1879; Port St. Johns in 1884; Gakekaland, Tembuland, and Bonvanaaland in 1885; a British protectorate proclaimed over the Pondoland coast in the same year; Mount Ayliff was annexed in 1886; and East and West Pondoland in 1894.11

Natal and the Basuto had at one time been rival claimants for part of these territories. The Pond Oka, recognized by the Cape Government as ruler of all that lay between the Umata and Umzimkulu, the Drakensberg and the sea (1844), had in 1850 ceded to Natal the lands east of the Umthamvuna and a line drawn from its source to the mountains. The cession had never been ratified.
Next Nehemiah Moshesh seized the lands between the Kenira and Umzimzimvubu (1858), from which he was ejected in 1865 by Adam Kok’s Griqua, who had moved into No Man’s Land in 1863. The Cape Government fixed the Natal–Griqualand East frontier as it exists at present, and afterwards increased Kok’s territory by the addition of the land conquered from Nehemiah (1869). Natal solaced herself by annexing the Amkoza lands in the Alfred district (1865–6). Kok’s country, with the addition of Maclear and Mount Fletcher, Qumbu, Tsolo, and Mount Pierre, formed the Griqualand East annexed in 1879.  

The line of European advance was marked out by the missionaries, especially those of the Wesleyan and Glasgow societies. The earlier line of expansion was marked out between 1820–30 by the Glasgow stations at Gwali, Old Lovedale, Pire, and Burnshill; the ultimate extension, during the same decade, by a line of Wesleyan posts stretching from Salem to Old Buntingville, by way of Wesleyville, Mount Coke, Butterworth, Old Morley, and Clarkebury. A few years later the Wesleyans had pushed on beyond the Umzimzimvubu.  

References—C. C. Records, vi. 469; Government Gazette, April 23, 1811; Proclamations, 1810–11, p. 61 (C. Archives); C. C. Records, x, May 27, 1814; Ibid., vi. p. 267; Proclamations, 1810–11, p. 64; Ibid., 1811–14, p. 93; C. C. Records, 1814, p. 62; Government Gazette, October 29, 1819.  


XIV. THE BANTU DEVASTATIONS AND THE GREAT TREK, 1820–48  

The Great Trek of the thirty- and forties is illustrated by the same map as the Bantu devastations of the twenties, for the one was the necessary prelude to the other. When the first Trekkers crossed the drifts of the Orange between Zeebree river and Stormberg spruit they found a large expanse of country which had been swept almost clear of inhabitants by the Matabele and Mantsats. The sides of the area shown on the map were dotted with mission stations, round which the half-breed and broken Bantu clans had rallied. Along the Caledon were the Wesleyans and Paris Evangelicals from Imparani to Bethulie. Behind them lay the growing power of Moshesh’s Basuto round the Paris stations to the east of the Caledon. Along the middle Orange were a line of London Missionary Society stations among the Griqua from Philippolis to Campbell; while the same society had begun to stake out the three side of the square among the Bechuanas tribes on the edge of the Kaalhari. It already had a station at Kuruman. Others soon arose at Mahotsa and Kolobeng. Once the Griqua kraals along the Orange were passed by the Boers no enemy lay to the north save the Matabele at Kapsan and Mosega and the fever of the Lambopo valley. Between the Drakensberg and the Indian Ocean conditions were much the same. The Zulu dwelt between the Tugela and the Mkusi, surrounded by a desert of their own making. Natal in 1836 was empty save for a few clans huddled round the English traders at Port Natal.  

The direct easterly route from the Colony to Natal taken by Uij’s party in 1834 was barred by swarms of Kaffirs and rivers impassable in time of flood. The Trekkers therefore followed in Triegard’s footsteps northward, across the Orange and the grasslands between the Caledon and the sources of the Riet, the Kaffir, and the Modler to the rendezvous at Thaba Nneh. Their roads divided on this side. One by this route across the Vaal, the other over de Bovier’s, Beuzdenhout’s and Olivier’s passes into Natal.  

The map shows the boundaries of the Republic of Natal as fixed along the Tugela and the Umzimzimvubu after the victory at Blood River (1838), and enlarged after Dingaan’s final overthrow (1840) by the creation of Panda’s vassal state between the Tugela, St. Lucia Bay, the Black Umfolosi, the Randberg, and the Drakensberg. British Natal was bounded to the east by the Tugela and Buffalo (Umzinyathi) rivers, with the nominal addition of St. Lucia Bay (1843), and on the east by
the Umzimkulu (1815). The map also shows the territory claimed by the Klip River republicans (1816–17).

Between the Orange and the Zoutpansberg the Republic of Winburg is shown as in 1840, based on the grant made by the Batangamas to Potgieter of the territory between the Vet and the Vaal (1836) and the lands claimed by Potgieter as lawful prize after the flight of Musifikatzi (1827). The district of Potchefstroom (1810) was bounded vaguely by the Vaal, the desert, and Lithaka saltpan, the Zoutpansberg and Rheester Poort. The purchase of land from the Swazis between the Olifants and Crocodile rivers (1816), and the foundation of Leydsdorp, Ohringstad, and Lydenburg (1845–6), soon overstepped these limits to the east. The western line remained a source of difficulty from the days of Livingstone (1845) till the collapse of the republics of Stelhland and Godsen (1885).

The map attempts to emphasize the idea of the essential unity of the whole area occupied by the Trekkers, an idea asserted by the shadowy political connexion of Winburg with Republican Natal, by the constant efforts of the Transvaalers to find an outlet to the sea either at Port Natal, St. Lucia Bay, Delagoa Bay, Kosi Bay, and even, in the early days, at Sufala, and by the inclusion of Uitenhout first with Lydenburg (1858) and then with the South African Republic (1860).

The line of "buffer" native and Griqua treaty states is also shown. D'Urban's treaty fixed Andries Waterboer's southern line from Klieis to Ramlah (1834); Napiers similarly fixed Adam Kok's southern line from Ramath to Bethulie (1843). Meanwhile the Griqua chiefteins had divided their own and their neighbours' property along the famous line from Ramahl to Platherg via David's Graf (1838). Napiers defined Moshesh's boundaries on all sides (1843; see Map 17). Finally, Maitland quite erroneously recognized the Pondo Faku as lord of all that lay between the Umtata and the Umzimkulu, the Drakensberg, and the ocean (1844).


XV and XVI. NATAL, ZULULAND, AND THE NEW REPUBLIC

The local history of Natal has been enacted in a belt of country some 275 miles from east to west, and 175 miles from north to south, lying between the Indian Ocean and the Drakensberg (Quathlamba), the Black Umvulos, and the Umzimvubu. The trend of the hills and the rivers tend to make the natural lines of communication run north and south. Politically Natal has had comparatively little to do with Cape Colony; 160 miles of hills, woods, and rivers and a dense Bantu population lies between it and the Kei. Cape Town is 850 miles distant from Durban, Port Elizabeth is 450 miles. Most of the stirring events in Natal's history have taken place on her eastern frontier, where the Zulu power marched with hers, or in that northern triangle formed by the mountains, the Buffalo, and the Tugela, where she was faced by the northern republicans.

European influence has been brought to bear on Natal from the north and south only. The first white inhabitants came by sea from Cape Town. Chaka's grants of land to the chief of them are shown (see Map 15). The decisive movement came, however, from the north with the arrival of the Trekkers (see Map 14 and the notes on the same). To the Boer Natal was an extension of their settlements north of the mountains, Port Natal a point of contact with nations other than the British. Their villages lay strung out along the north to south road at Weenen, Pietermaritzburg and Congella, near Durban itself (1839).

The British counterstrokes came from the south (1828 and 1842). Natal, much reduced in size, was annexed (1843), and uncerimony over Ponda dropped. The majority of the Boers trekked away across the Drakensberg, or, after a momentary halt on the Klip River (1846–7), across the Buffalo into the newly founded Republic of Utrecht (1848) (see Map 14).

As a buffer between the Republic of Natal and the native tribes upon the Cape frontier the Pondo chief, Faku, had been recognized as ruler of the block of territory shown on maps 14 and 15 (1844). In 1850 he proposed to cede a wedge of it to Natal, but when in 1863 Natal urged her claims they were disregarded. Natal thenupon annexed the district of Alfred (1865–6), while a little later, regardless of geography, she tried to secure the reversion of Basutoland.

The possession of a Hump rising on the upper Bushman River (1873) left Natal free to face the opposing Zulu menace on the east. Cetewayo pressed the Transvaal for a settlement of the disputed territory between the Blood River, Rorke's Drift, and the Pongolo. He finally demanded
all that lay between Blood river and the Drakensberg. The annexation of the Transvaal (1877) made Great Britain and Natal joint heirs of the quarrel with Cetewayo. The Zulu war followed. The largest of the thirteen chieftainships into which Zululand was subsequently divided is shown in Map 15.”

On Cetewayo’s reunification, Transvaalists endeavoured to occupy the bulk of Zululand, including St. Lucia Bay (1883–4). Great Britain annexed St. Lucia Bay (1884) and recognized the modified New Republic (1886), which ultimately annexed the South African Republic (1888). (See Map 18 and notes, pp. 19, 20.) Meanwhile Zululand had been annexed by Great Britain (1887), and ten years later, was, with Tongalanda, handed over to Natal (1897). In 1902 Utrecht, Vryheid and part of Wakkerstroom were added to Natal.

The chief mission stations of the period 1824–75 are shown in Map 15 A; the battles of the Zulu War (1879), the first Boer War (1881), the second Boer War (1899–1902), and the Zulu rebellion (1906) are shown in Map 15 b. The main fighting of the first Boer War was for command of Zululand, from which the Durban railway, which had reached Maritzburg in 1889, was afterwards carried on its way to the Rand (1895). The other main line from Ladysmith had reached Harrismith over Van Reenen’s Pass before 1899. Much of the most sustained fighting of the second Boer War took place for the possession of the roads and railway junction at Ladysmith.


XVI. THE ORANGE FREE STATE, 1846–1900

The district of Winburg formed the northern half of the Free State. In 1852 the Vaal became a state as distinct from a mere district boundary, but it was not until 1857 that the Transvaal abandoned the ‘Winburg claim’ and 1870 that the Klip river as opposed to the Jacka spruit was recognized as the true upper waters of the Vaal. Map 16 illustrates chiefly the much more complicated formation of the southern Free State. Map 17 deals in detail with the fluctuating Basuto frontiers.

From the first the Trekkers found themselves entangled in a maze of Griqua and Bantu states and reserves. Waterboer of Griquatown was in treaty with the Cape Government, and his southern boundary ran from Kheis to Ramah. A private treaty with Adam Kok of Philippolis fixed his eastern line from Ramah to David’s Graf and Platberg (1838). North of Griquatown lay the lands of Cornelis Kok of Campbell. Adam Kok claimed jurisdiction from the Orange to the Modder; in any case he was in treaty with the Cape Government after 1843, and his southern line was fixed from Ramah to the borders of the Batlapin reserve at Bethulie. West of the Caledon lay a string of mission reserves occupied by Bantu or half-breeds at Beersheba, Thaba Nchu, Platberg, Meknatling, Mumenetan, and Imparani. Behind these lay the Basuto groupings round the Paris missions at Thaba Bosigo, Morija, &c. Mosheš’s boundaries were defined by Napier (1843) as running along the Orange to its junction with the Caledon and thence a line some 25 miles west of that river to the territory of Sikonyela, and thence the Caledon to its source.

The arrangements made by the Touwfontein treaty (1845–6) are shown. Adam Kok’s inalienable reserve was bounded by the Orange from Bethulie to Ramah, thence the IS3 line to David’s Graf and back to Bethulie along the Riet river and Kromme Elleboog and Van Zijf’s spruits. Between the Riet and the Modder, Griqua lands were soon sold.

The first comprehensive frontier to the Free State was that proclaimed by Sir Harry Smith (1848). The Queen’s sovereignty was proclaimed over the territories north of the . . . Orange river, including the countries of Mosheš, Moroko, Môlitsane, Sikonyela, Adam Kok, Gert Taaibosch, and other minor Chiefs, so far north as to the Vaal river and east to the Drakensberg. Koranna reserves were staked out round the Berlin mission station at Pniel from the junction of the Vaal and Harts rivers to some ten miles beyond Platberg (1849–50). Smith adjusted the territorial disputes of Mosheš and Sikonyela (1848), and Warden laid down his famous line between Basutoland, the petty native reserves on the Caledon and the Sovereignty proper (1849). (See Map 17.)

The map shows the stages by which most of the native reserves were acquired by the Free State as legatee of the Sovereignty. The Batamings were driven from Coal spruit by the Basuto in 1853, but the remainder of the reserves fell to the Free State either by cession or purchase or conquest, the Koranna reserves round Pniel in 1857 and 1859, the Beersheba reserve in 1858, and the mission station in 1862, Bethulie in 1859, and Adam Kok’s reserve in 1861. The Barolong reserve at Thaba Nchu remained independent till Moroko’s death in 1884. The successful war of 1865–6, the treaties of Imparani and Thaba Bosigo (1866), and their modifications by the second treaty of Aliwal North (1869) gave the Free State the conquered territory (see Map 17). Finally the map may serve to make clear the tangled story of the Griqualand West dispute.
It shows the territories of the Griqua chiefs of Griquatown, Campbell, and Philipps; the Platberg line as fixed for their own ends by Waterboer of Griquatown and Adam Kok of Philipps (1838), the Vetberg line laid down by Adam Kok as arbitrator between the claims of Cornelis Kok and Nicholas Waterboer east of the Vaal (1855), and the district of Albania in which the Free State recognized Waterboer's sovereign rights as distinct from Cornelis's mere proprietary rights to the north of the Vetberg line.

The boundaries claimed by Arnot for Nicholas Waterboer both before and after the discovery of diamonds at Hopetown (1867), Hebron, Klipdrift, and between the Vaal and Harts (1869), and finally by Paarl and Du Toitspan (1870), roughly corresponded to the boundaries of Griqualand West shown on the map. The southern portion of the boundaries fixed by the Kreate Award (1871) is shown because that Award gave Waterboer the Platberg Beacon and the northern boundary which he claimed, and thus it seems to have determined Barkly to annex Griqualand West. Brand had already attempted to annex the Campbell grounds within a line running from Konkoon Drift, south-west of Papkuil through Groothoeftein to Harts river below Tungs and so back along the Vaal (1870). Barkly, however, annexed Griqualand West within the limits laid down by the d'Urban treaty (1834), the Platberg treaty (1838), and the Kreate Award (1871). It became a Crown Colony in 1873, and the claims of the Free State were compromised for by a money payment and a slight modification of the northern end of the Platberg line (1876). Finally, in 1880, Griqualand West was annexed as an integral part of Cape Colony.6


XVII. BASUTOLAND, 1833-71

This map illustrates on the one hand the attempts made by Moshesh to extend his control from the mountains over the fertile plains to the west of the Caledon and between that river and the Orange, and on the other the measure of the Free State's efforts to gain those lands for itself. Moshesh owed his success to his own sagacity, to the impregnable rock-fortress of Thaba Bosigo and the advice of the Paris Evangelical missionaries. All the mission stations shown on these maps belonged to that society with the exception of the Wesleyan stations at Thaba Nchu, Platberg, Impukhani, Imparani, and Mermutsa, the Berlin Society at Bethanie, the Catholics at Roma and Korokoro. Beside the Paris mission there was also an Anglican station at Thaba Bosigo (1865).1

Napier's Basuto frontier along the Orange and 25 miles or so west of the Caledon disregarded the claims of a crowd of native chiefs big and little as well as of the Trekkers (1843). At Tswuoini Moshesh offered the latter a wedge of land between the Orange and the Caledon and a line drawn from Buffels Vlei to Commissie Drift. Smith settled the territorial disputes of Moshesh and Sikonyela as far as land south of the Caledon was concerned (1848), but Southey's attempt to fix the south-western boundary roughly along the present lines was a failure (1848). Warden's settlement of the boundaries of the native reserves and Basutoland is shown in detail (1849). The mission reserves of Beersheba and Hebron were to have been joined to Basutoland by 'nicks' of land, but these were never beaconed off.

The first treaty of Alwal North (1858) left Big Basutoland at its widest. Moshesh had seized the lands of Tsholoshe and Sikonyela and pushed his way far down towards the junction of the Orange and the Caledon. His son Nchennial had even crossed the Drakensberg into No Man's Land (1858), whence he was only ejected by Adam Kok's Griquas in 1865. (See p. 15.)

By the treaty of Imparani (1866), Molopo, Moshesh's son, undertook to hold the land north of the Ptitatsana river and between the Caledon and the Drakensberg as a vassal of the Free State. By the treaty of Thaba Bosigo (1866), Moshesh recognized Fich's annexation (1865) of all Basutoland beyond a line drawn from the Orange to the Caledon passing three miles to the east of Mtsieng (Letsee's new town), the Caledon, and the Ptitatsana.

In 1868, however, Moshesh became a British subject, and by the second treaty of Alwal North
the southern and western borders of Basutoland were fixed as at present from the mouth of Kornet Spruit to the mouth of the Putiatzana (1869). Mosesh died (1870), and his son Molopo, in the district of Leribe, and his vassal Morosi, chief of the Baputi at Quthing, became British subjects. Next year Basutoland was annexed to Cape Colony, and was divided into four districts: Leribe, Thaba Bosigo, Kornet Spruit, and Quthing (1871). Quthing was afterwards extended along the Orange (1877). Since the War of Disarmament, Basutoland has remained under direct imperial control (1884).


Maps.—Kaffir Tribes Bluebook, July 1848. C. 378–384 for boundaries of 1843, 1845-6, 1848, 1849. C. 18.; 1870, Further Dispatches on the recognition of Mosesh...and his Tribes as British subjects, includes map of Basutoland before 1865, Thaba Bosigo Line 1866, Dammas’ claims 1868, and Moroko’s country. Open, Principles of Native Government 1880, for boundary in 1843. Lagden’s Basuto; ii., includes modern map of Basutoland.

XVIII A AND XVIII B. SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC, 1837–1900

The district of Potchefstroom, which was at first part of the Republic of Winburg, included the healthy grass and bushland between the Kaalhari and the mass of mountains which form the eastern portion of the present Transvaal (see Map 14). The earliest settlements were situated in two main groups—one along the Vaal and Magaliesberg range at Potchefstroom (1829), Rustenburg (1824), and Pretoria (1855), the other just south of the Zoutpanberg at Darghestad, Sentuciepoort, and Leydsdorp (1845–6). Lydenburg was founded (1846) on land between the Olifants, Crocodile, and Elands river, purchased from the Swazi. Utrecht, though afterwards included in the Republic, was really an offshoot of Natal (1848).

The Sand River Convention (1852) admitted the fact that it was impossible for a government 800 miles distant as the crow flies to control groups of cattle farmers widely scattered over some 100,000 square miles of territory. The newly independent republic did not take shape as a single state for some years. The south-western burghers accepted the Grondwet of 1856. Those in the Zoutpanberg set up an independent republic, claiming all between the Limpopo, the Waterberg, and the Olifants river. In 1858 they gave in their allegiance, and Pretoria became the seat of government (1860). Lydenburg, however, claimed independent jurisdiction within the frontiers along the Olifants, a line to the south end of the Waterberg, the Elands river to its source, a line to the high ground at the sources of the Olifants and thence straight to the Vaal. Its south-eastern boundary marched with Panda’s country, and included the strip along the Pongolo ceded to Lydenburg by the Swazi (1855). In 1858 the Republic of Utrecht joined Lydenburg, whose south-eastern frontier now ran along the Buffalo, the Blood river and the hunting path to the Pongolo, acknowledged by Panda as the boundaries of Utrecht. In 1860 the enlarged Republic of Lydenburg accepted the Grondwet, and thus the South African Republic fairly took shape.

The Sand River Convention had fixed the southern boundary along the Vaal. Tsotsie fly and fever at that time automatically fixed the northern limit. The map attempts to show how the expansive element gripped between these two barriers sought an outlet to the east and west.

Failing Port Natal and St. Lucia Bay (1843) the Transvaalers concentrated on Delagoa Bay. Pretorius claimed both banks of the Pongolo and the Maputa to the sea (1868), but this merely led to the fixing of the Transvaal-Portuguese frontier for the most part along the natural boundary of the Lebombo mountains by way of the lower Komati Poort, Pokoenskop, Sierra di Cheuendo, and the mouth of the Pafuri (1860). The district of New Scotland recalls McCorkindale’s scheme for communicating with Delagoa Bay (1867). Burger’s proposed railway fared no better, but the MacMalton Award (1875) gave Portugal all north of the line 26° 30’ S. latitude from the sea to the Maputa, and thence along the Lebombo mountains, the Umbelosi, and the Espirito Santo to the sea again. Great Britain secured the right of pre-emption, but the Boers secured a neutral port as soon as they could reach it. The Anglo-Portuguese Convention of 1891 advanced the Portuguese frontier to a meridian drawn from the sea to the confluence of the Pongolo and Maputa.

The map shows the area north of the line from Rorke’s Drift to the Pongolo ceded by Panda (1861) and reclaimed by Cetewayo; the scene of the war against Seccocoeni’s Bapedi in the Lulu mountains, and the battles of the Boer War of 1881. The Convention of Pretoria (1881) and of London (1884) fixed the boundaries of the Republic in detail as shown. The varying fortunes of the New Republic are also shown. Transvaalers proclaimed the New Republic as including most of Zululand and St. Lucia Bay (1884). In that year there appeared at the bay representatives of the German firm whose trading post at Angra Pequena (Luderitzbucht) had developed into the German protectorate over South-West Africa (1884). German agents had also appeared in Pondoland. Great Britain’s reply was to annex both Port St. Johns (see Map 13) and St. Lucia Bay (1884).
HISTORICAL C.

Annexed Bluebooks Bluebooks 186S, Alleged C. the C. O'Reilly Bluebook Pretorius's 1886, 1888, 104, Journeys, Merensky, Bastaardland, Anglo-German correspondence S.E. boundary the p. Hertslet, efforts while Ibid. as 1887-90 the Transvaal-Portuguese line was fixed along the eastern edge of the Lebombo plateau as at present.

On the western side Potgieter had in 1840 claimed a vague line from Lithakao saltpan along the edge of the Kalahari. In 1844 Potchefstroom claimed a western line cutting the Orange at the Aughrabies Falls. At the Sand River Conference (1852) the Atlantic was suggested as the western boundary. The real question was whether the Republic was to control the trade-routes moving northwards to the west of Harts river. The old western road via Kuruman, heavy with sand and ill-supplied with water, went out of use soon after 1850. The central road ran from Taungs through Coing and Pitsani on the Molopo. The eastern road ran from Taungs to Kunwana and thence either to Seluba, Mafeking, and the north, or to Zeerust in Republic territory. Mauch's discovery of gold at Tati (1867) decided Pretorius to claim a northern and western line running up the Shashani to the Uwani, along the Zanga to Lake Ngami, south to the nearest point of the Langleben and north to the Common Border. Almost this line, as cited above, was annexed (1868-9). The Brownsville, 1885, Hertslet, Map of Africa, both sides of the lower Vaal complicated matters. The border tribes claimed a boundary along Transvaal Spruit and the Vaal; O'Reilly on behalf of the Transvaal laid down a line from Seloko's Kop southward along the Harts. [The Harts boundary is also claimed in Jeppe's map (1868).] Keate's Award at Bloemhof (1871) fixed the boundary from Ramathlabana, between the sources of the Molopo and Klein Marico, down Makwassi Spruit and the Vaal to Platberg. The southern extension of this area affected the Free State but not the South African Republic (see Map 16).

The first real settlement of the western boundary was made by the Pretoria Convention (1881). Almost immediately free lances from the Transvaal proclaimed the Republics of Stellaland and Goshen (1883). The Transvaal meanwhile was urging its claims to a frontier along the central road as far as Coing. The Convention of London (1884) so far modified the frontier of the republic as to bring it right up to the eastern road and across it at the road junction of Kunwana. Seven months later Krigger annexed Goshen, including the crossing of the central road over the Molopo. Meanwhile the Germans had proclaimed their South-West African protectorate and begun to plan a railway across the Kalahari from Luderitzbucht to Swakopmund (1884; see Map 24). The result of Rhodes's efforts and Warren's expedition was that those portions of Stellaland and Goshen which lay beyond the 1884 line were annexed as part of British Bechuanaland, and a British protectorate was proclaimed north of the Molopo (1885). With the abandonment of the Banyandel trek to the north (1891) the last effort of the Transvaalkers to overthrow their boundaries came to an end (see Map 19c).


XIX A AND XIX B. POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF SOUTH AFRICA
IN 1858 AND 1874

These outline maps illustrate the attempts to federate South Africa made by Sir George Grey and Lord Carnarvon.

(a) Grey held that none of the European states was strong enough to stand by itself in face of the natives. He held that it was impossible to federate Cape Colony, British Kaffraria, and Natal unless the Orange Free State came in as well to provide a connecting link between Natal and the Colony. The relations of the Free State with Basutoland were the crux of the matter. Basutoland was thrust like a wedge into the heart of the Free State, while the base of that wedge rested on independent Kaffraria. In case of a Basuto war with the Free State, Moshesh would stir up the Kaffirs against the Colony, so as to prevent the colonists helping the Free Staters.

Under a federal system, the division of the eastern and western provinces of the Cape Colony, for which many easterners were pressing, could be carried out; British Kaffraria, too small to stand by itself as a separate colony, could be relieved of its financial burdens; while Natal, wedged in between Kaffraria and Zululand, would know that she was supported by the Free State and the Colony.

A scheme for the union of all the Boer Republics was meanwhile being urged by Pretorius. In 1858 the Republic of Zoutpansberg joined the South African Republic, while Utrecht joined the rival state of Lydenburg. Attempts to secure the adhesion of the Free State failed, but in 1860 Lydenburg-Utrecht joined the South African Republic.

(b) Carnarvon in 1874 revived the idea of federation. Federation was in the air in the sixties and seventies. Cape Colony had annexed Basutoland (1871) and, with independent Kaffirs on her own frontiers, had no intention of sharing Natal's financial and native difficulties. On the other hand, the division of the eastern and western provinces still appealed to many. This could be done under federation. Natal was dissatisfied with Crown Colony government, but was obviously unfit for responsible government so long as she stood by herself. The Zulu menace was reviving on her eastern border. In the Free State, President Brand was in favour of federation, but many of his burghers were indignant at British interference in Basutoland (1866-71) and at the British annexation of Griqualand West (1871). Presidentburgers of the South African Republic were an 'ardent federalist', but here again many of the burghers, though satisfied with Keate's decision in the Klip River dispute (1870, see Map 16), were indignant at his Bloemhof Award (1871) which gave the Republic an unfavourable western boundary. They were also suspicious of the dealings of some of the Natal politicians with the Zulus.

Shepstone's attempt to precipitate a decision by annexing the Transvaal (1877) led to fatal results. Brand's prophecy that South Africa would be federated by its railways remained to be fulfilled. The beginnings of railway extension as in 1874 are shown (see also Map 21).

REFERENCES.—(a) Grey's scheme: see Notes on Maps 19, 15, 16, 17, and 18; also Lydiard's First Anunciation of the Treatyans; 'Correspondence between the Colonial Office and Sir G. Grey' (Return to House of Commons 216, April 1860); 'Further Papers' (Ibid, June 1860); Cape Bluebook; Correspondence . . . on the Affairs of the C.C., Natal, and Adjacent Territories, 1855-7; ' Further papers relating to the Kaffir Tribes,' C.C. 2532 of 1867.


XIXC AND XX. SOUTHERN RHODESIA, 1890-6, AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR, 1899-1902

The third attempt to federate South Africa was made by Rhodes. These maps, which illustrate his policy, should be read side by side with Maps 22 and 24, just as purely South African history since 1880 should be read in connexion with that scramble for the economic control of Africa which set in with the formation of the Congo Free State.

Since 1874 Cape Colony had taken over Griqualand West (1880), Walfisch Bay (1884) and all Kaffraria (1879-94). The Imperial Government had resumed control of Basutoland (1884), annexed St. Lucia Bay (1884) and Zululand (1887) on the east, and on the west had annexed British BechuanaLand as far as the Molopo and had extended a protectorate over the remainder of that territory (1885). A barrier was thus placed between the German protectorate on the west coast and the Transvaal. The Free State's borders had remained unchanged since 1876, while the South African Republic, whose frontiers had been fixed in 1881-4, had recently absorbed the New Republic (1888). Southern Rhodesia was intended to form part of an African economic bloc open to British enterprise, especially to the enterprise of the British South Africa Company. Through this bloc were to run the Cape to Cairo railway and telegraph. The Company forestalled the Portuguese in Mashonaland in 1890. It failed to secure Beira or the mouth of the Limpopo, but it did secure
the goldfields of Manica (1891). A war successfully pressed against the Matabele (1893) gave it full political control of all Southern Rhodesia (1894).

Rhodes also hoped that the immense goldmines which were to be discovered would make Rhodesia 'the dominant north'. Economic pressure from Cape Colony in the south and the new state in the north would bring the South African Republic into a customs and railway union, the necessary prelude to political federation.

The Rand was the really dominant factor economically. The railway and customs policy of the Republican Government and the Netherlands Railway Company, which held the railway monopoly and largely controlled the customs in the Transvaal, alienated the Cape and Free State. The line from Delagoa Bay reached Johannesburg in 1893, thus competing with the line from Port Elizabeth through the Free State which had been completed in 1892; while the Natal line also came in during 1895. Meanwhile the Cape Town line had reached Mafeking (1894).

In 1895 Cape Colony annexed British Bechuanaland. The Transvaal, though it had failed to get a railway through to Kosi Bay, annexed Swaziland. Rhodes for some years past had endeavoured to buy or lease Delagoa Bay. His attempt failed definitely in July 1894. Kruger refused to join any railway or customs union. In September and October 1895 Kruger's threatened closing of the Drifts over the Vaal gave the Cape and Imperial governments a legitimate cause for war, which they quietly prepared to use. Kruger gave way on November 5. Use was then made of the Uitlanders on the Rand. A successful issue to the Rand would have cleared the way for the customs and railway union. The line from Mafeking could also have been taken to Bulawayo along the 'line of life' through Johannesburg and Pietersburg.

Maps 19c and 21a show how railways were drawing South Africa together for business purposes round the Rand as a centre. The struggle for the control of the Rand, embittered by the suspicion, the memory of old quarrels and the racialism revived by the unlucky Raid, led directly to the war of 1899.

Map 19c illustrates the Matabele War (1893), the Raid (1896) and the Matabele-Mashona rebellions (1896-7). Railways are shown as they were at the end of 1895.

Map 20 shows the principal engagements of the South African War (1899-1902). The inset shows the scene of the operations on the western borders of the Republics, 1899-1900. The fighting in northern Natal is shown in Map 15 b.


XXI A and XXIB. EUROPEAN AND NATIVE POPULATIONS AND RAILWAYS AT THE TIME OF THE UNION, 1910-11

European population was close only around the seaports, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, East London and Durban, and the mining centres at Kimberley and the Rand. The next heaviest population was borne by the wine, fruit and ostrich-farming districts of the southern and southwestern Cape Province; the central Free State and the rich lands along the Caledon; and the central and southern Transvaal, well-watered, well-supplied with railways, and provided with a great local market on the Rand (Census Returns U. G. 32, 1912, table xv).

The distribution of the non-European population was somewhat different. Population was densest round the ports and mining centres, but the population was also heavy along a belt of territory stretching from near Algoa Bay to the Zoutpansberg inland as far as Bloemfontein and Pretoria. East of the Kei as far as Maritzburg and again from the Tugela to the Komati river, the native population was so numerous as to preclude any close European settlement. Basutoland and Swaziland were native reserves under imperial control, and contained a mere handful of white men (U. G. 32, 1912, table xv).

Bantu formed less than 10 per cent. of the non-European population in the districts south of the Orange and west of a line drawn from Mossel Bay to the point where the western border of Griqualand West touches the Orange. Most of the non-Europeans in this area were Hottentots, Cape Coloured (Mestizos) and Malays. The last named lived for the most part in the Cape Peninsula. The vast majority of the Indians lived in Natal. The numbers of Chinese and Japanese in the Union were trifling.

The following table shows the strength of the three main classes of the population—European, Mixed, and Bantu—at the date of each of the four attempts to federate or unite South Africa. The figures are taken from the Cape Statistical Registers, Union Census Reports, and British South Africa Company Annual Reports:
HISTORICAL ATLAS OF SOUTH AFRICA

23

Cape Colony. European 1854. 1875. 1891. 1911.
Mixed 140,000 236,788 376,987 582,377
Bantu 210,000 (196,382 312,101 402,019
287,639 383,136* 1,519,939

Natal E. 1891. 17,500 46,788 98,114
[and Zululand.] M. Indians 677,125 (142,531
25,000 1953,398 300,000 ) 1,933,289

Transvaal. E. 23,000 (?) 40,000 (?) 119,128 426,562
M. 25,000 50,000 175,189 45,905
B. 87,500 235,124 1,219,454

O. P. S. E. 29,000 (?) 61,022 77,716 175,189
M. 129,787 27,161
B. (325,524

Basutoland. E. 127,000 578 1,390
B. infections 218,624 463,117

S. Rhodesia. E. 5000 (1895) 23,606
B. 450,000 (?) 474,471

SW. Africa. E. 21,625 11,890
M. 1,263
B. 7,500 290,000

Union of E. 1,276,242
S. Africa. M. 678,146
B. 4,019,006

* Bantu total increased by annexations since 1875.

Nearly 80 per cent. of the European population—that is, two-thirds of the urban and fifteen-sixteenths of the rural population—were South African born. Of the 255,000 Europeans who had been born outside the Union, half had been in South Africa for more than ten years. Immigration had therefore not been great of late years (O. G. 41, 1916, pp. 100-1). The majority of European immigrants went to the Transvaal. In 1911 the Union contained 46,900 Jews, mostly Russians and Germans; 23 per cent. of these were in the Cape Province, most of the remainder in the Transvaal. Between 1904-11 the number of Jews in the Transvaal increased 67 per cent., and decreased in the Cape 14 per cent.

The races grouped together as mixed were distributed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>1881</th>
<th>1891</th>
<th>1901</th>
<th>1911</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bushmen</td>
<td>9,965</td>
<td>4,063</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hottentots</td>
<td>38,074</td>
<td>27,604</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koranna</td>
<td>9,160</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namaqua</td>
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<td>70</td>
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<td>Mozambique</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indians</td>
<td>149,791</td>
<td>6,696</td>
<td>133,031</td>
<td>10,048</td>
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<td>Japanese</td>
<td>38</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1,905</td>
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| (ii) Railways. South Africa has practically no internal waterways. It is therefore peculiarly dependent on its railways. Even if any of the earlier schemes of federation had succeeded on paper, it is difficult to see how they could have maintained in fact, South African roads being what they were and means of transport being limited to the ox-wagon's twenty miles per day. As it was, Brand's prophecy came true, and South Africa was 'federated by its railways'!

Most of the existing railways are government lines (3 ft. 6 in. gauge). The earliest systems were privately owned, viz. the Durban—Point line (1860), Cape Town—Stellenbosch—Wellington (1859-63), and Cape Town—Wynberg (1864). These were standard English gauge lines (4 ft. 8½ in.). The Port Nolloth—Ookiep line (1869) was, however, narrow gauge. Then came a long pause, broken only by the opening of the Diamond Fields (1869-70). The newly constituted responsible government of the Cape took the railways in hand as a matter of public concern. The table at the end of this shows the stages in which the existing lines south of the Zambesi were constructed.

Three main lines from the Cape ports headed directly for the Orange south of Kimberley. In 1885 the Cape Town line had reached Kimberley; two years previously the Port Elizabeth line was at Rosmead, the East London line at Molteno, just south of Stormberg. Lateral means of communication were neglected; perhaps in the then state of Cape politics they were not desired. To this day the railways down the Breede valley from Worcester to Mossel Bay and from Steerstroom to Indwe are privately owned.

With the opening of the Rand goldfields, the main lines began to head for the new El Dorado. The Cape Town line branched off at De Aar to meet the Port Elizabeth line at Naasvumpoort and to cross the Orange at Norval's Pont (1890). Thence by arrangement it went across Free State territory through Bloemfontein to Viljoen's Drift and Johannesburg (1892). In the same year the East London line was linked up with the main system by a line from Stormberg to Rosmead.
Meanwhile the Durban railway had reached Maritzburg (1880) and been carried over Laing's Nek to Johannesburg (1895). Worse still from the Cape point of view, the Netherlands Railway linked up Delagoa Bay with Pretoria and Johannesburg (1894–5). The Netherlands Company was really master of the situation at the railway conferences which preceded the war of 1899. During that war Milner unified the Transvaal and Orange Free State lines. Ultimately the Inter-Colonial Railway conference of 1908 led to the union of all four provinces and their railway systems in 1910.

The Cape Town–Kimberley line had meanwhile gone on steadily to Vryburg (1890), Bulawayo (1897), Victoria Falls (1904), Broken Hill (1906), Sakania (1909), and Elizabethville (1910) (see Map 25). The Fourteen Streams–Klerksdorp line (1906) at last put Kimberley in direct touch with the Rand, Bloemfontein was connected with Durban via Harrismith (1906), while the Salisbury–Beira line (1899) was linked up with the Cape system at Bulawayo (1902).

The South-West African system began with a scheme for a line from Swakopmund to the Transvaal (1884). It did not reach Windhuk till 1902. The other sections were Lüderitzbucht to Keetmanshoop (1908) and Keetmanshoop–Windhuk (1912). At the beginning of the late war the extension Seeheim–Warmbad had reached Kalkfontein. During the campaign (1914–15) the Union carried a line at a great speed from Prieska to Kalkfontein via Upington. The railway from Swakopmund to Tsameb and Grootfontein joins the main line to Windhuk by a cross line from Karibib. There is also a short line from Lüderitzbucht to Bogenfels which serves the diamond diggings.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Date of Completion</th>
<th>Cape Town</th>
<th>Port Elizabeth</th>
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This map illustrates European and especially British expansion in the southern half of Africa during the past half-century. Cape Colony and Natal are shown as they were in 1865-6 just after the annexation of British Kaffraria and Alfred respectively. Portugal's possessions are shown on the west coast from Ambiriz to Cape Frio, with an isolated claim at Kabinda; on the east coast from Cape Delgado to the north shores of Delagoa Bay and up the Zambezi to Tete. France held Gaboon and the mouth of the Ogove (1842-62) on the west coast; Réunion (1814), Sainte-Marie (1818), Nossi Bé and Mayotte (1840); see inset. In 1861 the Sultanate of Zanzibar had become independent of Muscat. The claims of the Sultan extended over portions of the interior, but his dominions are shown only as recognized in 1886.

The dates of annexation by the respective European and South African powers concerned are shown, as well as the years in which the various boundaries were fixed. The main lines of railway are given as in 1918 on Map 25.

The core of the map is formed by the routes of Livingstone (1849-73) and Stanley (1871-80). It is along the roads trodden by these pathfinders that European influence has extended from the Molopo to the sources of the Nile, from the mouth of the Congo to Zanzibar. The extension of Cape Colony, Natal, Orange Free State, the Transvaal, and the adjacent territories have been already dealt with in detail. Most of the annexations as far as Cape Colony and Natal were concerned were made in the first case by Great Britain, e.g. Guano Islands (1861-6), Walvisch Bay (1878), Griqualand West (1871), British Bechuanaland (1883), including the area west of the Molopo (1890), Bechuanaland Protectorate (1885), Basutoland (1868), Port St. John's and St. Lucia Bay (1884), Zululand (1887), Tongaland (1895). Most of these territories soon went either to Cape Colony or to Natal, e.g. Walvisch Bay (1884), British Bechuanaland (1895), Griqualand West (1880), Basutoland (1871-84), Zululand and Tongaland (1897). The area between the Kei and the western borders of Natal was gradually annexed and handed over to Cape Colony between 1879-94.

The attempts of the South African Republic to expand westwards are shown better on this map than was possible on Map 18A, i.e. Pretorius's line (1868), and the Republics of Stellaland and Goshen (1883-5). The Orange Free State and South African Republic were themselves annexed in 1900. North of the Limpopo the British South Africa Company had already occupied Southern Rhodesia (1880-3) and had extended their operations north of the Zambezi (1891). The eastern boundaries of the new territory as well as those of Nyassaland (1890) were adjusted by the Anglo-Portuguese Convention of 1891; the northern by conventions with Germany (1890) and the Congo Free State (1894); the western provisionally by the Anglo-Portuguese Conventions of 1891-3. The course of the final boundary between Portuguese West Africa and Northern Rhodesia was in process of being beaconed off when the late war broke out (1914). The growth of German South-West Africa is shown. First the protectorate on the coast from the mouth of the Orange to Cape Frio (1884) and the eastern line as laid down roughly in the same year; then the German-Portuguese line of 1886; finally the extension of that eastern line and the creation of the Caprivi Zipfel by the Anglo-German Convention of 1890. After the occupation of South-West Africa by Union troops (1914-15) a British Protectorate was extended over that country. The Union now holds the Protectorate under a mandate (1919).

Some attempt has been made to show the tangled development of German East Africa. The Sultan of Zanzibar's dominions are shown as they were recognized in 1886, but no more could be done than indicate the years in which the various portions of the German frontier were fixed; on the south (1886-90) and Tungi Bay in 1894; on the south-west and west (1890), the north (1886-90-93). Part of the British East African territories (1888), Uganda Protectorate (1894) and Zanzibar (1896) are also shown. (See detailed map of German East Africa, Map 23). The conventional basin of the Congo and the southern limits of the Free Trade area are shown as fixed by the Berlin Conference (1885), as well as the southern limit of the non-importation of spirits and fire-arms area determined at the Brussels Conference (1890). The conventional basin of the Congo was much reduced in practice, as the lines recognized by France and Germany respectively show (1885). The Congo-Portuguese Conventions (1885-91-94) disregarded it to the south: the Anglo-Belgian arrangement of 1894 adhered to it to a certain extent, but modified it profoundly to the west of Lakes Mweru and Bangweelo, as did the German Convention of 1890. The Anglo-Congo treaty of 1894 fixed the present boundaries to the west of Lakes Albert and Albert Edward, though the cession to Great Britain of a strip of land connecting Tanganyika and the northern lakes was withdrawn (1894).

The boundaries of the territories to the north-west of the Lower Congo were fixed by the following treaties: Franco-Portuguese (1886) and Congo-Portuguese (1891); Franco-Congo (1883-7) and Franco-German (1911). The inset shows the growing grip of France on Madagascar and the neighbouring islands—Réunion (1814), Île Sainte-Marie (1818), Nossi Bé and Mayotte (1840), Diego Suarez (1885), the
recognition of the French Protectorate (1890), and the annexation of Madagascar by France (1894-6).  


Maps. — See Index to Hertelten, Atlas of Africa by Twenty: Scott Keltie, Partition of Africa (1895), includes maps of Africa: (i) before the Berlin Conference, 1884; (ii) after the Berlin Conference, 1884; (iii) after the Brussels Conference, 1890; (iv) Political divisions in 1885. For political divisions in 1914, see Bartholomew and Robertson, Historical Atlas of Modern Europe (1914); Petermann, Geog. Mitt., 1890, for G.S.W. Africa, G.E. Africa, and B.E. Africa.

Maps, charts, &c., relating to South Africa:  
1. Mendelssohn, South African Bibliography, Cartography of South Africa, vol. ii (1910), pp. 1095-1113. The list mentions those maps, &c., in the late Mr. Mendelssohn's collection, which is approximately complete. The list is arranged chronologically according to authors, e.g. Rasutlond, Cape Colony, &c.  
2. Paulitschke, Die Afrika-Litteratur, 1890-1910 (Vienna, 1882). In pamphlet form at the S.A. Public Library, Cape Town. Pp. 92-100 deal with South Africa and include references to many maps.  
4. Petermann, Geographische Mitteilungen: Inhalteverzeichnies, vol. 1855-64, pp. 3-4; 1894-75, p. 3; 1875-84, pp. 5-6; 1883-94, pp. 7-9; 1895-1904, pp. 8-9; 1905-14; see volumes published for each of those years. See also vol. 1867, pp. 103-7, for list of maps relating to Cape Colony.

Fourth are reproductions: (a) Nordenskiöld, Fascicule Atlas (translated from the Swedish, Stockholm, 1889), reproduces the most important maps of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. (b) Major, Prince Henry the Navigator (1868), Index, pp. 474-5. (c) Beasley, Henry the Navigator (1868), reproduces 17 maps or portions of maps from Ptolomy's map till 1492. List of maps with references given in the introduction. (d) Scott Keltie, Partition of Africa (1885), reproduces 7 maps from 1154 (1113 to 1710 (Moli).  

The following are the best modern maps of South Africa:  
(i) Cape Colony and the adjacent territories by Surveyor-General of the Cape of Good Hope (4 sections, 1895). Includes all S. Africa as far north as Potchefstrom. Revised edition in course of preparation. Scale 1:62 miles to 1 inch.  
(ii) Sectional maps of Cape Colony, by Surveyor-General of the Cape of Good Hope (1899 onwards; some 300 sheets). Scale 1:57 miles to 1 inch.  
(iii) Natal (Government publication) (4 sheets). Scale 4 miles to 1 inch.  
(iv) Natal (ibid.) (6 sheets). Scale 1 mile to 1 inch.  
(v) Zululand (ibid.) (6 sections). Scale 21 miles to 1 inch.  
(vi) O.F.S. (ibid.) (18 sections) and Basutoland (War Office) (4 sections). Scale 4 miles to 1:014 miles.  
(vii) Transvaal (ibid.) (56 sections) and SWaziland (2 sections). Scale 2:344 miles to 1 inch.  
(viii) German S.W. Africa (ibid.). Scale 20 miles to 1 inch.  
(ix) German East Africa (ibid.). Scale 30 miles to 1 inch.

South Africa south of the Zambezi, by Wood and Ordepill (2 sections, 1906). Scale 20 miles to 1 inch.  
(xi) Sectional maps of Cape Colony, Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal, compiled by the Imperial Field Intelligence Department, Cape Town (1900-2). Various scales.  
(xii) History of the War in South Africa, 1899-1902, by Maj.-Gen. Sir F. Maurice and Staff (1906), contains a map of South Africa south of the Limpopo (30-4 miles to 1 inch) and a considerable number of large scale maps of various parts of the war areas.  
(xiii) *Times* History of the Boer War, 1899-1902, contains a map of South Africa (40 miles to 1 inch), also a number of detailed maps on varying scales.  
(xiv) Bartholomew's Advanced Atlas for S.A. Schools (1905) contains a number of good small scale maps based on the above-mentioned surveys.  
(xvi) Bartholomew, Tourist Map of South Africa (39-4 miles to 1 inch), shows heights of ground and good detail.  

Note on Measurements:

Seventeenth- and eighteenth-century South African maps are usually drawn to a scale of Rhine-land roods:  
12 Rhine-land inches = 1 Rh. foot = 1-033 statute feet = 0-3418 metre.  
1 Rh. foot = 1 Rh. rood = 12-306 statute feet = 3-78 metres.  
2,000 Rh. roads = 1 Rh. mile = 4-685 statute miles = 0-437 kilometres.  
5 Rh. miles = 1 degree of latitude = 68-7 statute miles at the Equator and 60-4 statute miles at the Poles.  
900 acres = 1 square Rh. rood = 1 morgen = 2-105 acres = 0-856 hectare.  
1 metre = 39-37 inches = 3-28 feet = 1-041 yards.  
To convert yards to metres, multiply by 0-914.  
1 kilometre = 3537-79 inches = 1003-033 yards.  
To convert miles to kilometres, multiply by 1-609, or roughly, divide by 5 and multiply by 8.  
1 hectare = 2-471 acres = 19,960-333 square yards.  
To convert acres to hectares multiply by 0-405.
MAPS
ERRATA

Map. 11. The Eastern Frontier, 1795-1858.
The area between Fort Beaufort boundary, the Black Kei and Klipplaats rivers should be shown as 'Detached portion of Victoria East'.
For Bruinjes read Bruintjes.

Map. 16. Orange Free State, 1846-1900.
For Drakensberg read Drakensberg.

Map. 18a. S. A. Republic, 1837-1900.
After KLEIN VRIJSTAAT read 1890.

Map. 21a. Map of Union showing European Population 1911, &c.
For Pietersburg read Pietersburg.

For Spencer Bay read Spencer Bay.

Mayotte should be underlined with purple (French), as are Comoro, Diego Suarez, &c. Islands off the coast of G.S.W. Africa should be underlined with yellow (British).
The GREAT TREK '1836-46

- Republic of Natal-1845
- Cape Colony-1830 and Natal-1845
- Klip River Republic
- Griqua, Basuto and Toko Treaty States

English Miles

- Area wasted by Zulu, Matabel and Matabele and Manatis-1817-37
- Republic of Natal-1840
- Winburg - Potchefstroom-1840
- Linn; Miles; A.

Clarendon Press, Oxford
ORANGE FREE STATE 1846-1900

- Adam Kok's Reserve, 1846
- Alienable Lands, 1846
- O.R. Sovereignty, 1848
- Native Reserves, with date of acquisition
- The Conquered Territory, 1866
- N. Waterbor's Sovereignty
- Campbell Lands annexed, 1870
- Kip River Award, 1871
- C.P. Pretorius, 1876

English Miles

BASUTOLAND 1833-71

- Napier's Line, 1843
- Proposed S. Line, 1845
- Smith's Modification of Napier's Line, 1848
- Warden's Reserves, 1849
- 1st Treaty of Aliwal North, 1855
- Treaty of Thaba Bosigo, 1868
- 2nd Treaty of Aliwal North, 1869
- As annexed to Cape Colony, 1871

English Miles